Review

Kenya's nightmares in educational race towards vision 2030

Maiyo Julius*, Achoka Judy and Ogenga Paul

Department of Educational Planning and Management, Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology, P. O. Box 190 Kakamega, Kenya.

Accepted 21 February, 2013

Education plays a pivotal role in contributing to the human resource development and to nations general economic development in today's globalizing context. Education is viewed as 'adding value' to investment on human capital; this has seen changing labor market requirements shift to the phenomena of 'lifelong learning'. Like many other countries in Africa, Kenya has since independence in 1963, invested heavily in education as a means to social and economic development for her citizenry. The present study was envisaged to establish Kenya's education growth since independence and assess her current challenges. Data were collected from Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of National Planning and Development and Ministry of Education. The data were analyzed by use of descriptive statistics. Findings were presented by use of tables, charts and histogram. It was established that over the past five decades the number of students enrolled at various levels of education has substantially increased. At primary level enrollment grew from 891,533 in 1963 to 7.8 million in 2010. At secondary level enrollment grew from 30,000 in 1963 to 1.4 million in 2010 with corresponding increase of school to 5186 from 151 at independence. Enrollment in the universities has been increasing since the establishment of university of Nairobi in 1970. Currently there are 7 public universities, 16 university colleges and 13 private universities. However, despite the rapid quantitative growth in the education sector, many nightmares still haunt Kenya's efforts. The nightmares range from quality, equity, low transition rates to inefficiency; making attainment of the millennium development goals by the year 2015 as well as Vision 2030 seem a dreams! It is recommended that, an integrated approach that involves all the educational stakeholders in monitoring all education inputs and operations be embraced.

Key words: Growth, education, nightmare, millennium, haunt, independence.

INTRODUCTION

Investments in education are widely recognized as a key component of a country's development strategy. Increases in the quantity and quality of educational provision have been associated with a wide range of benefits including enhanced productivity, reduced poverty and income inequality, improved health and economic growth, more wealth and income distribution, greater equality of opportunity, availability of skilled human power, a decline in population growth, long life, better health outcomes, low crime rates, national unity and political stability. This belief has made many individuals and nations to invest immensely in education.

Schultz (1981) has noted that population quality and knowledge constitute the principal determinants of the future welfare of mankind. Expounding on this further, Harbison (1973) argues that the wealth of nations depend on their capacity to develop their human resources and not so much on their physical resources. He argues that a country which is unable to develop skills and knowledge of its people and to utilize them effectively in the national economy will be unable to develop anything else.

^{*}Corresponding author. E-mail: maiyojulius@yahoo.com.

According to Pscharopolos (1988) education is considered the route to economic prosperity, the key to scientific and technological advancement, the means to combat unemployment, the foundation of social equality, equal wealth distribution, and the spearhead of political socialization and cultural diversity. Education is also seen as defining and guiding cultural, economic and political dynamics and generational developmental imperative of societies (Ayodo and Gravenir, 1999; Nafukho, 1998; Okech and Abagi, 1997; Amutabi, 2003). Similar studies indicate that countries with high literacy rates among men and women have lower levels of fertility, lower infant and maternal mortality and longer life expectancy. As evidenced by various studies, the socio-economic benefits accruing to formal education are now unambiguous, and when educational opportunities are opened to women such benefits are even greater.

Spurred by such evidence, governments in developing countries devote their scarce resources to education. Education reform and development has been long standing objectives of the Government of Kenya (GoK) since gaining its independence in 1963 (Oketch, 2003). Although the causal relationship between schooling and development in Kenya is less extensive compared to more industrialized and developed nations, there is sufficient evidence to conclude that provision of quality education leads to both economic and social development. Kenya's national development goals and philosophy has identified education as strategic to the social and economic development of the country. It spelt out the government overall development strategy in relation to the provision of education with key elements namely; 1) the provision of quality education and training 2) the development of quality human resource that is central to the attainment of national and industrial development 3) the realization of universal access to basic education and training, which includes equitable access to education and training for all children, both the disadvantages and vulnerable groups and 4) education is necessary for the development and protection of democratic institutions and human rights. It is in this regard, that the Kenyan Government has continued to invest heavily in formal education.

The priorities and commitment of the government of Kenya in the provision of education is reflected in the relatively large and consistent resource allocations and expenditure since independence, even with the country's highest development priorities. The actual public expenditure on education and training has steadily increased over the last five years from Ksh 72,292 billion in 2003/2004 to Ksh 104,686.39 in 2007/2008.The government spending on education and training (both recurrent and development) as percentage of total government expenditure ranged between 23.55 and 27.43% (with a record of 27.43% in 2003/2004 reducing

to 23.55% in 2006/2007 before increasing to 27.16 in 2007/2008). In 2007/2008, the recurrent expenditure accounted for 93.08% of the total ministry's expenditure while development expenditure accounted for only 6.92%. The recurrent expenditure as percentage of the total Ministry's expenditure has been on declining trend. It declined from 94.0% in 2003/2004 to 93.08 in 2007/2008. On the other hand the development expenditure as percentage of total ministry's expenditure as percentage of total ministry's expenditure as percentage of total ministry's expenditure ranged between 3.58 and 6.96% over the period 2003/04 to 2007/08 (MOE, 2009).

The share of public expenditure devoted to education allows an assessment of the priority a government assigns to education relative to other public investments, as well as a government's commitment to investing in human capital development(World Bank,2010). It also reflects the development status of a country's education system relative to that of others.

With such a heavy investment of the scarce resources to education in expense of other pertinent ministries that demands government attention is a reflection on how education is treasured to play a pivotal role in stimulating economic growth and development of a country. Investment returns to both individuals and the government do not seem to be commensurate in regards critical mass of educated and skilled man power. It is out of this background that the present study was envisaged to assess the extent of education growth since independence and education race in achieving the vision 2030. The paper evaluates the growth of education by determining the enrollment of education and also discusses the emerging challenges that threaten the growth and development of education.

ENROLLMENT

Enrollment ratios help monitor whether a country is on track to achieve the Millennium Development Goal of universal primary education by 2015, and whether an education system has the capacity to meet the needs of universal primary education (World Bank, 2010).To assess the growth of education system, enrollment of students at primary, secondary and university level of education was determined and the analysis and findings are presented in the Table 1.

Enrollment at primary school level

Primary education has direct and positive effects on the earning profile of individuals at the labour market; it also influences human fertility, health and nutrition. The effects of primary education on development are largely a result of cognitive skills which impart literacy, numeracy and problem solving. Higher education and training rests on a solid foundation which is a by-product of primary education system (World Bank, 1990).

Province	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Central	904,770	910,806	903,638	882,429	888,236	911,340	975 561
Coast	486,629	556,013	585,543	600,041	643,355	658,860	689 798
Eastern	1,309,807	1,371,680	1,379,909	1,378,210	1,480,629	1,538,785	1 565 188
N.Eastern	66,773	69,958	70,891	81,182	98,629	115,287	138 172
Nairobi	217,167	229,252	237,858	234,819	319,000	320,102	345 939
Nyanza	1,339,895	1,321,901	1,324,239	1,334,597	1,441,735	1,508,264	1 576 779
R.Valley	1,779,789	1,833,990	1,951,235	1,998,277	2,185,052	2,191,340	1 977 115
Western	1,054,694	1,101,162	1,143,972	1,122,557	1,273,510	1,333,640	1 365 127
National	7,159,524	7,394,762	7,597,285	7,632,113	8,330,148	8,577,619	8 827 535

Table 1. Primary School Enrollment by Province (2003 - 2009).

Source: MOE, 2009.

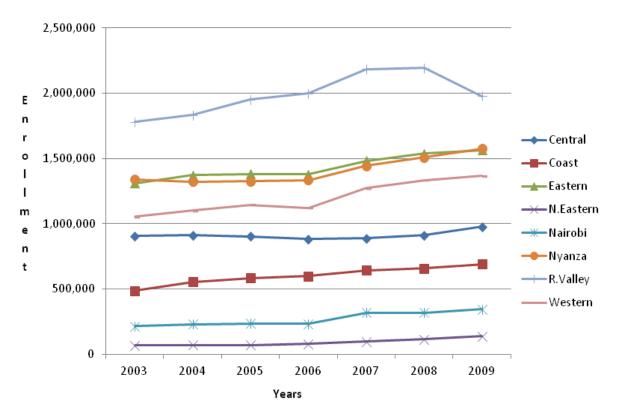


Figure 1. Primary school enrollment by Province (2003 - 2009).

To establish the trend of enrollment, the findings were presented in line graphs in the Figure 1.

Enrollment at secondary school

Enrollment at the secondary level of education was determined and the findings are presented in Table 2.

It can be noted from Figure 2 that secondary schools country wide has experienced a steady increase on enrollment. Drastic increase in enrollment in the year 2008 may be attributed to the introduction of tuition free secondary education policy by the government in the year 2008. Also enrollment per province was established and the findings are presented in Table 3.

To assess the trend of enrollment in this level of

Table 2. Enrollment at secondary school.

Year	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Enrollment	700,538	762,414	817,657	836,521	879,956	925,150	934,149	1,030,080	1,180,267	1,382,211
Year					2009				2010	
Enrollment				1,507,546					1,701,501	

Source: MOE, 2009.

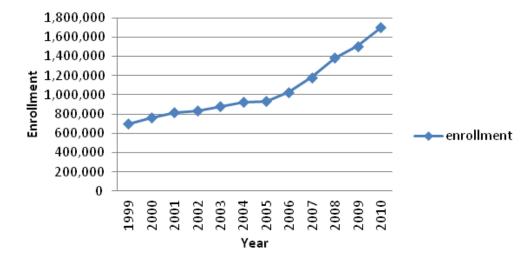


Figure 2. National enrollment at secondary school.

Province	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Central	156,618	165,707	169,416	171,281	187,392	181,078	204,142	223,244
Coast	42,353	43,284	42,136	49,356	55,367	48,291	58,473	65,304
Eastern	131,005	140,224	144,803	166,887	177,103	172,678	183,518	214,037
N. Eastern	5,241	5,255	5,224	12,451	5,511	6,084	7,785	8,997
Nairobi	23,628	19,429	16,700	20,212	29,708	28,459	29,694	49,728
Nyanza	129,675	128,347	132,737	155,670	148,469	169,644	182,982	206,994
R. Valley	155,557	159,604	159,447	183,258	204,374	204,613	243,148	266,305
Western	94,009	91,673	98,232	109,503	118,226	117,303	120,338	145,697

Table 3. Enrolment at secondary per province.

Source: MOE, 2009.

education the findings were presented as shown in Figure 3.

It can be deduced from the Figure 3 that Rift Valley province, Central and Eastern province experience high and increasing trend as compared to other provinces. North Eastern and Nairobi seem to be doing poorly on secondary enrollment, this could be attributed to inequality, poverty and inadequate facilities especially for North Eastern province while for Nairobi and it may be associated with the growth of slums and camps that is characterized with congestions and poor sanitation.

Enrollment at university

The demand for university education has continued

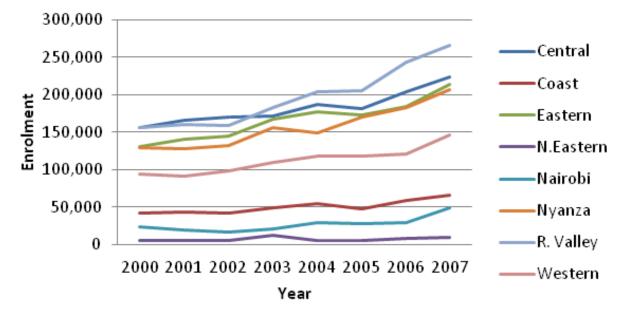


Figure 3. Enrollment at secondary school per province.

Table 4.	Enrollment at	university.
----------	---------------	-------------

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
University	/2001	/2002	/2003	/2004	/2005	/2006	/2007	/2008	/2009	/2010
Nairobi	14,833	24,696	25,689	26,712	32,974	33,705	34,939	36,339	37,415	42,360
Kenyatta	9,953	11,815	15,735	15,776	16,055	15,683	16,736	18,597	19,365	26,491
Moi	8,519	9,338	10,823	10,447	12,010	12,145	14,663	14,832	15,361	20,299
Egerton	8,985	9,101	9,362	9,352	8,597	8,498	12,169	12,467	13,082	13,487
J. Kenyatta	4,280	3,680	4,588	4,657	6,274	5,880	6,305	7,962	8,317	9,716
Maseno	4,134	4,048	5,635	5,607	5,581	4,704	4,715	5,686	5,860	5,507
MMUST			80	165	649	1,062	1,810	1,224	1,249	6,703
Private	8,491	8,671	9,129	9,541	10050	10,639	20,892	21,132	22,198	35,179
Total	59,195	71,349	81,041	82,257	91,541	92,316	112,229	118,239	122,847	177,735

Source: MOE, 2009.

unabated because it is the national "think-tank" in shaping and propelling national growth. The role of university education is to produce a cadre of highly qualified manpower equipped with requisite skills (Republic of Kenya, 2002a; 2005b). The society looks up to universities to take lead in generating the required knowledge and supply capable human capital and equipped with appropriate technology, and innovation needed to meet this goal (Republic of Kenya, 2005c). It is for this reason that the expansion and improvement of higher education in general, and universities in particular has always remained a top priority of the government. Enrollment in the universities has been increasing since the establishment of university of Nairobi in 1970. Currently there are 7 public universities, 16 university colleges and 13 private universities (Table 4).

From Figure 4, it can be noted that universities have experienced a phenomenon growth since independence. Nairobi University and Kenyatta University have taken the lead in enrollment, while Maseno University has experienced stagnation over the years in its enrollment. However, despite this expansion, these institutions are facing demand-related challenges, especially in terms of access and equity, relevance and quality, science and technology, management and global market ability (Republic of Kenya, 2005b).

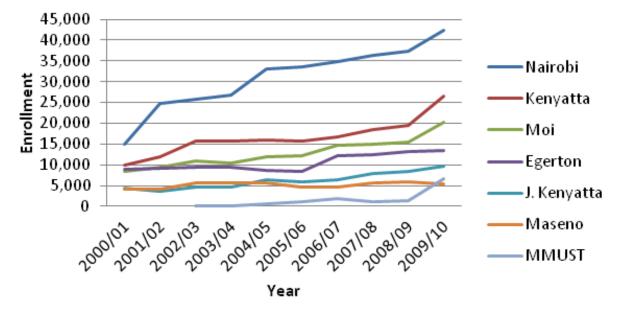


Figure 4. Enrollment at university.

CHALLENGES CONFRONTING EDUCATION GROWTH

Quality

The greatest gift and working tool a nation can offer its youth is education. A healthy society is nurtured through the provision of quality education that is accessible and relevant (Digolo,2006). The provision of quality education, perhaps, is the single most important duty of all governments in the world not only because it is noble but because education contributes to improving people's lives and reducing poverty in many ways including helping people to become more productive and earn more, improving health and nutrition, enriching lives directly and promoting social development through strengthening social cohesion and giving people more opportunities (Psacharopolous, 2002:Otiende et al. 1992). The provision of education as attracted enormous effort and concerns throughout the World.

The free education at the primary school and tuition free policy at the secondary was introduced to cushion children from poor socio-economic backgrounds, especially girls who had failed to participate in primary education or dropped out of school due to lack of fees and other school levies. Overall, the policy intervention could proof determinative in the efforts to achieve UPE and EFA. However, while free primary education has increased participation, it has at the same time created considerable problems. It has exacerbated the problem of teaching and learning facilities. As a result of the high influx of new pupils, classrooms are congested. Many of the preliminary surveys seem to show that the existing facilities make a mockery of the free education programme(Ntarangwi, 2003). Many school management feel that they are seriously constrained to improve the state of learning facilities due to the government's ban on school levies. At the same time, conditions laid down to request for concessions to institute levies are so cumbersome that they hesitate to embark on the process.

As a result of the free primary education, the situation of the teaching force in most of the schools across the counties is generally bad. Teachers complain of increased pupil teacher ratios. Many primary schools are understaffed. This does not augur well for the quality of education being delivered, for many students' learning remains inadequate. A recent nationwide survey comprising over a 100,000 students aged between 3 and 16 in over 2,000 schools, found that only 33% of children in class 2 can read a paragraph at their level. The survey further found that a third cannot read a word and 25% of class 5 students cannot read a class 2 paragraph (Uwezo, 2010). Many school management committees are of the opinion that as a result on the ban of levies, they are unable to recruit extra teachers through the PTAs and this has also seriously affected the performance of the public schools when compared with the private ones. The continued dominance of private schools in the KCPE has further raised concerns about the rising disparity in guality between public and private schools. As students from richer households increasingly enroll in private primary schools, designing policies that address the achievement gaps in public primary schools will overwhelmingly benefit students from poorer

households that are unable to access private schools.

The continued poor public school performance in the KCPE also acts as a barrier to secondary school access. Data from the 2004 KCPE examinations shows that 77 percent of private school candidates qualified for secondary school by scoring over 250 points, while only 45% of students in public schools qualified (MOE, 2009). This disparity in the performance between private and public primary schools has also led to the continued overrepresentation of private school graduates in the elite National Secondary schools. While the recently introduced MOE policy implemented a quota system on the number of private primary school students that could be admitted to National schools, this policy did not address the root causes of the private-public performance gaps. Moreover, it is possible that unintended consequences of this policy, such as increased social stratification in the secondary school system, where high performing private primary school students attend private secondary, could negatively impact the public secondary school system in the longrun.

Ironically, these problems are contributing to high school dropout rates, just as they did during the 1974 free primary education intervention. They have also seriously affected the inflow of transition rates from one level of education to the other.

Poverty and inequality

The term poverty has assumed multiplicity of meanings in different places and time. At the outset poverty is considered as a multi dimensional complex phenomenon which is manifested through the social process. According to Coppedge and Calton (1977) poverty and under-development are in extricable bound in a complex network of socio-economic relationship that historically have defied complete codification and eluded pragmatic effective policy prescription. The dynamics and underlying the process of poverty has been sought to be explained in terms of "interlocking deprivation trap" and "syndrome of poverty" by Chambers (1983) and "web of poverty" by Harrel (1979). Poverty is the world's current greatest threat to peace and stability more than terrorism and other highly publicized social and economic evils(Khan, 2008). According to Sachs (2005), more than eight million people around the world die each year because they are too poor to stay alive. Their plight is hardly articulated because the public hardly comments about it. The poorest of the poor currently stand at about one sixth of humanity. They live in extreme poverty and struggle daily for survival.

Inequality is seen in relation to differentials income. It can be observed in relation to differences in access to education, health and even enjoyment of political rights and representation. Poverty and inequality are interlinked, in that lack of resource to acquire basic needs automatically brings in differentials in relation to one's ability to access goods and services.

Poverty which hampers access to educational opportunities has a spillover effect onhousehold income and perpetuates inequalities in accessing of opportunities for individuals. Poverty still remains an impediment for many Kenyans. In the year 1992, about 44% of the Kenyan population lived under the poverty line. This figure increased to 52 and 56% in 1997 and 2002 respectively (KIHBS, 2009). KIPPRA (2009) estimates the extent of poverty to be over 41% of the Kenva's population to be living on less than Ksh 77 a day. Despite the much -lauded economic growth between 2003 and 2007, the report says Kenyans are poor now compared to 10 years ago. According to the report three million Kenyans lapsed into extreme poverty from 1997 to 2006.Out of Kenyans population of 40million, 16.6million survive on one meal a day and are also the most likely to die from disease, hunger and political violence. This has implications on school enrollment, although there has been an increase on enrollment since the free primary education and tuition free policy was introduced at secondary, still about 3 million children are not enrolled in primary schools (Sifuna, 2005). This can be attributed to poverty because the poor household looses more when their children attend the schooling in the short run due to high opportunity cost. This has been also supported by Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey (KIHBS, 2009; Republic of Kenya, 2007) basic report which asserts that 'there still exists a significant group of people who are not taking advantage of FPE, some of the reasons cited for these include incidental cost to schooling like school uniforms and feeding which present a financial burden to most parents. Children also supplement parental labor, this is because children are compelled to work or help at home.

Inequalities are viewed in relation to access. Access to education is determined by a number of factors such as cost, proximity to educational facility and availability of appropriate physical amenities such school laboratories and adequate instructional material. Inequalities in relation to access to quality education are apparent in Kenyan educational landscape. Earning disparities create inequalities in the ability to access quality education at the Primary and Secondary levels of education as middle and upper income bracket earners are more likely take their children to lesser affordable but more competitive private and provincial schools. Inequalities in relation to resource allocations also have a bearing on the performance of schools, National and private schools are well equipped in terms of classrooms, laboratories and other social amenities thus providing conducive atmosphere for learning. On the other hand, public district and low income private schools especially those located in rurals areas and other specific regions such as

 Table 5. Transition rates.

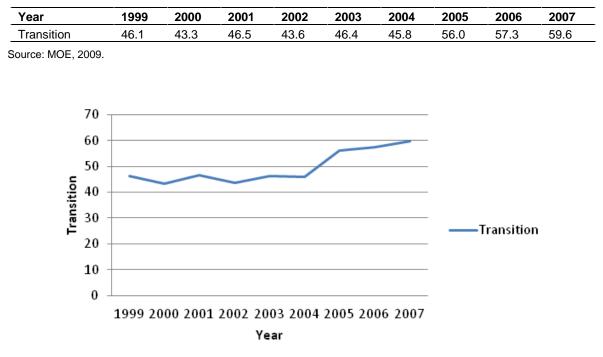


Figure 5. Transition rates.

pastoralist (Arid and semi arids areas) lack learning resources such as laboratories and libraries. This is reflected in the deplorable state of classrooms, lack of essential amenities such as laboratories and dormitories. These institutions also lack qualified teachers in sciences and mathematics 'most schools are characterized by a high mobility of teachers and these problem is reflected in poor academic achievement. Most of these schools are characterized by high dropout rates, high incidences of drug addiction, bullying and teenage pregnancy.

Inequalities are also apparent in accessing higher education. Access to institutions of higher learning is competitive and is influenced by the availability of finances. Few qualified students are admitted to public universities via the Joint Admissions Board (JAB) and those who do not join the regular university programmes do so 'on a self sponsored programmes or Private universities. Though higher education programmes have widened learning opportunities for many cost of accessing education run under these programmes and institutions is high and mainly attract individuals from middle and upper classes.

Transition rates

Transitions in education describe the flow of students

between different stages in the school system: from one level to the next, between grades within a given level, and out of and back into schools. According to Boudon (1974), the transition through the educational system may be described as a series of branching points, at which students may continue schooling, change direction or leave. Although the primary school is free and compulsory in Kenya, certain proportions of the age groups never enter primary school due to poverty and other related reasons. The transition rates are defined by the proportion of school leavers from one level that are enrolled at the next level, or at the end to the world of work.

Transition between primary and secondary schools

As an indicator of learner survival beyond the primary education cycle, the primary and secondary transition rate shows the proportion of primary school completers who proceeded to form 1 in the subsequent years (Table 5 and Figure 5).

Analysis shows that the overall transition rate remained below 47% between 1999 and 2004. The overall transition rates rose above the 50% mark in 2005. The 2007 transition rate further increased to 59.6%. The

Province	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Central	46.3	48.6	46.9	57.3	58.5	59.6	63.7	64.7	57.4	64.2
Coast	32.6	31.0	33.4	32.5	31.0	52.1	34.0	39.0	40.0	46.1
Eastern	38.7	36.3	38.2	47.5	48.9	51.2	49.4	53.5	46.8	51.2
N/eastern	43.2	46.4	52.8	42.9	43.8	44.9	45.1	44.2	40.5	45.7
Nairobi	29.0	29.6	27.0	32.5	33.5	34.5	50.9	58.3	38.0	45.9
Nyanza	39.4	42.4	50.0	35.4	36.1	47.3	57.1	63.6	50.2	56.8
R. Valley	32.9	34.2	37.2	21.1	21.6	41.7	48.5	54.3	42.5	46.7
Western	53.2	49.4	51.0	52.6	53.7	55.8	52.0	59.8	49.5	60.1
National	39.9	40.1	40.9	41.7	42.6	50.6	52.1	59.7	59.7	59.9

Table 6. Transition rates per province.

Source: MOE, 2009.

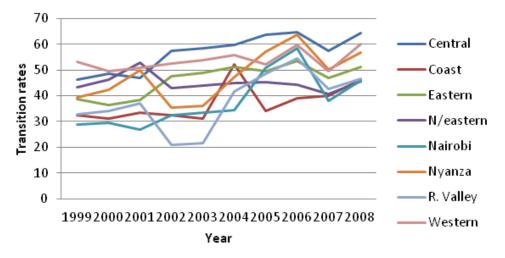


Figure 6. Transition rates per province.

increase in the transition rates can in part be attributed FPE and the re-entry of former drop outs.

Analysis of Transition rates per province was also done and the findings are presented in Table 6.

It can be noted from Figure 6 that the transition rates from Primary-Secondary from 1999-2008 indicate that Central Province (56.72%) had the highest transitions rate followed by Western province (53.71%) whilst Coast (37.17%) and Nairobi (37.92%) have the lowest transition rates. At the base year 1999, the Primary to Secondary transition rate was lower than the national average of 39.9 percent in Coast Province (32.6%) and Nairobi (29.0%), Nyanza (39.4%), Rift Valley (32.9%) and Eastern (38.7%). It is noteworthy that in 2004, immediately after the re-introduction of the Free Primary Education (FPE) programme in Kenya, significant increments in the primary to secondary transitions were recorded in all the eight provinces.

The transition rates are the results of a combination of individual decisions and contextual factors which interact

with each other. Transitions from one level to the next depend, on the one hand of the availability of school places within realistic reach (geographically and economically), and on the other hand, on individual decisions of the students (and their families). The individual decisions depend on a series of structural factors: students must be adequately prepared from previous schooling, and going to school must be considered beneficial both by the individual student, his/her family, and the community.

Transition from secondary to university

The study also established the transition from secondary to University. The findings are summarized in Table 7.

A total of 74,282 students attained university entry grade in 2007, constituting 26.9% of the total KCSE candidates as shown in Table 7. The proportion of qualifying students increased from 24.9% in 2003 to

KCSE yr	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Adm year	2003/2004	2004/2005	2005/2006	2006/2007	2007/2008	2008/2009
Ct	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
No.Reg	198356(100)	207730(100)	222676(100)	260,665(100)	243,319(100)	276,192(100)
No.Qlf	42,158(21.6)	49,870(24.0)	582,240(26.2)	68,040(26.1)	62,926(25.9)	72,282(26.9%)
No.Adm	11,046(5.6)	11,000(5.3)	11,000(4.9)	16,000(6.1)	17,000(7.1)	17,000(6.2)

Table 7. Transition from secondary to University.

Ad.yr- admission year; ctg-category; No. Rg-Number registered; No.Qlf-Number qualified with C+ and above; No.Ad-number admitted. Source: MOE, 2009.

26.9% in 2007.The admission to public universities increased from 11,000 students in 2003 to 17,000 students in 2006.This transition is still very compared to the students who qualified for the university education; it means that about 90% of the students who qualify for university are unable to get access to higher education to pursue their dreams.

CONCLUSION

Education is a central component of any nation's developmental process and for it to facilitate this function it should be adequately financed and constantly subjected to periodic evaluation to ensure that it is in harmony with both local and global needs.

Education system in Kenya since independence has experienced phenomenon growth in enrollment at primary level enrollment grew from 891,533 in 1963 to 7.8 million in 2010. At secondary level enrollment grew from 30,000 in 1963 to 1.4 million in 2010 with corresponding increase of school to 5186 from 151 at independence.

Despite this growth there are regional disparities in access to education especially at post-primary level and in marginalized areas. In addition, students with special needs are not targeted adequately. Provision and access to education continues to be undermined by social, political and economic factors.

Factors that undermine access include; poverty, high cost of education at the higher levels and quality. In relation to provision of education; this has greatly been determined by external and internal factors within the education system, these include; past government policy based on exclusionary practices and political patronage, skewed distribution of education facilities and the school management system.

For the country to achieve the millennium development goals in 2015 and the Vision 2030, the education system is the prime vehicle and thus the provision of relevant and quality education need to be emphasized as opposed to quantity or mass education.

RECOMMENDATION

The study suggests the following recommendation to be adopted:

1. It is recommended that, an integrated approach that involves all the educational stakeholders in monitoring and evaluating all education inputs and operations be embraced.

2. To increase access and participation, especially for the sparsely-populated parts of the country, there is a need for the establishment of feeder schools and/or multigrade schools to bring education closer to the children.

3. To meet the challenges posed by FPE on the quality of primary education in the country, the government should rationalize the recruitment and deployment of teachers, especially in disadvantaged regions and schools.

REFERENCES

- Amutabi M (2003). Political interference in the running of education in post- independence Kenya: a critical retrospection, Int. J. Edu. Dev., 23: 141.
- Harbison F (1973). Human Resources as the Wealth of Nations. New York. Oxford University Press.
- Khan H, William JB (2008). Poverty Alleviation through Access to Education: Can life E-learning deliver?
- Ntarangwi M (2003). The Challenges of Education and Development in Post-Colonial Kenya; Africa Development, 27: 3-4: Council For the development of Social Sciences Research in Africa.
- Oketch M (2003). Market Models of Financing Higher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Examples from Kenya: Department of Leadership, Policy and Organization: Higher Education Policy: Partner News Vol No 8; How to understand inequality in Kenya: http://www.ms.dk/sw7605.asp
- Otiende J et al. (1992). Education and Development in Kenya: A Historical Perspective Nairobi: Oxford University Press. (Provide complete names of author)

- Psacharopolous G (1988). Education and Development: A Review. Washington, DC: World Bank. Republic of Kenya (2005a). Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development (MLHRD) Strategic Plan. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Republic of Kenya (2005b). Kenya Education Sector Support programme 2005-2010: Delivering quality education and training to all Kenyans.
- Republic of Kenya (2005c). Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 on a Policy Framework for Education, Training and Research: Meeting the Challenges of Education, Training and Research in Kenya in the 21st Century. Nairobi: Government printer.
- Republic of Kenya (2007). Kenya Vision 2030: A Competitive and Prosperous Kenya. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Schultz T (1981). Investing in People. Berkeley. University of California Press.
- Uwezo (2010). Kenya National Learning Assessment report 2010, Uwezo, Nairobi, Kenya.