INFLUENCE OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING ON YOUTH EMPLOYMENT: A CASE OF MAARA DISTRICT IN THARAKA NITHI COUNTY.

BY

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DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

This research project report is my original work and has not, to the best of my knowledge, been presented to any other examination body or university

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This research project report has been submitted for defence with my approval as the University supervisor

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my Dear wife Mrs Eunice Nyawira Kariuki and my lovely daughters Lisa Wanjiku and Juliet Nyanjau for their encouragement and tolerance during my absence.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to take this opportunity to sincerely thank all those who played a role in writing this research project. My immeasurable thanks and appreciation go to The Almighty God for giving me the opportunity, peace and good health to write this work. Special thanks go to my supervisor Dr. Harriet J. Kidombo for her able guidance, encouragement and working tirelessly to shape this work. I am also indebted to Mr Chandi J. Rugendo the resident lecturer and his dedicated members of staff for their valuable advice and counsel in making this work a reality. I in particular treasure their encouragement and allowing me to use their resources. This was a privilege that I do not take for granted. To my colleagues in the Ministry of Youth affairs and Sports, I most sincerely thank you for your understanding, support and prayers.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CTE	Career and Technical Education
DYT	Department of Youth Training
ICT	Information Communication and Technology
IGA	Income Generating Activities
ILO	International Labour Organisation
KIDDP	Kenya Italy Debt for Development Programme
LDC	Least Developed Countries
MOYAS	Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports
SSCEP	Secondary Schools Community Extension Project
TVET	Technical Vocational Education and Training
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisations
UNHABITAT	UN agency for Human Settlements Programmes
UIS	UNESCO Institute of Statistic

ABSTRACT

The government has made several attempts in an effort to reduce unemployment. One of them is provision of skills through vocational training. Much focus has been on revamping the youth polytechnics through the Ministry of youth affairs and sports to train school leavers without skills. This study sought to assess the influence of vocational training offered in the village Youth polytechnics on youth employment. To assess this, the study examined the influence of quality of training, duration of training, type of course and entry level of trainees on employability of graduate trainees. To achieve this, a total of 173 respondents comprising of 8 managers, 15 instructors and 150 graduate trainees were sampled. The study employed questionnaires, interviews and documentary analysis to collect information from respondents in Maara District, Tharaka Nithi County. As it was difficult to locate graduate trainees working outside the district, snowballing method was used to reach those working in far off locations

The data analysis consists of examining the evidence so as to address the initial proposition of the study. The study employed both qualitative and quantitative methods of data analysis. Cross data tabulations, percentages and frequencies were used determine associations between the dependent and independent variables. The findings revealed that there was an influence of the type of course, quality of training and entry behaviour of trainee on youth employment. However, the duration of course did not have a significant influence on youth employment. In conclusion the study summarised that vocational training had an influence on youth employment. The findings of the study were to be used to inform policy making both by the government and development partners. The study was also to form a foundation for further research pertaining to vocational training and youth employment.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Creation of adequate employment opportunities remain one of the greatest challenges in Kenya and indeed in many other countries of the world. A 2009 Report by the International Labour Organization (ILO) estimated, for example, that the world unemployment has remained almost constant at an average of 6.1 per cent over the eleven-year period between 1998 and 2008. In 2008, the world unemployment stood at 6 per cent in 2008 up from 5.7 per cent in 2007. Globally, the number of youth unemployed increased to 76 million with the youth-adult employment ratio remaining almost constant at 2.8 (ILO, 2009). According to the Report, the rate of unemployment in Sub-Saharan Africa eased marginally from an eleven year (1998-2008) average of 8.1 per cent to 7.9 per cent in 2008, with the youth bearing a relatively large burden of the unemployment.

The scenario is not any different in Kenya where the employment challenge has been growing overtime with the youth being the main casualties (Republic of Kenya, 2008b&c). At independence in 1963, the Kenya government identified poverty and unemployment as the twin challenges facing the country. More than forty seven years later and despite numerous policy efforts, poverty and unemployment continue to afflict many Kenyans. Millions of Kenyans especially youth and women are unemployed, underemployed or are in the swelling ranks of the working poor. According to the Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey (KIHBS, 2005/06), 12.7 million out of the 14.6 million labour force were reported as employed with the remaining 1.9 million people being openly unemployed. Approximately 67 per cent of the unemployed in the country were the youth (Republic of Kenya, 2008).

A number of policy interventions have been formulated and variously implemented, since independence, to address the growing employment problem in Kenya. Key among these policies is the growth-oriented development strategy augmented by a high wage and Kenyanization of policies adopted at independence (Republic of Kenya, 1964). The government also undertook to engage in direct employment creation, regulate wages, operate employment exchange programmes, improve labour market information systems, and re-orient education and training systems to vocational and technical training areas as a means of promoting employment creation

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Vocational training is training for a specific career or trade, excluding the professions. It focuses on practical application of skills learned and is generally unconcerned with the theory or traditional academic skills. Vocational training thus provides a link between education and the working world. This is usually provided in most youth polytechnics where students go out with training on carpentry, masonry, tailoring among others. Therefore, one comes out of the institution ready for employment.

The Ministry of Youth affairs (MOYAS) through the Department of Youth Training (DYT) has made vocational training more attractive to youth. One of the department's core functions is to rehabilitate and refurbish the youth polytechnics with a view of empowering the youth with market driven technical and entrepreneurship skills. This has been made possible through various interventions by the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports. Since its inception about six years ago, the ministry has equipped a reasonable number of youth polytechnics with tools and equipment countrywide. Also, there has been deployment of about 4000 instructors to the polytechnics countrywide and development of curricular for twelve courses among them information and communications technology (ICT).

All these are meant to ensure provision of appropriate and quality vocational and technical training in the YPs. This will also make the youth to be in tune with current employment in the country. To enhance productivity, stimulate competitiveness and bring about economic development, skill development is important. Technical vocational education and training (TVET) is the provision of the skills, knowledge, attitude and values needed at the place of work. In contrast to general education, learning TVET is centred on applied as opposed to academics, practical as opposed to theory and skills as opposed to knowledge. TVET provided by YPs is meant to prepare learners for careers based on manual and practical activities (Amkombe, 2000). TVET relates to a specific trade in which the learner participates, hence the term vocational means that the learner directly develops expertise in a practical group of techniques (Tum, 1996).

Skills' training is critical for sustainable industrialization and poverty reduction in terms of creating a critical means of technically and entrepreneurially qualified people, who are able to stimulate investment opportunities, create jobs and increase productivity. A well trained and educated workforce is a prerequisite for harnessing the potential of competitiveness and industrialization (Rao, 1996). Other researchers argue that undeveloped human resources are an important obstacle to economic development of the least developed countries (LDCs).

According to Jhigan (1985), the economic quality production remains low when there is little knowledge of available natural resources, possible alternative production techniques, necessary skills, existing market conditions and opportunities and institutions that might be created to favour economizing effort and economic rationality.

Today, more than ever the role of training and especially post primary training is critical because of the changes taking place in the world. Rapid technological changes and globalization have made training of the workforce a prerequisite in any nation that wishes to survive. To counter the impacts of globalization, every country must invest in human capital. Investing in training leads to acquisition of skills that raise labour productivity. In addition, training allows promotion of new technological development. Globalization places a lot of pressure on not only the economics but also the enterprises and individuals to become competitive. Higher level of skills is therefore a core factor in enhancing and enabling the necessary response. Training is therefore required continuously throughout working life to enhance employability of the individual and collectively the flexibility of the workforce.

This means that training should equip people with skills and competences they require to be employable or to create their own jobs. TVET has the capacity to offer this much needed practical training in Africa to meet the challenges brought by technological changes and globalization. African countries face a myriad of problems that cause or are a cause of underdevelopment. Among them are rural-urban migration, unemployment, theoretical based education systems and declining jobs in the formal sector.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Creating decent work for young people is challenging. The International Labour Organization (ILO) estimates that at least 400 million decent and productive employment opportunities will be needed to achieve the full employment potential of today's young women and men (ILO, 2006). Focusing on youth therefore is a must for any country keen on tackling this problem of youth unemployment but creating jobs for youth is not enough. Across the planet, youth are not only finding it difficult if not impossible to find jobs, but are finding it even more difficult to find decent jobs. What young people need today is not only a job, but a job that enables them to make contributions as workers, citizens and agents of change.

Unemployment is much higher among the young and increasingly more among educated in the 15 to 24 age bracket (Todaro 1992). In Kenya, the youth constitute 64% of the population

which culminates to 45% of the country's labour force (Kenya Economic Survey, 2003). This has led to high dependence ratio standing at 92% for every economically active person, again the majority being the youth who constitute 52% (Ibid).

In 1999 public sector employment declined from 36% to 21% and in the informal sector employment increased from 65% in 1997 to 72% in 2001 (Kenya 2005). Therefore the informal sector has a lot of potential to create jobs, develop future entrepreneurs and produce quality and attractively priced products. Unfortunately there is consistent lack of adequate and appropriate technical and vocational skills in this sector, thus limiting its ability to contribute in the creation of jobs and income generating activities (IGAs). This also affects the quality of goods and services produced by reducing their competitiveness in a global market. This study therefore sought to investigate the influence of vocational training offered in village youth polytechnics on youth employment in Maara District, Tharaka Nithi County.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The study was aimed at finding out the influence of vocational training offered in village youth polytechnics on youth employment. It was also to establish the effect of the quality of training, entry level of the trainee, type of course and its duration on employability of the youth.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following objectives

1. To establish the influence of the type of course in the youth polytechnics on employment of the youth
2. To determine the influence of the duration of a course at the youth polytechnics on employment of the youth
3. To evaluate the influence of the quality of training by the youth polytechnics on employment of the youth
4. To establish the influence of the entry level of learners into the youth polytechnics on employment of the youth

1.5 Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions

a) How does the type of course offered at the youth polytechnics affect the employment of the youth?

b) In what way does the duration of training at the youth polytechnics affect the employment of the youth?

c) How does quality of training by the youth polytechnics affect the chances of youth employment?

d) How does the entry level into the youth polytechnics have a bearing on the employment of the youth?

1.6 The Significance of the Study

Vocational training offers training for specific jobs. The maintenance of a viable economy in an industrial society depends in part on the method by which its youth are furnished with the skills and motivation necessary for their entrance into the labour force. This has been made possible by the existence of youth polytechnics; in various parts which provide various trainings. The educational labour market should help the society's youth to choose, prepare for and enter an occupation or vocation. Industrial societies having complex economic structures develop and make use of vocational counselling and employment services as methods of allocating the available manpower and helping their entrance into the labour force. This has been in line with the mission of the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports through the Department of Youth Training.

This study and its findings were considered important to provide insight into the various youth training practices needed to successfully transform youth employment in Kenya. Relevant to the issues above, this study intended to generate a new framework for further research pertaining to TVET and other performance relationships in youth employment and empowerment. From a practical perspective, the findings of this study were useful to inform policy making by the top management particularly those at the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports.

1.7 Delimitation of the study

The study analysed some of the fundamental aspects which rotate around the many issues affecting the youth in Kenya. It was conducted in Maara District in Tharaka Nithi County. Much focus was on factors affecting youth training in the various youth polytechnics in the district as a reflection to the country as a whole. Issues of policy on youth training were of great interest to the study to establish a link between various trades offered at the youth polytechnics with the available manpower

The study focused on sampled graduates of youth polytechnic, instructors and managers. All the eight YP managers were also interviewed. The study ignored other types of vocational training offered by other institutions of higher learning.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The major challenge of this study was locating past graduate trainees of the youth polytechnics. To overcome this, the study used snowball method where available graduates assisted in locating the others working outside the district through the phone. Secondly, the study, whose results were generalised, was carried out in one district as compared to about 285 districts in the country.

1.9 Assumptions of the study

The study was carried out with assumptions that the trainees upon completion of the course at the YP did not pursue further training in an institution of higher learning which can influence their employability, and if they took they will be truthful. The study also assumed that the graduates were employed because of the skills they acquired from the YPs and not any other skills and finally, the youth completed the mandatory recommended course.

1.10 Definitions of Significant Term

Employment	Full time work done to earn money. It can either be self or by an organizations.
Employability	Having the skills and qualifications that will make somebody Want to employ you
Youth	A person whose age lies between 18 and 35 years.
Youth polytechnic	Formal institutions that train youth on skills necessary for a particular job.
Vocational Training	Knowledge and skills acquired to do a particular job
Entry level	Current knowledge, skills and background of the learner at the start of the course
Quality training	Teaching of high standard skills and knowledge
Duration of course	Period taken to complete a course

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The main aim of the literature review in this study is to acknowledge the input of other researchers in their contributions to the body of knowledge in order to shed some light on the topic of discussion. In this study, empirical and theoretical literature by various researchers and authors as it relates or is in support of the study on the influence of youth training offered in village youth polytechnics on youth employment are reviewed. The chapter discusses unemployment and vocational training in Kenya, education and training according to vision 2030, TVET in other countries, entry behaviour of trainees and the quality of technical education in America.

2.1.1 Unemployment and Vocational Education in Kenya

Kenya has a large number of people looking for secure jobs but cannot find them," says Noah Chune, chief economist and director of research and education at the Central Organization of Trade Unions–Kenya, COTU-K. "The danger is that they will become fed-up and remove themselves from the labor market."Chune warns that many currently seeking jobs may lose their applicable job skills, like technology skills that fast become out-dated, and their employment prospects will continue to worsen. Such concerns are understandable in the wake of the new ILO report that cast a gloomy picture on youth unemployment. According to the Ministry of Youth and Sports, there are only 125,000 young people, 18-35 registered with formal employment nationwide, among Kenya's population of nearly 39 million. The ministry of labour, Kenya, puts the figure of unemployed youth at 1.9 million, with the majority of the unemployed between the ages of 15 and 24. According to the, ministry the government has not been able to create enough job opportunities for millions of youth entering the job market annually. About 750,000 students who graduate from educational institutions each year will continue to flood the unemployment lines. Chune says one reason new graduates struggle to find a job is because they still lack the necessary skills to compete in some markets. "Currently, the educational system produces graduates who lack the necessary skills to compete in the labour market," Chune says. "There is a demand for new types of knowledge, skills, and expertise that are lacking in the existing labour force. Therefore, unemployment is not just a lack of jobs, but also lack of job skills due to

inadequacy of training infrastructure. Many lack the means to acquire skills because of high levels of poverty", ILO (2007).

Investing in a strong, public technical vocational education and training (TVET) sector must be crucial in knowledge-based societies as well as in developing countries. As the UNESCO Revised Recommendation on Technical and Vocational Education and Training notes; 'Given the immense scientific, technological and socio-economic development, either in progress or envisaged, which characterizes the present era, particularly globalization and the revolution in information and communication technology, technical and vocational education should be a vital aspect of the educational process in all countries' (UNESCO, 2001). Therefore TVET is important as it enriches a person for life and it provides the competences which are necessary in a democratic society. Societal and economic development depends on the strength of TVET as it provides access to skills and entry routes into the labour market. For under-privileged and marginalized groups in particular, it can be an important route towards a better life.The sheer size of the TVET sector in some parts of the world should confirm its importance. Even though there exist huge problems in terms of data collection, the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) has found that in both Europe and Oceania, more than sixty percent of pupils in upper secondary education, weighted by school-age population, are enrolled in TVET programmes, with the rest of the world hovering around ten percent (UIS, 2006).

Defining TVET as a sector within the education system poses a number of difficulties. For the most part, general and academic education is seen as that which builds analytical skills, knowledge and critical thinking, while TVET develops craftsmanship practical experience and practical problem-solving. However, this simple distinction does not hold up to scrutiny. Critical thinking and analytical skills are needed in the case of a good plumber or electrician who must routinely make judgments in order to solve problems. Equally, a good surgeon needs a large set of practical skills to masterfully operate a patient. These simple distinctions can also lead to confusion and academic drift of vocational institutions (Neave, 1978) or a vocationalization of higher education (Williams, 1985).

In many countries, vocational education is introduced as a compulsory component of the school curriculum. In the United States, for example, high school graduates pick up as many as 20 per cent of their credits from vocational subjects. Similar programmes exist in Australia (Centre for workplace learning, 1995) and Great Britain. There is also a tradition of quite

separate TVET schools running alongside the general secondary school. Such programmes generally cater for early school dropouts who are unable to cope with academic education. Similar programmes were attempted in some countries of PINs, but the magnet of the academic schools has affected these initiatives considerably. For example, the Secondary Schools Community Extension Project (SSCEP) in PNG (Crossley, 1990), the junior secondary schools in Fiji (Tavola, 1991), the community high schools in Tuvalu (Tewei, 1985) and the new secondary schools in the Solomon Islands (Thaman, 1989) with a vocational focus now exist as a poor replica of their of urban secondary counterparts or have been discontinued.

2.1.2 Education and Training- Kenya Vision 2030

According to the Kenya vision 2030, Kenya recognises that the education and training of all is fundamental to the success of the Vision. Education equips citizens with understanding and knowledge that enables them to make informed choices about their lives and those facing Kenyan society. The education sector will therefore, provide the skills that will be required to steer Kenyans to the economic and social goals of Vision 2030. The first immediate challenge facing the sector in Kenya's transformation to 2030 in how to meet the human resource requirements for a rapidly changing and more diverse economy. The next challenge is to ensure that the education provided meets high quality standards, and that its contents are relevant to the needs of the economy and society. The third challenge to move rapidly in raising the standards of the regions that lag behind in enrolment to bring them to par with other areas. This is another way of reinstating the goal of universal school enrolment to which Kenya is committed. A fourth challenge lies in improving the overall transition rates, particularly from secondary to tertiary levels. The fifth, and perhaps the most daunting challenge, is to create a cohesive society imbued with a culture of hard work and efficiency and one that values transparency and accountability, respects the rules of law, and is concerned about the environment. The education and training sector will be charged with the responsibility of creating a knowledge-based society that upholds justice democracy, accountability and encourages issue-based and results-oriented political engagements. Various interventions will be undertaken to inculcate a culture that upholds the supremacy and respect for the rule of law, one which promotes national pride, positive behaviour, a strong work ethic and a culture of saving, and which promotes attitudes favourable to environmental conservation.

The education sector will therefore be reformed in order to respond to these challenges. Indeed, some of the reforms had already been initiated by Government since 2002. Kenya's education sector will require human resource for the priority growth sectors. Investments in education will make significant contributions to other social sectors of the vision, particularly health, water and sanitation, the environment and housing. It will also help the country to address gender; youth related Problems and obstacles facing other vulnerable groups by equipping them with the skills that will enable them to live more productive and satisfying lives in an expanding and diverse economy.

In order to meet the education and training requirements of the vision some of the challenges include firstly, expanding access and equity. Despite recent improvements, high disparities in access to education at all levels remain a challenge. Though present at primary levels, the problem is most acute in technical, industrial, vocational and entrepreneurship training (TIVET) institutions and at university level. Considerable investments will, therefore, have to be made by both the public and private sectors to correct these disparities. Secondly, matching skills to market demand. This is a challenge at all levels. Many primary and secondary students who cannot proceed with formal education are absorbed by TIVET institutions. However, the training at this level has between hindered by inadequate facilities as well as institutions; hence most young people end up in the informal Jua Kali sector. This problem, the mismatch between the level of skills imparted by the education system as whole, and the requirements of the labour market, must be corrected in order to meet the demands of the new economy.

In anticipation of the expected increase in primary and secondary school output, institutions will play a critical role in the production of skills that are required to achieve the goals and objectives of this vision. The government will upgrade TIVET institutions to enable them to provide training in skills consistent with emerging technologies and also introduce a national system of certification. The government will also introduce a system of accrediting private sector institutions involved in TIVET. This will equip the informal sector with the technical capacity required to transform into small – and medium-enterprises, thus enabling them to integrate into the modern economy. The training at this level; will also be linked to higher institutions of learning and should be recognised as a bridging course for higher skills certification. Lastly building a skills inventory for Kenyans. A major challenge facing the Government and labour market is the absence of skills inventory that would indicate the distribution of well-trained Kenyans. This applies especially to Kenyans possessing TIVET

and university level education. Such a database is an indispensable tool for planning the country's future training programmes. It will also identify the existing gap in human resource requirements in all the sectors and thus guide priorities in where to train. To ensure that the training at both the TIVET and university level remains relevant, there will be regular updating of the national skills inventory.

2.1.3 The Role of Science, Technology and Innovation

The vision recognises the role of science technology and innovation (STI) in a modern economy, in which new knowledge plays a central role in boosting wealth creation, social welfare and international competitiveness. There are four elements that allow effective exploitation of knowledge. First and foremost is an economic and institutional regime that provides incentives for the efficient use of the existing knowledge, creation of new knowledge, and the flourishing of entrepreneurship. Secondly an educated and skilled population that can create share and use knowledge well, thirdly a dynamic information and communication infrastructure that can facilitate processing , communication, dissemination; and finally, an effective innovation system (i.e. a network of research centres, universities, think tanks, private enterprises and community groups) that can tap into the growing stock, of global knowledge, assimilate and adapt it to local needs, while creating new knowledge and technologies as appropriate.

Kenya intends to become a knowledge-led economy wherein the creation, adaptation and use of knowledge will be among the most critical factors for rapid economic growth. Science, technology and innovation will be mainstreamed in all sectors of the economy through carefully targeted investments. This will create a strong base for enhanced efficiency, sustained growth and promotion of value addition in goods and services. To achieve that objective, additional investments must be made in STI.

The vision proposes a number of strategies for promoting science, technology and innovation. First and foremost is strengthening technical capabilities. Kenya will strengthen her overall STI capacity. This will focus on the creation of better production processes, with strong emphasis on technological learning. The capacities of STI institutions will be enhanced through advanced training of personnel, improved infrastructure, equipment, and through strengthening linkages with actors in the productive sectors. Secondly, measures will be taken to improve national pool of skills and talent through training that is relevant to the needs of the economy. Thirdly, efforts will be made to ensure intensification of innovation in

priority sectors. To intensify innovation, there will be increased funding for basic and applied research at higher institutions of learning and for research and development in collaboration with industries. Furthermore, measures will be taken to coordinate research activities among the various institutions to ensure synergy and avoid duplication. Lastly, in view of the importance of STI in society, efforts will be made to promote awareness of new ideas and discoveries to the general public.

2.1.4 The Concept of Technical Vocational Education and Training

TVET is a concept that encompasses a diverse array of programmes and activities. It emphasises both education and training, and extends beyond schools, post-school institutions and work place enterprises to community-based non-formal education systems. There is, therefore, a considerable variety of locations in which TVET is pursued. There is also variety in its target clientele, who not only represent a diverse age range -child to adult - but also have different response-capacities and socio-economic and cultural backgrounds.

In order to address the diverse needs of these clients, TVET offers a considerable range of programmes across countries as well as within them. The extreme diversity of TVET programmes is reflected in their forms, structures, educational technologies, curricula, pedagogy, management, resourcing and funding. Another important thread that runs through much of the discussion on this topic relates to its theoretical underpinnings. First, TVET can claim its justification from Dewey's pragmatist philosophy. Dewey emphasises that learning should be directly relevant to the active interests and concerns which pupils have - or will develop in future - in their out-of-school life, in their private lives and in their future roles as workers and citizens. Secondly, support for TVET can also be found in the concept of polytechnic education that was inspired by Marxist principles. This concept seeks to integrate 'theory' (academic studies) and 'practice' (vocational training), stressing the educative dimensions of both study and work. This socialist rhetoric has shaped education systems in many developing countries, such as China, India, Botswana, Tanzania and Kenya. An example of this is 'education with production' in Botswana.

The third justification for TVET can be drawn from populist or egalitarian ideas. Here, the argument mainly rests on the need for equality of educational opportunity and it opposes any form of elitism. Other motives, such as economic, political, at both macro, and micro levels (Hoyle, 1986; Sharma, 1999b), have also influenced the establishment of TVET programmes in many developing countries, including the PINs. Such issues point to the difficulty in

defining TVET. It can mean different things to different people depending on the perceptions they hold of education, development and employment. The ambiguous nature of the concept of TVET is further accentuated because it has overlapped with certain other related concepts, such as non-formal education, continuing education, adult education and distance learning at various times and locations.

The following UNESCO definition of TVET, however, contributes significantly to our understanding of the term i.e. a comprehensive term referring to those aspects of the educational process involving, in addition to general education, the study of technologies and related sciences, and the acquisition of practical skills, attitudes and understanding and knowledge related to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life (UNESCO, 2002). From this wide perspective three particular orientations emerge. The first is concerned with training for identified jobs. It is closely connected to the 'human capital development' approach that is still popular in some countries. The emphasis here is on preparing human resources for projected employment opportunities. However, jobs do not often materialize, owing to changing circumstances or the limited number of jobs in the modern wage sector.

The next orientation focuses on job creation. It is largely concerned with an attempt to prepare human resources for self-owned and self-managed enterprises, especially in the informal sector. This orientation often fails to realise its full potential because the informal sector is unable to provide or generate gainful employment opportunities for the many graduates of TVET programmes. The third orientation, namely on-the-job- training, is concerned with upgrading the level of available skills by means of pre-service and in-service training programmes. Such programmes, however, often encounter problems because the work sector does not keep pace with changes to accommodate the high-level skills acquired.

The question of 'genuine' education as distinguished from technical training was raised by societies in the fifth century B.C, and the issue remains lively today. These ideas shaped the classic Greek view of knowledge and education. First, education is the development of the power to think, not the acquisition of information. The educated man lives the examined life and education is the enlargement of understanding through the social process of questioning, and being questioned. Second, education is the quest for virtue rather than technical proficiency. Thus education looks to lasting truth based on reason and not to mere opinion as to practical knowledge that depends on changing utilities and circumstances. Two thousand years later, in his book Emile, the French Swiss Social Philosopher Jean Jacques Rousseau

(1932-1952) argued for less intellectualized more person cantered, more experience based concept of education. He held that education should point the uniqueness and worth of the individual, provide a setting within which the individual distinctive potential might develop and allow opportunity for learning through experience. Rousseau thought that practical arts could contribute to education not as a narrow training but as a resource for moral development.

The conflict between education and training takes place at all levels in education system. At lower levels it is all about child development and the three R's' (reading, writing and arithmetic) and at the higher levels humane on general education is fitted against professional specialization. Dewey (1952) believed that the dichotomy between education and training could be overcome if, in the study of practical disciplines, the students are encouraged to the whole range of intellectual issues raised by the subject matter (John Dawey, 1966).Melissa J. Doak says that vocational training offers training for specific jobs and it majorly begin in high schools where students are prepared to take high-paying and skilled jobs immediately. Graduates of trade or vocational schools have an advantage over informally trained job-seekers because an independent organization certifies that they have the skills needed to successfully perform specific skilled occupation.

2.1.5 History of Technical Vocational Education and its Importance

According to Grace (2004), Kenya, technical, vocational education and training has been used by several developed countries as an investment of development. Studies show that in Africa funding towards TVET is ad hoc and arbitral. Technical, Vocational Education and Training centers have been neglected or overtaken by institutions concentrating purely on academic education. In addition, people tend to view TVET in a negative way, as education and training meant for those who have failed in the society. Ironically, Africa has on the other hand relatively a large percentage of skilled yet unemployed people. This is as a result of declining employment in the public and private sector. On the other hand again Africa has a large cheap unskilled labour force, as a result of lack of education and training. However, the core role of TVET in enhancing the informed sector and in offering skills and knowledge to the unskilled has not been keenly appreciated in Africa.

TVET has the capacity to offer this much needed practical training in Africa to meet the challenges brought about by technological changes and globalization. African countries face a myriad of problems that cause or are a cause of underdevelopment. Among them rural-

urban migration, unemployment, theoretical based education systems and declining jobs in the formal sector. These are not the only problems facing African countries; however, these can be mitigated by the development of a well-established TVET system.

To enhance productivity, stimulate competitiveness and bring about economic development, skill development is important. Technical, Vocational Education and Training is the provision of skills knowledge, attitude and values needed for the place of work. In contrast, to the general education, learning in Technical Vocational Education and Training is centered in applied as opposed to academics, practical as opposed to knowledge. TVET is meant to prepare learners for careers based on manual and practical activities (Amkombe, 2000). It relates to a specific trade in which the learner participates hence the term vocational, while technical means that the learner directly develops expertise in a particular group of technique (Tum 1996).

Skill training is critical for sustainable industrialization and poverty reduction in terms of creating a critical mass of technically and entrepreneurially qualified people, who are able to stimulate investment opportunities, create jobs and increase productivity (Rao 1996). A well trained and educated workforce is a prerequisite for harnessing the potential of competitiveness and industrialization. Yet another researcher, Jhigan argues that undeveloped human resources are an important obstacle to economic development of least developed countries (LDCs). According to him, the economic quality of production remains low when there is little knowledge of available natural resources, possible alternative production techniques, necessary skills, existing market conditions and opportunities and institutions that might be created to favour economizing effort and economic rationality. Today more than ever the role of training and especially post-primary training is critical because of the changes taking place in the world. Rapid technological changes and globalization have made training of the workforce a prerequisite in any nation that wishes to survive.

Rapidly changing technologies involve a whole set of individual, organizational and societal factors. Changes in technology emphasize the need for more complex cognitive skills,"a strong back and weak mind will not permit any nation to compete in today's market place," (Goldstein and Ford, 2001). Goldstein and Ford argue that it is not simply a matter of literacy skills but the need for complex thinking skills. These include ability to assess information, understand work systems, deal with new technologies as the workplace changes and develop interpersonal skills. These are in addition to the 3Rs of reading, writing and arithmetic.

Increasing 'smart' machines increase the cognitive complexity for the human being. Jobs increasingly become complex due to technological and sophisticated systems.

Rothwell and kolb (1999), the increase in technology require a highly trained workforce to design and operate the systems. Rapid change in technology and development require a continuous learning philosophy. A commitment to training and continuous learning is therefore crucial for the labor force to remain competitive (ibid). The rapid changes in technology are compounded by movement from industrial to a knowledge society, 'in an industrial society the workers do not own their tools. But in knowledge society workers carry their own knowledge both in their heads and computers and they transport it from job to job. thus, rapid changes in society fuelled by technological developments calls for training systems that promote and deliver high quality just-in-time training.

Richardson (2001) says that due to globalization, the world has become a large village and this is reflected in nations, enterprises and in the life of workers. Globalization has both positive and negative impacts on the economies. For weaker economies, globalization may cause them go worse from effects of intense competition. Richardson argues that in a global economy the hitherto accepted 'infant industry economy' will no longer be sustained. Globalization will lead to mega-competition and may "hollow out" industries and have major impacts on labour markets. To counter the impacts of globalization, every country must invest in human capital. Investing in training leads to acquisition of skills that raise labour productivity and allow widespread use of existing technology, in addition training allows promotion of new technological development.

Globalization places a lot of pressure on not only the economies but also the enterprises and individuals to become competitive. A high level of skills is therefore a core factor in enhancing and enabling the necessary response. Training is therefore required throughout working life to enhance employability of the individual and collectively the flexibility of the workforce. This means the training should equip people with skills and competences they require to be employable or to create their own jobs.

2.1.6 Entry behaviour of Trainees

Their present capabilities are termed as entry behaviour. In the light of objectives set and the entry behaviour of the trainees, the learning event is designed. The purpose is to enable trainees to achieve the training objectives. The trainer, the trainees and the management might like to assess whether the objectives have been achieved. This stage is earmarked for

performance assessment. Participants come for training because there is a perceptible need to change, i.e., desired change, which will lead to improved performance. The training objective spells out what and how much change is required and in which direction. In order to bring about the change, one should, in the first place, understand where the trainees stand before the training. Hence specifically, before training takes place, it is important that the trainee should know he or she has a training need to perform a task effectively. Secondly, a standard of performance is available to define what the trainee should be able to do. Finally, and most important, the trainee must want to change - to acquire new knowledge, skills or attitudes to enable the task to be performed to the required standard.

Much of the success or failure of a training session will depend on the trainees. Consideration of their entry behaviour will enable one to plan a session that is effective for them, enabling the trainees to achieve the objective and preparing them for further learning events. It is important to consider the following about entry behaviour. Firstly the trainees' existing knowledge and previous learning experience. Remember that no adult is an empty vessel to be passively filled up. Awareness of existing knowledge will help you decide where your session will start, and the assumptions you can make about previous learning. Awareness of previous learning experiences will also alert about the trainees' likely attitude and willingness to learn. Secondly, individual differences between trainees. If a session is to be given only to one trainee, one can match the session to the trainee. You would sense the trainee's response to your explanation and adjust accordingly. As the learning group grows in number and individual differences in entry behaviour arise, it becomes more difficult to adjust your session to suit everyone's entry behaviour. Prior knowledge of the trainees should enable one to prepare a suitable and, therefore, a more effective session.

According to Smith (2003) entry behaviour falls in two principal classes namely basic aptitude and ability, and acquired knowledge and skills. In the short term, very little can be done to change the basic aptitudes and ability of the entering trainee. However, longer term results can suggest the need for different selection criteria. In addition to the entry test which is used to adjust the beginning point of a course, pretests for the instructional unit are developed to see to what extent students have already mastered the skills to be taught in the course. Provisions can be made for students to bypass certain blocks of instruction if they have already met the skills.

2.1.7 Instructors of Youth Polytechnics

The calibre and morale of the teachers and instructors are probably the most important factors in any training system. Trainers' influence on the trainees is often critical and at a time when rapid changes in technology are affecting almost every area of the economy, the need for good and motivated teachers is essential. The number of teachers produced so far has not been adequate.

Considerable concerns over training of instructors especially with regard to their low qualifications and lack of industrial experience has been raised. The training of staff themselves has voiced dissatisfaction with their poor conditions of service, lack of staff development programmes and poor career opportunities in the various studies and forum which have been organized to deliberate their concerns. Against this background, steps have to be taken for provision of appropriate training of trainers for vocational education and training. The key principle of this training will be to enable trained teachers to adjust to standards and assessment criteria as well as to adapt to technological and economic changes.

2.1.8 Youth Unemployment in Kenya

In Kenya, youth unemployment is a serious development issue. It is estimated that 64% of unemployed persons in Kenya are youth. Interestingly only 1.5% of the unemployed youth have formal education beyond secondary school level and of the remaining over 92% have no vocational or professional skills training and the majority are found in the rural areas. Due to inadequate employment and livelihood opportunities in rural areas the tendency is to migrate to urban centres to look for such opportunities. In reality, the high unemployment rate among youth who have completed basic education has become a sizeable social problem and a revaluation of education policy with reference to labour and industrial policy needs to be undertaken. The government envisages and intervention that involves a cross section of existing TVET institutions and provision of new technical training institutes across the country.

Kenya's economy continues to undergo a rapid transition from a predominantly traditional to a more modern economy in which skill acquisition continues and will be the main vehicle for employment. Future economic growth will therefore rely on the ability of the nation's workforce to apply advanced production technology and respond to changing demands of industry. This applies to both the formal and the informal sectors of the economy if they are to participate effectively in the process of development. Nevertheless, the capability of the

workforce mainly depends on their skills. On account of the foregoing, it is necessary to develop skills of the new entrants to the labour force as well as upgrade the skills of the existing labour force.

Employment creation is another major development concern. This slow growth in employment creation coupled with high growth rate of the working age population has led to a high unemployment rate particularly among the youth. One of the reasons for such high unemployment among the youth is the lack of employable skills. There are about 500,000 youth who enter the labour market every year but the country's training institutions are either inadequate or lack the essential facilities and technology to prepare students for the challenging market demands. Furthermore, due to slow economic growth, corruption and demand of experience by potential employers, over 75% remain unemployed. Financial investment shortages, defectiveness of system investment, lack of knowledge on school management, decrease of student's enrolment are major constraints connected to the vocational education sector. At the same time, the employment services suffer from limited resources and capacity to undertake survey to identify skills and adapt training programmes for the labour market.

In brief, reform of Kenya Technical Vocational Education and Training system has been pointed out as a key sector in the prevention and reduction of urban and rural poverty. In this framework, the Italian Development Cooperation thought the "Kenya Italy Debt for Development Programme" (KIDDP) came in to support the Kenyan government's strategy for the establishing of a sustainable and market-oriented vocational education system. The KIDDP is a ten-year development initiative aimed at converting official debt owed to Italy by Kenya into financial resources for the implementation of development projects for a total amount of Kshs 4.4 billion. The Programme supports development programmes on four main sectors namely: water and irrigation, health, education and urban development in six districts characterized by high poverty levels. The intervention of the KIDDP in the vocational training sector has the objective of supporting poverty reduction through the creation of jobs, the improvement of the Kenyan labour force skills, and the linkage between the education system and the labour market.

2.1.9 High Quality Career and Technical Education- American Youth Policy

According to Betsy Brand (2008) in his study "Supporting High Quality Career and Technical Education (CTE) through Federal and State policy" meant to inform American

youth policy, quality vocational training plays a vital role in economic development. The study provides ideas on how federal and state policies can support role of career and technical education (CTE) by providing meaningful, relevant and rigorous learning opportunities for all youth. Over the years, CTE has been an important learning option for many high school students.

Historically, career and technical education (or vocational education as it has been known) has prepared thousands of students for liveable-wage occupations after high school. Recently, CTE programs have revamped their curriculum to include more academic content and demonstrate more clearly how academic concepts are applied to technical or occupational settings. CTE supplements, enhances, and reinforces the teaching of academic content, especially science and mathematics, provides the context for learning academic skills, and demonstrates how theoretical and conceptual knowledge can be applied in real-world settings. It prepares students to pursue academic and technical studies at the postsecondary level and beyond.

The public and many policymakers tend to have a negative and/or out-dated image of CTE believing that CTE lacks academic rigor, leads to antiquated, undesirable, or low-paying jobs, limits access to college, and serves only low performing students. But this is not today's reality. Career and technical education is a strategy that can be effectively used to increase student engagement, improve high school attendance and graduation, supplement and enhance academic learning, develop applied skills, and allow students to earn college credit while in high school, prepare for postsecondary education, and gain necessary skills for careers.

Research shows that certain students who take CTE courses perform as well or better than students not in CTE programs, have lower dropout rates, and earn more money in the labor market. Other high quality research supported by the U.S. Department of Education has shown that students who take math-enhanced CTE courses perform at higher levels than students who do not. This growing research base is helping to build the case that CTE can improve student outcomes and serve a wide-range of students. Unfortunately, these studies receive little attention by national policymakers, researchers, educators, and the public at large. And, despite well publicized efforts like the National Association of Manufacturers' Dream It. Do It campaign to change the public's perception about manufacturing, teachers, parents, and guidance counsellors are still slow to encourage students to pursue high-skilled

manufacturing and other technical career tracks, despite the availability of high-wage, career ladder jobs.

The study recommended that research about the value of CTE and how it can improve student outcomes needs to be more widely disseminated to the broader educational enterprise and the public. Policymakers should use this research to inform the development of high school reform policies and programs. More high quality research about the value of CTE should be supported, particularly longitudinal research that examines student outcomes in postsecondary education and careers. Parent-teacher organizations and guidance counsellors should be key recipients of this information.

The quality of many CTE programs has improved as they have become more academically rigorous and strengthened connections to postsecondary education and the labor market. But high quality CTE programs are not accessible to every student that wants to pursue such studies, and there are still out-dated CTE programs that lack academic rigor and relevance to the labor market. As policymakers work to improve CTE programs, they must also pay attention to the distribution of these programs, so all students have access to high quality options. Measuring the quality of CTE programs is also a challenge.

Existing academic assessments do not take into account the unique features of CTE (preparation for employment and development of technical skills, for example), nor do they recognize the variation in CTE across industry clusters. There is also a lack of high quality interdisciplinary curriculum as well as a shortage of well-trained teachers (see above) to integrate academics and CTE, which are elements of high quality CTE programs.

The study recommended appropriate measurements need to be in place so that students, parents, postsecondary educators, and employers can gauge the quality and success of CTE programs. The federal government can assist by helping to develop model frameworks to measure the quality of CTE programs with assessments based on numerous factors, such as the number of instructors with industry credentials or availability of professional development on an on-going basis for academic and CTE teachers, etc. The federal government should provide funding and assist states in the development of their own quality assurance systems. These systems should support the development of strong CTE programs, shut down weak programs, and ensure an equitable distribution of high quality CTE programs across the state and within communities. These quality assessments should be developed with strong industry input to ensure relevance to the labor market. States should support efforts to

build the capacity of administrators and teachers (both regular and CTE) which is essential to creating and sustaining high quality CTE

With regard to the preparation of teachers, most colleges of education do not offer occupational or technical education programs and have limited knowledge about CTE, career clusters, career pathways, and performance-based assessments. Few schools of education focus on helping prospective teachers understand how knowledge is applied in real-world settings, so most teachers emerge from colleges of education prepared for general education, but not prepared to teach CTE or to help students learn how to apply knowledge. Because most colleges of education do not have a focus on CTE, there is a shortage of qualified CTE teachers. Also, most colleges of education do not help prospective teachers learn how to develop and execute quality CTE curriculum. As a result, many schools rely on industry experts to bring technical knowledge and skills into the classroom to supplement this lack of focus on CTE.

Once teachers are in the classroom, they need professional development on several fronts. First, if academic and CTE teachers expected to develop and use integrated curriculum and lesson plans, both groups of teachers need to learn new skills. Academic teachers need to become more adept at translating how theoretical or conceptual knowledge is applied and used in various real world settings, and CTE teachers need to learn how to use CTE instruction to supplement, enhance, and reinforce academic concepts and build in academic content where appropriate.

Professional development is also needed to help teachers understand the various models of curriculum integration, such as building in the application of knowledge in academic classes, building more academic concepts in technical curriculum, or creating blended lesson plans. All teachers need information on the development of interdisciplinary courses, and there should be a special focus on developing this curriculum in pre-engineering, information, and emerging technologies. All future teachers will need these skills. Another professional development need relates to student assessments and using multiple and varied assessments, not just standardized tests. Many academic teachers are not familiar with performance or competency-based assessments that are more commonly used in CTE, and they need to understand how these types of assessments can be aligned with and related to standardized academic assessments. Teachers need to understand the full range of skills on which students

should be assessed so they can develop integrated and competency-based curriculum and use a range of multiple assessments to measure these skills.

The study recommended that NCLB and Perkins both provide sizeable funding to states and school districts for teacher training and support programs. Professional development funds in NCLB should be made available for CTE teachers so that they might achieve the highly qualified status under NCLB. Both laws should ensure a focus on supporting teachers to develop integrated curriculum based on rigorous academics pegged to standards and the development of applied teaching and learning. Professional development should help CTE teachers learn more about the academic content they can supplement, reinforce, enhance, and apply in their classrooms, and help academic teachers learn how academic knowledge and concepts can be applied in technical settings. Language in NCLB and Perkins should be aligned and should encourage professional development on using multiple assessments, specifically performance- and competency-based assessments. Professional development efforts at the state level need to include all teachers from various disciplines so cross training occurs and teachers become knowledgeable about a range of instructional and pedagogical practices. States should encourage their colleges of education to offer classes and specialties in CTE and require that all prospective teachers be exposed to curriculum integration models and applied teaching and learning strategies.

Because of the shortage of qualified teachers, states and districts are offering a wider variety of certification programs for teachers, and others are trying to simplify and streamline the process, hoping to attract more individuals to the classroom. Ensuring that CTE teachers have industry credentials is an important requirement, to ensure quality instruction. But given the shortages of CTE teachers with necessary and current industry knowledge, many high schools and community colleges are bringing industry experts into the classroom as adjunct teachers to supplement the teaching workforce. Many school districts, particularly small, rural, and urban ones, are having difficulty in finding highly qualified teachers who teach in specialized areas, such as CTE teachers that also teach core academic subjects.

The study recommended programs that attract skilled individuals from industry to be full, part-time, or adjunct instructors in areas of labor market demand or science, mathematics, engineering, and technology should be created or expanded. These instructors need to have industry credentials, and then be given support and mentoring to allow them to provide effective instruction, either on their own, if certified, or in tandem with a certified teacher.

This should apply to both secondary and postsecondary institutions, and to the extent feasible, programs should support sharing of teachers between the two sectors. A national portable teacher credential for CTE would allow greater mobility across states and regions and might help even out teacher shortages in certain areas. The creation of portable CTE certificates would also help address shortages, and the federal government could help spur the development of such credentials in partnership with industry. State efforts, such as in California, to streamline the CTE teacher credentialing process can create incentives for CTE teachers by allowing them to move more easily across subject areas, making CTE teaching a more viable professional choice; provide districts with added flexibility, making it easier for districts to hire CTE teachers and expand CTE course offerings; and create a more transparent and approachable credentialing process, thus assisting recruitment efforts.

2.1.10 Technical education in Iraq

The main providers of the Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) sector in Iraq are the General Directorate of Vocational Education (GDVE) in the Ministry of Education, the Foundation of Technical Education, and Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs (MoLSA). GDVE is responsible for 250 vocational schools offering training and equipment to secondary schools (grade 12). These schools accommodate about 25,000 full time students annually. Overall, more than 95% of all technical and vocational training in Iraq is provided by public schools. The Foundation of Technical Education of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research is in charge of technical education at higher level.

The Directorate of Employment and Training of MoLSA has the political mandate to carry out the training and further education of unemployed youth and adults and redundant soldiers. It has access to a total of 16 Skill Centres for the purpose of training the above-mentioned target groups. These Skill Centres offer non-formal trainings beyond the formal educational system under the Ministry of Education. As such, the qualification needs of disadvantaged persons can be fulfilled very flexibly. Cooperation with the MoLSA guarantees appropriate access of the target groups. The "Employment" division, which is affiliated with the MoLSA, has the exclusive task of finding employment for graduates.

A major problem of the current Technical and Vocational Education environment is its fragmentation and the uncoordinated management and administration of each sub-system. There is a lack of an institutional framework to organize, articulate, integrate, regulate and ensure the quality of training interventions and programs. This often leads to unnecessary

duplication of efforts, and ineffective use of scarce training resources. In addition, the centralized decision-making structure in the Vocational Education System, coupled with generally weak management capacity at school level, contributes to the inefficient use of resources.

The TVET Programme, which is jointly implemented by UNESCO, ILO, and UNHABITAT, was designed to support the rehabilitation and modernization of the Technical and Vocational Education and Training sub-sector in Iraq by re-orienting and improving the TVET system so that it prepares young people effectively for wage and self-employment in the industrial, construction and service sectors of the economy. Major components of the programme, on which UNESCO is currently working, include design of a TVET policy document aiming at guiding the TVET sector reform and streamlining the TVET sub-sector in light of the labour market requirements. It will look into ways of Implementation of a short-cycle modular training "Skills for Work" programme consisting of modular training in selected vocational skills that are in high demand in the labour market, in order to achieve quick impact in terms of youth employment and self-employment.

To date, UNESCO implemented a three phase Governance programme which resulted in designing a new governance model for Iraq and an action plan to ensure that the new model is endorsed by the Iraqi Government and implemented. The main focus was on four main components; namely Governance, Organizational Framework, Quality Assurance, and Performance Assessment. One of the TVET programme's objectives is to have the Organizational Reform Plans developed and adopted in individual TVET schools, institutes, colleges and training centers by training senior Iraqi National Experts in the three ministries. This will facilitate the implementation of the changes in the TVET system. The TVET programme also aims to design a Program for Review and Renewal Framework and to produce a Manual for the Development of the TVET System in Iraq.

Vocational and Technical skills provision is being enhanced in all TVET public structures by conducting a short-cycle modular training "Skills for Work" programme, consisting of modular training in selected vocational skills that are in high demand in the labour market, in order to achieve quick impact in terms of youth employment and self-employment. Three contract training centres (CTCs) were established as pilot business units within the Foundation of Technical Education (FTE) in order to capture industries' needs. UNESCO is

also working to upgrade equipment in all three ministries according to needs of the stakeholders.

2.1.11 Quality of Technical education in India

The economic progress of a country is strongly linked to the Quality of education — more importantly in technical education. According to Aggarwal (2003) India has made rapid progress in the IT sector and has become a world leader. That prowess, however, does not mean that their technical education is at par with the best in the developed nations. They still have a long way to go and the National Board of Accreditation is pushing an agenda to upgrade the Quality of technical education in the country. Blair (2008) observed that unless technical education was upgraded and strengthened in Britain, technical jobs would be in the hands of the Indians and Chinese!

Richard Lugar (2003) observed that The educated middle class of India was more in numbers than the entire population of the United States therefore there was a need to understand their technical prowess. This raised a pertinent question whether they were really a technical powerhouse. Yes, the country churns out hundreds and thousands of technical students each year. What about their technical competence? It was only a decade ago that Indian information technology professionals came into prominence when they solved the Y2K problem to meet the challenges of computing to face the new millennium. However apart from the Y2K breakthrough, it has to be acknowledged that Western countries still lead in technological innovations, new discoveries and designs.

2.1.12 Financing Vocational Training

The provision of vocational education and training is very expensive not only for Government, but also for all providers of such training. Various studies have indicated that the private sector spends substantial amounts on training as they incur costs that are considerably higher than unit costs of many other sectors of the educational system such as primary and secondary education. Given the emphasis the training policy places on increased access and quality of training, it is likely that substantial resources will be needed. The policy

direction for financing of vocational education and training should therefore provide for broadening the funding base to generate more resources.

The effectiveness of any mode of financing to encourage increased vocational training will depend on the environment in which the training policy operates. If employers do not see the benefits of training their employees, they are less likely to invest in training or contribute to any training initiative. Even if they appreciate the benefits of training, they will not enthusiastically contribute if they perceive the training to be of poor quality. The Policy should therefore endeavour to satisfy the needs of all potential financing agents in order to achieve the objective of broadening the funding base. The financing strategies adopted must generate additional resources and provide sufficient incentives to stakeholders to undertake training. These strategies should also apply some cost-recovery measures to the extent desirable, and maximize cost effectiveness in training.

2.1.13 Links with Formal and Non-Formal Education

Due to the fragmented responsibilities in the current vocational education and training system, links with the other educational sectors are not well established Tayo (2001). Therefore preparation for entry into vocational education and training is not adequate because its educational requirements are not sufficiently clear to the other sub-sectors of the formal education system. On the other hand, the present education system does not provide completers of vocational education and training with the opportunity to further their education in higher institutions in the same way as it does for academic students UNESCO (2001)

In a modern society, the learning process is not completed with the passing of an examination at any one level within the system. The dynamic nature of the economy and society demands a life-long adaptation to technological and societal changes in order to cope with these developments. The current situation in the country shows that there is a need to create more awareness of the principle of life-long learning and to support it by appropriate measures.

Training opportunities however are not yet sufficient to meet the requirements of those who did not have access to the new technological developments during their formal training. Non-formal training is of particular value to address this issue. Few programmes have been developed to target the needs of the informal and the small business sectors. To include these

sectors into the concept of life-long learning appropriate training opportunities will be developed

In response to the rapidly changing nature of the workforce and the skills required to perform effectively within the changing context, schools are now being called upon to provide programmes that support greater understanding of the world of work. Such programmes are to equip students with those skills and abilities that they would need to use in their working lives. Greater school retention beyond the compulsory years of schooling, resulting partly from the lack of employment opportunities for early school-leavers, has added to this imperative. The post-compulsory curriculum, previously designed for a minority of students who aspire for higher education, no longer meets the needs of the increasing number of students staying on at school to improve their chances of meaningful and worthwhile employment.

In many countries it has been the employers and businesses themselves that have driven the quest for a more relevant curriculum and the development of higher skill levels amongst all school-leavers. The UNESCO Second International Congress on TVET, held in Korea in 1999, called for a new holistic approach... so that education for the twenty-first century will include all domains of learning incorporating general and vocational education to enable the learner to launch into a lifelong continuum of knowledge, values and attitudes, and competencies and skills (UNESCO, 1999)

Stemming from the socialist ideology, the diversification of the school system attempts to make structural changes in the school to facilitate the introduction of work-study programmes. The fundamental thinking behind this move is to implement the overall ideological goals through the re-orientation of student attitudes to both education and work. The vocationalisation of the existing school curriculum involves introducing practical, vocational and technical subjects into the school curriculum.

2.2 Theoretical framework

This study was grounded on social development theory by Garry and Harlan (1999) that advocates for employment as a fundamental human right and an obligation of the society or state. In earlier centuries the vast majority of people around the world were left to fend for their own economic survival. But the transformation of economic activity and social life in

this century and the increasing regulation of economic activity by government have made individuals increasing dependent for their economic survival environmental regulation. This led the International Commission on Peace and Food (ICPF) to conclude in its report, Uncommon Opportunities: An Agenda for peace and Equitable Development that employment must be guaranteed as a fundamental human right.

The theory recognizes that every society has a reservoir of unutilized and underutilized resources in terms of knowledge, skills, technology and values that can be harnessed to meet those needs. According to the authors, the current problems of youth unemployment in Europe and many developing countries are as a result of a complex mix of factors which can respond to policy initiatives. Shortage of skilled labour is a driving force for technological advancement and that technology is a net job creator and not vice versa

2.3 Conceptual Framework

Conceptual framework is a graphical representation of the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable (Mugenda & Mugenda 2003). This study concentrated on the one independent variable that is youth employment and four dependent variables. These are; the quality of training, the type of course undertaken, the duration of a course and finally the entry level of a trainee.

The mediating variable is the location of graduate trainees upon completion of the course. This includes rural versus urban areas, and industrial activities of a particular place. However this is not discussed in this study.

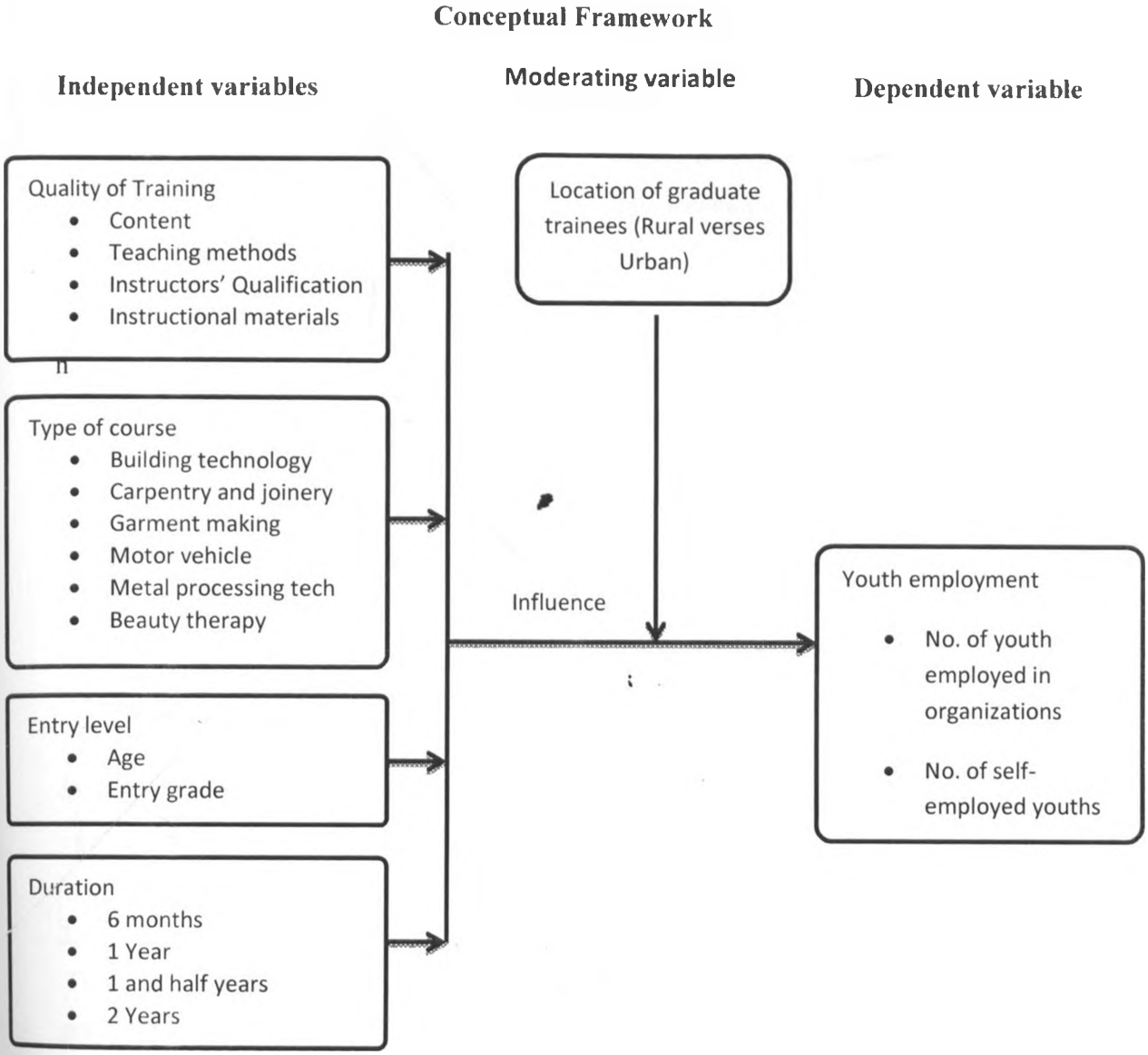

Figure 1: conceptual framework

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The chapter covers the research design plan for the project, population and sampling design, data collection method which was used, data analysis technique used to process the data for eventual report writing.

3.2 Research Design

A descriptive survey research design was adopted. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) survey strategy is a deductive approach popular in business research. The main advantage of this research design is the ability to collect large amounts of data from sizeable population in a highly economical way. Using this strategy which is designed to obtain precise information concerning the current status, valid general information about vocational training stakeholders in Maara District and the factors affecting performance and impact of the training were drawn. The descriptive research was adopted in order to have an in-depth and exhaustive investigation. The design involved both desk and field research. Desk research involved the collection of secondary data from libraries and internet sources for the purposes of literature review while field research involved collection of primary data by use of face to face administration of semi structured questionnaires.

3.3 Target Population

The target population of the study was 1558 comprising of instructors, managers and graduate trainees from Youth Polytechnics within the last five years in Maara District of Tharaka Nithi County. The last five years was based on the period when the ministry of youth affairs, since its inception, had instituted a lot of changes in an effort to improve the quality of training. It was also the period when the ministry fully took over the management and supervision of youth polytechnics. Population of study therefore consisted of the three types of interviewees i.e. instructors, managers and graduates of the YPs in the district.

Table 3.1 Sampling Frame

Type of Interviewee	Approx. Total population	Sample Frame
Instructors	50	15
Managers	8	8
Graduates	1500	150
TOTALS	**1558**	**173**

Source: District Youth officer- Maara

3.4 The sampling procedure

The sampling procedure used the above sampling frame to constitute a sample. The sample frame is a complete listing of all the sampling units or elements that can adequately represent that population (Franfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). However there is no such a complete formal list that can adequately satisfy a researcher as a sample frame (McDaniel Jr. and Gates, 1996). In such instances, they suggest that a researcher develops a sample frame that produces a representative sample of the population elements with the desired characteristics or attributes. Judgmental sampling was used to select the sample size from the population.

Table 3.2 Sampling Table

Type of interviewee	Approx. total population	% of selection	Sample Frame
Instructors	50	30%	15
Managers	8	100%	8
Graduates	1500	10%	150
Totals	**1558**		**173**

150 out of 1500 graduates were selected. This represented 10% of the population which is adequate according to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003). 15 out of 50 instructors and all the eight managers were interviewed. This represented 30% and 100% sample size respectively which was still within Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) threshold. An appropriate method which ensured that every trainee had an equal chance of participating was applied. The sample was picked randomly from the sample size.

As it was not easy to trace graduates of the YPs, snowballing method was used and those referred by their colleagues were reached mostly through telephone calls especially those who were not in the district. The element of convenience was also considered when selecting the sample to come up with both quantitative and qualitative information on the research.

3.5 Data collection method

Primary data were collected using questionnaires, interviews and documentary analysis. Questionnaires had both structured and unstructured questions. These questionnaires were administered to both instructors and graduate trainees. Interviews were unstructured and were conducted to managers and this gave them a chance to express themselves freely especially on matters relating to the quality of training. The study also employed documentary analysis to extract and confirm some information such as entry level of trainees from admission registers.

Questionnaires were administered by a competent research assistant appointed by the researcher, to the respondents. The respondents were given a time frame within which the administration of the questionnaire would be complete. Then the researcher would thank the respondents and once more assured them of the confidentiality of their information.

3.6 Reliability

Reliability refers to the degree to which instruments yield consistent results after repeated trials Mugenda and Mugenda (1998). Reliability is a necessary condition for validity. To increase the reliability of the data collected the study employed test-retest technique where the same instruments was administered twice to the same respondent comprising of 5 graduate trainees and 2 managers in a pilot study. Scores were assigned in each case and then compared. Eventually after tallying the instrument were concluded as reliable. The instruments were also presented to experts (my supervisor) to ascertain their face validity before administration.

3.7 Validity

Validity refers to the degree to which an instrument measures what it purports to measure Mugenda (2008). Validation of the data was done using content validity by crosschecking the data before analysis. Instrument validity was also ensured through test-retest technique and expert advice of the supervisor as mentioned earlier.

Table 3.3 **OPERATIONALIZATION OF VARIABLES**

Research question	**Type of variable**	**Indicators**	**Measurement**	**Level of scale**	**Tools for analysis**	**Type of analysis**
To what extent does the quality of training influence youth employment	Independent	• Ability to secure jobs in organizations • Ability to satisfy customers • Ability to start self-employment • Ability to secure market share.	• No. of youths employed in organizations. • Output/sales • No. of entrepreneurial ventures started • Sales volume	Nominal Ordinal Interval and Ratio	Frequencies and percentages	Descriptive
To what extent does the type of course influence youth employment	Independent	• Ability of graduate of certain course to secure jobs well-paying jobs • Ability of graduate of a certain course to start business	• No of youths employed in a certain trade test/course • No of businesses started by youth trained in certain course	Nominal Ordinal Interval and Ratio	Frequency and percentages	Descriptive
To what extent does the entry level of the learner influence youth	Independent	• Ability of youth of a particular level to secure jobs	• No of youths of a certain level to secure jobs • No of youths of a certain	Nominal, Ordinal, interval	Frequency and percentages	Descriptive

employment		• Ability of youths with a particular entry level to start self-jobs
To what extent does the duration of the course influence youth employment	Independent	• Ability of graduates who took a certain duration to secure jobs • Ability of graduates who took a certain duration to start self-employments

level to start self-employment	and Ratio		
• No of youths who took a certain duration to secure formal jobs • No of youths who took a certain duration to start self-jobs	Nominal, Ordinal, interval and Ratio	Frequency and percentages	Descriptive

3.8 Data analysis

The data analysis consists of examining the evidence so as to address the initial proposition of the study. Given the nature of the study objectives, a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis was appropriate. In qualitative analysis the study involved derivation of explanations and making use of interpretations of the findings basing on descriptions. The concern was on description of patterns and uniqueness in the data collected. Qualitative data was analysed based on a combination of results from the quantitative analysis and interviewer notes on the questionnaires. Quantitative analysis on the other hand involved the derivation of statistical descriptions and interpretations of the data by use of inferential statistics that relied purely on numerical values. It also involved making conclusions from numerical values through the process of quantification that can allow reliability, comparability, and validity of the findings. Cross tabulations, percentages and frequencies were used to determine associations between the independent and dependent variables in the objectives and research questions of the study. The data was analysed using statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). Percentages and frequencies were used for descriptive analysis.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with data analysis, presentation and interpretation of findings. It provides the overall findings based on primary and secondary data which was collected from the field using both open and close ended questionnaires and interviews. The data analysis was mainly descriptive using percentages, tables and frequency distribution to determine the relationship between independent and dependent variables.

4.2 Instrument response rate

A total of 173 questionnaires were administered and were all completed. The researcher and research assistants administered the questionnaires themselves achieving 100% response rate.

A. Descriptive analysis

4.3 General information on respondents

It involved presenting the general characteristics of the respondent which included gender, age, education level, marital status and duration stayed since completion of the course and relate it to youth training and employment.

4.3.1 Age of respondents

The data sought to find out the age of the respondents.

Table 4.1 Age of the respondents

Age bracket	Frequency	Percent
less than 20 years	66	63.5
21-30	25	24
31-40	9	8.7
41-50	2	1.9
More than 50	2	1.9
Total	**104**	**100.0**

The findings in the table above showed that most of the trainees joined the youth polytechnics when they were young and left early to engage in utilizing the skills they attained. It could also mean that they joined immediately after completing primary education without necessarily going through secondary.

4.3.2 Marital status

The data sought to establish marital status of the trainees

Table 4.2 Marital status

Status	Frequency	Percent
Married	16	16.2
Single	83	83.8
Divorced/separated	0	0
Total	**99**	**100.0**

The findings in the table 4.2 above indicated that majority had actually not attained the age for marriage since about two thirds of those interviewed were below twenty years of age and this goes in tandem with previous information depicted in terms of the ages of the respondents. In most of the communities in Kenya, people who are below twenty years are rarely in the marriage institution.

4.3.3 Gender of respondents

The data sought to establish the gender of the respondents

Table 4.3 Gender of respondents

Amount (Kshs.)	Frequency	Percent
Male	63	63
Female	37	37
Total	**99**	**100.0**

The table above showed that 63 per cent of those interviewed were men while 37 per cent were women. This depicted a situation where most of those who joined polytechnics were usually male maybe because of the fact that main courses at the polytechnics were manual which ladies shied away from. Even though there were many men as compared to women trainees, the gap was not very wide and if the trend continued the gap would be narrowed or completely sealed in the new future.

4.3.4 Duration since course completion

The data sought to establish the duration trainees had taken since leaving the training

Table 4.4 Duration since course completion

Amount (Kshs.)	Frequency	Percent
less than 1 year	33	33.3
1-3 years	55	55.9
3-5 years	5	5.4
More than 5 years	5	5.4
Total	**98**	**100.0**

The findings in the table above illustrated that majority of about 56 per cent said they had taken between 1 and 3 years since completing their courses. Another 33 per cent were fresh graduates having left in less than a year earlier and those who stayed for a relatively longer time constituted a small portion. This meant that many of those who could be found and participated in the study were those who had completed in a few years earlier and were still within the vicinity of the former institutions. This also had a bearing on students who attend polytechnics, which is that those who join the institutions are from the surrounding communities. This could be as a result of the fact that many polytechnics have no boarding facilities.

4.3.5 Course taken by graduate

The data sought to establish the courses which the graduates undertook in the polytechnics

Table 4.5 Course taken by graduate

Course taken	Frequency	Percentage
Building construction	18	18.6
Carpentry & joinery	11	11.3
Fashion design	25	25.8
MV technology	17	17.5
Metal processing	9	9.3
Beauty therapy	17	17.5
Total	**97**	**100.0**

The findings in the table above showed that courses were almost equally popular with trainees as about 26 per cent were trained in fashion design and garment making, another about 19 per cent trained in building technology, close 18 per cent were from beauty therapy and hair design, 17 per cent undertook motor vehicle technology, 11 per cent were trained in appropriate carpentry and joinery technology while 9 per cent studied metal processing technology. To the trainees this indicated all courses carry almost equal weight hence the reason why the respondents were fairly distributed across the courses. This was a good show that could go a long way to guide the management on what kind of courses are still relevant to the trainees.

4.3.6 Length of the course

The data sought to establish the duration the courses took.

Table 4.6 Length of the course

Length	Frequency	Percentage
6 months	2	1.9
1 year	2	1.9
1.5 years	0	0
2 years	98	96.2
Total	**102**	**100.0**

The findings in the table above showed an overwhelming 96.2 per cent of courses took two years while 1.9 per cent took six months and one year respectively. According to table 4.6 above, it was obvious that trainees were given enough time to train and sharpen their skills in their various trades with some practical work to make them fully prepared to face the challenges of life outside youth polytechnics. However there were small portions of trainees who took six months and one year and the fact that those ratios were insignificant told a lot about the seriousness with which trainees took on the duration of training.

4.3.7 Length of time trainee took to finish

The data sought to ascertain how long it took the graduates in the institutions

Table 4.7 Length of time trainee took to finish training

Length	Frequency	Percentage
6 months	7	10.1
1 year	4	5.8
1.5 years	0	0
2 years	58	84.1
Total	**69**	**100.0**

The findings in the table above showed that 84.1 per cent said they took two years meaning they actually completed their training. This also indicated that there were those who did not successfully complete their training and might have dropped out at some level due to various reasons. Another portion of 10 per cent took six months while 5.8 per cent took one year. All these were in tandem with an earlier finding which showed that most of the graduates trained in courses which last two years. The aim of this question was to capture those trainees who repeated or dropped out and then came back to complete or went away completely.

4.3.8 Body of Examination

The data sought to ascertain whether the trainees were examined and further establish the body that examined them

Table 4.8 Body of Examination

Examination body	Frequency	Percentage
KNEC	23	23
DIT	71	71
Internal	2	2
Other	4	4
Total	**100**	**100**

The table 4.8 above showed that an overwhelming 71 per cent were examined by Directorate of Industrial Training (DIT), 23 per cent were examined by KNEC while a mere 2 per cent were examined internally by their various youth polytechnics. This showed the Directorate of Industrial Training was the principal examiner as majority of their trainees were examined and certified by the directorate.

4.3.9 Course entry requirements

The data sought to ascertain whether there were course entry requirements for the various courses undertaken by graduates

Table 4.9 Course Entry Requirements

Requirements	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	78	78
No	22	22
Total	**100**	**100**

According to the above table an overwhelming 78 per cent answered to the affirmative while 22 per cent indicated that there were no entry requirements for the courses they studied. This indicated that in some of the YPs there were courses which did not require any entry qualifications for one to enroll, probably because the courses were practically oriented and trainees did not need formal certificates. It may also imply that those who joined already had the necessary experience hence not requiring any other qualifications.

4.3.10 Entry Requirements

The data sought to find out the nature of entry requirements before admission

Table 4.10 Entry Requirements

Requirements	Frequency	Percentage
KCPE / CPE	67	87.1
KCSE / KCE	8	10.4
KAC	0	0
Other	2	2.5
Total	**77**	**100.0**

According to table 4.10 above, 87.1 per cent indicated that for them to join the YPs they were to have primary school certificate while yet another smaller proportion of 10.4 per cent were to produce a secondary school certificate when seeking admission. This also showed that the YPs were bent on empowering those whose education standards were low for whatever reasons and the emphasis being on practical skills, the prospective trainees did not need to have very high qualifications as such.

4.3.11 Employment Status

The data sought to establish the employment status of the graduates

Table 4.11 Employment Status

Employed	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	92	89.3
No	11	10.7
Total	**103**	**100.0**

The findings in the table 4.11 above showed that an impressive 89 per cent were in employment while a paltry 11 per cent were the only ones who were still not engaged. This indicated a very good trend that goes a long way to show the employability of the graduates

further depicting applicability of the courses offered at the YPs. Employment whether self or formal, is a good indicator of the marketability of the courses offered in the YPs. Therefore the big portion who said that they were engaged implied that the courses were really marketable.

4.3.12 Kind of employment

The data sought to establish the nature of employment status of the past graduates

Table 4.12 Kind of Employment

Employment	Frequency	Percentage
Self employed	60	60.6
Formal employment	32	32.3
Other	7	7.1
Total	**99**	**100.0**

Having established employment status of the graduates, it was also necessary that the nature of the employment be also determined and according to findings on table 4.12 above, 60.6 per cent said they were self-employed, 32.3 per cent were in formal employment while 7.1 per cent were engaged in other forms of employment. This situation also depicted a human capital which was well trained to apply their skills to employ themselves and not necessarily seek for employment. This also goes well with the initial intention of starting the youth polytechnics because their aim was to equip youth with necessary skills for self-reliance.

4.3.13 Application of Knowledge gained

Another thing the researcher wanted to establish was whether the graduates were applying the skills gained at the YPs in their day to day activities. This was illustrated in the table below.

Table 4.13 Application of knowledge gained at YP

Application	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	80	80
No	20	20
Total	**100**	**100**

According to findings on table 4.13 above, 80 per cent said they apply the skills regularly in their course of work while 20 per cent said they do not apply the skills. This implied that as much as graduates may wish to apply the skills they may not be in the right jobs as they have to find something to do to fend for their lives as they look for where to apply the gained skills. Yet again this was an area of interest to majority of people as everybody was expected to apply gained skills but when it was not possible a graduate could not just idle around. He/she had to get a way of earning a living he/she sought for an engagement which was applicable to the skills.

4.3.14 What trainees liked about the course in YP

The data sought to ascertain what the trainee liked about the courses in the YP

Table 4.14 What trainee like about the course in YP

Like	Frequency	Percentage
Course content	43	42.2
Duration of course	12	11.8
Instructors	20	19.6
Management	15	14.6
Other	12	11.8
Total	**102**	**100.0**

Table 4.13 Application of knowledge gained at YP

Application	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	80	80
No	20	20
Total	**100**	**100**

According to findings on table 4.13 above, 80 per cent said they apply the skills regularly in their course of work while 20 per cent said they do not apply the skills. This implied that as much as graduates may wish to apply the skills they may not be in the right jobs as they have to find something to do to fend for their lives as they look for where to apply the gained skills. Yet again this was an area of interest to majority of people as everybody was expected to apply gained skills but when it was not possible a graduate could not just idle around. He/she had to get a way of earning a living he/she sought for an engagement which was applicable to the skills.

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Duration of course	12	11.8
Instructors	20	19.6
Management	15	14.6
Other	12	11.8
Total	**102**	**100.0**

According to the table above, 42.2 per cent said they liked the course content most in their areas of training while 19.6 per cent said that what they liked most in their respective courses were the instructors who taught them. Yet another 14.6 liked the management of the courses while 11.8 per cent liked the duration their courses took to complete. But there were still quite a number i.e.11.8 per cent who liked other things apart those already mentioned. This presentation shows the various tastes of people which are normal for human beings. This underscores the various factors that dictate trainees on the courses they had to undertake.

Cross tabulation and Frequency analysis

This section used cross tabulation to analyze variables in the objectives.

4.4 Influence of the type of course offered on youth employability

The data sought to establish how the type of course taken by the trainee influenced his/her chances or ability to secure a job

Table 4.15 Course taken by graduate

Course taken	Frequency	%	No employed	% of employed
Building construction	18	18.6	15	83.3
Carpentry & joinery	11	11.3	11	100
Fashion design	25	25.8	22	88
MV technology	17	17.5	16	94.1
Metal processing	9	9.3	8	88.89
Beauty therapy	17	17.5	15	88.2
Total	**97**	**100**	**87**	**100**

From the findings in the table above out of 97 trainees 18 took building technology, 11 carpentry and joinery, 25 fashion and design, 17 motor vehicle technology, 9 metal

processing and 17 beauty therapy. The table further illustrates the percentage of trainees who took different courses and were employed. Carpentry and joinery posted the highest with 100% closely followed by MV technology 94.1%, metal processing 88.89%, beauty therapy 88.2% and fashion design 88% and lastly building and construction 83.3%. The employability of graduates trained in carpentry and joinery was high and this could be attributed to the fact that the industry did not require a lot of capital to start and was highly favored by availability of raw materials in Mount Kenya region where the study took place. Other trade areas posted substantially high percentages proving that rural electrification had started bearing fruits of its intended purpose of opening up rural areas for small industries. However, employability of graduates trained in building and construction was relatively low. This was attributed to the fact that people were hesitant to invest in rural areas as a result of poor roads. Secondly jobs in construction industries were seasonal.

It is worth noting that for rural industries to thrive they require trained personnel to sustain and man them. The graduates churned out by youth polytechnic play a role. Therefore we concluded that there was a high influence of vocational training on youth employment. The type of course taken by a trainee also, had a bearing on his/her employability.

4.5 The influence of duration of training on youth employment

The data sought to establish whether there was any relationship between entry level of the trainee and youth employment.

Table 4.16 Entry Requirements

Requirements	Frequency	%	No on job	%	% in self	% in formal
KCPE / CPE	67	87.1	60	90	75	25
KCSE / KCE	8	10.4	8	100	10	90
KAC	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other	2	2.5	2	100	100	0
Total	**77**	**100**	**70**	**100**	**100**	

According to the findings, out of 67 KCPE graduates, 60 constituting 90% were in employment. The table further illustrates that out of those 60 graduates 75% were in self-employment while the rest were in formal employment with most of them engaged by board of governors in local secondary schools. This showed that most KCPE graduates were in self-jobs depicting that their employability in the formal sector was dismally low due to their inadequate formal and academic education. This denies them jobs in the well-established industries and if they secured their terms were temporary and poor. This underscores the need to blend vocational training with academic education to enable KCPE graduates compete favorably with other candidates in the job market. However, KCSE graduates posted a whopping 100% in employment with 90% in the formal sector and an insignificant 10% in self-employment. The findings also revealed 2 trainees comprising 2.5% graduates admitted for courses without formal certificates. This represented a number of highly talented and practical oriented trainees who had dropped out of primary school but were willing to improve skills and possibly get a formal certificate. The findings show they were highly employable may be due to their natural talent and self-drive

In conclusion we confirmed that there was a relationship between entry behavior and youth employment. Moreover, entry behavior also influenced the form of employment.

4.6 The influence of the duration of training on youth employment

The data sought to establish whether there was any influence of course duration on youth employability.

Table 4.17 Length of time trainee took to finish training

Length	Frequency	Percentage	No on Job	% of on Job
6 months	7	10.1	6	85.7
1 year	4	5.8	4	100
1.5 years	0	0	0	0
2 years	58	84.1	53	92
Total	**69**	**100**	**63**	**100**

The findings revealed that 85.7% of those who took 6 months had already been absorbed in the job market, 100% of those who took 1 year were on job and the same case applies to 92% of those who trained for 2 years. The data did not show any trend between variables. Further investigations revealed that most of those courses that took a short duration required comparably high level of entry behavior and their content was short such as beauty therapy. Refresher and supplementary courses such as ICT still fell under this category. The examiner was also a key determiner on the duration of the course.

On the other side 92% of those who took 2 years had already secured job. This supports our earlier findings on employment status. Consequently, we concluded that there was no significant influence of course duration on ability to secure employment by the youth.

4.7 The influence of quality of training on youth employment

The data sought to establish the influence of quality of training on youth employment

Table 4.18 Quality of training

Course content	Frequency	Percentage
Adequate	12	80
Inadequate	3	20
Not sure	0	0
Total	**15**	**100**

From the above findings out of the total 15 instructors interviewed 12 felt that the content of the courses were adequate, 3 felt it was inadequate while none was unsure. This portrays that 80% of the instructors had confidence in course content.

Table 4.19 Course marketability

Marketability	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	13	86.7
No	2	13.3
Not sure	0	0
Total	**15**	**100.0**

The data on course marketability sought to assess the perception of the instructors on marketability of the courses. An overwhelming 93.3% agreed that the courses offered were marketable especially with recent review of curriculum to meet the needs. This tallied with our previous findings on trainees' employability.

4.6.1 Qualification of instructors

During our tour to various youth polytechnics to interview both instructors and managers, we accessed administrative documents for both trainees and instructors to verify the information

given. One of the observations made was that in institutions where instructors possessed relatively high qualifications the enrolment was higher and this was also translated in the performance of final exam where the pass rate was higher.

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CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presented the summary of the findings, discussions of these findings and, conclusions. It further draws recommendations based on these findings. These recommendations were intended to inform policy making in an effort to solve the problem of youth unemployment, as the aim of the study was to analyze the influence of vocational training on youth employment.

5.2 Summary of the findings

Most of the trainees join the youth polytechnics when they are young as 63.5 per cent were below 20 years and leave early to engage in utilizing the skills they attain. On marital status of the trainees, about 83 per cent were still single, and this goes in tandem with previous information depicted in terms of the ages of the respondents as majority had actually not attained the age for marriage. In most of the communities in Kenya, people who are below twenty years are rarely in marriage institution. In terms of gender 63 per cent of those interviewed were men while 37 per cent were women implying that most of those who join polytechnics are usually male maybe because of the fact that main courses at the polytechnics are manual which ladies shy away from.

On how long they had taken since completing their courses about 60 per cent said they had taken between 1 and 3 years. On the issue of the courses which the graduates undertook in the polytechnics, courses were almost equally popular with trainees as 26 per cent were trained in fashion design and garment making, 19 per cent trained in building technology, 18 per cent were from beauty therapy and hair design, 17 per cent undertook motor vehicle technology, 11 per cent were trained in appropriate carpentry and joinery technology while 9 per cent studied metal processing technology. To the trainees this indicated all courses carry almost equal weight hence the reason why the respondents were fairly distributed across the courses.

The duration the courses take was the other thing of interest and an overwhelming 96.2 per cent said their respective courses took two years giving trainees enough time to train and

sharpen their skills in their various trades with some practical work to make them fully prepared to face the challenges of life outside youth polytechnics. Majority of those interviewed i.e. 71 per cent were examined by Directorate of Industrial Training (DIT), depicting the importance with which youth polytechnics attach to the Directorate of Industrial Training as majority of their trainees are examined and certified by the department.

On whether there were course entry requirements for the various courses undertaken by graduates, an overwhelming 78 per cent answered to the affirmative, where 87.1 per cent indicated that for them to join the YPs they were to have primary school certificate while yet another smaller proportion of 10.4 per cent were to produce a secondary school certificate when seeking admission. An impressive 89 per cent were in employment while a paltry 11 per cent were the only ones who were still not engaged. In terms of the kind of employment, 60.6 per cent of those employed said they were self-employed, 32.3 per cent were in formal employment while 7.1 per cent were engaged in other forms of employment. This indicates a very good trend that goes a long way to show the employability of the graduates further depicting applicability of the courses offered at the YPs.

On application of the skills gained, 80 per cent said they apply the skills regularly in their course of work while 20 per cent said they do not apply the skills. When the graduates were asked to state what they liked most in the courses they were trained in, 42.2 per cent said they liked the course content most in their areas of training while 19.6 per cent said that what they liked most in their respective courses was the instructors who taught them. This implies that as much as graduates may wish to apply the skills they may not be in the right jobs as they have to find something to do to fend for their lives as they look for where to apply the gained skills.

Finally the findings narrowed down to four variables namely the type of course taken by a trainee, entry behavior of the trainee , quality of training and duration of the course, and their influence on youth employment. The data showed that 83.3% of those who took building and construction were employed; others were 100%, 88%, 94.1%, 88.89%, and 88.82 for those who took carpentry and joinery, fashion design, motor vehicle, metal processing and beauty therapy respectively. This showed type of course had an influence on youth employment. On entry behavior of the trainee, the data showed that 100% of KCSE graduates were on job while 90% of KCPE graduates were on job still showing that there was an influence of entry behavior on youth employment. On the quality of training 86.7% of instructors felt that the

content of the courses was adequate and a further 93.3% agreed that the courses were marketable. However, the findings on the duration of course showed that irrespective of the duration of the course there was no influence on youth employment. In summary the data supported the fact there was an influence of vocational training on youth employment. Vocational training in Kenya should be given much attention and support in an effort to reduce youth unemployment. This is in tandem with the following scholars; Rothwell and kolb (1999), the increase in technology require a highly trained workforce to design and operate the systems. Rapid change in technology and development require a continuous learning philosophy. A commitment to training and continuous learning is therefore crucial for the labor force to remain competitive. (ibid). The rapid changes in technology are compounded by movement from industrial to a knowledge society, 'in an industrial society the workers do not own their tools. But in knowledge society workers carry their own knowledge both in their heads and computers and they transport it from job to job, thus, rapid changes in society fuelled by technological developments calls for training systems that promote and deliver high quality just-in-time training. Further Richardson (2001) says that due to globalization, the world has become a large village and this is reflected in nations, enterprises and in the life of workers. Globalization has both positive and negative impacts on the economies. For weaker economies, globalization may cause them go worse from effects of intense competition. Richardson argues that in a global economy the hitherto accepted 'infant industry economy' will no longer be sustained. Globalization will lead to mega-competition and may "hollow out" industries and have major impacts on labour markets. To counter the impacts of globalization, every country must invest in human capital. Investing in training leads to acquisition of skills that raise labour productivity and allow widespread use of existing technology, in addition training allows promotion of new technological development.

5.3 Discussions of the findings

The following findings were got from the study

5.3.1 Influence of type of course on youth employment

This was the first objective of the study which sought to establish whether the type of course had an influence on youth employment. The research findings reflected that the type of

course had a bearing on youth employment, for instance according to the study, it is evident that carpentry and joinery was most marketable closely followed by MV technology, metal processing, beauty therapy and fashion design and lastly building and construction.

It is worth noting that for rural industries to thrive they require trained personnel to sustain and man them. The graduates churned out by youth polytechnic play a role. Therefore we concluded that there was a high influence of vocational training on youth employment. The type of course taken by a trainee also, had a bearing on his/her employability.

5.3.2 The influence of entry behavior of a trainee on youth employment

According to the findings, out of 67 KCPE graduates, 60 constituting 90% were in employment. The table further illustrates that out of those 60 graduates 75% were in self-employment while the rest were in formal employment with most of them engaged by board of governors in local secondary schools. This showed that most KCPE graduates were in self-jobs depicting that their employability in the formal sector was dismally low due to their inadequate formal and academic education. This denies them jobs in the well-established industries and if they secured their terms were temporary and poor. This underscores the need to blend vocational training with academic education to enable KCPE graduates compete favorably with other candidates in the job market. However, KCSE graduates posted a whopping 100% in employment with 90% in the formal sector and an insignificant 10% in self-employment. The findings also revealed 2 trainees comprising 2.5% graduates admitted for courses without formal certificates. This represented a number of highly talented and practical oriented trainees who had dropped out of primary school but were willing to improve skills and possibly get a formal certificate. The findings show they were highly employable may be due to their natural talent and self-drive

5.3.3 The influence of duration of course on youth employment

The findings revealed that 85.7% of those who took 6 months had already been absorbed in the job market, 100% of those who took 1 year were on job and the same case applies to 92% of those who trained for 2 years. The data did not show any trend between variables. Further investigations revealed that most of those courses that took a short duration required comparably high level of entry behavior and their content was short such as beauty therapy. Refresher and supplementary courses such as ICT still fell under this category. The examiner was also a key determiner on the duration of the course.

On the other side 92% of those who took 2 years had already secured job. This supports our earlier findings on employment status. Consequently, we concluded that there was no significant influence of course duration on ability to secure employment by the youth

5.3.4 The influence of quality of training on youth employment

On the quality of training 86.7% of the respondents felt that the content of various courses offered in YPs is adequate. Further 93.3% of respondents agreed that the courses offered were marketable. This shows instructors have a lot of confidence in both content and market of courses Since the MOYAS took over the management of the YPs, several changes have been instituted to improve the quality of training. These include review of curriculum to suit the market needs, hire of more and qualified instructors and introduction of subsidized tuition among others. The findings show the changes have started bearing intended purpose.

5.4 Conclusion

Technical and Vocational Education and Training according to most government national development and sessional papers is supposed to play two crucial roles in the national social and economic development.

The first role is to provide training opportunities and career advancement avenues for the increased school leavers. The second role is to provide skilled manpower that is needed at all levels of the economy. The skills so developed should be able to lead to self-reliance in the absence of salaried employment and enhance Kenya's industrialization process.

For TVET to be able to play its role effectively, it is important to ensure that there exists an enabling and TVET friendly environment nationwide. Such an enabling environment can be achieved by putting in place harmonized national TVET policies, provision of adequate funds, developing positive social attitudes towards training and enhanced management. The increased public funding will increase the subsidy among the poor households through loans and bursaries to needy trainees.

The government and the private sector should above all recognize that TVET is an investment not a cost, with significant returns including the well-being of workers, enhanced productivity, international competitiveness and economic growth in the long run. Enhanced management will ensure that TVET is well co-ordinated. This will reduce wastage of resources; improve relevance and retention of training personnel in the country. Managing

TVET under various government departments has cost the country dearly in that the sector has stagnated and there have been disparities in the training standards. The current government's Manifesto has emphasized the development and promotion of TVET sector. This has yielded positive results in other countries in the region such Tanzania, Botswana, Zambia and South Africa.

5.5 Recommendations

1. Training tools and equipment – it was the feeling of many interviewees that most youth polytechnics lacked adequate training tools and equipment. This can affect the quality of training. The government in collaboration with development partners such as JICA have already carried out needs assessment for tools in public YPs and have embarked on the process of donating these tools to YPs through MOYAS. Currently at least two YPs in every constituency have benefitted from this programme. However, as a result of free primary education the enrolment in YPs is overwhelming with several coming up especially in rural areas. While this is a good idea, the government and other stakeholders should put more resources to procure more tools to improve the capacity of YPs to offer quality training. This should also go together with infrastructure such as workshops and dormitories whose state is wanting.
2. Review of courses – as time goes things are changing hence rendering some courses obsolete. It was therefore the feeling of some interviewees that courses needed to be revised to conform to the changing times.. More particularly those courses which were associated with information technology (IT) which in itself is very dynamic, needed to be evaluated and considered to see whether they were in tandem with the market trends. The department of youth training in partnership with KIE have revised the curriculum and piloting is at an advanced stage in 100 YPs. Review of courses should be done regularly after every five years to make YP graduates more competitive in the job market.
3. Shortage of qualified staff – most of the polytechnics suffered lack of enough training personnel and in some cases the staff were not qualified hence the need to hire more qualified staff. During the study it was discovered that many of those teaching in the YPs were engaged by BOGs and therefore were also poorly remunerated. There is a need for the government to review their terms of employment to attract competent staff.

5.6 Suggestion for further research

Suggestion for further research – the researcher felt that the area of study was still virgin and needed further research to fill the very many gaps. Firstly, there was need to conduct further studies to assess whether new changes such as the new curriculum which was being piloted had an influence on youth employability. Secondly, some respondents felt there was need to blend the curriculum which is practical oriented with academic education to improve youth employability, this needed to be studied too. Other area of concern among others was the influence of motivation of instructors and their level of education on performance of trainees in the final exam.

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APENDICES

Appendix 1: Transmittal Letter.

1. Study Questionnaire

Njuki John Kariuki
PO Box 330
Chogoria

To Whom It May Concern:

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: REQUEST FOR DATA COLLECTION

I am a student of the University of Nairobi carrying out a study on the factors that influence the employability of vocational training graduates in Kenya. The purpose of this study is to better understand the role of vocational training on employment of the youth in Kenya. The information you give will be very important input that will enable me to evaluate the relationship between the vocational training and absorption of the graduates into the job market. Please note that the information obtained here is purely for academic purposes, it will be treated confidentially and will not, under any circumstances, be disclosed to any unauthorized persons.

Yours faithfully,
Njuki Kariuki

Appendix 2: Graduate Questionnaire

1. Age bracket (years): <20 [ ] 21 – 30 [ ] 31 – 40 [ ] 41- 51 [ ]

   >50 [ ]

2. Marital status:

   Married [ ] Single [ ] Divorced / Separated [ ]

3. Sex: Male [ ] Female [ ]

4. When did you complete your course at the Youth Polytechnic?

   Less than 1 year ago [ ] 1 – 3 years ago [ ] 3 – 5 years ago [ ]

   More than 5 years ago [ ]

5. In which course were you trained?

   Building technology [ ] Appropriate carpentry and joinery technology [ ]

   Fashion design and garment making [ ] Motor vehicle technology [ ]

   Metal processing technology [ ] Beauty therapy and hair design [ ]

6. How long does the course take?

   6 months [ ] 1 year [ ] 1.5 years [ ] 2 years [ ]

7. How long did you take?

   6 months [ ] 1 year [ ] 1.5 years [ ] 2 years [ ]

8. Did you do an examination?

   Yes [ ] No [ ]

9. If yes, which body examined you?

KNEC [ ] DIT [ ] Internal [ ] Others (specify) ....

10. Did the course have entry requirements?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

11. If yes, what were the requirements?

KCPE/CPE [ ] KCSE/KCE [ ] KAC [ ] Other (specify) [ ]

12. Are you currently employed?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

13. f yes, in which kind of employment are you engaged?

Self-employment [ ] Formal employment [ ] other (specify) [ ]

14. If in employment, does what you learnt in the Youth Polytechnic help you?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

15. What do you like about the course you did in the Youth Polytechnic?

Course content [ ] Duration of the course [ ] Instructors [ ]

Management [ ] Others (specify) [ ] .....

16. As a former trainee of the Youth Polytechnic what can you recommend those concerned with their management?

.....

.....

.....

.....

Appendix 3: Instructor Questionnaire

1. Age bracket (years): <20 [ ] 21 – 30 [ ] 31 – 40 [ ] 41- 51 [ ]

   >50 [ ]

2. Marital status:

   Married [ ] Single [ ] Divorced / Separated [ ]

3. Sex: [ ] Male [ ] Female [ ]

4. For how long have you taught in this Youth Polytechnic?

   Less than 1 year ago [ ] 1 – 3 years ago [ ] 3 – 5 years ago [ ]

   More than 5 years ago [ ]

5. Which course do you teach?

   Building technology [ ] appropriate carpentry and joinery technology [ ]

   Fashion design and garment making [ ] Motor vehicle technology [ ]

   Metal processing technology [ ] Beauty therapy and hair design [ ]

6. How long does the course take?

   6 months [ ] 1 year [ ] 1.5 years [ ] 2 years [ ]

7. Do students who pursue your course sit for an examination?

   Yes [ ] No [ ]

8. If yes, which examination body evaluates the students in your course?

KNEC [ ] DIT [ ] Internal [ ] Others (specify) ....

9. Does the course have entry requirements?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

10. If yes, what are these requirements?

KCPE/CPE [ ] KCSE/KCE [ ] KAC [ ] Other (specify)..... [ ]

11. Do you consider the course marketable?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

12. If yes, why do you consider the course marketable?

Creates self-employment [ ] Graduates easily get employment [ ]

Other (specify) [ ]

13. Do you think the course content is enough for the trainees?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

14. If no, what do you think is missing to make the course complete?

.....

.....

15. What do you like most about the course you teach in this Youth Polytechnic?

Course content [ ] Duration of the course [ ] Instructors [ ]

Management [ ] Others (specify) .....

16. As an instructor of the Youth Polytechnic what can you recommend to those concerned with the management of youth polytechnics?

.....

.....

Appendix 4: Interview schedule

1. Name of the manager .....

2. Sex .....Age .....

3. Name of the institution .....

4. For how long have you been a manager?

5. What do you understand by the term "Quality training"?

6. Do you face any challenges as a manager in an effort to offer quality training?

7. If yes, what challenges?

8. Do the challenges affect the performance of the trainees? If yes, how?

9. Does the entry level of the trainee affect the performance of a trainee? If yes how?

10. In your opinion is there any relationship between the performance of a trainee and his future chances of employability? If yes how?

11. Does the type of course influence the employability of the graduates? If yes how?

12. Does the duration of the course affect the employability of the graduates? If yes how?

13. In your opinion, how would you rate the customer satisfaction of the graduates? Why?

14. In your opinion, how would you rate the job satisfaction of the past graduates? Why?