

THE EFFECTS OF FREE PRIMARY EDUCATION ON BARRIERS TO UNIVERSAL
ACCESS TO EDUCATION IN KAWINO LOCATION, KISUMU COUNTY, KENYA

BY

SUSAN AYUGI

A RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTERS OF ARTS IN MONITORING AND
EVALUATION

DEPARTMENT OF URBAN AND REGIONAL PLANNING

MASENO UNIVERSITY

©2016

DECLARATION

I declare that this proposal is my original work and has not been presented for a degree or any diploma award in any other university.

Signature..... Date

Susan Ayugi

Reg No: PG/PA/00013/2012.

APPROVAL

This project report has been submitted for examination with my approval as University supervisor.

Supervisor:

Name: Dr. Leah Onyango

Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Maseno University.

Signature.....Date.....

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I give thanks to Almighty God for inspiration, wisdom, knowledge and success in my academics. Secondly I appreciate all the lecturers in the Department of Urban and Regional Planning for their invaluable contribution and support towards my work. My appreciation particularly goes to Dr. Leah Onyango for her guidance throughout my study. I also want to give lots of thanks to the chief, residents, teachers, pupils and parents of Kawino location for their immense support and co-operation towards this study. My appreciation goes to my family and friends for continuous encouragement and support. Finally I do thank my children Rihanna, Randy and Jey who have given me inspiration to complete my studies

DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this research project to my family for all their support

ABSTRACT

Free primary education programme was launched in Kenya to support realization of universal primary education. Despite the fact that free primary education programme is in place, the enrollment rate is of 73% in Kawino against the global enrollment target of 99%. This indicates that there still exist barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino. The purpose of this study is establish barriers addressed by free primary education programme and ones not addressed. The main objective of the study is to establish the effect of Free Primary Education on universal access to primary education in Kawino location Kisumu County. The specific objectives are to establish barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino location, to assess how free primary education program addresses barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino location and to establish implementation challenges in removing barriers to universal access to primary education and ways of removing them. The study used a cross sectional survey study design. The target population was 12920 from which a sample size of 384 was drawn using quota sampling. The data was analyzed with the aid of descriptive statistics. The study established that 56.6% of respondents mentioned economic barriers, 20.8% mentioned FPE related barriers, 16.6% socio-cultural and 5.7% geographical barriers as the reasons why universal access to education had not been achieved. In addition it was established that free primary education only addressed 27.7% of the economic barriers. Additionally other barriers beyond economic are not addressed by Free Primary Education programme at all. Study further established that 100% of respondents mentioned major implementation challenges in removing barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino as lack of adequate funding and delays in funds disbursement. The study concluded that the funding for Free Primary Education was inadequate because it was not able to address 72.7% of the economic barriers to primary education. It also concluded that free primary education programme does not address all barriers to primary education such as geographical and socio-cultural barriers. The study recommends that FPE education programme should be redesigned in order to cater for barriers that go beyond economic. Furthermore government budgetary increase on FPE programme and mobilization of sufficient resources should be in place.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iii
DEDICATION	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vi
ABBREVIATIONS	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background to study.....	1
1.2 Problem statement	4
1.3 Research objectives	5
1.3.1 Main objective	5
1.3.2 Specific objective	5
1.4 Research Question.....	5
1.5 Justification	5
1.6 Limitation of study	5
CHAPTER TWO	7
LITERATURE REVIEW	7
2.1 Free Primary Education policy and objectives.....	7
2.2 Barriers to accessibility of Primary Education.....	8
2.2.1 Economic barriers to accessing primary education	8
2.2.2 Geographical barriers to accessing primary education.....	10
2.2.3 Socio-cultural barriers to accessing primary education.....	10
2.2.4. FPE related barriers	13
2.3: Addressing barriers to Free Primary Education	14
2.4 Implementation challenges to overcoming barriers to universal access to primary education and ways of overcoming them	21
2.5 Overcoming implementation challenges to barriers to universal access to primary education	23
2.6 Knowledge Gap.....	24
2.7 Conceptual Framework.	24
CHAPTER THREE	25

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	25
3.1 Study Area.....	25
3.2 Study Design	26
3.3 Study population	27
3.4 Sampling Procedure	28
3.5 Sample Size	28
3.6 Research instruments.....	28
3.7 Data Analysis.	29
3.8 Ethical Consideration.....	29
CHAPTER FOUR	31
RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS	31
4.2 Barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino location	31
4.2.1 Findings on barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino location	31
4.3 Ways in which free primary education has addressed barriers to universal access to education in Kawino location.....	38
4.3.1 Findings on ways in which FPE has addressed barriers to access to primary education in Kawino.	38
4.3.2 Discussions on ways in which free primary education addresses barriers to universal access to education in Kawino location	45
4.4: Implementation challenges in removing barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino and ways of overcoming them	52
4.4.1: Findings on implementation challenges in removing barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino and ways of overcoming them.....	52
4.4.2: Discussions on challenges in removing barriers to access to primary education in Kawino and ways of overcoming them	56
CHAPTER FIVE	61
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.	61
5.1 Summary of the major findings.....	61
5.2: Conclusion.....	61
5.3: Recommendations	62
5.4: Suggestions For Further Research	62
REFERENCES	63
APPENDICES.....	69
APPENDIX 1	69
APPENDIX 2	72

APPENDIX 4.....	73
APPENDIX 5.....	76

ABBREVIATIONS.

ABEK- Alternative Basic Education for Karamoja.
AEO- Area Education Office.
CAFS- Conflict Affected Fragile Statistics.
CBS- Central Bureau of Statist
CCTs-Conditional Cash Transfers.
CIDA- Canadian International Development Agency.
COPE- Complementary Opportunities for Primary Education.
DRS- Democratic Republic of Congo.
EFA- Education for All.
FPE- Free Primary Education.
FRESH- Focusing Resources for Effective School Health.
GER- Gross Enrolment Ratio
GDP-Gross Domestic Product
HIV/AIDS- Human immune Deficiency Syndrome.
IDP- Internally Displaced Persons.
IDMC- Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre.
IMF- International Monetary Fund.
KNEC- Kenya National Examination Council.
MDGs-Millennium Development Goals.
MOE- Ministry of Education.
MOEST-Ministry of Education Science and Technology.
NASMLA- National Assessment for Monitoring Learner Achievement.
NARC- National Rainbow Coalition.
NER- Net Enrollment Ratio.
NGO- Non Governmental Organization.
OECD- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PTA- Parents Teachers Association.
PTR- Pupil Teacher Ratio.
RYAN- Regional Youth Affairs Network.
RMF- Renee Muawwad Foundation.
ROK- Republic of Kenya.
UNESCO- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF- United Nations International Children's Fund.

UNHRC- United Nations Human Rights Commission.

UPE- Universal Primary Education.

UPCE- University of the Philippines College of Education.

USAID- United States Agency for International Development.

LIST OF TABLES

Table3.1: Population of target population in Kawino location.....	27
Table 3.2: Sample distribution of the population.....	27
Table 4.1: Net enrolment of pupils in Kawino location from 2008 to 2012.....	31
Table 4.2: Dropout rates of pupils in Kawino location from 2008 to 2012.....	32
Table 4.3: Reasons for drop out of pupils in kawino location.	32
Table 4.4: Ways in which FPE addresses barriers to universal access to education in Kawino.	38
Table 4.5: Direct and indirect costs of FPE.	41
Table 4.6: How FPE addresses economic barriers.....	42
Table 4.7: How FPE addresses FPE related barriers to education.....	43
Table 4.8: How FPE addresses socio-cultural barriers to education.	44
Table 4.9: How FPE addresses geographical barriers to education.....	44
Table 4.10: Implementation challenges in removing barriers to access universal to primary education in Kawino location.	52
Table 4.11: Implementation challenges to removing barriers universal access to primary education in Kawino location.	53
Table 4.12: Ways of overcoming challenges to removing barriers.	54
Table 4.13: Ways of overcoming challenges to removing barriers.	55

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Conceptual framework.	24
Figure 2: Map of Kadibo Division with Kawino as one of the locations.	25
Figure 3: Map of Kenya showing location of Kisumu County.....	26
Figure 4: Barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino according to teachers, pupils, parents and education officers.....	34
Figure 5: Barriers to universal access to primary education according to all stakeholders	35
Figure 6: economic barriers	42
Figure 7 : FPE related barriers.	43
Figure 8: Socio –Cultural Barriers	44
Figure 9: Geographical barriers	45
Figure 10: Challenges in removing barriers.....	53
Figure 11: Way of overcoming challenges to removing barriers	55

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to study

Universal Primary education ensures equal access to Primary education globally. Barriers to Primary education leads to inadequate access to education and this is a problem experienced globally as well as in Kenya as a country today. Net enrollment ratio (NER) is the internationally accepted indicator for assessing progress toward Universal Primary Education. NER refers to the ratio of children who have enrolled and attained the official school going age to that of the total number of pupils who have attained the official school going age in a given level of education. NER is normally expressed as a percentage after the ratio is obtained for example in 2005 Djibouti had the worst measured NER in primary education in the world at 34.4%. Thus, out of every 100 children within the official age-group for primary education, only 34 were enrolled in school.

It is expected globally that NER should be at 99% by 2015 if Universal Primary Education is to be realized. There was a marked decrease globally in the number of children out of school during the early 2000s—from 100 million in 2000 to 60 million in 2007—after which progress stagnated. Countries that are almost achieving universal primary education are Lebanon, Brazil, Malaysia and Botswana. Botswana's NER increased from 44% in 1970 to 93% in 2012, Lebanon's NER increased from 91% in 1990 to 95% in 2011, Malaysia's NER increased from 84% in 1970 to 98% in 2000 while Brazil's NER increased from less than 60% in 1960 to 98% in 2010 to 93% in 2012.

Kenya's NER in 2011 was 84% indicating inadequate access to Primary education. The Economic Survey of 2011 indicated that more than 400,000 pupils enrolled in 2003 did not complete class eight in 2010 due to either forced repetition or drop outs. The report further established that only 59 % of the beneficiaries who enrolled in 2003 completed class eight in the year 2010.

In Kawino location report from area education office indicate a NER of 73% in 2012 pointing to the fact that 27% of children who have attained the official school going age are actually not attending school yet free primary education programme is in place.

Universal Primary education in Kenya and Kawino can only be realized if all the pupils who have attained the official school going age attend school hence NER of 99% .This study seeks to investigate barriers preventing Kawino from realizing a Universal Primary Education who's NER for Kawino is at 73% by 2012.

Barriers to accessing Primary Education are obstacles or impediments to attaining primary education. Different countries experience barriers to Primary education ranging from socio-cultural, economic, FPE related barriers and geographical.

Studies in Bangladesh revealed that early marriage and early childbearing liability constrain women's education. Research by Arends- Kuenning and Amin (2001) showed that increasing women's education could not change the cultural beliefs about marriage in Bangladesh; rather marriage took priority over education. Most of the families tended to see their daughters marry in their early ages because they believed that marriage was the best way to secure their daughters' overall well-being (Arends-Kuenning&Amin, 2001).

A (Fawe, 2000) study found that 32 per cent of primary schools in Uganda had no toilets and no hand-washing facilities. Data from 30 African countries indicates that a majority of young women do not attend school when they are menstruating if there are no private latrine facilities to enable them to care for personal hygiene.

In Kenya nutrition and health can affect attendance. For example, children with poor nutrition, malaria, and intestinal worms may be too sick to attend school. Data from the Kenyan Demographic and Health Survey shows that 20% of Kenyan children are underweight, indicating poor health status.

In Kenya children who are at risk of dropping out or who have already dropped out are often identified by teachers as those who would come to class in the morning without having eaten anything, or would have no snacks for the day and no money to purchase snacks. Those who come to school hungry would often sleep in class and be unable to concentrate. Poor nutrition makes them more vulnerable to illness and therefore to absences (e.g. Monse et al, 2006)

Geographical factors making free primary education inaccessible refers to a situation where pupils cannot reach school with ease due to presence of rivers without bridges, distance to schools being very being far or insecurity concerns around school. While in much of the country distance to the nearest school is good compared to many countries of a similar income level, this is not the case in all regions. In some areas, distance to the nearest school remains a problem.

The problem is most acute in provinces such as Northeastern, which only had 250 public primary schools in 2007, compared to over 4000 public primary schools in Eastern province.

This study seeks to establish barriers to Universal access to Primary education in Kawino hence comparing with barriers experienced with other countries.

Different countries have addressed barriers to access to primary education in different ways for example in Lesotho distributing vouchers for school uniforms is an effective and

reasonably cost effective way to increase access. Distribution of school uniforms has been shown to reduce dropout rates.

But given that uniforms vary from school to school, it may be prohibitively expensive for the government to distribute uniforms. A potential solution is to provide vouchers for school uniforms, potentially targeted to poor pupils.

In Malawi school meals programs have shown an increase in attendance at pre-schools, especially among the poorest children (Kremer and Vermeersch, 2004). These are the children who are likely to have the worst nutrition at home. Micronutrient supplementation could complement gains from school feeding.

In Lesotho informing children and their parents about the economic returns to education can increase attendance and reduce dropout rates.

Malawi, Lesotho and South Africa are among the countries using conditional cash transfers. Conditional cash transfers have been shown to reduce child labor and increase school enrolment and attendance. CCTs have become a common anti-poverty tool, with approximately 29 countries implementing such programs (World Bank, 2005).

In Kenya in 2009, 3.6 million children were dewormed through a partnership between the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Public Health and Sanitation, and the Kenya Medical Research Institute. Deworming has been shown to significantly increase school attendance (Miguel and Kremer, 2004). In a comparison of alternative ways to promote access to education, deworming was found to be one of the most cost effective approaches of all those rigorously tested. Those children that were dewormed as a part of the study even earned higher wages in later life, suggesting that there are large economic and social returns to investments in deworming programs. Implementation of the national school-based deworming program has stalled since 2009. Re-establishing this program would be an extremely cost-effective way to increase access to education and improve long-run economic and social outcomes.

This study seeks to establish ways in free primary education programme has addressed barriers to access to Universal Primary education hence comparison with what other countries has done on the same.

Implementation challenges in removing barriers to Universal access to primary education are experienced by different countries though some countries have come up with ways of overcoming them.

In Bangladesh lack of information base, especially for parents and communities and system inefficiency like high repetition rates, low achievement among pupils are the major implementation challenges experienced (Nussbaum, 2003)

In Uganda major implementation challenges include lack of accountability through local control, low management capacity by school administrators and lack of information base, especially for parents and communities (Fawe, 2000).

(Lewin , 2007) found that implementation challenges in Benin range from FPE being a policy statement, lack of adequate funding, non-transparent resource allocation, delays in funds disbursement and embezzlement of funds

Kenya as a country also experiences some of these implementation challenges to removing barriers Universal access to Primary education.

Different countries have overcome implementation challenges in various ways and Kenya can benefit from some of these ways.

Provision of extra lessons for low achievers to promote promotion and completion (e.g. Malaysia launched a Tuition Aid Scheme in 2004 to provide extra lessons during the weekends or after school for government school students with low achievement who belong to households that fall below the poverty line (Haider,1996).

For example, in response to the Botswana government's commitment to UPE in the mid-1970s, it invested heavily in school construction, increasing the number of government primary schools from 353 in 1978 to 583 in 1991 (Fredriksen,2009).

This study seeks to establish the nature of implementation challenges to removing barriers to Universal access to Primary education in Kawino and ways of overcoming them.

1.2 Problem statement

Kenya launched FPE programme in 2003 with an aim of achieving Universal Primary Education. However only 84% of the children who have attained the official school going age are currently in school as opposed to 99% target for Universal Primary Education. This is an indication that there are still barriers to Universal Primary Education which are not addressed by FPE programme. This study sets out to analyze barriers and related implementation challenges.

1.3 Research objectives

1.3.1 Main objective

To establish the effect of Free Primary Education (FPE) on barriers to Universal access to Primary education in Kawino location Kisumu County.

1.3.2 Specific objective

1. To establish barriers to Universal access to primary education in Kawino location.
2. To assess how free primary education addresses barriers to Universal access to primary education in Kawino location.
4. To establish implementation challenges in removing barriers to Universal access to primary education in Kawino location.

1.4 Research Question

1. What are the barriers to Universal access to primary education in Kawino location?
2. In what ways has free primary education addressed barriers to Universal access to primary education in Kawino location?
3. What is the nature of implementation challenges in removing barriers to Universal access to primary education in Kawino location?

1.5 Justification

Universal Primary Education ensures that all pupils who have attained the official school going age attend school hence NER of 99%. However in Kawino only 73% of pupils who have attained the official school going age attend school despite FPE programme. This study is therefore important since it investigates barriers not addressed by FPE and further recommends ways of overcoming them which is very useful information to the Ministry of Education.

1.6 Limitation of study

The study experienced certain limitations though measures were put in place to counter the various limitations. During the period of data collection flooding was experienced which

hindered movement forcing the research assistants to revisit the area later when floods had subsided.

Additionally absence of community members in household during the morning hours was experienced since most of them were in their farms. Research assistants revisited the households during the evening hours.

Though the study was only limited to one location only due short time within which the study was done all schools were selected for study while most household were visited so as to get results that are representative as possible.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Free Primary Education policy and objectives

The history of free primary education in Kenya goes back to 1974 and later in 1979 when the Government launched free primary education programs aimed at achieving free and universal primary education. Lack of funds derailed those two initiatives but in 2003, Government reintroduced free primary education

During this time, the Narc government under the leadership of Mwai Kibaki abolished school fees in all public primary schools. This was the key campaign pledge from the president as well as other members from the party. Under the new free primary education policy, the government primary schools which were previously responsible for waiving tuition fees were officially prohibited from collecting revenues. Instead each school had to receive the government grant twice in a year which would be deposited directly into the school accounts administered by a committee of parents and teachers. The development of offering free primary education was in line with the universal primary education for all by 2015. The millennium development goals were adopted by the United Nations in September 2000 and expected to be effected in 198 countries, Kenya.

The major objective of the policy includes: Reducing the inequality in education access in Kenya by 2005 - Inequality in education access has declined. However, enrolment rates for public schools have actually declined. As poor students come in, richer students have fled to private schools in greater or equal measure. Net effect is an accelerated decline in the average socio-economic status of public school students. This also coincides with a rise in teacher-pupil ratios in public schools. Large performance gap between private and public schools has also been witnessed due to the special treatment. Flight to private schools associated with fall in public school performance by the students from well of families has been experienced. The FPE initiative focuses on attaining Education For All and in particular, Universal Primary Education. “Key concerns are access, retention, equity, quality and relevance and internal and external efficiencies within the education system (Ministry of education science and technology, 2005).”

2.2 Barriers to accessibility of Primary Education

2.2.1 Economic barriers to accessing primary education

School fees had been a major barrier to education. In 2000, prior to FPE, the gross enrollment rate in primary school was 87%. However, the introduction of FPE led to an increase in enrollment, pushing the gross enrollment rate to just over 100% (World Bank, 2004). Yet despite the FPE related enrollment and access gains, other important barriers to access remain. In particular, while enrollment is now high on average, there are still groups among whom enrollment remains an issue. Additionally, irregular attendance amongst those who are enrolled is a major problem across the country.

Financial Barriers.

Many studies emphasized “poverty” as the leading cause of underlying obstacles faced by girls and women in developing countries (Arends-Kuenning & Amin, 2001; Dundar & Haworth, 1993; Haider, 1996; Nussbaum, 2003; World Bank, 1994). In some developing countries, parents bear the direct costs for schooling. For example, although the government of Bangladesh provides free education for women up to 14th Grade in schools and colleges, families must bear other direct and indirect costs, such as transportation, books, uniforms, sanitation, stationery, and examination fees (Raynor, 2005). Poorer families are more likely not to pay for the education cost for their daughters. As a result, parents sometimes withdraw girls prematurely from primary or secondary schools. This tendency is particularly noticeable in Bangladesh, Egypt, India, Morocco, and Nigeria (UN Millennium Projects, 2005).

Across many of the qualitative studies reviewed, so-called “hidden costs” of primary education often comes up as a reason for delaying school attendance or dropping out among elementary school-aged sons and daughters. These costs include, transportation, fees collected in schools (e.g. Parent-Teacher Associations or PTA), school supplies, class contributions, supplies needed for school projects, daily allowance for food, and school uniforms (University of the Philippines College of Education, 2010; South East Asian Minister of Education Organisation, 2007).

With the introduction of FPE, the cost of school uniforms continues to impede education access. In 2003, school uniforms cost about 480Kshs (approximately 2% of per capita GDP), which was excessive for many families. The official policy says that no child can be turned away for not having the school uniform. But uniforms are such an entrenched part of schooling in Kenya that either the schools continue to turn children away or the parents keep

the children away because they do not have uniforms. School uniforms and other input expenses incurred by households may be reducing access to schooling.

The barrier of cost, not surprisingly, has a disproportionate effect on children living in poverty; globally, 38 percent of children from the poorest quintile are out-of-school compared to 12 percent from the richest quintile (UNESCO, 2005a).

Poverty

Unsurprisingly, household survey data incorporated in the global study show that children of primary school age who live in the poorest 20 percent of households are three times more likely to be out-of-school than children living in the richest 20 percent (J. Kirk, 2005). (Herz,2004) corroborates the above finding that this is quite predictable given that fees for tuition and other costs of attending school can sometimes amount to 20-40 percent of a household's income. Even where education is provided "free of charge" by the state, families incur substantial expenses in sending children to school. Among these costs are those of transport, uniforms, textbooks, school supplies and ancillary fees charged directly and retained by the school to supplement its budget. In a study on the impact of the introduction of free primary education in Lesotho, a World Bank (2005) research team found that the economic or wealth status of the child, for example, affected participation in education regardless of social status as orphan or non-orphan. The study found that, in 2002, 10 percent of 6 to 14-year-old children had never been in school. For boys the proportion was 13 percent; for girls it was 7 percent. However, between wealth quintiles, a 10 percent difference emerged for overall non-attendance in this age group. Moreover, it appeared that orphan hood itself did not prevent children from going to school as 10.6 percent of orphans and 10.4 percent of other children had never been in school. The most pressing and common problem among students who drop out, those who enter late, those who do not attend preschool, and those whose performance in school is low is poverty. Practically all studies that explore reasons for not attending school find evidence that economic pressures on household resources weigh significantly on the decision to either drop out of school or delay entering (e.g. Maligalig et al, 2010; Education Watch, 2007;South East Asian Minister of Education Organisation , 2007)

In an earlier study, Filmer and Pritchett (1999) demonstrated that enormous differences arise with regard to wealth status and school enrolment. Despite a considerable variation across the 35 countries included in their analysis, they constantly found that poor children either begin school and drop out in droves, or never attend school at all.

2.2.2 Geographical barriers to accessing primary education

Physical access to school and other non-monetary costs: while in much of the country distance to the nearest school is good compared to many countries of a similar income level, this is not the case in all regions. In some areas, distance to the nearest school remains a problem.

The problem is most acute in provinces such as Northeastern, which only had 250 public primary schools in 2007, compared to over 4000 public primary schools in Eastern province. While this reflects the low population density of Northeastern, the shortage of schools probably contributes to the low enrollment rates in the region. In 2007, the gross enrollment rate was approximately 35%, compared to about 125% in Eastern province (Ministry of Education, 2010). There is substantial evidence in the economics literature that distance is an important deterrent in the take up of services (e.g. Kremer et al 2010 for water services, Thornton 2009 for health services)..

2.2.3 Socio-cultural barriers to accessing primary education

Poor nutrition and poor health: Nutrition and health can affect attendance. For example, children with poor nutrition, malaria, and intestinal worms may be too sick to attend school. Data from the Kenyan Demographic and Health Survey shows that 20% of Kenyan children are underweight, indicating poor health status. Micronutrient deficiencies can also hamper children's cognitive development. Micronutrients such as vitamins and minerals are vital to health. Deficiencies affect a third of the global population, especially women and children. Every year across the globe, 2 million children die from lack of vitamin A, zinc, and other nutrients; 18 million babies are born mentally impaired due to lack of iodine deficiency; and 500,000 women die in childbirth due to severe anemia (iron deficiency).

In Kenya, according to the Micronutrient Initiative, the Vitamin A deficiency in children 6 to 59 months old is 84.4%, and the iodine deficiency throughout the population is 36.8%.

The prevalence of anemia in children 6 to 59 months old is 69%, while the prevalence of anemia in women is 55.5% (Micronutrient Initiative, 2011). These micronutrient deficiencies can retard or reverse gains in the education sector.

Children who are at risk of dropping out or who have already dropped out are often identified by teachers as those who would come to class in the morning without having eaten anything, or would have no snacks for the day and no money to purchase snacks. Those who come to school hungry would often sleep in class and be unable to concentrate. Poor nutrition makes them more vulnerable to illness and therefore to absences (e.g. Monse et al, 2006)

Parental Education

Parents' educational attainment has been shown in many studies to positively affect different outcome indicators, including school attendance (Maligalig et al, 2010), as well as math and science test scores (Quimbo, 2003). The relationship between parental educational attainment and a child's likelihood of success in the educational system is one of the most frequently cited causal relationships in the local literature.

Migration

Another barrier to schooling results from migration (Edillon, 2008). It is not uncommon for parents to periodically move from the city to the province or the reverse to find employment. Some parents would stay in the city and send their children to the province when they run out of money, pulling them out of school in the middle of the year.

In Bangladesh, "the discrimination in the treatment of male and female starts at birth and continues through the different phases of life" (Khan, p. 329). Women's education is said to be perceived as a threat to their traditional culture (Arends-Kuenning & Amin, 2001).

Low Incentive for Daughter's Education

An old *Bengali* saying is, "Caring for a daughter is like watering a neighbour's tree," (Raynor, 2005, p. 1). This implies that investment in a daughter's education is a wasteful venture since a daughter will be lost to another family through marriage. Raynor attested that this argument has often been used to justify girls' exclusion from schools. Raynor and Shekh's studies have concluded that, for several reasons, investment in daughters' education is an unattractive proposal to parents.

Patriarchal Societies' Domination and Outlooks

In some patriarchal societies, women's education is perceived as a threat to their socio-cultural status (e.g., Arends-Kuenning & Amin, 2001; Hamamsy, 1994; Raynor, 2005). Several studies highlighted that male-dominated cultural practices limit women's education severely in developing countries. Bangladesh is a patriarchal society. Many fathers in rural Bangladesh strongly oppose girls' formal education because fathers believe that boys, as the future breadwinners, should be more educated than girls (Arends-Kuenning & Amin; Raynor). Raynor examined local attitudes toward girls' education in Bangladesh. They found that most of the male respondents have seen girls' education increase their traditional roles in preparing

them to be better wives and mothers. But none has seen women's education as a tool for women's empowerment.

Religious Practices

Many Muslim countries such as Bangladesh, Pakistan, and Arab countries restrict women's formal education in the name of religion. They introduced '*Purdah*' (covering from head to feet) customs for girls at the age of 12-13, which limits their free movement in the outside world (Haider, 1996; King & Hill, 1995; Norman, 1984). In fact, the conservative family viewed women's education as a dangerous step (Haider). Haider said that sometimes society limits knowledge for women beyond a narrow confine. As an example, she commented on Adams's findings (1986), where one young male bureaucrat in an Upper Egyptian village said, many fellahin (Peasants) here don't let their daughters leave the house to go to school and the like because they fear that their girls will gain a sense of freedom, which is always dangerous. By venturing out, the girls will also gain knowledge of the world of men, and if they learn to read, they will read the wrong kinds of books, not the Koran. (p. 119) In this way, religious practice can act as a strong barrier to women's education and empowerment.

Early Marriage

Studies revealed that early marriage and early childbearing liability constrain women's education in developing countries including Bangladesh. Research by Arends-Kuenning and Amin (2001) showed that increasing women's education could not change the cultural beliefs about marriage in Bangladesh; rather marriage took priority over education. In Bangladeshi culture, it is perceived that girls should be married early and maintain their household responsibilities. It is estimated that 47 percent of the girls in Bangladesh married before they reached the age of 18. Most of the families tended to see their daughters marry in their early ages because they believed that marriage was the best way to secure their daughters' overall well-being (Arends-Kuenning & Amin). This early marriage practice is also common in other societies. Using data from 40 demographic and health surveys, Singh and Samara (1996) revealed that from 20 to 50 % of women marry by the age of 18, and 40 to 70% of women marry by the age of 20. This scenario is even more striking in Sub-Saharan Africa and in South Asia where women's post-secondary education rates are extremely low. In addition, parents tended to withdraw their daughters from school at an early age, especially if the girls were attending a coeducational institution. Similar evidence was provided in Daniel's study (2006). Investigating the causes of women's low participation in higher education in Kenya,

he suggested that early marriages before completion of their courses, especially during the undergraduate programs, and subsequent pregnancies and child rearing responsibilities, in addition, household chores put extra demands on female students study time. Therefore, widespread early marriage, childbearing, and child rearing tasks all conflicted with girls' schooling on the larger scale.

Shortage of Female Teachers

In many developing countries, schooling systems are unable to meet parental preferences. The parents often mention female teacher shortage as a main factor for not sending their daughters to school. Conservative parents in many countries prefer their daughters to have female teachers (Haider, 1996; Nussbaum, 2003; World Bank, 1994). International cross-section data suggested a positive correlation between gender parity in enrollment and the proportion of female teachers, even in coeducational schools (World Bank).

2.2.4. FPE related barriers

This factor causes limited access to school and particularly affects girls, because they are more vulnerable than boys to study in a school with no hygienic facilities. The lack of adequate sanitation facilities also primarily affects both (female) pupils and teachers. As reported by The New York Times in 2005, “researchers throughout Sub-Saharan Africa like (Leach 2003) have documented that lack of sanitary pads, a clean, girls -only latrine with doors and water for washing hands drives a significant number of girls from school. The United Nations Children's Fund, for example, estimates that one-in-ten school-age African girls either skips school during menstruation or drops out entirely because of lack of sanitation.”⁵

Several studies indicated that an inhospitable school environment discourages girls from attending school. For example, experience across 30 African countries indicated that a majority of young girls do not attend secondary and post-secondary school when they are menstruating if there are no private latrine facilities to enable them to care for personal hygiene (UN Millennium Project, 2005). Evidence from Bangladesh, Egypt, Mali, Morocco, Peru, Tunisia, and Yemen also suggested that having adequate school facilities are essential for sufficient girls' enrollment (World Bank, 1994).

Poor quality education

The critical challenge of poor quality education acts as a barrier to educational access in CAFS. Globally, too, the main obstacles to achieving universal access to primary education are both related to initial admission and to reducing dropouts and improving the acquisition of literacy and numeracy skills, the latter which depends critically on the quality of the learning in schools (Fredriksen, 2009; Lewin, 2007). Nearly half of children globally who are out-of-school have never enrolled in school, yet a further 24 percent of out of- school children entered school but subsequently dropped out; the remainder may enroll as late entrants (UNESCO, 2008). Predictors of dropping out include repetition, low achievement, overage enrollment, poor teaching, degraded facilities, and very large classes (Lewin, 2009), in other words lack of access to quality education. In settings of conflict and fragility, there has been under-investment in infrastructure, teacher training and compensation and a focus on restoring “normality” rather than fostering learning (Davies & Talbot, 2008). Quality education in this context is an enormous challenge.

In most countries economic barriers are the most experienced however in most Islamic states religion tends to hinder education of girls. In Asian countries socio-cultural issues play a major role in impeding girl child education. It is important that sufficient funds are allocated for education and change of attitudes, perceptions in issues of education be in place in order to achieve universal access to primary education globally

2.3: Addressing barriers to Free Primary Education

Reducing cost of education: distributing vouchers for school uniforms is an effective and reasonably cost effective way to increase access. Distribution of school uniforms has been shown to reduce dropout rates.

But given that uniforms vary from school to school, it may be prohibitively expensive for the government to distribute uniforms. A potential solution is to provide vouchers for school uniforms, potentially targeted to poor pupils.

School-based food and micronutrient supplementation: school meals programs have been shown to increase attendance at pre-schools, especially among the poorest children (Kremer and Vermeersch, 2004). These are the children who are likely to have the worst nutrition at home. Micronutrient supplementation could complement gains from school feeding.

Providing information: informing children and their parents about the economic returns to education can increase attendance and reduce dropout rates.

Conditional cash transfers: Conditional cash transfers have been shown to reduce child labor and increase school enrolment and attendance. CCTs have become a common anti-poverty tool, with approximately 29 countries implementing such programs (World Bank 2009).

School health programs: In 2009, 3.6 million children were dewormed through a partnership between the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Public Health and Sanitation, and the Kenya Medical Research Institute. Deworming has been shown to significantly increase school attendance (Miguel and Kremer, 2004). In a comparison of alternative ways to promote access to education, deworming was found to be one of the most cost effective approaches of all those rigorously tested. Those children that were dewormed as a part of the study even earned higher wages in later life, suggesting that there are large economic and social returns to investments in deworming programs. Implementation of the national school-based deworming program has stalled since 2009. Re-establishing this program would be an extremely cost-effective way to increase access to education and improve long-run economic and social outcomes.

So as for countries to achieve education goal of UPE by 2015, Commonwealth in 2007 recommended several policies such as provision of more qualified female teachers and need to eliminate the cultural factors that prevent girls from accessing education.

Expansion of Research to Examine Men's Attitudes

Several studies have suggested examining men's attitudes towards women's education. Because of gender hierarchy and patriarchal norms and practices, women tend to have less power in the family in many societies. As solutions, the educational program should include men and focus its activity around change of socio-culture practices of men (Shekh, 2001). Raynor (2005) suggested that in a patriarchal society, young men, husbands, and fathers play a vital role in women's education; therefore, it is important to examine (and change) their attitudes. Moreover, policy implementation could be an effective way to change the perception of the society (Haider, 1996; Pande, Malhotra, & Grown, 2005).

Enforcement of Laws against Early Marriage.

Research by Singh and Samara (1996) showed that a woman who has attended secondary school is considerably less likely to marry during adolescence. Accordingly, making

education compulsory for girls of certain ages and enforcement of laws against child-marriage might be effective solutions to reduce early marriage (Nussbaum, 2003; Singh & Samara).

Raising the Living Standard of the Poor Family

Nussbaum (2003) argued that the problem of poverty cannot be solved without raising the living standard of the poor in each nation. She suggested that both nations and states within nations should get involved. Her realization was that the enormous worldwide problem of female education cannot be solved by domestic policies in each nation alone. Powerful nations should pay more attention to the extension of quality female education in poor and developing countries. She referred to the Adithi Literacy Project in India as an example, which received support from Swiss and Dutch development agencies.

Curriculum Reform and the Expansion of Non-traditional Fields.

Several studies emphasized the impact of reformed curriculum to improve the quality of women's education by providing gender-sensitive textbooks and developing a curriculum for girls that prepares them adequately in science and mathematics to help them compete in the job market (Daniel, 2006; Dundar & Haworth, 1993; Herz & Sperling, 2004; Raynor, 2005). Raynor suggested that available paid job opportunities might help to change parental attitudes and encourage them to invest in daughters' education. Moreover, it is necessary to expand non-traditional fields for female students.

Making School More Affordable by Offering Stipends

Stipend programs are recognized as effective ways in increasing girls' enrollment and retention (e.g., UNESCO, 2005b). Bangladesh launched a nationwide stipend program (Secondary Female Programme) in 1982 for girls in secondary schools. The program has had a substantial impact on girls' enrollment, particularly in rural areas. For instance, Raynor found that during the 1970s girls' secondary enrollment rate in Bangladesh was 18 percent, which had increased to 50 percent in 2003. The program's goal was to increase rural girls' enrollment and retention in secondary schools (grades 6 to 10). The goals of the girls' stipend were to cover full tuition, exam costs, textbooks, school supplies, uniforms, and transport; to increase the number of female teachers in secondary schools; and to improve school infrastructure. A Guatemala NGO's stipend program for primary school girls was modeled after the one in Bangladesh began in 1987 with one village and later expanded to twelve

villages (World Bank, 1994). Since parents pay no tuition and schoolbooks are free, the monthly stipend payment partly compensates and encourages poor parents to send their daughters to secondary school. Evidence revealed that more than 90 percent of the stipend-recipient girls are completing secondary education.

Providing safe schools nearby

Common sense suggests that distance matters for any child but matters particularly for girls implying that building schools close to girls' homes helps boost their enrolment. Removing fees or offering scholarships therefore, offers little help where children have no schools to attend and in such situations community schools that offer flexible schedules or provide child-care support have been particularly successful at increasing girls' enrolment. This goes hand in hand with providing trained teachers, teaching materials and a reasonable curriculum. Through the use of such innovative techniques and flexible time tables, the Alternative Basic Education for Karamoja (ABEK) is extending educational opportunities to children of pastoral, semi-nomadic communities of north eastern Uganda, while Complementary Opportunities for Primary Education (COPE) is being implemented in 8 districts in the country where disadvantaged children have remained outside of the formal school system (Unicef 2003b). Providing such flexible schedules and services has also helped particularly, girls' enrolment since it can accommodate their work by making it easier for them to care for younger siblings, do chores or even work for wages while enrolled in school. Such options have been most effective in community schools where the community easily supports and sustains the flexible approach

Making schools more girl-friendly

It appears to be common knowledge that as girls grows older; having private latrine facilities in schools is not only very necessary but also critical in order for them to cater for their personal hygiene. The education policy in Uganda is supported by studies that have been commissioned by the Ministry of Education and Sports to set a baseline for improving both the quantity and quality of education. The findings of the baseline study indicated that classroom interaction of some teachers discriminated against girls and physical facilities in most schools were disregarding girls' need for privacy. These and other discriminatory factors were addressed in the budget to schools. The grant included funds for compulsory construction of separate latrines for girls and boys that must have doors and a strong teacher development program that includes a gender perspective was also put in place. One of the reasons for the success of UPE in Uganda is the strong leadership that the Ministry of

education has provided to address shortcomings that are identified with evidence. In other parts of the country there are multi-partner initiatives (between government and NGOs) such as FRESH (Focusing Resources for Effective School Health) which is providing appropriate water and sanitation facilities, training teachers in skills-based health education, and school-based health & sanitation services (Unicef 2003b).

Providing decent quality education

A first and critical step in achieving quality education is to have enough qualified teachers who attend school regularly. No school can work for any child (boy or girl) without a capable and acceptable teacher and this is why a good teacher can make a difference in girls' enrolment and attainment even without a school building. Uganda has done quite a lot with regard to quality education particularly in relation to aspects of good teaching, i.e. well trained teachers as well as enough instruction in the right languages. For example through the School Facilities Grant (SFG), the Ministry of Education and Sports by 2004 had so far managed to increase classrooms from 25,676 in 1996 to 78,403 and the number of teachers from 81,564 in 1996 to 125,883 in 2004. These have had significant improvements on quality indicators like teacher-pupil ratio (50:1), the pupil-classroom ratio (84:1) and the pupil-textbook ratio (3:1) (Bitamazire 2005, Moes 2003/04).

Making girls' schooling more affordable

Research has shown that reducing direct costs for example by cutting school fees increases girls' school enrolment. For instance in Malawi, Tanzania and Uganda among other countries, reduction and/or elimination of tuition fees was followed by dramatic increases in enrolment especially among girls, suggesting that fees had actually put poorer children especially girls at a disadvantage and therefore cutting it helps to quickly boost enrolments, often dramatically. For the Ugandan case in particular, the introduction of the UPE program led to a dramatic increase in enrolment, suggesting that both the direct and indirect costs of schooling constituted a significant obstacle to more widespread primary school attendance by the poor and this is particularly true for girls whose enrolment rates increased significantly (in some cases more than doubling) (Deininger 2000; Herz 2004). Many countries across the globe (with the help of NGOs) are increasingly implementing programs that not only reduce the direct costs of schooling but also help cover the indirect and opportunity costs incurred when parents let children go to school.

Since many parents find the schooling costs higher for girls, particularly because of lost chore time, scholarships have proved particularly important for girls in varied settings. Evidence from research carried out by different people shows that programs that reduce the cost of schooling by providing supplies like textbooks and uniforms or programs that offer meals or school-based healthcare have significant impacts especially for girls. For instance through its Food for Education program, WFP in Uganda selects food-insecure areas with the most urgent educational need (e.g low enrolment/attendance, high gender disparity, high drop-out e.t.c) such as conflict areas and those hosting refugees and IDPs and provides in-school feeding as a way of attracting children to school, alleviating their hunger and helping them to learn. This has been very helpful particularly for children who go to school without a morning meal, often after walking a very long distance and come from families where the parents depend on the children to work in the family fields, care for younger siblings, gather firewood and search for food, meaning that these children don't have time, the economic means or the energy to attend school. The strategy adopted in such a case incorporates a take-home ration – basic food items to families in exchange for the schooling of their children to help offset the loss of the child's (girls and orphans) contribution to the family's livelihood

Overcoming barriers affecting orphans and vulnerable children

In the study by Oleke (2007), it was found that households receiving external support were more likely to have all orphans under their care in school. . This finding occurred in the midst of evidence showing that the range of barriers to school attendance and school performance is large and includes children being obligated to work and lack of food, even when the education itself is free. Consequently, it was recommended that more interventions involving the provision of practical support were needed, at least in the short term, to enable impoverished children to attend and remain in school.

Foster (2002) put more emphasis on addressing the psycho-social needs of vulnerable children as part of interventions to assist them. In a small, in-depth analysis of 20 children between 10 and 14 years old, Chitiyo (2008) concluded that, “A concoction of challenges like anxiety, grief, trauma, depression, stigma and discrimination makes OVC's educational needs exceptional.” The author recommended that a special curriculum for OVC be developed with an emphasis on life-skills, and practical skills for daily living. It was also recommended that this curriculum address all four areas of psycho-social support, including emotional, social, spiritual and physical well-being.

In relation to school curricula, as well as the way that formal education programs are organized, Robson and Sylvester (2007), in their study of four high prevalence schools in rural Zambia, assessed the impact of HIV and AIDS on teachers, students and the educational system. The study found that the inflexibility of schools' practical organization (class timetable and yearly schedule of semesters) impeded changes that could make it easier for OVC to access education. The study noted that simple measures such as the provision of lunches, books and pencils could prevent absence or dropout. The study also found that better collaboration between agencies was essential so that students affected by HIV and AIDS, who had difficulty in attending school, could be provided for with alternative and more flexible ways to learn.

Nordtveit (2008) came to similar conclusions. That study probed the need to provide comprehensive or holistic responses and recommended coupling alternative, or non-formal educational opportunities with other services or interventions addressing poverty and deprivation. In a similar vein, the focus on the role of 'open, distant and flexible learning' (ODFL) has been identified as another viable approach to creating more opportunities for vulnerable children to participate in educational programs (Boler and Carroll 2003, Nyabanyaba 2008, Pridmore 2007).

Foster (2008) has assessed and found value for vulnerable children in well-coordinated and well-executed interagency responses. Such a finding has been echoed time and time again given the range and complexity of contexts where children find themselves in situations of severe to extreme vulnerability. Such complexity has led a growing number of countries and researchers to test social cash transfer schemes as a way of mitigating the complexity of poverty and deprivation (Save the Children UK 2009). South Africa, Malawi and Lesotho are among a number of southern African countries implementing such schemes. Richter et al. (2008) in their review noted that there was early, emerging evidence of sustained impact. This was particularly the case with regard to increases in school enrolment, retention and achievement for children from households receiving the cash transfers.

In most countries funds are allocated for education as way of overcoming economic barriers though the funds are insufficient. There is need for sufficient fund allocation if UPE is to be realized globally. Additionally socio-cultural barriers that are quite significant in Islamic states and Asian states needs effective ways of changing perceptions and attitudes of citizens of these countries regarding education issues if UPE is to be realized globally.

2.4 Implementation challenges to overcoming barriers to universal access to primary education and ways of overcoming them

Misappropriation of funds is a major corruption scandal that emerged in 2009 leading to freeze of aid by USAID in December 2009. This led a number of children out of school whenever money intended for free primary education is directed to other usage other than what it is meant for, the result is hindrance of children from poor family to access primary education (Aduda, 2009).

Another challenge implementation Challenge is lack of understanding from parents regarding responsibilities towards the education of their children. As observed in Lesotho, “most parents understood free primary education to mean a relinquishment of their responsibilities in the education of their children” (Marojele, 2012).

Bearing these challenges in mind, Samoff (2007) has cautioned that “expanding access without corresponding attention to structural transformation of education system will ensure low quality education for at least some learners and perhaps most.”

Through FPE the schools were to be given capitation by government and this is not given on time when schools need the funds especially at the beginning of the term. Moreover the amount given is not sufficient (Sawamura & Sifuna, 2008).

More critical was acute shortages due to overwhelming members as result of increased enrolment which went along with more classes. Some schools had to do double shift and others had to combine grades which means that teachers had to do with more work load (OSSREA, 2010).

Training for two years enable one to teach the seven subjects which is expected of them, is not adequate to acquire mastery in subject content and pedagogy skills. In addition lack of in service opportunities also denies the teachers the chance to build on their skills beyond the two years pre-training that they acquired (Mckenzie & Santiago, 2004; Wasanga, Ogles, & Wambua, 2011).

Although conceptualization of UPE was a global initiative, the origin and popularity of the provision of the universal education in some African countries is historically however could

be traced to political aspirations of the independent countries. For example when Kenya equitable access to secondary and tertiary education in early 1970s presidential decree abolishing tuition fees prevented a large proportion of children population from attending school was issued (Sifuna, 2007).

According to the education policy framework (2012) the following teacher factors hinder implementation of free primary education policy. They include shortage of trained teachers in special education, non-existent government prompted –professional development therefore low morale on the part of the teacher, lack of knowledge of the proper methodologies to handle learners with diverse educational needs, lack of team work, teacher-centered approach as opposed to the interactive learner centered methods, too much work as result of large classes and few teachers and teachers’ ignorance on policy.

Teachers are key to quality education but in emergencies or after an emergency many are faced with challenge on how to implement the required education in emergencies due to lack of confidence and proper training (Winthrop & Kirk, 2005). After emergencies learners come with all manner of psychosocial problems that teachers may not be able to handle without proper training.

Effective inclusive education of students with diverse learning requirements into regular classroom requires careful organization and creation of learning environment that is accepting, caring and safe (Lang & Berberich, 1995). They further observed that negative attitude of head teachers, teachers, inspectors, parents and caretakers are major barriers to access universal primary education.

Tisdell (1995) further says that all individuals bring multiple perspectives to any learning situation as result of their gender, age, sexuality and physical abilities .Current learning environment does not accommodate these diversities.

There is less commitment among teachers. Teaching in primary schools is stressful to most teachers. Teachers do not have the commitment in teaching because they are being given low salaries and are not respected by society. This makes them not to play a good role for their responsibility. This becomes a big challenge when it comes to implementation of inclusion in primary schools. In relation to system theory Senge (2008:281) argue that teachers should be involved in creating and sustaining school wide change.

2.5 Overcoming implementation challenges to barriers to universal access to primary education

Parent teachers associations bring parents and teachers together to improve on quality of education through enhancing accountability (Wamahiu, 2012). The degree of parents' and other players' involvement varies and may include taking decisions, promoting communication, organizing educational events and fundraising.

Empowering of stakeholders, that is teachers, parents, head teachers and inspectors' helps in equipping them with confidence, skills and processes of introducing inclusion as a guiding principle will have positive implications on teachers' attitude and performance (Lang & Berberich, 1995).

Tisdell (1995) argues that learning environment needs to attend to inclusivity at three levels which include reflection on diversity of those present learning, attend to the wider and immediate institutional contexts in which participants work and live, in some way reflect the changing needs of an increasingly diverse society.

Free primary education policy will realize success if all stakeholders in the education sector are involved from policy formulation hence smooth implementation (Sifuna, 2007). Active collaboration between policy makers, education personnel and other players in the education sector not forgetting local communities is key. Teachers who are main implementers of education policy are not familiar with policies. Therefore government should ensure that policies reach all stakeholders and follow up done through training and monitoring of progress in order to take stock and amend as need be.

In addition parents are experts of their children in the sense that they know their children and have the last say on them while teachers are experts in helping the children in academic arena and provision of different skills to fulfill the needs of a child. Therefore a parent needs to provide to the teacher necessary information about the child which can help the teacher to plan teaching and reaching objectives of the child. Again teachers and parents in collaboration with counselors need to design a way of helping the child social and emotional development (Kirk, 2005).

In most countries issues on teacher training and management, infrastructure, policy formulation and poor financial management pose as serious implementation challenges in removing barriers to access to universal education. Some countries feel lack of involvement of all stakeholders in education should be looked into if universal access to primary education is to be realized. It is important that financial and human resource management be done effectively in the education sector hence universal access to primary education.

2.6 Knowledge Gap

Universal Primary Education ensures that all pupils who have attained the official school going age are accessing school hence NER of 99%. However in Kenya and in Kawino some pupils who have attained the official school going age are still not in school despite free primary education programme which is meant to steer the country towards UPE. NER for Kenya is at 83% while that of Kawino is 73% indicating existence of barriers to access to primary education. This study seeks to establish barriers not addressed by FPE in Kawino that are hindering universal access to primary education.

2.7 Conceptual Framework.

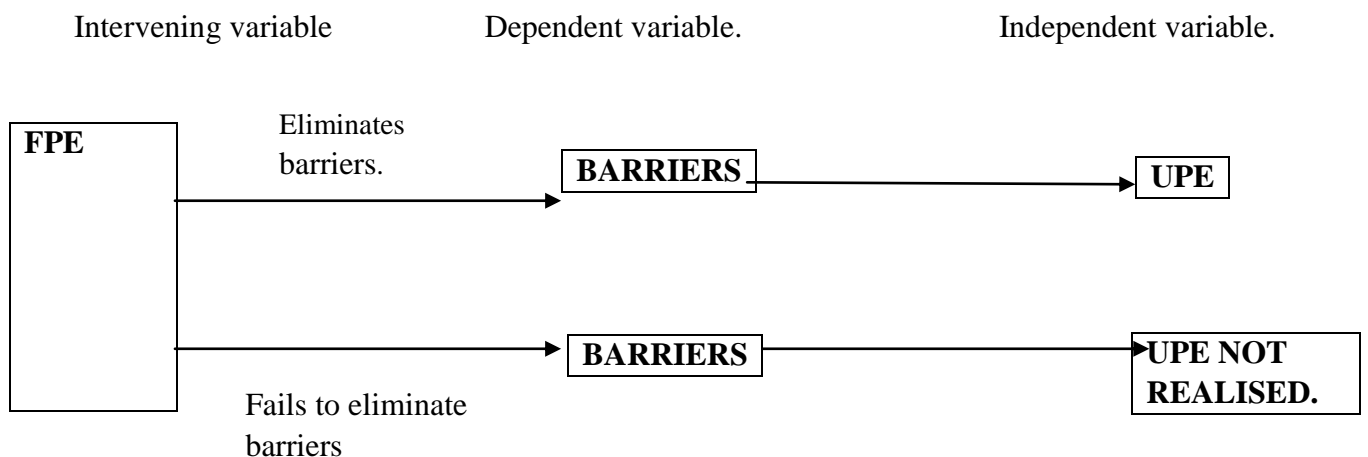


Figure 1: Conceptual framework.

Conceptual framework above illustrates how intervening variable free primary education either eliminates or fails to eliminate all barriers to primary education. If free primary education eliminates all barriers then universal access to education is realized while if it fails to eliminate all barriers universal access to education is not realized.

CHAPTER THREE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section highlights research design, research locale, target population, sample size and sampling procedures/ techniques, research instruments, ethical considerations and data analysis techniques.

3.1 Study Area



Figure 2: Map of Kadibo Division with Kawino as one of the locations.

Source of map: Ministry of Lands survey department

The area of study was Kawino location Kadibo division Kisumu County. Other locations within Kadibo include Bwanda, Kochieng and Kombura. Kawino is sub-divided into north and south. Kadibo division has four locations. Kawino being one of the locations within Kadibo has been selected due to higher incidences of primary pupil drop out. Kadibo division is in Kisumu East Constituency has a population of 48,934 (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2009). The main economic activities are paddy rice production, livestock keeping

and fishing along the lakeside. The division has several seasonal rivers such as Ombeyi, Orije, Miriu and Obuso. It is a flat area with no mountains and hills hence making it prone to flooding.

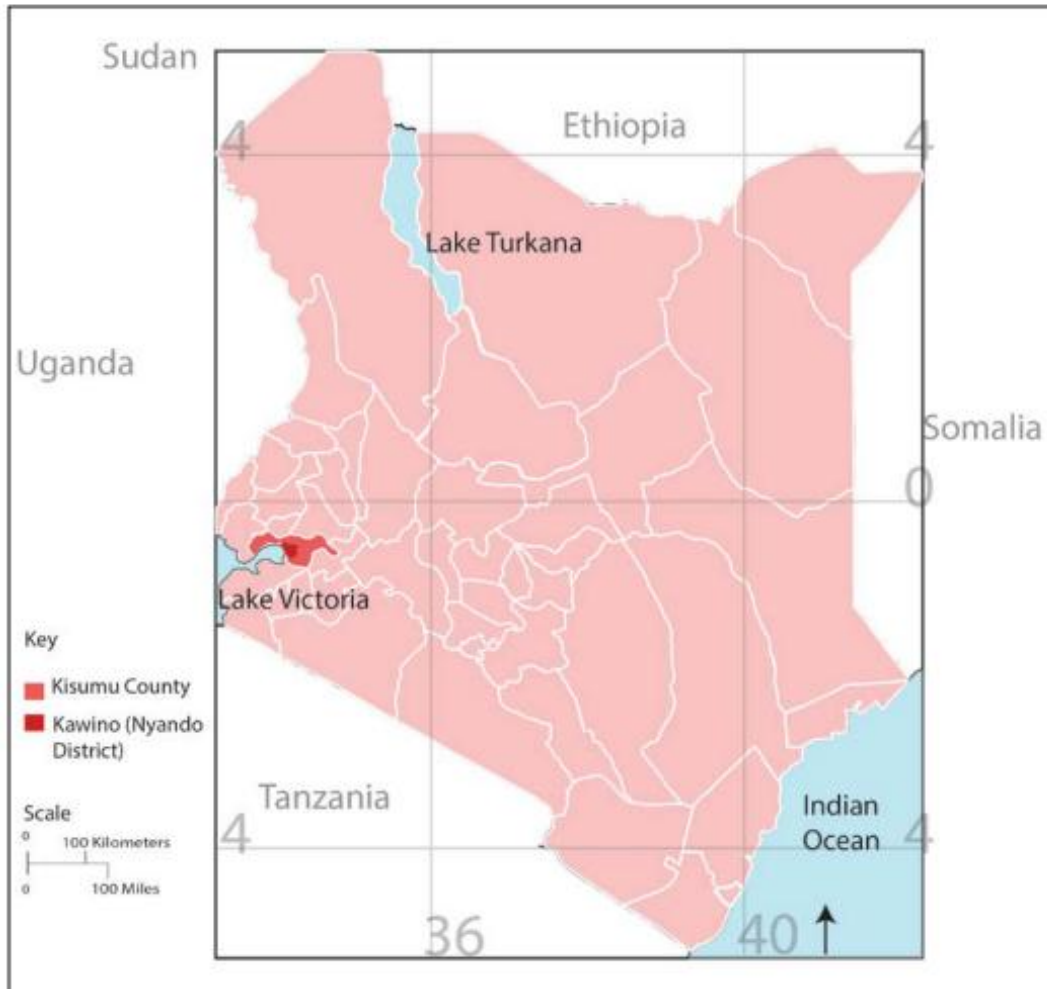


Figure 3: Map of Kenya showing location of Kisumu County.

Source of map: Ministry of Land survey department

3.2 Study Design

This study employed the use of cross sectional survey design. Cross-sectional surveys are studies aimed at determining the frequency (or level) of a particular attribute, in a defined population at a particular point in time. It provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population. In

cross-sectional survey the researcher record information about their subjects without manipulating the study environment.

Gay (1992), points that the design is used to assess attitude and opinions about events, individuals or procedures. In this regard, it enabled the researcher to obtain opinion of community members, pupils, education officials, teachers and head teachers regarding effect of FPE on universal access to primary education in Kawino location.”

3.3 Study population

Orodho (2003), points out that target population is any group of individuals who have one or more characteristics in common that are of interest to the researchers. The study targets Kawino location Kadibo division Kisumu County. The target population was 12920 but 384 respondents was used in this study as derived from sample size calculation. Sample population was distributed as 59 teachers, 1 education officer, 185 community members and 139 pupils guided by the quota method of sampling..

Table3.1: Population of target population in Kawino location.

Number of teachers	Number of pupils	Number of parents	Number of education officers	Total target population
1990	4686	6242	2	12920

Source: AEO office Kadibo and Kenya bureau of statistics.

Table 3.2: Sample distribution of the population.

Category of respondent	Percentage distribution of respondents.	Number of each category of respondent.
Teachers.	0.154 %	59
Pupils.	0.362 %	139
Education officers.	0.0001 %	1
Community members.	0.483 %	185
Total	100 %	384

Source: Research findings.

3.4 Sampling Procedure

Sampling in research is based on selecting a portion of a population that one wants to generalize. The purpose of sampling is to secure a representative portion of the population which enabled the study to gain information about the whole population. Purposive sampling technique was used in selection of Kawino location since it had highest incidences of primary school dropout rate as compared to other locations.

Quota sampling method was used in sampling the target population. Target population was organized into specific groups of teachers, parents, and community and education officers. The number of each group category was determined and their percentage compositions in the entire target population. Percentage composition of each group category was then used to determine the sample size of each group category from the total sample size.

Kawino location has total of twelve primary schools and all of them were selected for study since they are few in number. In each school, class registers, were used to randomly select 6 standard eight pupil and 6 standard seven pupil in 7 schools while in 5 standard eight pupils and five standard seven pupils schools were selected ensuring that gender balance is maintained. This way, a total of 139 pupils were selected in all schools. The study did not therefore cover pupils from class 1-6, since class 8 and 7 pupils were considered the eldest and therefore in better position to handle interviews. However, observations about their characteristics were made.

The selection of teachers was random. In each school, head teachers of each school were automatically selected while 4 teachers were selected in eleven schools and 3 teachers in one school (male and female). In this way, a sample of 59 teachers was drawn from the 12 schools covered by the study since teachers were very key in terms of information.

One education officer was use in the study while Community members were randomly selected by visiting 185 households.

3.5 Sample Size

Orodho (2003), defines a sample as a small group selected for testing which represents a bigger population. According to Mugenda wa Mugenda formula if the population is more than 10000 a sample size of 384 is recommended and in this case target population was 12920 hence 384 was used as the sample size.

3.6 Research instruments

The data was collected from both primary and secondary sources. Secondary data was collected from official documents from the Area Education Office Kadibo, the Central

Bureau of Statistics (CBS), and the government records. Such data included information on pupil enrolment, drop-out rates and government expenditure on FPE.

Questionnaires, interviews guides, focus group discussions and observations were used by the researcher to collect primary data; that is quantitative and qualitative data from the respondents. The type of questions used required ticking of the applicable answers, filling in blank spaces and explaining of one's opinion. In the instrument, closed and open-ended questions were used. According to Orodho (2004), the questionnaire method can reach a large number of subjects who are able to read and write independently. Khan (1991) says that questionnaires enable the person administering them to explain the purpose of the study and give the meaning of the terms that may not be clear.

In this study questionnaires were used on teachers, interview guides on education officers, community members and pupils. Focus group discussion was also used on pupils while observation used in circumstances where objective response would be difficult to obtain from respondents.

3.7 Data Analysis.

Kerlinger (1983) defines data analysis as categorization, ordering, manipulation and summarizing of data to obtain answers to research questions. Data analysis involved mainly descriptive statistics such as frequency and percentages. Quantitative data was analyzed using excel. Qualitative data was sorted, coded, frequency of major opinions determined then analyzed using excel. Data was presented by use of graphs, frequencies, percentages and tables.

3.8 Ethical Consideration

Prior to data collection the researcher sought permission from the department Urban and Regional Planning, Maseno University. The researcher further sought the approval letter from the Ministry of Education Science and Technology which was presented to the Education offices through the DEO for the purpose of obtaining legal consent to carry out the research. After acquiring the legal consent (permit) to carry out the research, the researcher trained research assistants who assisted in administering the research instruments to the respondents. Privacy, confidentiality and dignity of the respondents were considered during the research. Names of the respondents were not exposed and codes were be used instead. A feedback session was also organized in order to disseminate the research findings to the community as well as to thank the authority for their assistance during the research. A study consent form was signed by the respondents to ensure voluntarism and acceptability to participate in the

study. No compensation either financially or materially was given to the respondents for their participation in the study. However they were informed about the importance of participating in such studies as far as positive implementations of practices is concern.

CHAPTER FOUR RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

In this chapter the results and discussions on the effect of free primary education on universal access to education in Kawino location Kadido division are presented.

It gives findings and discussions of various objectives namely to establish barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino location, to assess how free primary education addresses barriers to universal access primary education in Kawino location and lastly to establish implementation challenges in removing barriers to universal access to primary

4.2 Barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino location

4.2.1 Findings on barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino location

This section addresses the first objective of the study and the answer the research question. The first objective of the study is to establish barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino location while the research question asks what the barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino location are.

Enrolment, drop outs and reasons for drop out of pupils in Kawino were being examined to establish barriers.

Net enrolment and Dropout rates.

Table 4.1: Net enrolment of pupils in Kawino location from 2008 to 2012

Years.	Enrollment of pupils who have attained school going age in Kawino location.	Total number of pupils in Kawino who have attained official school going age.	NER.
Jan 2008	4448	5930	75%
Nov 2008	4404	5951	74%
Jan 2009	4219	5779	73%
Nov 2009	4161	5779	72%
Jan 2010	4296	5966	72%
Nov 2010	4191	5987	70%
Jan 2011	4477	5890	76%
Nov 2011	4319	5916	73%
Jan 2012	4457	6022	74%
Nov 2012	4277	6023	71%

Source: Research Findings

For example, in 2008 January Kawino had measured NER at 75%. Thus, out of every 100 children within the official age-group for primary education, only 75 were enrolled in school. It therefore implies that 5930 pupils attained the official school going age but only 4448 were enrolled, giving a NER of 75%. I.e. NER for Jan 2008 is therefore $\frac{4448}{5930} \times 100 = 75\%$

Table 4.2: Dropout rates of pupils in Kawino location from 2008 to 2012.

Locations.	Dropout % in 2008	Dropout % in 2009	Dropout% in2010	Dropout% in 2011	Dropout% in 2012
Kawino.	1%	1%	2%	3%	4%

Source: AEO Kadibo.

Dropout rates are arrived at by subtracting net enrollment percentage at the end of the year from that at the beginning of the year. For example in January 2008 NER was 75% while in November 2008 NER was 74% giving a dropout percentage of 1% i.e 75-74 =1.

Table 4.1 on the enrollment of pupils in Kawino location in the years 2008 to 2012 indicates a highest net enrollment realized in January2011 (76%) and lowest net enrollment in November 2012(71%).

Table 4.2 on dropout rates indicates highest dropout rate in 2012 at 4% and lowest dropout rate in 2008 and 2009 at 1%. This confirms that there are barriers preventing pupils from attending school in Kawino location.

Table 4.3: Reasons for drop out of pupils in Kawino location.

Category of respondents.	Barrier causing drop out of pupils	Specific examples of the barriers.	(f).	Percent of N = 384
Teachers.	1. Economic.	Children as Contributors to household economies due to poverty, Pull of Cash from the Markets, Inability to pay for school levies, buy school requirements	32	8.3%
	2. FPE related.	Severe shortage of teachers, Inadequate supervision by education administrators, Lack of adequate and appropriate learning spaces, Insufficient and inefficient supply of learning materials and recreational facilities and policy implementation	13	3.3%
	3. Social cultural.	Gender disparities in teacher distribution, Lapses and failure to uphold professional ethics by some teachers , Girls as family assets , Cultural obligations, duties and expectations, The girl Child's contribution to the household, Cultural acceptance of corporal punishment.	10	2.6%

	4. Geographical.	Distance to school, adverse weather conditions and presence of floods in the region	4	1.04%
Pupils.	1. Economic.	Children as Contributors to household economies due to poverty, Pull of Cash from the Markets, Inability to buy school requirements like uniforms, pay for miscellaneous exam charges, PTA and construction charges	73	19.01%
	2. Socio-cultural.	Polygamous nature of families and its natural acceptance, Social construct of gender, Gender based violence (GBV) in schools, Sexual escapades and lack of parental counsel, Early pregnancy and emergence of minor families, Peer influence, Child to child violence, Preying on girls, Cultural acceptance of corporal punishment.	33	8.5%
	3. FPE related.	Lack of adequate and appropriate learning spaces, Insufficient and inefficient supply of learning materials and recreational facilities.	22	5.7%
	4. Geographic al.	Distance to school, adverse weather conditions and presence of floods in the region	11	2.8%
Community members.	1. Economic.	Children as contributors to household economies, Pull of cash from the markets, Inability to buy school requirements like uniforms, pay for miscellaneous exam charges, PTA and construction charges	114	29.6%
	2. FPE related.	Lack of adequate and appropriate learning spaces, Insufficient and inefficient supply of learning materials and recreational facilities.	40	10.4%
	3. Socio-cultural.	Lapses and failure to uphold professional ethics by some teachers , Girls as family assets , Cultural obligations, duties and expectations, Girls as family assets, The girl child's contribution to the household, Cultural acceptance of corporal punishment, Polygamous nature of families and its natural acceptance, Gender based violence (GBV) in schools, Sexual escapades and lack of parental counsel, Early pregnancy and emergence of minor families, Peer influence, Child to child violence, Preying on girls	23	5.9%
	4. Geographic al.	Distance to school, adverse weather conditions and presence of floods in the region	8	2.08%

Education officers.	1. Economic.	Children as contributors to household economies, Pull of cash from the markets, Inability to pay for school levies, buy school requirements	1	0.26%
	2. FPE related.	Teacher working conditions, Teachers' limited knowledge and pedagogical skills, Severe shortage of teachers, Inadequate supervision by education administrators, Lack of adequate and appropriate learning spaces, Insufficient and inefficient supply of learning materials and recreational facilities and policy implementation.	1	0.26%
Totals.			384	100

Source: Research finding.

Figure 4: Barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino according to teachers, pupils, parents and education officers.

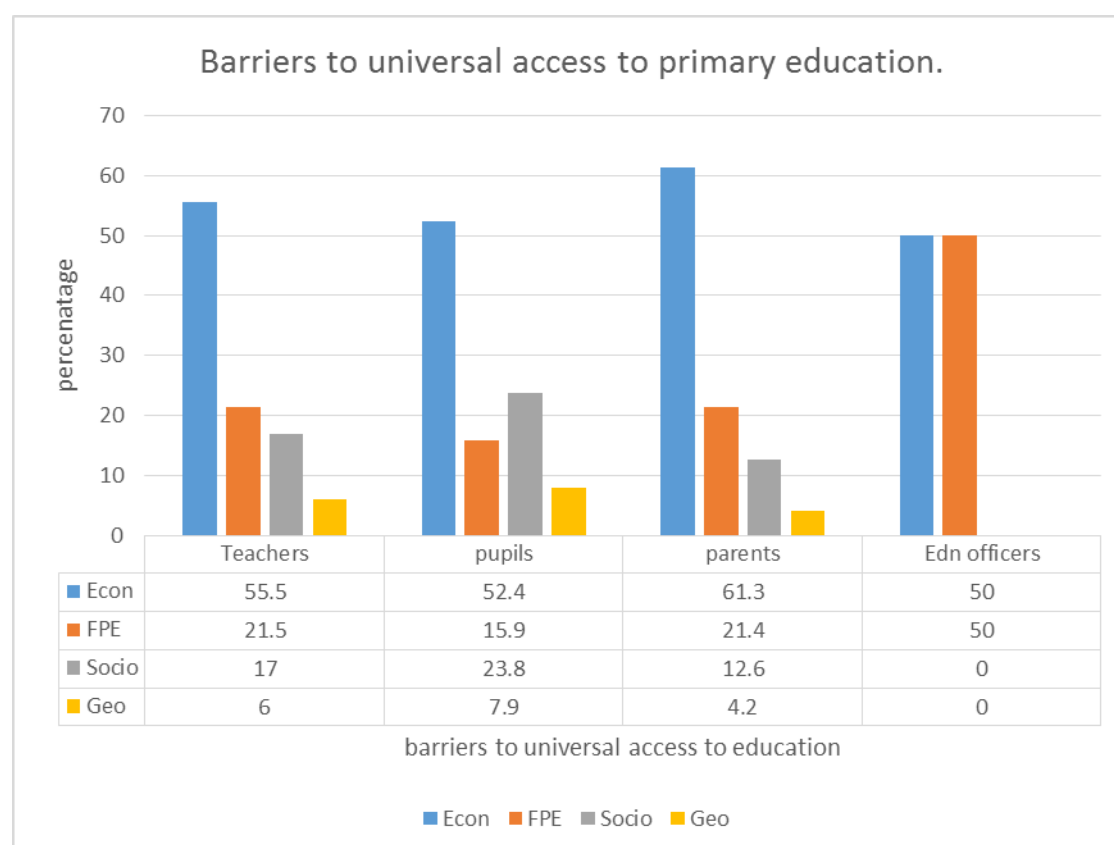
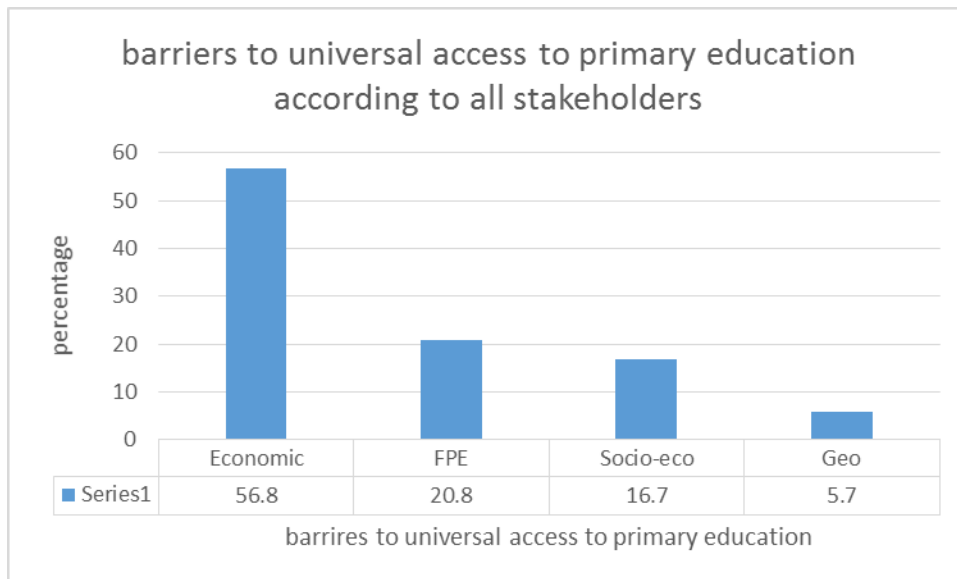


Figure 5: Barriers to universal access to primary education according to all stakeholders.



Findings from figure 4 and 5 above reveals that all stakeholders are of the opinion that economic barriers are the most significant. This study reveals that 56.8% of barriers are economic, 20.8% are FPE related, 16.6% are socio-cultural and 5.7% are geographical.

2.2 Discussions on barriers to access to primary education in Kawino location

Findings show that all stakeholders believe that economic barriers are the most significant barrier to universal access to primary education in Kawino location with only education officers being of the opinion that FPE related barriers is equally significant just as economic barriers.

This findings show that FPE has not completely addressed economic barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino .Apart from economic barriers there are also other barriers to access to education in Kawino like FPE related barriers, socio-cultural and geographical not addressed by FPE.

This therefore means that FPE has not yet removed the entire barriers to access to education in Kawino location which responds to the study problem that sought to find out the effect of FPE on universal access to education in Kawino location.

Economic barriers have been addressed in different countries in various ways like in Bangladesh schools have been made more affordable by offering stipend to poor households. This monthly stipend payment partly compensates and encourages poor parents to send their pupils to primary school hence increase in school enrolment and attendance. This measure

can be used in Kawino location to help poor households cater for other expenses associated with primary education like buying of school uniforms and payment of other school levies.

Conditional cash transfers (CCTs) have been shown to reduce child labor and increase school enrolment and attendance. South Africa, Malawi and Lesotho are among a number of southern African countries implementing such schemes and this has led to increases in school enrolment, retention and achievement for children from households receiving the cash transfers. Use of CCTs is currently in place in Kenya but it does not have significant impact to access to primary education in Kawino location. CCTs can be used in Kawino to reduce child labour and increase enrolment and attendance by offering substantial amounts to poor households.

In Malawi distributing vouchers for school uniforms was used as an effective and reasonably cost effective way to increase access. Distribution of school uniforms has been shown to reduce dropout rates. This can be effective in Kawino location since poor pupils that cannot buy uniforms will be able to attend school.

FPE related barriers in Uganda have been addressed by providing decent quality education particularly in relation to aspects of good teaching, i.e., well trained teachers as well as enough instruction in the right languages. For example through the School Facilities Grant (SFG), the Ministry of Education and Sports by 2004 had so far managed to increase classrooms from 25,676 in 1996 to 78,403 and the number of teachers from 81,564 in 1996 to 125,883 in 2004. These have had significant improvements on quality indicators like teacher-pupil ratio (50:1), the pupil-classroom ratio (84:1) and the pupil-textbook ratio (3:1). These measures can also be implemented in Kenya and in Kawino.

Evidence from Bangladesh, Egypt, Mali, Morocco, Peru, Tunisia, and Yemen also suggested that having adequate school facilities are essential for sufficient pupils' enrollment. Provision of certain essential facilities in the school such as classrooms, latrines, facilities for managing menstruation, drinking water and school wall boundaries must be made an integral part of school development policies, plans, programs and projects/schemes. These measures can also be effected in Kawino.

Socio-cultural barriers have been addressed in Bangladesh by enforcement of laws against early marriage. In Bangladesh laws against early marriages has been used to ensure that young pupils remain in school and complete their studies. Accordingly, making education compulsory for pupils of certain ages and enforcement of laws against child-marriage might

be effective solutions to reduce early marriage. This kind of laws exists in Kenya as well though not implemented effectively since some of those who marry younger girls are often protected. The community in Kawino location should ensure that those who marry school girls are reported to relevant authorities and prosecuted.

Bangladesh, Nepal, and Pakistan have also addressed socio-cultural barriers by recruitment of female teachers. This has made remarkable impact on helping adolescent girls more comfortable to discuss social issues affecting their studies. This measure can be undertaken in Kawino since it deal with gender disparity in teacher distribution.

In Asia and Australia socio-cultural barriers have been addressed in various ways like improving the physical, social and psychological environments of schools making them more children friendly. In Asia social communication programmes and awareness-raising campaigns on traditions that attach little or no value to girls' education have to help gradually break down barriers in the longer term.

Effective programmes for counseling pupils with social and psychological issues have been designed and implemented in Australia. Therefore, policy initiatives, programmes and schemes that address the issue of opportunity cost of sending the children to school, especially girls, has proven effective in addressing the access issue and gender parity in basic education for boys and girls across urban/rural settings in Asia.

In Australia there is growing evidence that alternative learning options may be a key to addressing some forms of school disengagement. Research examining this 'second-chance education' suggests it provides the opportunity to change one's life after experiencing illness, education failure, homelessness or some other issue

In Australia early intervention has helped in reducing drop outs of pupils. In terms of early intervention, school disengagement often begins in the middle years of education. The Regional Youth Affairs Network (RYAN) describes the middle years, or ages 10–14, as a particularly risky period. Likewise, research conducted in Melbourne indicates that significant numbers of young people under 15 disengage from mainstream schooling, and there is a lack of support and services to re-engage them with education. This category of pupils should be provided with letter of reference and exit interview conducted on them.

In Australia curricular reforms has been initiated so that the curriculum for the entire spectrum of schooling from primary/basic education to tertiary level fully and properly addressed the issues of gender parity, gender equality and gender equity not only as they pertain to the education sector but also with regard to women's empowerment in the social, economic and political spheres. In this way, issues of social discrimination and social status,

participation in the labour market and playing effective roles in policy-making, planning, management and decision-making at various levels of authority and institutional mechanism has been addressed. All the above measures used in Asia and Australia can also be used to address socio-cultural barriers to primary education in Kawino location.

In Bangladesh geographical barriers have been addressed by providing safe schools nearby, constructing of sufficient dykes and canals in areas prone to flooding to enhance drainage during rainy periods and encouraging of parents and guardians of pupils to take their children to schools within their neighborhood to avoid walking long distances to school. The above measures can also be used to overcome geographical barriers in Kawino location.

Findings reveal that just like in other countries economic barriers are the most significant in Kawino as well. It is important that sufficient funds for education are allocated in Kenya to ensure universal education to access to education in Kawino as well.

4.3 Ways in which free primary education has addressed barriers to universal access to education in Kawino location.

4.3.1 Findings on ways in which FPE has addressed barriers to access to primary education in Kawino.

This section will address the second objective of the study and answer the research question. The second objective of the study is to assess how free primary education addresses barriers to universal access to education in Kawino location while the research question asks ways in which free primary education has addressed barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino location.

Ways in which free primary education has addressed barriers to universal access to education will be examined to determine barriers addressed and those not addressed by free primary education.

Table 4.4: Ways in which FPE addresses barriers to universal access to education in Kawino.

Category of barrier.	What FPE caters for?	Frequency. N=384	Percent.
Economic.	Payment of tuition fees.	384	100
	Buying of uniforms.	-	-
	Payment for development fund.	-	-
	Payment for extra tuition.	-	-
	Paying for tests and examination.	-	-
	Payment for lunch.	-	-
	Supplementary text books.	-	-
	Caution money.	-	-
	Activity fee.	-	-
	Transport.	-	-
	Exercise books for homework.	-	-
	Registration fees.	-	-
	Exercise books for class work	384	100
	Text books for normal lessons.	384	100
	Accommodation.	-	-
	Health care.	-	-
School committee teachers 'salary.	-	-	
Harambee contribution.	-	-	
FPE related factors.	1. Employment of more teachers.	-	-
	2. Employment of more quality assurance personnel.	-	-
	3. Sufficient learning materials.	-	-
	4. Sufficient recreational facilities.	-	-
	5. Sufficient classrooms.	-	-

Socio-cultural	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Effective counseling of pupils with social and psychological problems. 2. Creating awareness among community members one on economic of education. 3. Provision of alternative learning options for pupils who cannot go through mainstream learning. 	-	-
Geographical.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Construction of canals in flood prone areas. 2. Establishment of many schools. 	-	-

Source: Research Findings.

Table 4.5: Direct and indirect costs of FPE.

Hidden costs in FPE not catered for by the government.	Annual estimates of hidden costs in FPE not catered for by the government.	FPE costs met by the government.	Annual FPE costs met by government per child.
Buying of uniforms.	500	Payment of tuition fees.	1020.
Payment for development fund.	500	Exercise books for class work	300.
Payment for extra tuition.	600	Text books for normal lessons.	500.
Paying for tests and examination.	300		
Payment for lunch.	300		
Supplementary text books.	800		
Caution money.	200		
Activity fee.	200		
Transport.	200		
Registration fees.	200		
Exercise books for homework	150		
Accommodation.	-		
Health care.	200		
School committee teachers 'salary.	500		
Harambee contribution	100		
TOTALS.	4750.		1820

Table 4.6: How FPE addresses economic barriers.

Does FPE cater all economic barriers?	Yes	No
Tuition fees	100%	0%
Uniform	0%	100%
Development fund	0%	100%
Extra tuition	0%	100%
Tests and exams	0%	100%
Lunch	0%	100%
Supplementary text books	0%	100%
Caution money	0%	100%
Activity fees	0%	100%
Transport	0%	100%
Exercise books for classwork	100%	0%
Text books for normal lessons	100%	0%
Accommodation	0%	100%
Healthcare	0%	100%
School committee teachers' salary	0%	100%
Harambee contribution	0%	100%
Registration fees.	0%	100%
Exercise books for homework.	0%	100%

Source: Research findings.

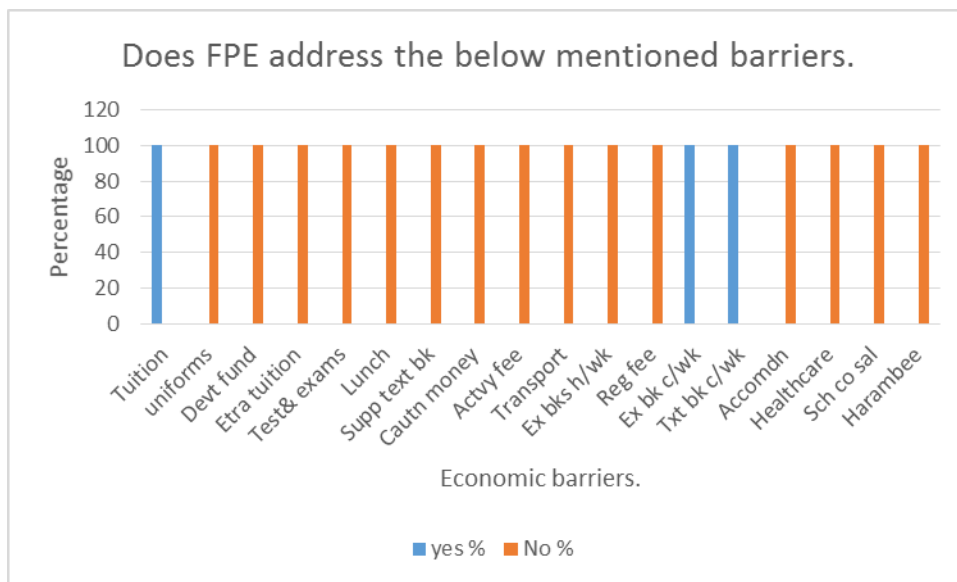


Figure 6: economic barriers

Source :Research findings.

Findings from tables 4.4,4.5,4.6 and figure 6 above shows that all respondents 384(100%)

are of the opinion that FPE caters only for tuition fees, exercise books for classwork and text books for classwork only. Table 4.14 further reveals that the total amount the government pays on tuition fees, exercise books for classwork and text books for classwork is only a total of kshs. 1820 (27.2%) per annum while other estimated hidden costs are kshs. 4750 (72.7%) per annum. This shows that whatever the government provides is far must less that what is needed in order to achieve UPE.

Table 4.7: How FPE addresses FPE related barriers to education.

Does FPE address FPE related barriers to education	Employment of sufficient teachers.	Employment of sufficient quality assurance personnel.	Sufficient learning materials.	Sufficient recreational facilities.	Sufficient classrooms.
Yes	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
No	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Research findings.

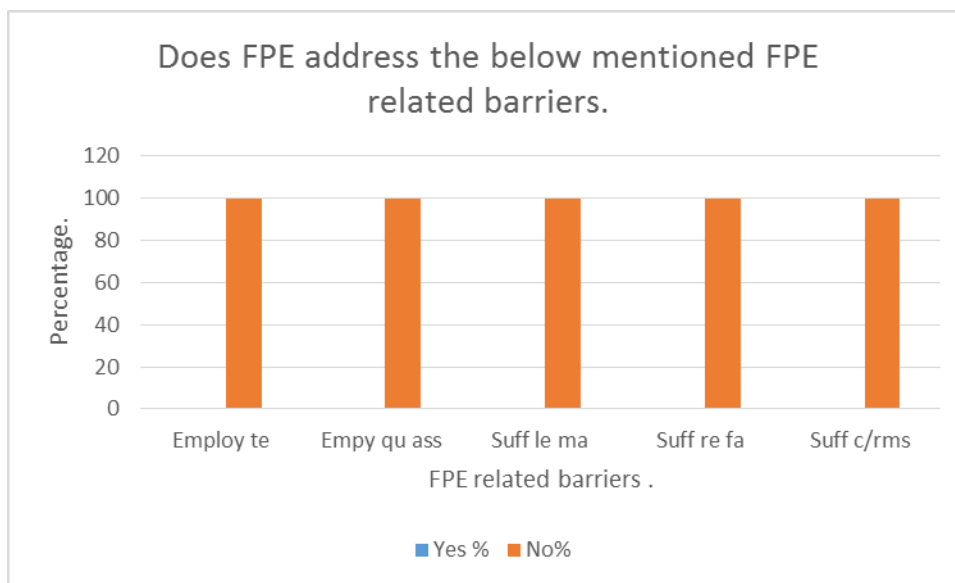


Figure 7 : FPE related barriers

Source: Research findings

Findings 4.7 and figure 7 above reveals that all respondents 384(100%) are of the opinion that FPE does not cater for FPE related barriers at all.

Table 4.8: How FPE addresses socio-cultural barriers to education.

Does FPE address socio-cultural barriers to education	Effective counselling of pupils	Creating awareness among community l.	Provision of alternative learning options
Yes	0%	0%	0%
No.	100%	100%	100%

Source: Research findings

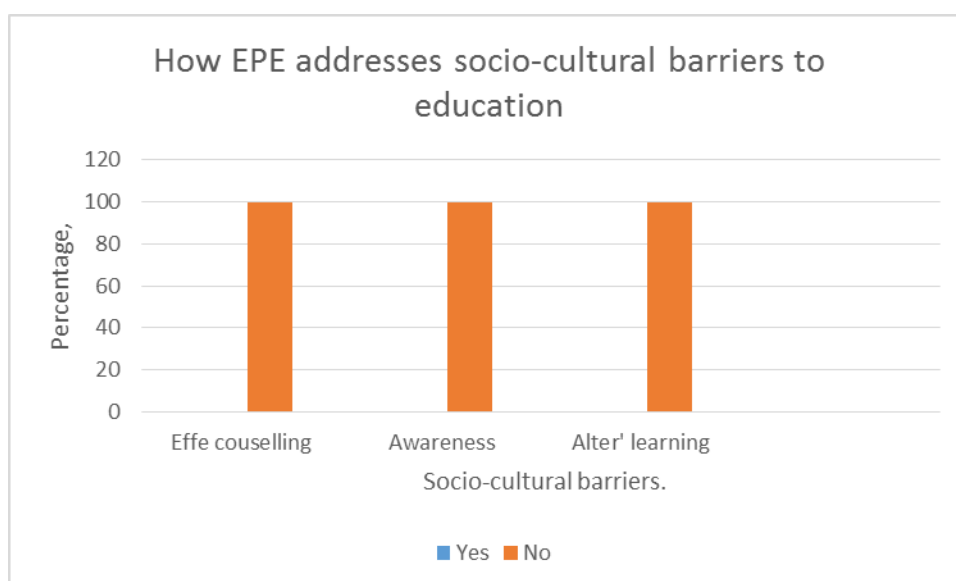


Figure 8: Socio –Cultural Barriers

Source: Research findings

Findings from table 4.8 and figure 8 above reveal that all respondents 384(100%) are of the opinion that FPE does not address socio-cultural barriers at all.

Table 4.9: How FPE addresses geographical barriers to education

Does FPE address socio-cultural barriers to education?	Construction of canals in flood prone areas.	Establishment of many schools.
Yes	0%	0%
No.	100%	100%

Source: Research findings.

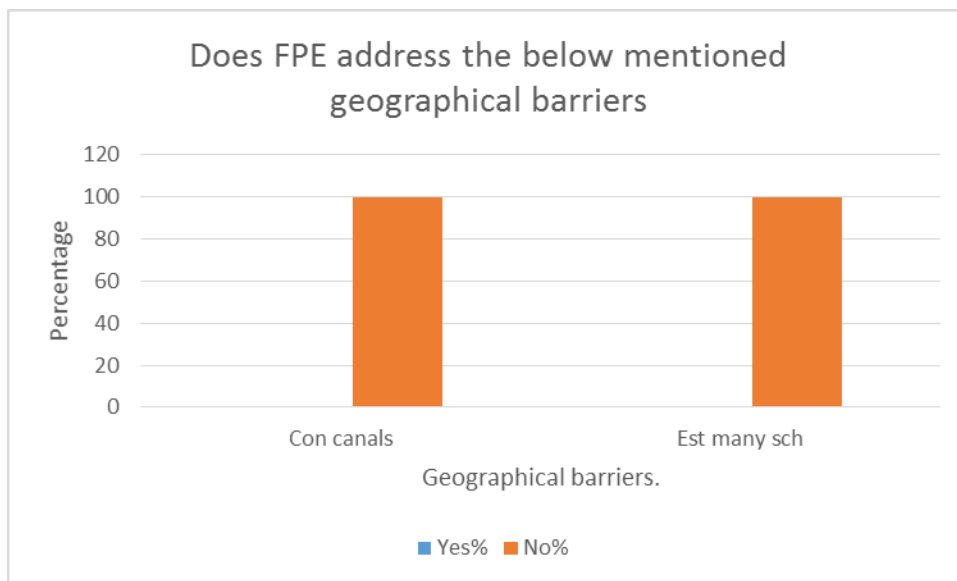


Figure 9: Geographical barriers

Findings from table 4.9 and figure 9 above reveal that all respondents 384(100%) are of the opinion that FPE does not address geographical barriers at all.

Findings from all respondents 384(100%) are of the opinion that free primary education caters partly for economic barriers that is payment of tuition fees, buying of exercise books for classwork and text books for normal lessons only. Results also reveal that all respondents 384(100%) are of the view that other economic barriers are not addressed by FPE while barriers like socio-cultural, geographical and free primary education related barriers are completely not addressed by free primary education.

Findings therefore reveal that free primary education only addresses economic barriers partly, while other barriers like socio-cultural, geographical and FPE related barrier are not addressed completely and this answers the second research question that asks in what ways has free primary education addressed barriers to universal access to education in Kawino location.

4.3.2 Discussions on ways in which free primary education addresses barriers to universal access to education in Kawino location

Findings reveal that all stakeholders 384(100%) are of the view that that free primary education caters partly for economic barriers that is payment of tuition fees, buying of exercise books and text books for normal lessons only.

Results also shows all respondents 384(100%) are of the opinion that other economic barriers are not addressed by FPE while barriers like socio-cultural, geographical and free primary education related barriers are completely not addressed by free primary education.

These findings therefore reveal that free primary education only addresses economic barriers partly, while other barriers like socio-cultural, geographical and FPE related barrier are not addressed at all and this responds to the study problem that sought to find out the effect of FPE on universal access to education in Kawino location.

Countries that are almost achieving universal primary education are Lebanon, Brazil, Malaysia and Botswana. Botswana's NER increased from 44% in 1970 to 93% in 2012, Lebanon's NER increased from 91% in 1990 to 95% in 2011, Malaysia's NER increased from 84% in 1970 to 98% in 2000 while Brazil's NER increased from less than 60% in 1960 to 98% in 2010 to 93% in 2012. These countries are therefore very significant when it comes to giving direction on how their UPE policies have led to an almost universalized basic education.

In Lebanon a number of national and key local organizations that are active in addressing issues in primary education. Most of these organizations have focused efforts on students who are at risk of dropping out of school or children who have already dropped out of school. The National Union of Parents and Institutional Associations for Intellectual Disability has been working directly with children with disabilities since 1965. Between 1984 and 2000, the organization attempted integrating students with special education needs into the local Private primary schools in the country. As a result, in 2011–2012, the government selected 10 public primary schools across the country to introduce this model of mainstreaming children with disabilities in regular classes. The Renee Muawwad Foundation (RMF) is a leading local nongovernmental organization that works on education initiatives. One of its projects, Support to Rural Families Affected by War, was funded by the Italian Cooperation ROSS Program (Italian Ministry of Foreign Affairs) and co-implemented by RMF and other local and international partners. Iqraa Association³⁰ is a non-profit, non-sectarian association that has been working since 1994 on promoting reading in public schools across Lebanon. The Amel Association, a non-profit organization, focuses on promoting social, economic, civil and cultural rights—including education—for the underprivileged in Lebanon.

Similar to other developing countries, Lebanon has received funding in the education sector from international organizations (such as, Agence Française de Development, European Union[EU], Islamic Development Bank [IDB], UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF, USAID, and the World Bank), particularly after the end of the civil war in 1990. International organizations work closely in coordination with the Ministry of Education and Higher Education and with local organizations and institutions to improve access and retention in schools, enhance

student achievement by improving educational facilities and equipment, and providing capacity building for teachers, and increasing stakeholder engagement in public schools.

In Botswana one government initiative undertaken to reduce dropout involved introducing in 1987 guidance and counseling services in primary schools. In this initiative one teacher in all the schools in Maun, Central, Southern and North East districts was identified and prepared to help children who experience learning or other problems.

In addition, the introduction of Special Education Unit in 1984 under the Ministry of Education

has played a crucial role in facilitating access and retention of students with special needs.

Abolishing school fees in 1980 led to increased access and retention in primary education. In 2006 the government introduced a cost-sharing program, whereby district councils provide funds through their Social and Community Development units to parents who are on welfare and would otherwise be unable to pay supplemental school fees. This program undoubtedly has benefited the families who received the funds, and may have contributed to the upward move of the NER for 6- to 12-year-olds between 2009 and 2012 but does not seem to have been strong enough to counteract other factors that resulted in a continuing decline in NER for 7- to 13-year olds.

The Government of Botswana through the Ministry of Education (MoE) developed a detailed policy that emphasized integration and collaboration with other stakeholders, such as nongovernmental organizations, particularly religious-based institutions, have contributed to expanding education provision in Botswana. For example, as noted above, between 1978 and 1991 the number of private primary schools increased from 13 to 50. These primary schools were (and still are) controlled by churches, notably the United Congregational Church of Southern Africa and the Roman Catholic Church.

International organizations that have been key drivers in increasing access, retention, and quality in education in Botswana include UNESCO, European Union (EU), British Council, Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). Government of Botswana also embarked on a deliberate effort to expand the number of available primary schools. In Malaysia of strong political will in the level of financial resources devoted to building schools and employing teachers, among others is demonstrated. For instance, in 2008 Malaysia ranked 17th (out of 102 countries) in terms of education expenditure for all levels (as a percent of total government expenditure), only second to Thailand in the region.

The political will of government authorities was also evidenced by implementing the policy of no school fees (specified in the Education Act of 1961). This policy undoubtedly was crucial for Promoting access to and retention in primary school among children who live in poverty.

Another financial indicator of political will is that the Malaysian government has invested in pre-schools since the 1990s. Pre-schools have been established in all national and national type primary schools, with teachers specially trained in pre-primary education. Children who attend pre-schools are less likely to drop out of primary schools .Children whose first language is not the language of instruction especially benefit from attending this pre-school for one to two years .

The government supports the poor by giving free food, transportation, uniform, tuition and scholarships. In addition, since 1975 there has been a government program of loaning textbooks to students from low-income families. More than 75 percent of children enrolled in primary school benefit from this textbook-loan scheme.

Also contributing to increasing access and retention among students from poorer families is the Supplementary Food Program. Administered by the Ministry of Education since 1980, this program seeks to improve the nutrition level of primary students from poor households to advance retention in schools. For example, the program supplied breakfast to nearly 707,000 Primary school students in 2006. This program has led to improved attendance rates for children from poor households recently, the Government of Malaysia initiated the Poor Students Trust Fund 2003, which gives funds directly to lower socioeconomic status families and has reduced the number of their children dropping out of school.

Then, in 2004 the government launched a Tuition Aid Scheme that provides extra lessons during the weekends or after school for government school students with low achievement and who belong to households that fall below the poverty line. In 2006, about half a million primary school children received aid under this scheme amounting to about US\$52 million .Furthermore, the School Milk Program benefited more than half a million primary students in 2006, with the ministry allotting some 20 million Malaysian ringgit annually to that program. These programs have likely reduced the financial pressures that may cause children and youth to drop out ,maintain its relatively high primary school net enrollment rate remains high (96 percent in 2005) and its relatively high rate of survival to year 6 (96 percent from 2005 to 2010).

With regard to promoting access and retention of children with special needs, the Ministry of Education developed the Integrated Special Education Programs in 1981 to cater to this population.

Other NGOs assist children to achieve access to primary education by providing various Supports. One such NGO is Borneo Child Aid Society, also known as HUMANA, which was established in 1991 and registered as an NGO in 1996.

In 1996, Brazilian Constitutional Amendment Number 14 created the Fund for Primary Education Administration and Development and for the Enhancement of Teacher Status, or FUNDEF. To reduce inequality and variation in per student spending between different regions and schools, in 1996, the government introduced and expanded education finance equalization policies, in particular through the creation of FUNDEF (1996–2006) and FUNDEB (2006–present), both of which entailed policies about allocation of education funding and increases in overall funding of education. FUNDEF was introduced in 1996 to reform the funding of education in Brazil. It was established to make sure that money mandated by the constitution is actually spent on education and to establish a per student spending floor for the whole country. The policy mandated redistribution of funds within states across municipalities, so that all municipalities could reach the per student spending requirement. Additionally, federal government then supplemented spending in states and municipalities that could not afford the national spending floor. Finally, FUNDEF required that 60% of spending go towards teacher salaries and 40% go towards school operations. The main objective of FUNDEB is to continue to redistribute resources related to education across the country, taking into account the social and economic development of regions.

Brazil offers Conditional Cash Transfers (CCTs) to students and as of January 2011 has one of the largest CCT programs of any country. The transfers are currently paid to 26% of the population. Bolsa Escola is a cash transfer program that provided cash payments to poor families with children ages 6 to 15 in exchange for their enrollment in school and their attendance of at least 85% of school days. The program was first implemented in 1995 by the municipalities of Brasília (the Federal District) and Campinas (in São Paulo State). Within three years, over 50 municipalities in seven states implemented similar programs.

After these successful local CCT experiences in the mid-1990s, CCTs gained momentum in Congress prompting President Fernando Henrique Cardoso's government to create the Federal Bolsa Escola program in April 2001. By the end of 2001, it had been implemented in 98% of the 5,561 Brazilian municipalities, providing stipends to over 8.2 million children

from 4.8 million families, at a cost of over US\$700 million. In October 2003, President Luis Inacio Lula da Silva unified Bolsa Escola and three other federal cash transfer programs into a single program called Bolsa Família. Bolsa Família (Family Allowance) is a social welfare program which provides financial aid to poor Brazilian families. Families must ensure that their children attend school and are vaccinated.

The National Assessment of Basic Education (SAEB) and the *ProvaBrasil* ("Test of Brazil") are two exams that make up the Evaluation System of Basic Education in Brazil. The SAEB was the first national Brazilian initiative to measure the Brazilian educational system in depth. Since the first assessment, it has provided data on the quality of the educational systems of Brazil as a whole, geographic regions and the federal units (states and Federal Districts). The *ProvaBrasil* assessment was established in 2005, due to a desire for more detail beyond that included in the SAEB. It expanded the range of results providing data not only for Brazil and Brazilian states, but also for each municipality and school participant. The *ProvaBrasil* assesses all students in public urban education in the 4th and 8th grades of elementary school, public elementary education in state schools, municipal and federal levels of rural and urban schools that have at least 20 students enrolled in the grade assessed. The methodology of the two evaluations is the same and they have been used in combination since 2007, but students take one or the other and never both. In 2007, the Brazilian Ministry of Education implemented the Index of Basic Education Quality (IDEB) to monitor education progress in every school, municipality, state and region of Brazil. The IDEB builds on the SAEB and the *ProvaBrasil*, combining the results of the *ProvaBrasil* test with data on student enrollments and rates of repetition and graduation to generate an index of school performance for all but the smallest of Brazil's 175,000 primary and secondary schools, 5,000-plus municipal school systems, 26 state systems and the federal district systems. The results of IDEB studies are reported twice a year, and receive media coverage. Based upon the findings, the federal government establishes targets for improvement of primary and secondary education across schools.

According to data from the SAEB/ProvaBrasil from 1999 to 2007, there is evidence that educational performance is improving in all regions of Brazil. Performance for the lowest income students has also improved.

The Ministry of Education has begun to introduce new standards for teachers, federally supported, higher quality teacher training programs and textbook screening and production.

Such investment includes programs such as MaisEducação, and the expansion of the federal technical schools. The federal government has also invested in policies like school-level planning under FUNDESCOLA, multi-grade teaching under Escola Ativa and capacity building for municipal education managers, with PAR.

There are some examples of Brazilian government officials engaging with non-governmental organizations to support or manage teachers and schools: Popular Center for Culture and Development took over the administration of the local Secretariat of Education between August 2003 and late 2004 and implemented a variety of new teaching tools in the rural schools of Araçuaí, a poor municipality in the southeastern state of Minas Gerais. In Salvador, capital of the northern state of Bahia, Axé Project got permission in 1999 to create the Barbosa Romeo Municipal School, targeting at-risk youngsters like street kids.

The presidents of several Brazilian companies, including Paschoal car parts chain, the Gerdau Group and major banks Itaú, Bradesco and Santander, founded All for Education, and developed goals for Brazil's education and monitoring tools with help of U.S. and Brazilian education experts. All for Education engaged academic and media channels to help promote education as a national priority and according to a poll by CNO/IBOPE education moved from the seventh biggest public concern to second, after crime.

Barriers not addressed by FPE in Kawino can be addressed by ways in which other countries that have achieved UPE have done it. What is common amongst all the four countries is their effective ways of mobilizing for resources from various sources. MOE in these countries works with NGO'S, private companies and international countries to ensure that sufficient resources are mobilized for overcoming barriers to primary education. The most significant issue in addressing all the barriers to primary education is availability of sufficient resources in which if this is achieved UPE becomes realizable as well.

Provision of support to the poor by giving free food, transportation, uniform, tuition and scholarships, Tuition Aid Scheme that provides extra lessons during the weekends and textbook-loan scheme in Malaysia, Conditional Cash Transfers (CCTs) in Brazil, guidance and counseling services in primary schools in Botswana as one of government initiative undertaken to reduce dropout rates are of the measures that should be part of FPE policy in Kenya but most importantly devotion of sufficient resources is key. With sufficient resources all the other barriers are addressed effectively.

4.4: Implementation challenges in removing barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino and ways of overcoming them

4.4.1: Findings on implementation challenges in removing barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino and ways of overcoming them

This section will address the third objective of the study and answer the research question. The third objective of the study is to establish implementation challenges in removing barriers to universal access to education in Kawino and ways of overcoming them while the research question asks the nature of challenges in removing barriers and ways of overcoming them. In the third objective only school heads were interviewed since they were the respondents with relevant information hence frequency of twelve.

Implementation challenges in removing barriers to universal access to primary education and ways of overcoming these challenges will be examined to determine the implementation challenges and ways of overcoming them.

Table 4.10: Implementation challenges in removing barriers to access universal to primary education in Kawino location.

Implementation challenges in removing barriers	Frequency. N=12	Percentage.
FPE being a policy pronouncement, which has not been backed up with a clear policy document.	7	58%
Lack of adequate resources/funding.	12	100%
Low management capacity by school administrators.	8	66%
Non transparent resource allocation and accounting practices by both school administrators and ministry officials.	8	66%
Delays in funds disbursement.	12	100%
Embezzlement of Funds	8	66%
System inefficiency i.e. high repetition rates, low achievement among pupils.	7	58%
Lack of national commitment	7	58%
Lack of accountability through local control	8	66%
Lack of information base, especially for parents and communities.	7	58%

Source: Research findings.

Table 4.11: Implementation challenges to removing barriers universal access to primary education in Kawino location.

Challenges in removing barriers	Percentage
FPE being a policy statement	53%
Lack of adequate funding.	100%
Low management capacity by school administrators	66%
Non transparent resource allocation	66%
Delays in funds disbursement	100%
Embezzlement of Funds	66%
System inefficiency i.e. high repetition rates, low achievement among pupils.	60%
Lack of national commitment	60%
Lack of accountability through local control	66%
Lack of information base, especially for parents and communities	60%

Source: Research findings

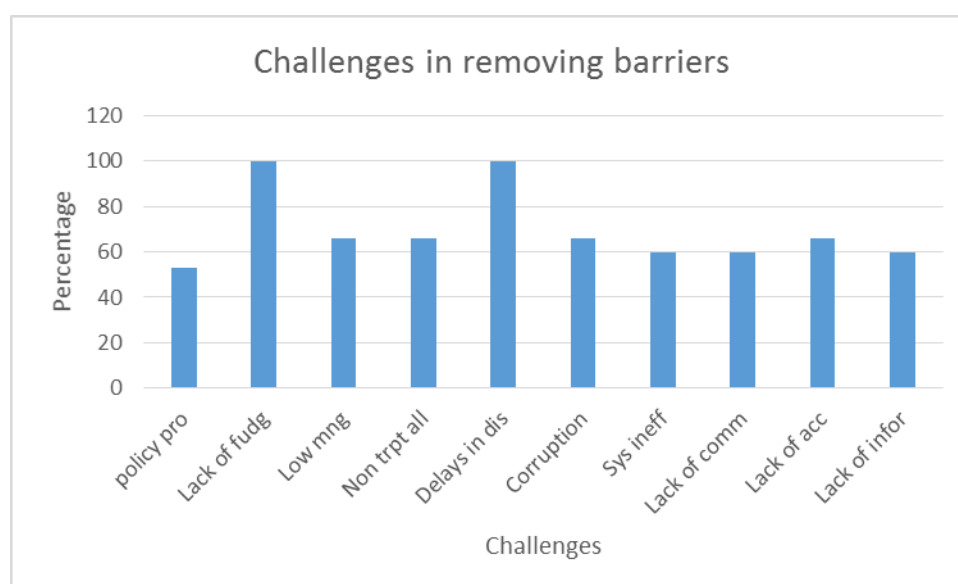


Figure 10: Challenges in removing barriers

Source: Research findings.

The head teachers of the twelve schools in Kawino location and the two AEO officials in Kadibo are the ones who participated in the study (n=12) where they were asked to state the major challenges in removing barriers to access to primary education in Kawino location.

Findings from table 4.10 and figure 10 above shows that the major implementation challenges in removing barriers to access to primary education in Kawino are lack of adequate funding 12(100%) and delays in funds disbursement 12(100%) which answers the

third research question that asks what the challenges to removing barriers to access to primary education in Kawino are.

Table 4.12: Ways of overcoming challenges to removing barriers.

Ways of overcoming challenges in removing barriers to access to primary education in Kawino.	Frequency. N=12	Percent.
Mobilization of sufficient funding.	12	100%
Establishment of constitutional reform or legislation that ensures primary education is made available for every child.	7	58%
Increase system efficiency through shift to automatic promotion to reduce repetition and drop out, provision of extra lessons to low achievers.	6	50%
Use of international skills, advice and evidence along the paths followed to UPE.	6	50%
Strong national commitment, expressed in the legal and institutional framework as well as in budgetary outlays to the sector.	9	75%
Improve accountability through local control i.e. parental and community involvement in education,	8	66%
Improve the information base especially for parents and communities i.e. Parents and school administrators need information about the effectiveness of their local schools	7	58%
Timely disbursement of funds.	12	100%
Prosecution and arrest of ministry officials and school administrators involved in misappropriation of FPE funds.	7	58%
Transparent resource allocation and accounting practices by both school administrators and ministry officials.	8	66%
In- servicing school administrators on effective management of funds.	7	58%

Source: Research findings.

Table 4.13: Ways of overcoming challenges to removing barriers.

Ways of overcoming challenges to removing barriers	Percentage
Mobilization of sufficient funding.	100%
Establishment of constitutional reform on FPE	58%
Increase system efficiency.	50%
Use of international skills, advice and evidence along the paths followed to UPE.	50%
Improve accountability through local control	66%
Improve the information base	58%
Timely disbursement of funds	100%
Prosecution and arrest of corrupt officials	58%
Transparent resource allocation	66%
In- servicing school administrators on effective management of funds.	58%
Strong national commitment.	75%

Source: Research findings.

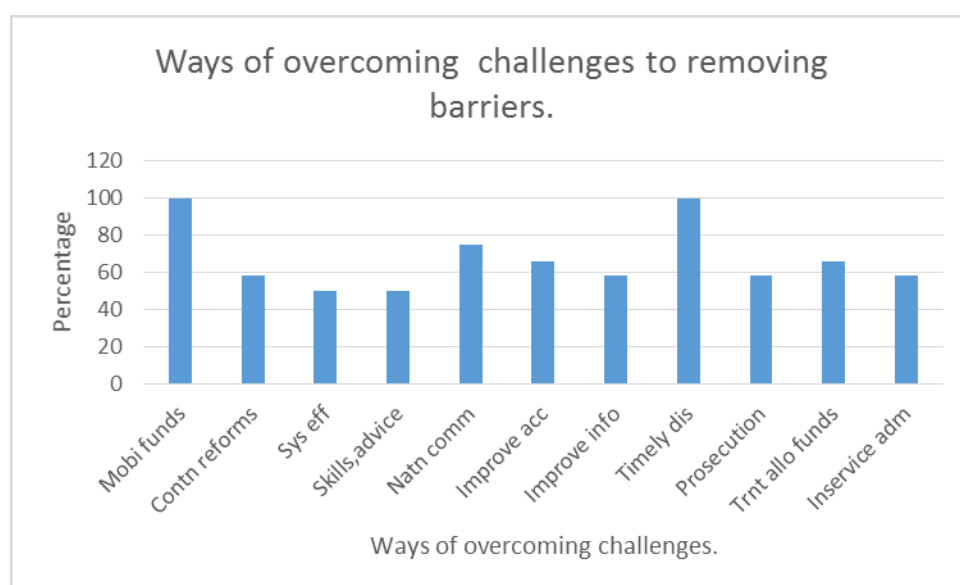


Figure 11: Way of overcoming challenges to removing barriers

Source: Research findings.

Findings from table 4.11 and figure 11 above shows that some the most significant ways of overcoming challenges to removing barriers are mobilization of sufficient resources 12(100%) and timely disbursement of funds 12(100%) which answers the third objective question that asks what the challenges to removing barriers to access to primary education in Kawino are and ways of overcoming them.

4.4.2: Discussions on challenges in removing barriers to access to primary education in Kawino and ways of overcoming them

This study reveals that major implementation challenges in removing barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino are lack of adequate funding 12(100%) and delays in funds disbursement 12(100%), while some of the most significant ways of overcoming these challenges are mobilization of sufficient resources 12(100%) and timely disbursement of funds 12(100%). These findings affect the study problem that sought to find out the effects of FPE on access to education in Kawino location since when challenges in removing barrier are not overcome access to primary education remains a problem while if the challenges are overcome access to primary education becomes achievable.

Malaysia, Brazil, Botswana and Lebanon have sought out system inefficiencies and addressed them, so that through putting of primary students to program completion is improved and more students can be accommodated in the same physical infrastructure or taught by the same teachers. Various strategies are reported in the case studies:

A shift to automatic promotion to reduce repetition and drop out (e.g. Botswana instituted automatic promotion of students from grade 1 in 1977 irrespective of academic performance; Malaysia did so in 1996);

Provision of pre-school education to improve performance in the early grades of primary especially in the context of multiple mother tongues in the country (e.g. Malaysia's Education Act of 1996 introduced pre-schools);

Provision of extra lessons for low achievers to promote promotion and completion (e.g. Malaysia launched a Tuition Aid Scheme in 2004 to provide extra lessons during the weekends or after school for government school students with low achievement who belong to households that fall below the poverty line); utilize school facilities for two shifts to double capacity (e.g. implemented by Botswana in 1977 as a stop-gap measure until its construction investment delivered new schools and classrooms); reduce drop-out through provision of guidance and counseling services in primary schools (e.g. instituted for Botswana schools in 1987); and improve program delivery quality through national curriculum, standardized

textbooks and national examinations to promote primary school completion (e.g. under Lebanon's sector reform of 1997). Such measures can also be used in Kenya to reduce system inefficiency.

While constitutional and other legal mandates may signal country vision and direction, UPE will not be achieved unless sufficient funding is mobilized. The response of each of these "success story countries" was to secure or at least pipeline national resources by including universalization of primary schooling targets in medium and long term strategies and budgets.

Malaysia, for example, prioritized education from the beginning of its medium and long term planning processes, beginning with the 1965 five year plan, continuing with the country's New Economic Policy of 1971, and more recently in the 1991 Vision 2020, a 30-year plan to graduate Malaysia from developing country status. Its focus from 1970 was to reduce access and performance inequalities among ethnic groups; in the 2011-2015 planning period its focus was on rural and eastern Malaysia investment to address major regional inequalities.

Similarly, Brazil's 1st and 2nd education sector plans for 1972-1974 and 1975-1979 included provisions for increased access and retention in rural areas, while its 3rd plan (1980-1985) placed a focus on inclusion of the poor and decentralization of responsibility for education services delivery to the regions.

For example, in response to the Botswana government's commitment to UPE in the mid-1970s, it invested heavily in school construction, increasing the number of government primary schools from 353 in 1978 to 583 in 1991. Similarly, Lebanon invested in the reconstruction and rehabilitation of 1200 primary schools when its civil war ended in 1990. Kenya should also demonstrate commitment to UPE by including universalization of primary schooling targets in medium and long term strategies and budgets.

Malaysia, Brazil, Botswana and Lebanon through constitutional reform or legislation, established that primary education should be made available for every child. This provided an overarching political commitment that transcended changes in government. Compulsory school legislation "represents both an important enabling condition and a significant political intention in national attempts to universalize access to basic education".

Botswana declared that primary education would be compulsory and free for all in 1977 and abolished school fees in 1980. Its national policies on education of 1977 and its 20 year long term vision of 1997 placed emphasis on inclusion of all in primary schooling.

Lebanon's first law on compulsory and free primary education was enacted in 1959 and the commitment was restated in 1998 and 2011 legislation.

Malaysia included the provision of free education for all at the primary level in its Education Act of 1961 and made primary education compulsory in 2001, making parents accountable for participation of their children.

In the case of Brazil, the 1946 constitution stipulated compulsory primary involvement of large private companies in its delivery. In 1961, Brazil set out in its national education law the requirement that 12 per cent of national revenue.

In Kenya FPE is a mere policy pronouncement which has not been backed up with a clear policy document, therefore Kenyan government should demonstrate its commitment to FPE by ensuring its part of the constitutional reform or legislation.

Successful education requires a strong national commitment, expressed in the legal and institutional framework as well as in budgetary outlays to the sector. A commitment to compulsory primary education signals that the nation's leaders place high priority on education as a central pillar of development and supports healthy debate about what constitutes education and how it can be funded. Having a strong national framework for primary or basic education is a necessary as in the case of Malaysia, Brazil, Botswana and Lebanon. Kenyan government should follow suit if UPE is to be realized in Kenya.

One part of the solution to institutional problems is parental and community involvement in education, which anchors education in the social fabric of the community, fosters demand, and ensures that schooling provides social benefits and economic returns that reflect local priorities and values. Whether parents and communities provide financial support, administrative support, or simply play an oversight role, local engagement, commitment, and support remain vital to ensuring that schooling is a priority for the community. Because the direct and opportunity costs of schooling and the real or perceived lack of economic returns dampen demand for education, such support cannot be taken for granted. Evaluations in Argentina, Brazil suggests that greater parental and community control enhances local control and accountability in schools.

American countries found that parental participation has the strongest impact on student achievement and that autonomy without parental involvement is only marginally important.

Kenya can improve parental and community involvement since it's in place though at different levels of involvement. This can be made more effective in Kenya hence management and accountability in schools can be improved.

Information is an essential element in local control and accountability. Parents and school administrators need information about the effectiveness of their local schools. Simple indicators of relative performance — spending per child, preparation of teachers, educational outcomes compared with other schools — are essential. Such information is generally unavailable to parents, particularly parents who are most likely to face failing primary schools.

Examples from Brazil and Uganda illustrate the point. In 2001 the Education Secretariat of the State of Parana in Brazil introduced the Boletim da Escola, an annual school report card of the performance of each primary and secondary school under its jurisdiction (www.pr.gov.br/cie/boletim). The report cards seek to increase accountability of the schools and the government to the community. The cards help the community, the government, and the school adopt a shared vision of universal primary education. The report cards also seek to empower parents to participate in the education process and inform decision-making at all levels. The report card covers student achievement, parents' opinions (based on a survey), and other information. In 2002 about 1.3 million report cards were disseminated to parents and community members, stirring significant interest. Teachers, parents, and administrators are already using the cards as their primary source of information for implementing solutions and monitoring progress.

A 1991-95 survey in Uganda revealed that only a small fraction of central government funding destined for local schools was actually reaching them. In response, the central government launched an information campaign. Each month data on grants to school districts were published in newspapers and broadcast on the radio. Equipped with such information, local communities were able to monitor the flow of federal funds precisely and effectively. By 2001 fully 80 percent of federal funds were reaching schools. Many other changes were occurring in Uganda during the same period, making it difficult to isolate the impact of the transparency in information. But it is noteworthy that schools with access to newspapers increased their funding on average by 12 percentage points more than schools without access to newspapers.

These measures can also be used in Kenya to help deal with issues of non-transparent resource allocation and accounting practices by both school administrators and ministry officials. This will also deal with embezzlement of funds at school level.

Use of international skills, advice and evidence along the paths followed to UPE is important for achieving the same. Countries like Lebanon, Malaysia, Brazil and Botswana have managed to meet, or come close to meeting; their commitment to primary education as a universal right and one of the strategies they used is use of international skills, advice and evidence along the paths followed to UPE. Kenya can employ the same to ensure UPE is achieved.

Timely disbursement of FPE funds, prosecution and arrest of ministry officials and school administrators involved in misappropriation of FPE funds in a country is part of any government commitment to UPE as in the case in Lebanon, Malaysia, Botswana and Brazil. Kenyan government should demonstrate this commitment if UPE is to be realized.

In Brazil in-servicing of school administrators to equip them with better management administration skills has proved very useful. Kenyan government has been doing the same with little success hence more resources and commitment should be demonstrated in order to realize success.

Findings shows that some the most significant ways of overcoming challenges to removing barriers in Kawino are mobilization of sufficient resources 15(100%) and timely disbursement of funds 15(100%). Countries that are almost achieving universal primary education like Malaysia, Brazil, Lebanon and Botswana have been able to achieve that by devoting sufficient resources to education. This is the most significant measure to undertake if implementation challenges to removing barriers are to be addressed hence UPE. Other measures used are by Malaysia, Brazil, Botswana and Lebanon are addressing system inefficiencies, commitment to UPE by including universalization of primary schooling targets in medium and long term strategies and budgets, constitutional reform or legislation, which established that primary education should be made available for every child, parental and community involvement in education in Brazil, local control and accountability in Uganda and use of international skills, advice and evidence along the paths followed to UPE. These measures can also be used in Kenya and in Kawino to overcome challenges to removing barriers hence UPE.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

5.1 Summary of the major findings

The summary of the major findings were guided by the research objectives as follows:

The first objective of the study sought to establish barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino location. The study established that 56.6% of respondents were of the opinion that economic barriers were the major barriers, 20.8% mentioned FPE related barriers, 16.6% socio-cultural and 5.7% geographical. This study reveals existence of barriers to universal access to primary education which has to be eliminated in order to realize universal primary education.

The second objective of the study was to assess how free primary education addresses barriers to universal access to education in Kawino location. All respondents 384(100%) were of the opinion that FPE caters only for tuition fees, exercise books for classwork and text books for classwork which makes up 27.7% of economic barriers. This implies that FPE programme caters for only 27.7% of economic barriers while 72.2% are not catered for at all. Furthermore all respondents 384(100%) are of the opinion that socio-cultural, FPE-related barriers and geographical barriers are not addressed at all by FPE program. This indicates that FPE has not eliminated all barriers to primary education.

The third objective of the study was to establish implementation challenges in removing barriers to universal access to education in Kawino and ways of overcoming them. All school heads interviewed were of the opinion that inadequate funding and delays in funds disbursement are the major implementation challenges to overcoming barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino. They were all of the opinion that mobilization of sufficient resources and timely disbursement of funds are main ways of overcoming implementation challenges to barriers to universal access to primary education in Kawino. Study reveals existence of implementation challenges in removing barriers hence universal primary education in Kawino has not been attained.

5.2: CONCLUSION

The study concluded that the funding for Free Primary Education was inadequate because it was not able to address 72.7% of the economic barriers to primary education. It also

concluded that free primary education programme does not address all barriers to primary education such as geographical and socio-cultural barriers.

5.3: RECOMMENDATIONS

The study recommends that FPE education programme should be redesigned in order to cater for barriers that go beyond economic. Based on the results presented, the researcher recommends the following measures to make FPE more effective in addressing barriers to access to education.

- 1) The government should increase the budgetary allocation for FPE programme.
- 2) Funds sent to schools should be timely to enable head teachers to avoid incurring huge debts.
- 3) The Ministry of Education and schools managers should mobilize and encourage greater participation from various stakeholders and development partners, including local and international communities, to support the FPE programme to ensure its sustainability.
- 4) Primary schools should initiate income- generating activities like utilizing the big idle land in the schools in farming activities to supplement the government funding on FPE and avoid over-reliance on the government and parents.
- 5) FPE programme should be redesigned to cater for barriers that go beyond economic such as FPE related barriers, socio-cultural and geographical.

5.4: SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- i) This study was conducted in only one location therefore findings cannot be generalized to other areas in the Republic. Future study could be extended to other locations, divisions, sub counties and counties to enhance generalizability of the findings or to validate them.
- ii) Further studies should be conducted on the effect of FPE on access to education to children who are disabled in the location.
- iii) Research should also be conducted to establish the effect of guidance and counselling in controlling dropout rates among pupils.
- iv) Further studies can be conducted on poverty reduction as a springboard for ensuring retention and completion of primary education by pupils.
- v) Studies can also be conducted on the effect of FPE on the quality of primary education in Kenya.

REFERENCES

- Aduda, D. (2009). Exposed: How officials looted schools' millions. Retrieved from <http://www.nation.co.ke/News/-/1056/826874/-/vo5w90/-/index>
- Arends-Kuenning, M., & Amin, S. (2001). Women's capabilities and the right to education in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Politics, Culture and Society*, 15, 125-42.
- Albert, J. R. (2011a). Household Vulnerability to Income Poverty. Draft Report.
- Birbeck, G. L., Chomba, E., Atadzhanov, M., Mbewe, E., & Haworth, A. (2006). Zambian teachers: What do they know about epilepsy and how can we work with them to decrease stigma? *Epilepsy & Behavior*, 9(2), 275-280.
- Bitamazire, G. (2005) 'Status of Education for Rural People in Uganda. A presentation at the Ministerial Seminar on Education for Rural people in Africa 7-9 September 2005, Addis Ababa.'
- Boler, T. and Carroll, K. (2003). Addressing the Educational needs of orphans and vulnerable children. Policy and Research: Issue. London: UK working group on education and HIV/AIDS.
- Chitiyo, M., Changara, D.M. & Chitiyo, G. (2008). Providing psychosocial support to special needs children: A case of orphans and vulnerable children in Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 28(4):384-392. doi: 10.1016/j.ijedudev.2007.05.009
- Daniel, S. (2006). A review of major obstacles to women's participation in higher education in Kenya. *Research in Post-compulsory Education*, 11, 85-105.
- Davies, L., & Talbot, C. (2008). Learning in Conflict and Postconflict Contexts. *Comparative Education Review*, 52(4).

- Deininger, K. (2000) 'Does cost of schooling affect enrolment by the poor? Universal primary education in Uganda', *Economics of Education Review* 22 (2003): 291-305.s
- Dundar, H. & Haworth, J. (1993). *Improving women's access to higher education: A review of World Bank project experience*. WPS policy research working paper No. 1106. Washington, DC: The World Bank. Retrieved September 23, 2007, From http://eric.ed.gov/ERICDocs/data/ericdocs2sql/content_storage_01/0000019b/80/15/24/0pdf
- Edillon, R.G. (2008). The Effects of Parent's Migration on the Rights of the Children Left Behind. Asia Pacific Policy Center Report
- EdWatch Asia-South Pacific. (2007). Mapping out Disadvantaged Groups in Education: Philippines Summary Report.
- FAWE. (2000) 'Closing the Gender Gap in Education: Curbing Dropout', *FAWE News The news magazine about the education of girls and women in Africa* Volume 8, No. 3.
- Filmer, D., & Pritchett, L., (1999). "Educational Enrolment and Attainment in India.- Household, Wealth, Gender, Village and State Effects". *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*. Vol. 3. No.2.
- Foster, M. (2002). New approaches to development cooperation: What can we learn from Experience with implementing Sector Wide Approaches? Working Paper, No. 140. Overseas Development Institute.
- Fredriksen, B. (2009). Rationale, Issues, and Conditions for Sustaining the Abolition of School Fees. In World Bank & UNICEF (Eds.), *Abolishing School Fees in Africa: Lessons from Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, and Mozambique* (pp. 1-41). Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Haider, R. (1996). *Gender and development*. Cairo: The American University in Cairo Press.

- Hamamsy, E. (1994). *Early marriage and reproduction in two Egyptian villages*. Cairo: The Population Council/UNICEF.
- Hertz, B., & Sperling, B. (2004). What works in girls' education: Evidence and policies from the developing world. *Report for the Council on Foreign Relations?* Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Holyfield, Lori. 2002. "Moving up and out: Poverty, Education, and Single parent Family. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.
- Kerlinger. N. F. (1983). *Foundations of Behavioral Research*. Delhi: Surjeet Publication
- Khan, S. (1991). *Report of the task forces*. Vol. 1 Dhaka: Dhaka University Press
- Kirk, J. (2005) 'Report on the Rights of Girls to Education to the Special Rapporteur on the Right to Education.
- Kirk, J. & Winthrop, R. Forthcoming. *Creating Healing Classrooms: Education in Crisis and Post-Crisis Transitions* (Working title). New York: International Rescue Committee.
- KNBS, 2009. *Kenya Facts and Figures 2009*, Kenya National Bureau of Statistics: Nairobi.
- Kremer, M., & Vermeersch, C. (2004): "School Meals, Educational Achievement, and School Competition: Evidence from a Randomized Evaluation". World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 352.
- Kremer, M., Leino, J., Miguel, E. & Zwane, P.A. (2010): "Spring Cleaning: Rural Water Impacts, Valuation, and Property Rights Institutions", *Quarterly Journal of Economics* (forthcoming).
- Lang, G. & Berberich, C. (1995). All children are special: Creating an inclusive classroom. New York: Stenhouse Publishers.
- McLesky, J. & Pacchino, D. (1994).
- Leach, F., et al., (2003) 'An Investigative Study of the Abuse of Girls in African Schools.' DFID, p. vii.

- Lewin, K. M. (2007). *Improving Access, Equity and Transitions in Education: Creating a Research Agenda* (No. Research Monograph No.1). Brighton, UK: Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity (CREATE).
- Lewin, K. M. (2009). Access to education in sub-Saharan Africa: patterns, problems and possibilities. *Comparative Education*, 45(2), 151-174.
- Maligalig, D.S., Caoli-Rodriguez, R.B., Martinez, A. Jr., & Cuevas, S. (2010). Education Outcomes in the Philippines. ADB Economics Working Paper Series., No. 199.
- McKenzie, P., & Santiago, P. (2004). *Improving Teach. Supply and Effectiveness: Raising the Quality of Learning for All.Meeting of OECD Education Ministries Held in Dublin 15-19 March, 2004.*
- Micronutrient initiative (2011). Kenya Country Profile.<http://www.micronutrient.org/English/view.asp?x =595>
- Miguel, E., & Kremer, M. (2004): "Worms: Identifying Impacts on Education and Health in the Presence of Treatment Externalities," *Econometrica* 72(1), January 2004, pp. 159-217.
- Ministry of Education (2010): Educational Statistical Booklet 2003-2007, Government Printers, Nairobi, Kenya
- Monse, B., Mabunga, S., Sarol, J., & Heinrich-Weltzien, R.(2006). National Oral Health Survey Among the Public School Population in the Philippines 200
- Nussbaum, M. (2003). Women's education: A global challenge. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 29, 325-355.
- Oleke, C., Blystad ,A., Fylkesnes ,K., Tumwine, J.K.(2007).*Constraints to educational opportunities of orphans: a community-based study from northern Uganda. AIDS Care.*

- Orodho, J. A. (2003). *Essentials of Educational Research Methods*, Nairobi: Masola Publishers.
- Orodho, J. A. (2004). *Elements of Education and Social Science Research Methods*. Nairobi: Masola Publishers.
- OSSREA. (2010). *Free Primary Education in Kenya Public Schools: Addressing the challenges*. Ethiopia: OSSREA.
- Pande, R., Malhotra, A., & Grown, C. (2005, July). *Impact of investments in female education on gender equality*. Paper presented at the International Population Conference, Tours, France.
- Pridmore, P. (2007) *Impact of Health Education Access and Attainment: A review of the research evidenc*. Create.rpc.
- Quimbo, S.L.A. (2003). Explaining Math and Science Achievement of Public School Children in the Philippines. *The Philippine Review of Economics*, 40(2), 59-72).
- Raynor, J. (2005). *Educating girls in Bangladesh: Watering a neighbour's tree?* *Oxfam*, Great Britain(GB). Retrieved March 30, 2007, from http://www.oxfam.org.uk/what_we_do/resources/downloads/BA_6.pd
- SEAMEO-INNOTECH. (2007) .*Policy Research on Access to Quality Basic Educator for Muslim Learners: Final Report*. Research supported by USAID.
- Shekh, M. N. (2001). *Educating women through NGO programmes: Contradictions of culture and gender in rural Bangladesh*. Retrieved February 15, 2007, from http://www.neetred.uio.no/articles/papers_final/Shehk.pdf
- Singh, S., & Samara, R. (1996). *Early marriage among women in developing countries*. Task-force (2005) 'Taking Action: Achieving Gender Equality and Empowering Women.
- UN Millenium Project. Available at <http://www.unmilleniumproject.org/documents/Gender-complete.pdf>(Retrieved on August 30, 2008)'.

- Nyabanyaba, T. & Letete, M. (2009) Education budget analysis and capacity building for civil society in Lesotho. Maseru, Lesotho Educational Research Association.
- Thornton, Rebecca L. (2008). "The Demand for, and Impact of, Learning HIV Status." *American Economic Review*, 98(5): 1829–63
- Tisdell, E. (1995). *Creating an inclusive Adult Learning Environment: Insight from Multi-cultural Education and Feminist Pedagogy*. Columbus, Ohio state University.
- UNESCO (2008). *Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2009, Overcoming Inequality*: UNESCO (2005a) 'Children Out-of School: Measuring Exclusion from Primary Education'. Montreal: Institute for Statistics.
- UNESCO (2005b). *Guidelines for Inclusion: Ensuring Access to Education for All*. Paris:UNESCO.
- United Nation Millennium Project (UNMP). (2005). *Taking action: Achieving gender equality and empowering women*. Task force on education and gender equality.London.
- UNICEF (2003b) 'Making a Difference in Girls' Education: Selected Examples from UPCE-University of the Philippines College of Education (2010). School Dropouts in the Philippines: A summary of the study report. Funded by UNICEF.
- Wamahiu, P.S. (2012). *Refugee Girls in Kenya, Uganda, and Ethiopia and South Sudan workshop report UNHCR, UNICEF*.
- Wasanga, P., Ogle, M., and Wambua, R. (2011). *The SACMEQ III project in Kenya: A study of conditions of schooling and quality of Education*.Paris: UNESCO.
- World Bank. (1994). *Enhancing women's participation in economic development: A World Bank policy paper*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- World Bank (2005). *Le système éducatif de la république démocratique du Congo :Priorités et alternatives* (No. 68). Washington, DC: World Bank, Africa Region.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

This questionnaire is designed to gather information on the impact of Free Primary Education on access to primary education.

Kindly respond to the questions as honestly as possible and your response will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Do not write your name in this questionnaire.

SECTION 1: PERSONAL DETAILS

a) Age. (**Mark appropriately**)

0-29.....

30-39.....

40-59.....

60 and above.....

b) Gender (**mark appropriately**)

Male.....

Female.....

c) Educational level (**mark appropriately**)

Secondary

level.....

Diploma level.....

Graduate level.....

Others (specify).....

SECTION 2

1. Are there pupils in this location who are not attending primary school?

A. YES

B. NO.

2. If **YES** state some of the reasons that prevent pupils from attending primary schools.

3. What are the **MAJOR** reasons preventing girls from attending primary school in this location.

- A. Socio- cultural factors i.e. teenage pregnancies, early marriages, preference to educate boy child.
 - B. Financial factors i.e. lack of money to cater for educational expenses like uniforms, stationary.
 - C. Geographical factors i.e. schools being far from homes, presence of rivers without bridges to assist in crossing.
 - D. Others .(Specify)
4. What are the **MAJOR** reasons preventing boys from attending primary school in this location.
- A. Socio- cultural factors i.e. child labor.
 - B. Financial factors i.e. lack of money to cater for educational expenses like uniforms, stationary.
 - C. Geographical factors i.e. schools being far from homes, presence of rivers without bridges to assist in crossing.
 - D. Others .(Specify)
5. In what ways has FPE addressed barriers to access to primary education in this location?

The table below will help you answer the question. (Tick appropriately)

Does FPE cater for the following barriers?	YES.	NO.
Tuition fees.		
Uniforms.		
Development fund		
Extra tuition.		
Tests and examinations.		
Lunch.		
Supplementary text books.		
Registration fees.		
Transport.		
Exercise books for homework.		
Exercise books for classwork.		
Text books for normal lessons.		
Caution money.		
Activity fee.		
Accommodation.		

Healthcare.		
School committee teachers' salary.		
Harambee contribution.		
Employment of more teachers.		
Employment of more quality assurance personnel.		
Sufficient learning materials.		
Sufficient recreational facilities.		
Sufficient classrooms.		
Effective counseling of pupils		
Creating awareness among community members on economic importance of education		
Provision of alternative learning options for pupils who cannot go through mainstream learning		
Construction of canals in flood prone areas.		
Establishment of more schools.		

6. What are the challenges in removing barriers to accessing primary education in Kawino location?
7. In what ways can challenges to removing barriers be overcome?

APPENDIX 2

Interview questions for education officers and community members.

1. Are there pupils not attending school in this location.
2. What are the MAJOR reasons preventing GIRLS and BOYS from attending primary schools in this location.
3. In your opinion do you think free primary education programme addresses :
 - a) Social barriers
 - b) Economic barriers.
 - c) Geographical barriers.
 - d) FPE related barriers.
4. If YES explain in what ways.
5. How does free primary education addresses barriers to accessing primary education in Kawino location?
6. What are the challenges in removing barriers to accessing primary education in Kawino location?
7. Suggest how challenges in removing barriers can be overcome?

APPENDIX 4

Focus Group Discussion Guide

Consent Process

Consent forms for focus group participants were completed in advance by all those seeking to participate. Focus group organizers and facilitators made sure that all participants understand the information in the consent form.

Introduction:

1. Welcome

Introduce yourself and the note taker, and send the Sign-In Sheet with a few quick demographic questions (age, gender, and class.) around to the group while you are introducing the focus group.

Review the following:

- Who we are and what we're trying to do
- What will be done with this information
- Why we asked you to participate.

2. Explanation of the process

Ask the group if anyone has participated in a focus group before. Explain that focus group discussion is preferred in the study.

About focus groups

- We learn from you (positive and negative)
- Not trying to achieve consensus, we're gathering information
- No virtue in long lists: we're looking for priorities.

Logistics

- Focus group will last about one hour
- Feel free to move around.

3. Ground Rules

Ask the group to suggest some ground rules. After they brainstorm some, make sure the following are on the list.

- Everyone should participate.
- Information provided in the focus group must be kept confidential
- Stay with the group and please don't have side conversations
- Have fun

4. Turn on Tape Recorder

5. Ask the group if there are any questions before we get started, and address those questions.

6. Introductions
- Go around table.

Discussion begins, make sure to give people time to think before answering the questions and don't move too quickly. Use the probes to make sure that all issues are addressed, but move on when you feel you are starting to hear repetitive information.

Questions:

8. Are there pupils in this location who are not attending primary school?
9. If **YES** state some of the reasons that prevent pupils from attending primary schools.
10. What are the **MAJOR** reasons preventing girls from attending primary school in this location.

Probes for Discussion:

- *Socio-cultural.*
- *Economic.*
- *Geographical.*
- *FPE-related.*

11. What are the **MAJOR** reasons preventing boys from attending primary school in this location.

Probes for Discussion:

- *Socio-cultural.*
- *Economic.*
- *Geographical.*
- *FPE-related.*

12. In what ways has FPE addressed barriers to access to primary education in this location?

The table below will help you answer the question. (Tick appropriately)

Does FPE cater for the following barriers?	YES.	NO.
Tuition fees.		
Uniforms.		
Development fund		
Extra tuition.		
Tests and examinations.		
Lunch.		

Supplementary text books.		
Registration fees.		
Transport.		
Exercise books for homework.		
Exercise books for classwork.		
Text books for normal lessons.		
Caution money.		
Activity fee.		
Accommodation.		
Healthcare.		
School committee teachers' salary.		
Harambee contribution.		
Employment of more teachers.		
Employment of more quality assurance personnel.		
Sufficient learning materials.		
Sufficient recreational facilities.		
Sufficient classrooms.		
Effective counseling of pupils		
Creating awareness among community members on economic importance of education		
Provision of alternative learning options for pupils who cannot go through mainstream learning		
Construction of canals in flood prone areas.		
Establishment of more schools.		

That concludes our focus group. Thank you so much for coming and sharing your thoughts and opinions with us.

APPENDIX 5**Observation checklist for class 1-6 pupils in the twelve schools selected for study.**

ACTIVITY.	COUNTS.
Number of pupils with proper school uniforms.	
Number of pupils owning supplementary text books.	
Number of pupils with extra exercise books for homework.	
Number of pupils who use motorbikes, bicycles or vehicles as means of reaching school.	
Number of pupils who depend on school feeding program.	