MECHANISMS AND EFFECTS OF SPECIAL EDUCATION FINANCING POLICY IN KENYA

BY

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2011
DECLARATION

This project is my original work and has not been presented for an award of a degree in any University

Signed........................................ Date........................

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

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First I thank the Almighty God for having brought me this far. His love, care, grace to do this research work. I take this opportunity to acknowledge the contribution of various people and institutions without whom this project would not have been completed. Special thanks to my supervisor, Ms. Winnie Nyamute for her tirelessly guidance me throughout the time I was working on the project.

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Thanks you all and may the Almighty God bless you abundantly
DEDICATION

I dedicate this project work to my husband, George Omondi, Daughters: Stephanie Atieno, Faith Akinyi, and son Vincent Omondi for research period for their interest, inspiration, peace and patience.

To my late parents Mr. and Mrs. Dalmas Okatch, entire family and friends for your motivation, support encouragement and understanding.

Above all, I thank the Almighty God for giving me good health and spirit to continue on even when I felt like giving up.
ABSTRACT

The primary resource of every nation is the capacity of creation of its citizens. Historically, persons with disability all over the world were considered socially and physically less capable. Hence, they were not easily accepted and regarded as part and parcel of the family and community. Many persons with disability suffered neglect and rejection. The advent of education for people with disabilities (special education) is traced in United States of America began after World War II. In Kenya, Special education programmes started after independence in 1963. One of the constraints that many special schools face is the shortage of financial resource in the era of ever increasing costs on high teacher – pupil ratio requirement, transportation costs, boarding facility costs, medical facility costs and special supplies. Though Kenya government adopts the Free Primary Education program, the study on a sample of 33 special institutions find that most of the institutions depend on external financing of which the government of Kenya through the ministry of education is the largest contributor in special education financing in Kenya. The objective of the study was to determine the mechanism and effects of financing policies in special education in Kenya.

A survey was undertaken; the target population was drawn from one hundred and forty four special schools, units and secondary institution in Kenya. The sample consisted of thirty three respondents selected through stratified random sampling. Primary data was collected from the head teachers of the special schools units, post secondary insitutions with the aid of questionnaires. Data pertaining to the objectives of the study was analysed using descriptive. Statistics which includes measures of central tendancy, measure of frequency among others. In addition, tables, pie charts and bar graphs were used.

Findings of the study show that the government of Kenya and other donors do fund special institutions according to the guideline. The policies stipulated are followed and auditing are carried out to ensure accountability of the funds. The users of funds are also inducted on the utilisation . External funding leads at 81%, documented policies on disbursement of funds was at 82% while induction on management of funds were at 90.32% and finally special schools
are audited with a percentage of 80.6. Though the budgetary allocation is still not adequate at 67.74%.

Based on findings of the study, the following recommendations were made that the Government and other donors should come up with various mechanisms through which they can establish more schools for those with disabilities to ensure they are catered for from childhood to adulthood. More teachers should be trained in order to cater for the ones with special needs. The funding organs should ensure that they start up projects that will target all the people with marginalized issues that are considered special and no one is to be left out but should also put in place proper audit and accountability structures. Institutions that can be expanded should be so that it can cater for more students with disabilities.
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<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICF</td>
<td>International Classification of Functioning Disability and Health</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information Communication Technology</td>
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<tr>
<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<td>MOE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
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<td>MOEST</td>
<td>Ministry of Education Science and Technology</td>
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<td>NGOs</td>
<td>Non Governmental Organizations</td>
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<td>SNE</td>
<td>Special Needs Education</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organizations</td>
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<td>UPE</td>
<td>Universal Primary Education</td>
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<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The primary resource of every nation is the capacity of creation of its citizens. Those valuable, well-trained creative, people are the ones who can modify the economical and social environment. The entire fortune of a society is made by the innovative and intellectual capacity of its members, the one which decides the future of a nation (Schneider and Cosma, 2008). Schultz (1961) posits that education has played a very specific role in the history of foreign assistance to developing countries. During the early years of Post World War - II development aid, education was not considered as a target. The predominant development theories of that time posited that the best investments were in “brick and mortar” such as large infrastructure and building projects. Aid for education developed as a concern some time after the “human Capital revolution”.

Historically, persons with disability all over the world were considered socially and physically less capable. Hence, they were not easily accepted and regarded as part and parcel of the family and community. Many persons with disability suffered neglect and rejection. The prehistoric societies, whose survival could depend on the fitness of each a member, did not protect children who were born with defects generally allowing them to die at birth or infancy. Some ancient people believed that physical deformities and mental disorders were as a result of possession by demons, rejection and punishment. Some communities killed those who were affected. Families and communities had negative attitudes towards disability. They regarded disability to be caused by witchcraft, curses or as a punishment from God for wrong doing. It was also considered contagious. Some great philosophers like Plato and Socrates considered people with disability as not capable of reasoning therefore could not learn. These strengthened exclusion and lack of support of people with disability. In the middle ages persons with disabilities were often objects of amusement, and sometimes were used for entertainment. More often, they were derided, imprisoned or executed (Reynolds, 2005).
The advent of education for people with disabilities (special education) is traced in United States of America began after World War II. This was due to the return of disabled war veterans and the growing numbers of people with disabilities who were denied accessible environment and met negative attitudes contributing to their restrictions. Many children with disabilities were denied access to public education. This led to the approval of the Individuals with disabilities Education Act of 1975, hence became the legislative foundation for federal funding of special education (Chadwick, 2003).

Special education in Europe as a scientific study and education of exceptional children started in 1955 when a Spanish Monk, Pedro Ponee de Leon (1920-1984), taught a small number of children who were deaf to read, write, speak and master academic subjects. Another Spaniard, Juan Pablo Bonet (1957-1629) wrote the first book on the education of individuals who were deaf in 1620. In England John Bulwar (1614-1684) published the first book in English on the education for the deaf. The first special school in Great Britain was established in 1767 in Edinburgh by Thomas Braidwood (1715-1806). His nephew and assistant Joseph Watson (1765-1829) later established the first school for children who were poor and deaf in the London area (Reynolds, 2002). Ndurumo (1993) underscore that establishment of special schools had been embraced by European countries by the efforts of a few individuals. The first special schools were for the hearing impaired followed by the school for the visually impaired. The special schools in Western Europe were influenced more by the American outlook in areas such as teaching strategies, integration and service delivery systems.

Special education in South Korea was introduced by Protestant missionaries towards the end of 19th century. In 1884, Rosseta Sherwood Hall, an American missionary first taught a blind girl Braille. Four years later she founded Pyeung Yang Girls School for the blind. In 1909, Hall established a school for deaf children. However the education of students with disabilities had been implemented mainly in private rather than public institutions. This is because the government of Korea gave higher priority in promoting the national economy than to developing special education programmes. Hence the question of how the public special schools have been funded remains unanswered (Gyeong-Hee Seo, 1991).
Special education in Uganda was started by Sir Andrew Cohen who was the Governor of Uganda in 1952. He had a visually impaired relative. His interest and effort in special education led to the results of funding of special education by various NGO such as the Royal Commonwealth Society (now Sight Savers International). These organisations had the main objective of providing education to persons with disabilities. However, not until 1972 did the Government of Uganda established a section of special needs education in the MOE and sports. This leaves one wondering whether there were any funding set aside by the Government before or it was left entirely to the NGO to run the special need schools (Randiki, 2002).

In Kenya, special education programmes started after independence in 1963. The Ominde commission (1964) came up with a report which was the first document to highlight the plight of persons with disabilities. The terms and reference for this commission was to investigate among others things the implementation of national policies regarding the education needs of a child in view of their capabilities putting into consideration the monetary implications and the personnel required to serve those needs. The Gachathi (19860 report also outlined the way forward to strengthen special education to establish more programmes to cater for the disabled persons.

1.1.1 Education Financing Models

Australia adopted the 'Relative Funding' model that is a normative allocation model in Higher education. Student numbers is one of the key elements in calculating the funding amount. If it turns out that the number of student units taught is lower (at least 2%) than the number of funded student places, this may result in a reduction of funds allocated in the next academic year. If it turns out that the number of students exceeds the target number set by the ministry, an institute will be paid the amount that is about 40% of average tuition costs (DETYA, 2000). This arrangement can introduce competition for students, and at the same time reduce government subsidies (Nair and Kumar, 2004).
Denmark adopted the ‘Taximeter’ model in Higher education. The fund allocated for teaching is based on a unit-cost principle that accounts for, on an average, one-third of total revenue an institute will receive. The number of students that pass examinations determines the available budget (Nair and Kumar, 2004). In England, higher education institutes are funded by two main sources: Block grants and tuition fee. Block grants are largely determined by the formula set by the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE). In general, the formula is based on running cost. For example, laboratory-based subjects receive more funding than non-laboratory-based ones. Part-time students receive only 50% of grant than a full-time student, as their learning activities are relatively less than full-time students. Institutes in London get more grants due to, for example higher living costs (HEFCE, 2002).

In Singapore, higher education institutes are mainly State funded. After the mid-1980s, the government decided to shift the funding from largely government-funded towards cost-recovery through tuition fee (Selvaratnam, 1994), the target was to provide public funding to cover the subsidy level ranging from 75%-84% for undergraduate courses (NUS, 2001). However, in reality, the tuition fees have risen just 1.64% for the year of 2001-02, whereas the subsidy for universities has risen 10% for the same period (Ministry of Finance, 2001).

China introduced significant reforms in higher education finance that covered financial decentralization, new funding mechanisms and resource mobilization (World Bank, 1997). Before the reforms in the 1980s, almost all the funding was exclusively from the government, and funds were allocated according to the unitary State budgetary plan. In the plan, historically based adjustments were adopted and unused funds had to be returned to the government. Such a system provided no incentive for efficiency gains and improvements. With financial decentralization, the central government has delegated financial responsibilities to provincial governments and line ministries to increase flexibility. With the new funding mechanisms, the line item budget has been replaced by a block grant, letting institutions decide how to spend the money, and institutes can retain unspent funds. With resource mobilization, institutes have been encouraged to generate their own revenue and to charge tuition fee so as to reduce the over dependence on government funds. Other than releasing the fiscal burden from the public funds, another goal of the reform is to encourage institutes to
make innovations and develop their own skills to meet the developmental needs of the changing society (World Bank, 1998).

Kenya has been implementing the free primary education (FPE) model. The government has also subsidized secondary, tertiary and higher education for government sponsored students as self sponsored students in all the institutions (public and private) pay their tuition and other auxiliary fees. These study programs bring on board special education need students as well.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The Partners in Disability Forum (2007) underscore that one of the constraints that many special schools face is the shortage of financial resource. This results into inadequate infrastructure and low quality of education. For example the physical facilities such as buildings and classrooms are inadequate; lack of clean water, electricity resulting in inadequate lighting, and equipment for example shortage of desks; lack of communication facilities such as ICT, telephone and of specialized services for the pupils.

Kenya, is not exempted from the financial constraint as the rapid growth in education sector since independence has not been reflected in the special education category. Koech (1999) note that, there are only 479 special education programmes which include 385 units and 94 schools that include vocational and technical institutions. The number of children enrolled in these schools stand at 14,600 with 1962 teachers and 1449 classrooms. These figures clearly demonstrate that special education has not received adequate attention to ensure equal access to education to learners with special education need.

The Kenya government is only able to spend 3.3% of its education expenditure on special education. The contributions from the donors which supplement the deficit is sometimes hard to by come and are influenced by prevailing political, economical, and global factors hence not reliable (Abilla,1998). With such low levels of budget allocation over the years as a government policy, there is need to inquire on whether the special schools/units have necessary specialised equipments and Instruments such as hearing aids, audio visual aid, Braille, wheel chairs among others. This study sought to answer the questions: What
mechanisms are in place to finance special education in Kenya? Are the fund allocated by the Government of Kenya to special education needs adequate to manage the special schools/units? What are the effects of the levels of funding obtained by the special education institutions?

1.3 Objectives of the Study
1. To determine the mechanisms for financing special education in Kenya.
2. To establish the effect of special education financing policies in Kenya.

1.4 Significance of the Study
This study will help the government of Kenya policy makers and stakeholders in the special education sector to pay more attention to the rapid growth of special education in terms of financing needs.

The study will act as a tool for special school administrators in soliciting for financial aid from donors and well wishers and developing innovating models for fund raising.

The academicians may pursue further research in financing the special education as the study adds to the already existing literature regarding financing special education sector.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
This chapter reviews the theoretical and empirical literature on education financing as a public good. The chapter discusses the theory of fiscal policy, the theory of public expenditure and contingency theory. It also reviews the empirical studies on education in general with specific emphasis on special education financing.

2.2 Theoretical Framework
2.2.1 The Theory of Fiscal Policy
Theory of Fiscal policy was advanced by Musgrave’s (1959) and in Johansen’s (1965). The theory states that the goals of fiscal policy extend beyond stabilization since fiscal tools can be used also for redistributing income and for reallocating resources. It is viewed that policymakers have an objective of promoting the social welfare of the citizens. The social welfare does not depend on any single variable or indicator, but on several indicators, some of which are of an economic nature and some others of a social nature. The way in which the policymakers rank these indicators change with time or with the government in power. Tanzi (2004) denote that in representative democracies, this ranking is assumed to reflect the preferences of the citizens and changes in those preferences.

The Fiscal policy theory has certain assumptions with the first one requiring the existence of an all-inclusive budgetary process. No public finance decision is made outside the budget or, at least, all decisions, whether in or out of the formal budget are directly or indirectly controlled by the central government. The second one is that when the government makes the budgetary decisions, it based on the best economic analysis supported by reliable data, on unbiased forecasts, and on accepted economic principles that establish links between changes in policy instruments and changes in policy objectives. The third one is that government representatives have the public interest of citizens in mind when undertaking policy decisions. The fourth one is that the executive arm of government must have as much control over the policy instruments as it is feasible in a democratic society.
2.2.2 Pure Theory of Public Expenditure

Samuelson (1954) in his seminal paper on "The Pure Theory of Public Expenditure" has argued that there is a fundamental distinction between goods that are private and goods that are "collective". However, other economists have added to and clarified essential dimensions of the distinction between goods that are private and goods that are public in the sense that they provide various forms of collective benefit.

Despite the importance of these arguments and clarifications, they do not change the inherently static nature of evaluations, that is, a good is what it is. No matter what formal definition is applied, a good does not become more public or less public in one state of the world versus another. Nor is there an obvious reason to believe that the relative value of public goods versus private goods depends on the general state of the economy. Accordingly, neither the original contribution by Samuelson nor subsequent refinements appear to support the Keynesian assertion that the optimal level for public expenditure is countercyclical with respect to the general state of economic activity.

2.2.3 Private Costs, Equality, and Equity of Education

The literature regarding the economics of education has long explained the incentive for public and private investments in education. Psacharopoulos (1994) studies reveal that public and private rates of returns to education are generally the highest at the primary level and that this trend is most evident in low-income countries. Carnoy and Levin (1985) and Birdsall, et al. (1997) argue that the equalization and pro-poor policy perspectives also support increased public investments in primary education. The conventional knowledge suggests that income inequality leads to educational inequality, and vise versa. Because acquiring education requires substantial individual investments, educational opportunities are limited for the poor due to credit constraints.

2.2.4 Models in the Finance and Provision of Education

Alternative models of government intervention in education can generally be characterized according to the way schools are managed and financed. The sharpest distinction is between public and private schools. In a purely privatized system of education, schools derive their
revenues entirely from fees and other private contributions, and are free to determine the type of educational services offered. In contrast, schools in a purely public system show the opposite features: they are managed directly by the government, and their expenditures are met by tax revenues (Jimenez and Tan, 1987).

Private schools which receive no financial aid from the government and are free from public control lie at the highly decentralized end of the spectrum, while public schools directly financed and managed by the central government lie at the other end. In between these extremes are a variety of arrangements: in some school systems, private schools receive public subsidies - whether in money or in kind - by agreeing to some form of government oversight; in others, schools are financed partly by central government tax revenues, and run by local governments, subject to control by higher authorities on the level and composition of expenditures. In most countries, the typical outcome is a mixed picture, with varying degrees and types of central and local government control in public as well as in private schools. The nature of public intervention tends also to differ across levels of education (Jimenez and Tan, 1987).

2.3 Empirical Literature Review

2.3.1 Special Education in Kenya

Attitudes toward persons with disabilities have undergone profound changes during the past three decades. Society’s view that these individuals represented a burden to be segregated and medically treated has largely given way, replaced by notions that people with disabilities are entitled to rights and respect (Hardman 2005).

It was not until the second half of the nineteenth century and early years of the twentieth century that special classes begun to appear in public schools. Services for children with exceptionalities began sporadically and slowly, serving only a very small number of individuals who needed services. During this era even children without disability did not routinely attend school (Gargiulo, 2006).
In Kenya treatment of persons with special needs was viewed with a lot of suspicion. Children with special needs were associated with myths, curses and taboos. Traditionally they were viewed as persons who could not do anything, theirs was to sit and watch helplessly as others went about their business. These traditional beliefs and superstitions about the causes of disabilities whereby disability was also associated with the wrong doing and curses from the ancestor’s among other superstitions may have an impact in the provision of the formal education to children with special needs education (Kabochoru, 2004).

From the early 1970’s a new view of special education started to emerge in a more forceful, professional and legal manner. For instance Koech (1975), observed that special education may be viewed as a major consumer of the content and expertise of other disciplines and professions. Kirk (1972), observed that special education programmes benefits not only handicapped children but also non-handicapped children. This also serves as the workshop and laboratory for developing specialized teaching aids and tools which are eventually used with non-handicapped children.

In developing countries like Kenya the Government and citizens place tremendous values to education that focus on individual and collective development as basis for socio-economic and technological growth. This can only be achieved through an education system that gives equal opportunities to all citizens. In this respect Kenya has made remarkable strides in the promotion of EFA and UPE. Within both strategies the Government has put a lot of emphasis on the education of persons with special learning needs (Kenya Institute of Education Journal, 2007).

2.3.2 Challenges on special Needs Education and Financing/Funding

According to Vesely (2007) the challenges facing financing special education in states are majorly caused by the educational leaders in creating and delivering quality special education services for example: i) legal challenges where a state need to develop laws, policies and rules governing the special education sector. ii) Accountability challenges where there has been lack of accountability in the schools, units hence deny the funding by
stakeholders/donors. He further noted that federal government do not have national data to determine the disparities in the allocation of funds. iii) fiscal challenge which vested the constitutional responsibility of the state to provide funding to all special schools. There is need to develop a costing system for educating a disability child. This poses a question as on how much money would be enough and where it would be best spent. Crampton (2007) also noted that most states both developed and developing do not have benchmark on the allocation of funds to the special schools/units to determine the necessary funding levels.

In a research done by Parish and Chambers (1996), it is suggested that current state formulas may be contributing to the challenges hence proposed a census based funding which distribute funds based on a national or state average of school aged children with disabilities as opposed to the number of children in a school district receiving special education services. The states are obliged to develop accurate cost estimate to meet the students’ needs if they are to focus funding towards achieving the state academic goals.iv) demographic challenge: According to Crampton (2007), this challenge tends to have greater influence on education policy and practice. As the number of children with disability grows so as the resources required need to be increased including monitoring. After examining this challenge he concluded that the incidence of disability often increase with poverty which include wealth link factor such as per pupil expenditure, median housing value, median income for households below the poverty level and percentage of adults in the community who have average education.

2.3.3 Economy and its implications on Special Needs Education.

The country’s economy may adversely affect provision of educational materials and especially when it is for children who are handicapped due to the value attributed to education. According to Kabuchoru (2004), economies of the countries are instrumental in influencing how the political policies on the distribution of resources are decided or determined. Countries which have sound policies on special education are economically stable for example Norway, USA,Britain among others .In most developing countries the government budgets are unable to fully cater for education programme,these countries look for foreign donations and grants from developed countries. In Kenya, agriculture and tourism
are considered the country’s main economic activities. The two economical activities could be (and often are) affected by external factors such as political, weather, deforestation, insecurity etc. Budget allocations reduced by half including that of education which affect the running of the SNE programme. In its endeavor to counter attack the economic decline, in 1980 the government was induced into adopt structural adjustment programmes through Sessional paper No.10 of 1986 which aim on economic management for renewed growth (Government of Kenya report, 1999-2015). Further cost sharing in education and health was introduced in order to cut government expenditure. To do this the parents and the community were to meet part of the cost of education budget. (Journal on education Government of Kenya, 1976).

According to Koech report (1999) the International Monetary Fund and World Bank downsized their funding in Kenya and especially in the public sector which resulted into retrenchment of personnel. This meant that those retrenched could no longer be able to adequately support education for their children more so with the already introduced cost sharing programme. The children with special needs are adversely affected since families may tend to give priority to the average child due to economic hardships.

The large portion of Ministry of education budget allocation goes to staff payment. This poses a challenge on how to cater for the purchase of basic educational materials and resources. Although the large portion of the MOE budget goes to staff payment, the salary package of the individual teachers remains low. This results to low social esteem hence less motivation. For instance there was an industrial action in October 2002 by the teachers in demand of high salary pay. The special education teachers have constantly been crying for special allowances which have been hard to come (Kabuchoru, 2004).

2.3.4 Cost of Special Needs Education
In addition to the payment of teachers who time to time keep on demanding an increment to their low salary package, there are other personnel cost to be met in educating handicapped children. For example, each school/unit needs a physiotherapists, class assistant, counsellors, medical assistants and therapists among others. All these costs put together accounts for approximately 80% of the special needs education funds. There are other components of
special education cost such as transportation, feeding, health and rehabilitation services. For example they incur expensive transportation costs when they must design special buses for physically handicapped children with wheelchairs, extra costs for purchase of or modification of equipment for severely handicapped students and construction of disability friendly buildings, facilities, and infrastructures like toilets, ramps and pavements to mention a few (Ysseldyke, 1984).

McClare (1975) classifies special needs education costs as; Instructions – Teachers, Academic supportive staff, Administrators, counsellors, therapists, social workers, psychologists; Auxiliary services - Clerks, custodians, suppliers; Public Services – Transportation, Food services, Health Rehabilitation, Subsistence; Facilities – Building, Grounds, Equipments.

Willswann (1981) adds that the high costs of special education are incurred due to various reasons as: **Special education pupil-teacher ratio**: Here, he urges that Special schools have more teachers and require teaching aides and assistants in addition to more administrative staff to handle its administration which is more complex than in ordinary schools. He indicates that about 54.5% of special education spending goes on staff; **Transportation**: Special pupils need more home to school transport more than ordinary pupils and this takes 14% of the total special education spending; **Boarding facilities**: He says that more is spend on boarding for special pupils because special boarding units’ costs are almost double those of ordinary boarding; **Special pupils’ supplies**: To him more is spent on special pupil’s suppliers as they have more equipment such as hearing aids and care materials some of which are sophisticated scientific equipment and very costly; **Medical facilities**: The medical element in special education costs also makes it costly particularly the hospitals of special schools.

### 2.3.5 Developing countries financial constraints in Special Needs Education

According to Partners in Disability Forum (2007), one of the constraints that many special schools face is the shortage of finance resource. This results into inadequate infrastructure and low quality of education. For example the physical facilities such as buildings, classrooms etc are inadequate; lack of clean water, electricity resulting in inadequate lighting,
and equipment for example shortage of desks; lack of communication facilities such as ICT, telephone and of specialized services for the pupils. All these require finances.

According to UNESCO (1998) developing countries have been facing major challenges in the funding of special needs education. The Governments continue to struggle with difficulties to support special needs education programmes. In Uganda education share of the national budget has grown from 25.3% in 1998/99 to 27.5% in 1999/2000. However the amount spent on the primary sector (special needs included) reduced in the national budget 1998/99. Resources from all sources fall below the real needs of the sector. Children related laws, policies and programmes initiated during the 1990s require enormous financial and human resources to enable effective implementation. Ghana on the other hand is no better. The Government of Ghana shoulders the whole financial burden of special education. Here special education suffers whenever there is a shortage of funds for the education as a whole. Support from other external sources accounts for 5% of the financial requirement for the special education.

This financial challenge has not left Kenya out. The government of Kenya allocates special needs education funds through the Ministry of Education budget. The funds are then channeled to special schools/units through school accounts. The funds are limited and cannot cater for adequate infrastructure, learning materials, computers and typewriters are also limited hence lead to inadequate infrastructure and learning materials. Many of the special schools are boarding hence the costs of running are high because the pupils basic needs have to be provided. In addition, special education requires specialized, equipments which call for extra resources. For example schools for the physically challenged requires additional personnel and higher usage of water to keep with the required standard of cleanliness. Materials for the blind and visually impaired students are also expenses such as charts in large format print and Braille. Text books are scarce as are magnifiers, glasses, reading stands, Braille paper and machines. Teaching materials and particularly for mathematics (abaci, cubes and cube boards, models, tactical diagrams) are not available locally and must be imported. In primary schools with a unit for special needs education the financial constraints sometimes create conflict within the school. Resources and facilities have to be shared.
2.4 Chapter Summary

Disability which is a term covering various impairment of body may occur during a person’s lifetime or be present from birth and can be caused by impairments subsystems of the body. It is a restrictive or lack of ability to perform an activity in a manner or within the range considered normal for human being. There are different kinds of disability such as physical disability, sensory disability, intellectual disability, mental health and emotional disabilities and development disability. Various theories and models of disability have been advanced in social and medical field of researchers.

Attitudes towards persons with disability have undergone changes in the recent past. Persons with disability were viewed with a lot of suspicion and various traditional beliefs or explanations to the disabilities were negative. The society saw the persons with disability as a burden not worth bearing. However during the last three decades there have been positive attitudes and persons with disability viewed as people entitled to rights and respect. Despite the positive attitudes change, the financing of education of persons with disability especially in the developing countries (Kenya included) still lags behind that of average persons. The budget allocations for education do not in any way highlight or consider the special education separately. Special education which require extra and expensive facilities and resources is left to share MOE allocated budget which itself is not enough.

Challenges on special need education financing/funding is a cross cutting issue among states both developed and developing. The challenges reviewed in this chapter includes; the unknown data for the children in special schools/units due to lack of data, this poses a challenge at the planning stage. Also the budgetary allocations on cost basis in those policies on costing are not in place. There is lack of trained personnel to handle the special needs children. On geographical challenge the monitoring procedures are not in place. The stability of the economy of a country determines the financial allocation to various sectors education included. This is seen in most of the developed countries. Nevertheless in most of the developing countries the economy is unstable and mostly relies on the external resources. In view of the above, special education financing policy in Kenya with an assessment of the mechanisms and their effects.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction
The chapter presented research methodology that was applied when carrying out the study. The study was guided by the researchers’ objectives in chapter one. First, a presentation of the research design was provided. This was followed by an explanation on the target population, data collection procedures and instruments and data analysis procedures.

3.2 Research Design
In order to find out the mechanisms and effects in financing of special schools/units in Kenya, the researcher purpose carried out a survey. The design that was used in this study was descriptive research which according to Orodho (2003) as cited by Kombo & Tromp (2009), was a method of collecting data by interviewing or administering a questionnaire to a sample of individuals. This method also helped in describing, recording analyzing and interpreting conditions that either exist or existed.

3.3 Population
According to Kenya Disability Directory (2010-2011), there were one hundred and forty four special schools/units and post secondary Institutions in Kenya categorized as follows: i) Schools for the Blind-8; ii) School for the Deaf- 44; iii) School for physically Handicapped -13; iv) School for Cerebral Palsy -2; v) School for mentally handicapped -53; vi) Post-secondary Institutions -4; vii) Integrated units for the disabled -20. These special schools/units and post secondary institutions were in almost every province in Kenya.

3.4 Sample
In order to achieve the objectives of the study the researcher used stratified random sampling of the special schools/units and post secondary institutions within Kenya which as far as possible produce a representation of the population as a whole. Gay (1992) states that 10% of a population is considered minimum while Kilemi (1995) States that the minimum sample size in research is 30 randomly selected cases. With this in mind, a sample size of 33 special schools/units and post secondary institutions were used representing 23% of each category of
institutions. The stratified random sampling was based on the seven categorization of the institutions divided into Schools for the Blind, Schools for the Deaf, Schools for physically Handicapped, Schools for Cerebral Palsy, Schools for mentally handicapped, Post- secondary Institutions and Integrated units for the disabled as shown in the table below:

**Table 1: Sample distribution by Institutions Classification**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution Type</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Schools for the Blind</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools for the deaf</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools for physically handicapped</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools for mentally handicapped</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools for Cerebral Palsy</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post secondary institutions</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated units for the disabled</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>144</strong></td>
<td><strong>33</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author, 2011

### 3.5 Data Collection

The researcher used both primary data and secondary data. The primary data was the first hand information from the target respondents; head teachers of the special schools/units, post secondary institutions. The instruments used included an interview guide and a structured questionnaire. Interviews were considered to be a verbal questionnaire. The researcher provided information verbally and face to face interview in order to have an opportunity to discuss some issues and gain any new relevant information for the success of the study while the structured questionnaire was dropped to the special schools/units, post secondary institution and collected later. The questionnaire had both open-ended and close-ended questions (see Appendix II) The secondary data was collected from the special schools/units, post secondary institutions financial statements, annual reports and any other written information concerning financing to the special schools/units and post secondary institutions in Kenya.
3.6 Data Analysis

The researcher examined what was collected in the survey and used both qualitative and quantitative methods. This was because the findings was reported in both narrative and numerical form. In qualitative data analysis, the researcher found out and compared the views of the respondents on the challenges on funding of special schools/units and post secondary institutions. The qualitative data was analyzed using content analysis. This was a set of procedures for collecting and analyzing non structured information into a standardized format that allows one to make inferences about the research objective(s).

Descriptive statistics was used to analyze and summarize the data on the respondent’s views on the challenges of financing special schools/units and post secondary institutions in Kenya. The data was then coded as per their responses, identify key words and phrases in the responses then relate the key words to emerging patterns. From these themes and patterns a category of data was drawn out and meaning derived from them to interpret the results. This included percentages and frequencies. Tables and charts were used to present data collected for ease of understanding and analysis.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction
The objectives of this study were to determine the mechanisms for financing special education and to investigate the effects of special education financing policies in Kenya. This chapter presents the findings of the study and discussions on the findings. The findings answer the research questions outlined on the background of the study. The data from the completed questionnaires were summarized and presented in tables. Percentages and mean scores were used to summarize and describe the data.

4.2 Respondents Characteristics
Out of the 33 questionnaires distributed only 27 were returned. The average response rate was therefore, 82%. The pattern of the response is presented in table 2 below.

Table 2: Classification of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution Type</th>
<th>Questionnaires returned</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Schools for the Blind</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools for the deaf</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools for physically handicapped</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools for mentally handicapped</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools for Cerebral Palsy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post secondary institutions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated units for the disabled</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>27</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author, 2011
4.2.1 Years of Service in the Institution

Figure 1: Years of service in the institution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of Years in service</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-5 yrs</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 yrs</td>
<td>32.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 yrs</td>
<td>28.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20+ yrs</td>
<td>22.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author, 2011

The respondents were asked to state the number of years they have been in service with their various institutions, majority of 32.3% have been with their institutions for between 6-10 years, 29% have been in service for 11-20 years, 22.6% have served for 20 or more years. The least percentage come from those who have been in service for less than 5 years and that had 16.1%. We can therefore deductively say as suggested that the employees have good experience in their various jobs.

4.2.2 Level of Training of the respondents

Figure 2: levels of respondents training

Source: Author, 2011
The level of training of the respondents as shown in the figure above is that 65% of the respondents have gone through regular training while the latter 35% have gone through special education training. This points to the fact that most of the institutions are composed of semi-skilled workers who facilitate activities that are in line with the special programs education.

4.3 Special Need Education Catered for by Institutions

Figure 3: Special Need Education catered for by institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Special Need Education</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post secondary Institution</td>
<td>25.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated Unit</td>
<td>32.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special school</td>
<td>41.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author, 2011

The study sought to find out the various needs that are catered for by the institutions under survey, most of the institutions cater for special needs which had the highest percentage of 41.9%, integration of units had 32.2% and lastly post secondary institutions which had the least 25.8%. This underscores the fact that most of the institutions cater for special needs in Kenya.
4.3.1 Special Needs Education Catered for by Institutions

Table 3: Special Needs Education catered for by Institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blind</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physically Handicapped</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentally Handicapped</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deaf Blind</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deaf</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>32.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cerebral Palsy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gifted and Talented</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autism</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>93</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author, 2011

The various institutions cater for the needs ranging from blind to autism. Those that cater for the deaf had the highest percentage 32.3%, mentally handicapped had 21.5%, physically handicapped had 14%, deaf and blind 10.8%, blind and autism both had 6.5%. Lastly was cerebral palsy and the gifted and talented which had the least percentage of 4.3%. The institutions in Kenya for special education cater mostly for those who are deaf and mentally handicapped.

4.3.2 School enrollment

Fig. 4: Special School enrollment

Source: Author, 2011
The enrollment number as per the institutions was brought into question. As presented above, most of the institutions enroll 81-120 students with 37.5% while those who enroll 41-80 students account for 31.25%. There are also other institutions that enroll below 40 students having 18.75%. Very few institutions enroll more that 120 students thus 12.5%.

4.3.3 Admission into Special School programs

Figure 5: Special School programs admission

![Pie chart showing admission sources]

Source: Author, 2011

The way the students find their way to these institutions as shown in the figure above is either through references at 75% or are brought in by either parents or relatives at 25%.
4.4 Institutions Funding

Figure 6: Special School programs funding

Source: Author, 2011

The respondents were asked to indicate whether their institutions receive funds from external sources. 81% of the respondents indicate presence of external funding while 19% indicated no funding. This shows that most of the institutions that cater for special education receive funds from some other institution or organization.

4.4.1 Funds Providers

Figure 7: Special School programs funding sources

Source: Author, 2011
The research sought to establish the organizations funding the various special education institutions in Kenya. As shown in the figure above, the government of Kenya through the ministry of education provides most of the funds thus 29.3%. Also, the government of Kenya through the Community Development Fund provides funding at 25.81%. Other fees collected by the institutions and Non-governmental organizations both cater for 16.13% of the funding. Donors form 12.9% of the total providers of funds.

4.4.2 Policy Document on Disbursement of Special Education Funds

Figure 8: Existence of documented policy on disbursement of funds

Source: Author, 2011

The study further sought to establish whether there was a document stating the policy on disbursement of funds in the various institutions. 82% of the respondents confirmed existence of the document in the name National Fund for Persons with Disability enforced by National Council for persons with disability (NCPWD). 18% of the respondents indicated that the document may be inexistent.
4.4.3 Role of Policy Document for Management of Funds

Figure 9: If Policy document act as Guide for Management of Funds

Form the figure above, the policy document is used by majority of the institutions to manage the funds that are disbursed to them. 74% said that they follow the document as a guide while 26% said that they don’t use it. This underscores the importance of this document in the management of funds disbursed to this institutions.

4.5 Sufficiency of Allocated Budgetary Resources

Figure 10: Budgetary Resources are Sufficiency

Source: Author, 2011
The respondents were asked if the funds that they receive are enough to meet their budgetary needs. 67.74% indicated that it is not enough while only 32.26% indicated it is enough. This finding alludes to the fact that no matter the funding provided by the various funding organs, there is still a deficit on the needs that are expected to be met by the institutions.

4.5.1 Special education pupil-teacher ratio
All the respondents indicate that special schools have more teachers and require teaching aides and assistants in addition to more administrative staff to handle its administration which is more complex than in ordinary schools. From their findings, over 50% of special education spending goes on staff remuneration.

4.5.2 Transportation costs in special education
All the respondents concur that special pupils need more home to school transport more than ordinary pupils and which takes in excess of 10% of the total special education spending budget.

4.5.3 Boarding facilities
All respondents indicate that more is spent on boarding for special pupils because special boarding units’ costs are almost double those of ordinary boarding thereby making the institutions financially overstretched and they require additional funding other than from the government.

4.5.4 Special pupils’ supplies
From the study, all the respondents allude to the fact that more is spent on special pupil’s supplies as they require more equipment such as hearing aids and care materials some of which are sophisticated scientific equipment and very costly.

4.5.5 Medical facilities
The medical element in special education costs also makes it costly particularly the hospitals of special schools. All the respondents indicate that the medical facilities are stretched and they require proper funding for establishment and operational costs.
4.6 Induction on Management of Funds

Figure 11: Whether inducted on how to manage funds

Source: Author, 2011

The study took an interest on whether the institutions were inducted on how they manage the funds that are disbursed to them. 90.32% said they are while 9.86% said otherwise as shown above. This shows the importance and interest the funding bodies have on how the funds they give are managed and used in order to promote accountability.

4.7 Auditing of the Institutions

Figure 12: Whether Institution is Audited

Source: Author, 2011
The figure above shows the response when the population was asked whether the institutions they work for are audited by external agencies. 80.6% said it is done while only 19.4% said auditing is not done. This adds more weight on the enforcement of accountability and putting resources to good use by the providers of the funds.
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction
This chapter presents the summary of the data findings on the analysis the conclusions and recommendations are drawn there to. The chapter is structured into summary of findings, conclusions, recommendations and area for further research.

5.2 Summary of Findings and Discussions
Most of the special institutions in Kenya enroll 81-120 students with 37.5% while those who enroll 41-80 students account for 31.25%. There are also other institutions that enroll below 40 students having 18.75%. Very few institutions enroll more that 120 students thus 12.5%. The students find their way to these institutions either through references at 75% or are brought in by either parents or relatives at 25%. 81% of the respondents indicate presence of external funding while 19% indicate no funding thereby portraying a sector that is heavily reliant on external funding. The government of Kenya through the ministry of education provides most of the funds thus 29.3%. Also the government of Kenya through the Community Development Fund provide funding at 25.81%. Other fees collected by the institutions and Non-governmental organizations both cater for 16.13% of the funding. Donors form 12.9% of the total providers of funds. The respondents were asked if the funds that they receive are enough to meet their budgetary needs, 67.74% indicated that these funding is not adequate given the high teacher – pupil ratio requirement, transportation costs, boarding facility costs, medical facility costs and special supplies.

Most teachers who administer special education program have not attained the required level of special education training at 35% hence most of them at 65% have gone through regular training. The major category of special need education are the deaf and mentally handicapped children with 32.3% and 21.5% respectively.
The study findings posit that funds from the ministry of education are disbursed to the various institutions and are used according to the document governing their use. The institutions follow the policies stipulated which may encourage accountability but at the same time may stifle innovation or improvement. The Managers of the funds are inducted and audited to foster and push for accountability on these funding.

Most of the institutions in Kenya that cater for special needs offer the care from early childhood to secondary school. As we have observed there are very few post secondary institutions in the country. Most of the respondents have the regular training that is given to those who take care of this special group of people. The number that is trained in special education is quite small to cater for the needs of this people. A good number of institutions in Kenya cater for deaf and those who are mentally handicapped. There are people with special needs such as cerebral and palsy also autism who need extra care. The institutions enroll a large number of students considering the facilities that they have. This makes it difficult for all the students to get adequate access to them.

5.3 Conclusions and Recommendations
As observed from the study, the institutions get their funding from various sources with government of Kenya, through Ministry of education being the largest provider of both the development and operational expenses funding fro this school segment. There is however a general feeling that the funding is inadequate and the cost of providing special education remains high with respect to requirement of special supplies, transport and boarding facilities for the special need students.

The study findings posit that funds from the ministry of education are disbursed to the various institutions and are used according to the document governing their use. The institutions follow the policies stipulated which may encourage accountability but at the same time may stifle innovation or improvement. The Managers of the funds are inducted and audited to foster and push for accountability on these funding.
The Government and other donors should therefore come up with means through which they can establish more school for those with disabilities to ensure they are catered for from childhood to adulthood. More teachers should be trained in order to cater for the ones with special needs considering the statistics there are very few teachers who are specially trained. The funding organs should ensure that they start up projects that will target all the people with marginalized issues that are considered special and no one is to be left out. Institutions that can be expanded should be so that it can cater for more students with disabilities.

5.4. Limitations of the study
Limitations include, the study restricted focus on the special schools within one geographical area. The study focused on the special schools units, post secondary institution in Nairobi and its environs only and considering the diversity of the country, the findings may not be representative of the whole population of special schools in Kenya. However, the sampling technique used ensured that each respondent had a non-zero chance of being selected to participate in the study.

The time allocated for data collection may not have been sufficient to enable the respondent complete the questionnaire as accurately as possible, considering that they were at the same time carrying out their duties of administering such as mid-term exams and priority is of essence. The researcher preferred to administer the data collection tools only the sampled respondents, however, this was practically not possible as some of them delegated this request to deputy head teachers and class teachers, since they were either too busy or over handling official duties.

5.5 Suggestion for Further Research
The findings of this study, it is hoped will contribute to the existing body of knowledge and form basis for future researchers. The following areas of further research are thus suggested;
i) Whereas the current study focused on responses from the headteachers of the special institutions will respect to mechanism financing policies and its effects further studies should focus on the viability and usefulness of the special need children after acquiring education
especially the mentally handicapped children. Do they go back to the streets, rejected by the community, hidden by the parents or lack of employment by the government?

ii) The present study did not allow a geographical boundaries and hence to be considered crucial in the funding policies and effects, time frame should be considered in further to cover all the countries within Kenya.

iii) There is need to adjust the survey instruments to capture the much more on special education funding programmes based on the special education enrolment and explore on areas on budgeting allocation.
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Schneider, S. and Cosma, D. 2008. Financing the public university education in Romanian during the economic crisis, West University of Timisoara, Romania.


Pamela Anyango Okatch,
School of Business,
Faculty of Commerce,
University of Nairobi
P.O Box 30197-00100
Nairobi.

August 2011.

Dear Correspondent,

RE: QUESTIONNAIRE ON MECHANISMS AND EFFECTS OF SPECIAL EDUCATION FINANCING POLICY IN KENYA:

I am a student at the above named Institution. In partial fulfillment of the requirement for the award of the master of business administration degree, I am carrying out a research project on the above mentioned topic with a view to determine the mechanisms and effects of financing policy in special schools, units, post secondary institutions programmes.

The purpose of this letter is to request to kindly provide information to the best of your knowledge by filling in the attached questionnaire. Your cooperation in this exercise will be highly appreciated and any information provided will be treated with high level confidentiality and used for academic purposes.

Kindly note that my student Identification card will be provided for identification purposes.

Yours Faithfully,

Pamela Anyango Okatch
APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE

Kindly answer the following questions by ticking in the appropriate bracket( ) or filing the spaces provided.

Section A: General Information.

1. How can you describe your school?
   - Special school ( )
   - Inclusive ( )
   - Integrated Unit ( )
   - Post secondary Institution ( )

2. How long have you been teaching in this school?
   - 0-5 yrs ( )
   - 6-10 yrs ( )
   - 11-20 yrs ( )
   - 20 + yrs ( )

3. Have you undergone training in SNE?
   - Yes ( )
   - No ( )

4. If No. in 3, how did you acquire the knowledge in SNE?

5. Which category of special need education does your school cater?
   - Blind ( )
   - Deaf ( )
   - Physically Handicapped ( )
   - Cerebral Palsy ( )
   - Mentally Handicapped ( )
   - Gifted and Talented ( )
   - Deaf Blind ( )
   - Autism ( )
   - Others (specify) ( )
6. What is your school enrolment?

1-20 ( ) 21-50 ( ) 51-100 ( ) 100 and above ( )

7. How are the learners admitted in your school?

Referred from assessment centers ( )
Direct admission ( )
Others specify ..................................................... .

Section B: Financing policy, Mechanisms and Effects

8. a) Do you receive any funds for your Institution from GOK?

Yes ( ) No ( )

9. If Yes in No.8 , Who provide the funds?

Government of Kenya(MOE) ( )
Government of Kenya(CDF) ( )
NGOs ( )
Donors ( ) Specify.....................................................
Fees ( )
Others ( ) specify.....................................................

10. Does the GOK issue guidelines on how to use the funds?

Yes ( ) No ( )

11. If Yes in No.10 are the guidelines documented?

Yes ( ) No ( )
12. If No. In No. 10, what do you use as a guide in the usage of funds?

13. Are the guidelines useful to your Institution?
   Yes( ) No( )

14. Do you have challenges in using the guidelines?

15. Is the funds /money allocated from the GOK adequate for your need in the school?
   Yes( ) No( )

16. If No in 15, What do you do if the funds from the GOK are not enough?

17. What Challenges do you experience in running the special school/unit, post secondary Institution?

18. Are you inducted on how to manage the funds disbursed in your institution as per the guidelines, if any?
   Yes( ) No( )
19. Are your Institution audited?
   Yes ( )   No ( )

20. What are your comments and how can it be improved?

THANK YOU FOR TAKING YOUR TIME