THE RELEVANCE OF YOUTH POLYTECHNICS' PROGRAMMES TOWARDS YOUTH EMPLOYMENT: A STUDY OF CHEPKORIO AND ITEN YOUTH POLYTECHNICS IN THE LARGER KEIYO DISTRICT

BY

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DECLARATION

This research thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree or a diploma in any other examination body.

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ABSTRACT

The study examined the relevance of youth polytechnics' programmes towards youth employment in Kenya using Chepkorio and Iten Youth Polytechnics as case study. Particularly, the study sought to establish factors that make YPs programmes not relevant to the world of work. In order to achieve the purpose of this study, four specific research objectives were addressed: firstly, to establish programme levels offered at the Youth Polytechnic in Keiyo District, secondly, to establish the relationship between contemporary job requirements and the relevance of the programmes offered by the Youth Polytechnics in the district, thirdly, to establish the contribution of YP programmes towards alleviation of youth unemployment and fourthly, to establish the challenges faced by the Youth Polytechnic in their quest for market relevance programmes

The study was conducted in Chepkorio and Iten in the larger Keiyo district of Kenya. The target population of this study comprises of youth polytechnic's trainees, youth polytechnic graduates, instructors, Project Managers and their deputies, employers and opinion shaper's from the community. Purposive and stratified random sampling techniques were used to select a sample size of the respondents in the study area. The study approach was both quantitative and qualitative. Data was collected using questionnaires, interviews, observations and document analysis. Statistical package for social scientists (SPSS) were used to analyze the data collected.

The findings of the study established the correlation between youth polytechnic programme levels and the market relevance or employment opportunities, since a programme level cannot be relevant in the job market and fail to offer employment-opportunities to the trainees. The study thus concludes that the higher the programme level, the higher the chances of access to employment. The study has also established a correlation between employment determinants and access to employment opportunities. When the determinants of employment are built into a programme, the programme is enriched and thus suitable for employment. The more the determinant of employment is integrated into the youth polytechnic programmes, the more the programmes become marketable and thus the more they enhance the trainee's access to the employment opportunities. It was established that when the required knowledge and skills by employers are incorporated into the programme, and when the job specifications are known then the programmes will provide knowledge and skills for self-employment, leading to enhanced access to employment.

The study will serve as an instruction for reformation of the TVET school system to go well with the current trends in skill. In addition, the project gave focus on the process which must be put in place if there is need to improve VET in Kenya. The findings will inform the development of VET in Kenya. Indeed, it is anticipated that the Government and other stakeholders will benefit from this study as a direction indicator on the way forward in the reforming of Youth polytechnic training in Kenya. The findings will provide policy makers, TVET development practitioners and entrepreneurs with insights and lessons regarding the role and value of youth polytechnic in facilitating and

supporting the establishment and growth of micro-enterprises and how and why these can be linked to sustainable livelihoods and poverty reduction in Kenya.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
DE	Directorate of Education
DIT	Directorate of Industrial Training
DTT	Directorate of Technical Training
EE	Entrepreneurship Education
FKE	Federation of Kenyan Employers
FPE	Free primary education
GNP	Gross National Product
GOK	Government of Kenya
HDI	Human Development Index
ICEG	International Centre for Economic Growth
IEE	Integrated Entrepreneurship Education
ILO	International Labour Organization
IST	Institute of Science and Technology
IT	Institute of Technology
KNEC	Kenya National Examination Council
KTTC	Kenya Technical Teachers College
MOEST	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
MSE	Micro and Small Enterprises
NFE	Non-formal mode of education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NIVTC	National Industrial and Vocational Training Centre
NYSEI	The National Youth Service Engineering Institute
TEP	Technical Education Programme
TTI	Technical Training Institute
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WB	World Bank
YP	Youth Polytechnic

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

This chapter discusses the background of the problems, research questions, objectives of the study, justification of the study, significance of the study, hypothesis of the study, scope and limitation, and conceptual framework.

1.2 Background to the study

The concept of the Youth Polytechnics (YPs) was developed and popularized in the mid 1960's by the National council of Kenya (NCCK) as a solution to the problem of education and employment of primary school leavers. Since school leavers were unable to become self-employed or get wage jobs because of inadequate education and training, YPs were to provide rural youth with skills that could be used in the local economy. They would provide practical training linked with production, and so assist in the formation of a cadre of trained artisans and self-employment workers (ILO, 2001).

Earlier assessment of the YP programme by ILO (2001) found that they were successful in changing the attitudes of young people towards technical education and manual work, and that it had enabled many young people to engage in gainful employment. More recent studies indicate that YPs have lost most of its original focus without indicating a clear reason for this (ILO, 2001).

The crucial problems of improving the employment opportunities and prospects of the rural areas in order to meet the extensive demand for the kinds of skill the Youth Polytechnics offer, of encouraging the growth of the movement without stifling local initiative and without losing that capacity to respond to often quite small-scale skill needs of local communities, may still remain. YPs need to be developed within the context of rural development, and may need to keep in step with, rather than move ahead of, that development (Thompson, 1981).

To address youth problems and more specifically unemployment, efforts have been made by the Government to initiate youth development programmes through policy documents such as Sessional Paper No 2 of 1992 and Sessional Paper No.4 of 2005 on small scale and Jua kali Enterprises, Development Plan 1997-2001 on Economic Recovery for employment and Wealth Creation, Poverty Eradication plan 1999-2015, among others (Economic survey, 2005). Despite these efforts, as well as increasing number of agencies dealing with youth issues, problems affecting the youth have continued to worsen. The situation was attributed to lack of Government Ministry focusing on the youth and a comprehensive policy to provide a blue print for youth (Ministry of Youth Affairs; Kenya, 2006).

As in any country with a rapid population growth rate, the demo-graphic profile is biased towards children and young adults. This means that the Government has a greater burden of meeting demands of the youth. The youth are indeed very creative and innovative (Sambili, 2006). However, they require to be mainstreamed in the designing, planning

and implementation of policies and programmes that affect them such as health, Education and training, youth protection, sports and recreation, the Environment, Art and Culture and media among others. The government and the society at large have to shoulder the responsibility of youth dependency (Sambili, 2006).

Besides introducing free primary Education, president Kibaki said the government is reviving youth polytechnics country wide to enable those who drop out of school, for various reasons, acquire appropriate skills to earn a decent livelihood (Presidential Press Service; Kenya, 2007).

Technical Training Institutions, specifically, youth polytechnics, have suffered serious neglect in the past two decades due to emphasis on academics (Kerre, 1998). The neglect of technical training is manifested in low funding, inadequate and unqualified trainers, irrelevant courses and obsolete infrastructure. The curriculum of YPs is too narrow and the skills in Home Economics and Tailoring are not in high demand in the rural areas. The training in business skills is inadequate for those considering entering into self-employment. Yet, it is widely acknowledged that technical training is instrumental to a nation's human resource development. In fact, youth polytechnics, which are at the low end of technical training, have perennially missed out in Government plans and in many cases, they nearly collapsed (Kerre, 1998).

Youth polytechnics and others like Institutes of Technology were promoted in the 1970s following a watershed report by the International Labour Organization in 1971, which noted the number of increase among school leavers (ILO, 2001). In 1972, the

government recognized the significant role that YPs were playing in imparting skills and decided to support this community initiative through grants. With the introduction of the 8-4-4 system of education in the late 1980's, another technical educational programme was formulated. YPs were placed as the first step in the technical skills development ranking. Supposedly, a student trained in a youth polytechnic could sufficiently develop his/her skills to an undergraduate degree level (Ndegwa, 1991).

Over the years, YPs have suffered from a poor public image leading to near-collapse. With the renewed interest in and focus on technical manifested in budgetary allocations, it is essential that Government and other stakeholders rethink the mission and vision of this sector. What is critical is to review and completely change the content and mode of training at youth polytechnics and other technical training institutions (Daily Nation (Kenya), 2007).

On education, the First Lady Mrs. Lucy Kibaki said the Government of Kenya has implemented the policy of free primary education in order to build the capacity of the youth countrywide (Presidential Press Service; Kenya, 2006). She said the policy has ensured that children acquire basic education and a chance to access further training in polytechnics, Technical schools and other tertiary institutions. In this regard, the First Lady urged all parents to ensure their children acquire basic education in order to improve their chances of further education and eventual employment. She assured the youth and all Kenyans, that the Government is committed to ensuring that Primary school leavers have an opportunity to further their education despite the shortage of places in

secondary schools. The First Lady pointed out that the Government has made a commitment to rehabilitate and modernize youth Polytechnics and to revamp and expand the National Youth Service. Specifically, she said “these institutions” will play a critical role in filling this gap and in equipping young people with the much-needed technical skills (Presidential Press Service; Kenya, 2006).

The then Minister for finance Mr. Kimunya made history in the year 2006 as the first Kenyan Finance Minister to put youth development affairs at the core of the nation’s economic agenda. An initial allocation of 1 billion Kenya shillings was channeled to a newly created Youth Enterprise Fund. The Minister allocated a further 105 million shillings towards the rehabilitation of at least one youth polytechnic in every constituency in the country. Such a move has high benefits to the poor rural youth who find mainstream college costs too high (African, 2006).

Moreover, the economic measures which are being implemented in Kenya are increasing employment opportunities for the youth. To provide skills to the youth, the Government of Kenya has started a process where a Model Youth Polytechnic is being put up in each district throughout the country. Under this programme, 16 youth polytechnics are currently under construction. Funds for construction of additional 25 youth polytechnics will be provided in the following financial year (Kibaki, 2007).

The government of Kenya through the Ministry of Youth Affairs requires 10 billion shillings to implement a five-year strategic plan that addresses the underlying challenges

facing the youth. It was for this reason that the Minister of Youth Affairs was appealing to development partners to seek ways of mobilizing recourses towards the implementation of the ministry's strategic plan which will be channeled in a five year investment strategy plan that focuses on three components – revitalization of youth polytechnics and vocational training, youth development programmes, and peace Education (Gathoni, 2007).

Despite these efforts, as well as increasing number of VTIs dealing with youth employment, problems affecting the youth have continued to worsen. As Grierson and McKenzie (1996) argued that major part of the weakness of preparing students for competitive niches in self-employment or wage employment in successful SMEs is the inability of vocational training institutes (VTIs) to respond adequately to global and local economic changes. This is reflected both in their slowness to respond to the policy message that they should increasingly focus on self-employment and their inability to shift training provision so that it adequately prepares students to access viable employment in all sizes and types of firms.

Taking the above into consideration, this study sought to investigate the relevance of the Youth Polytechnics' programmes: a study of Chepkorio and Iten youth polytechnics in the larger Keiyo district.

1.3 Statement of the problem

At present, the education and training sector in Kenya appears to be in instability for a number of years, despite efforts at sector planning level, yet the national policy on VTIs has not yet emerged. Since the expanded education opportunity after independence did not result in the expected automatic employment of the primary school leavers, in 1984 a fundamental restructuring of Kenya's education system was decided known as "8-4-4" (replacing the "7-4-2-3), it places emphasis on attitudes and skills preparation for the world-of-work and self-employment in particular. New subjects such as woodwork, metalwork, leatherwork, tailoring and business skills, together with agriculture, home science and art were added to the curriculum (ILO, 2001).

In particular, Youth Polytechnics currently offer training opportunities to a small fraction of the rural school-leavers and unemployed. They have become more attached to the formal trade's certification system, and most of its trainees are now concerned about certificates and finding a wage job and less interested in entrepreneurial skills and self-employment (Ngware et al., 1999). The curriculum of the current YPs offers skills in the following courses; Carpentry and joinery, Masonry, Motor Vehicle Mechanic, Motor Vehicle Technician, Tailoring, Dress making, Metal work, Electrical installation, Electrical fitter etc. In fact, in the early 1980s less than a quarter of the YP trainees were found to be self-employed. The number has too continued to decrease over years. Apart from lack of adequate skills, the problem has also been due to lack of credit facilities (ILO, 2001).

It therefore seems that the relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment is a problem in Kenya which necessitates research. There are certain factors

that make the YPs not relevant towards youth employment. This study sought to establish the factors responsible including availability of training facilities, the type of courses offered by YPs, availability of competent instructors, availability of jobs to YP graduates, parental influence on child's career choice among others were investigated in order to determine their impact on relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment.

1.4 The Purpose of the study

The main purpose of this study was to assess the relevance of the Youth Polytechnics' programmes to the requirement of world of work and youth employment.

1.5 Objectives of the study

The main objective of the study was to establish the relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment in Chepkorio and Iten youth polytechnics of the larger Keiyo district: The specific objectives are:

i) To establish programme levels offered at the Youth Polytechnic in Keiyo District.
ii) To establish the relationship between contemporary job requirements and the relevance of the programmes offered by the Youth Polytechnics in the district.
iii) To establish the contribution of YP programmes toward alleviation of youth unemployment.
iv) To establish the challenges faced by the Youth Polytechnics in their quest for market relevant programmes.

1.6 Research questions

To address the above objectives, the following research questions were formulated;

i) What is the programme levels offered at Youth Polytechnic in Keiyo district?
ii) What is the relationship between contemporary job requirements and the relevance of the programmes offered by the Youth Polytechnics in the district?
iii) What is the contribution of YP programmes toward alleviation of youth unemployment?
iv) What are the challenges that the Youth Polytechnics face in their quest for market relevance programmes?

1.7 Research hypothesis

The study was based on the following research hypotheses:

1) There is no significant relationship between the Youth Polytechnic programme levels and their market relevance.
2) There is no significant relationship between the contemporary job requirements, market relevancy of the YP programmes and the youth employment opportunities
3) There is no significant relationship between the Youth Polytechnic programme and the employment opportunities.
4) There is no significant relationship between the quest for market relevant programmes and the challenges associated with such quest.

1.8 Significance of the study

Kurt Lewin (1948) cited in Kitainge (2003) remarked that research, which produces nothing else but books alone, is inadequate. It is important that research contributes to change as well as providing understanding and interpretation to the world. In connection to Lewin's view, besides the academic award for which this research is aimed, it will form a basis for making the Youth polytechnic relevant to the empowerment of youths in Kenya. The study will also serve as an instruction for reformation the TVET school system to go well with the current trends in skill. In addition, the project gave focus on the process which must be put in place if there is need to improve VET in Kenya. There were several lessons drawn from this study. The findings will inform the development of VET in Kenya. Indeed, it is anticipated that o Government and other stakeholders will benefit from this study as a direction indicator on the way forward in the reforming of Youth polytechnic training in Kenya.

The findings will provide policy makers, TVET development practitioners and entrepreneurs with insights and lessons regarding the role and value of youth polytechnic in facilitating and supporting the establishment and growth of micro-enterprises and how and why these can be linked to sustainable livelihoods and poverty reduction in Kenya.

Globalization, new technologies, and associated economy and social changes are challenging and continue to alter all aspects of the society. In urban areas, the inference of foreign cultures is rapidly destroying local culture ties and affiliations, generational ties, and imposing sets of values which are destructive and unattainable. As the youth try adjusting to these changes to harness opportunity presented, they need to have positive

attitudes, creative approach to issues and resilience to endure change as these are critical determinants of future prosperity of our youth (Ministry of Youth Affairs; Kenya, 2006).

For instance, Kenya is intending to be an industrialized country by the year 2030. It is therefore very crucial that a research is done on the relevance of the YPs since they form a basic level of TVET. This will especially target the rural and the marginalized areas as well as the urban areas.

The study would benefit the following parties: Government and other stakeholders: Education is one of the Government entities and the efficiency and effectiveness is very important to the Government. Since the Government is one of the stakeholders in education sector, the success of Youth polytechnic in Kenya will assist it to realize and education for all (EFA) through that, galvanize public and government support for their programmes. This study is significant as it is hoped that its findings and recommendation will assist the policy makers, planners and the various ministries as it will help to set up policies, design structures and adopt strategies to improve economic growth.

The finding of the study would provide insightful references to students of technical and vocational education as the information will provide a vital instrument for their training. The research recommendation will help the general public as vital source of information because Kenya is an extended family community and as such addressing the relevance of Youth polytechnic in Kenya will assist the Kenyan public

1.9 Conceptual framework

The study was based on the conceptual framework that argues that there is significant relationship between the Youth Polytechnic programme levels and their market relevance and the Youth employment opportunities. According to the framework, the Youth Polytechnic programmes and situational factors such as **r**esources and teaching staff will constitute the independent variable, while employment opportunities will constitute the dependent variable. The Youth Polytechnic programmes will be identified in terms of levels e.g. Trade Test, artisan or craft certificate and against each level, employment opportunities will be determined or conceptualized. The relationship between the variables is conceptualized as diagrammatically shown below:-

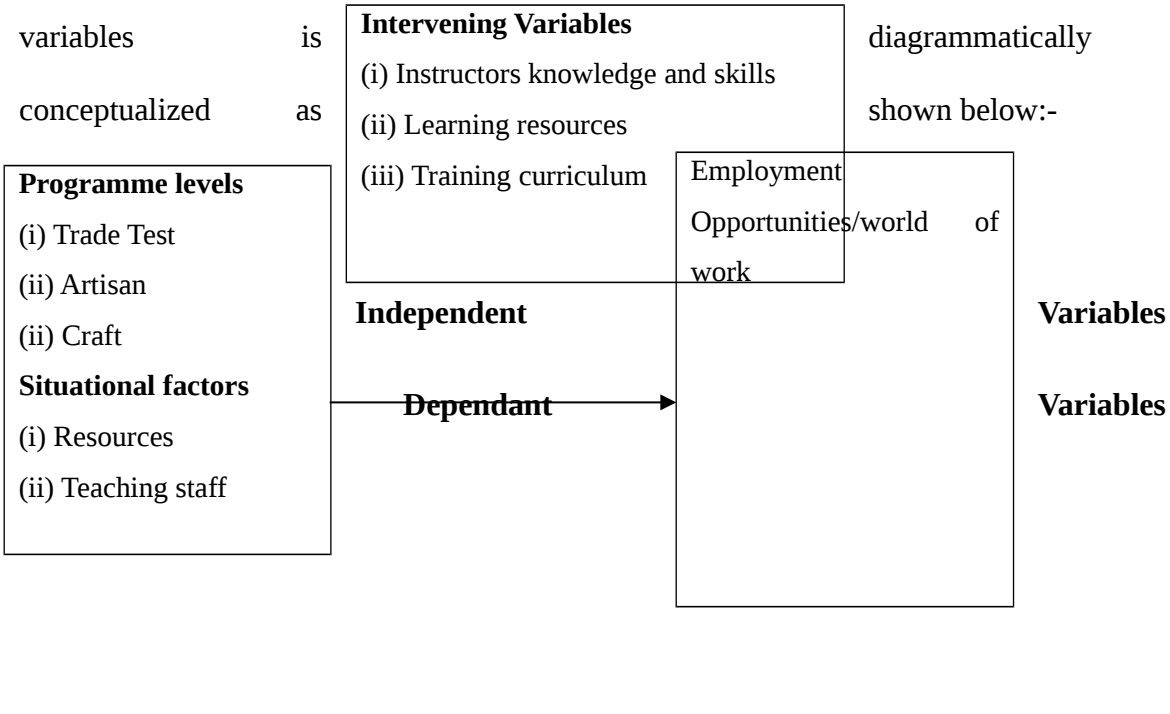

Figure 1.1 Relationship between Independent and Dependent variables

Source: Author

The relationship between the independent variables (programme levels and their content) and the dependent variable (employment opportunities) will be subject to the effect of the intervening variables such as:-

(i) Instructors' knowledge, skills and experiences which all determine the probability of imparting skills and knowledge to learners which the learners will find relevant in the job market. It is expected that the instructors themselves have the knowledge and skills relevant to the job market, or are aware of the knowledge and skills needed in the current job market given their long standing experience in teaching and training.

(ii) Learning resources: These ranges from books, equipment, training aids and manuals which the learners require in their daily training. The learning resources are indeed to the curriculum, which in turn is linked to the job market or employment opportunities.

(iii) Curriculum: This is the specifications for training detailing the content and the modalities for training. How well the curriculum is structures to meet the job market needs determines the success of the programme relevance of the programme relevancy in the world of employment.

1.10 Assumptions of the study

The study adopted the following assumptions:

(i) The courses offered by YP were limited to traditional skills and they lacked entrepreneurial focus

(ii) There was mismatch between the skills the YPs offered and skills required in the employment market

(iii) The answers given through the questionnaire were honest responses.

(iv) It was possible for the respondents to report their self-perceptions accurately.

(v) The sample and population selected for the study was operated within the same environmental conditions, hence giving related responses that were true and reliable concerning the relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment in Chepkorio and Iten youth polytechnics of Keiyo district.

1.11 Scope and Limitations of the study

1.10.1 Scope

The focus of this study was on the relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment in Chepkorio and Iten youth polytechnics of Keiyo district. This study was not able to fully exploit the vast needs and challenges facing youth polytechnics in the whole country because to cover them, needed a lot of time and wider scope and therefore, the research findings was limited and can only be applicable to Keiyo district. Other important aspects such as enrolment and factors affecting the operation of youth polytechnic have not been considered in order to limit the scope of this study.

The study was undertaken within the larger Keiyo district, rift valley province of Kenya. It covered 115 respondents from two youth polytechnics such as youth polytechnic trainees, graduates, employers, instructors, project managers and members of the community. The study was not able to cover all other aspects of polytechnics programmes beside the relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment. Keiyo District was chosen as a research site because of evidence of the increasing problem and challenges facing youth polytechnic in the study area despite legislation and planning measures being in place. The study took place between April 2008 and February 2009.

1.10.2 Limitations

The study encountered a number of limitations which could impede answering of the research questions and objectives. The main limitation in this study was attributed to the sample size and generalization of the findings. There are about 600 youth polytechnics in the country, therefore, adequate assessment of the relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment, requires a consideration of a large number or if possible, all the youth polytechnics. However, due to time, manpower and financial resource constraints, it was not be possible to cover a large number or all the youth polytechnics in the country. This means that only a small sample is viable, tenable and possible. The findings of this study were therefore confined to the sample from the large Keiyo District and were not exceedingly generalized to the entire districts in the country.

1.12 Operational Definition of Terms

Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) - Refers to a range of learning experiences which are relevant to the world of work and which may occur in a variety of learning contexts, including educational institutions and the workplace. It includes learning designed to develop the skills for practicing particular occupations, as well as learning designed to prepare for entry or re-entry into the world of work in general. In both cases the learning may be intended to lead to direct labour market entry or to act as a foundation for entry into further education and training for specific occupations.

Small enterprises can be defined as firms with roughly 10 to 20 (sometimes 50) workers. They use non-traditional or "modern" technologies in at least some of the productive aspects of the transformation process. Their products and services range from simple to complex, and similarly span a range of consumer types.

National Youth Service – It is an institution that provides technical training and is, in fact, the second largest training programme for unemployed after the YP programme. It recruits youth up to 30 years of age, stimulates good citizenship and provides work and specialized training.

YPs (originally called village polytechnics) – It is a training institution that provides rural youth with skills that could be used in the local economy. They would provide practical training, linked with production, and so assist in the formation of a cadre of trained artisans and other self-employed workers.

Traditional apprenticeship - is defined as a situation in which the trainee and/or his/her family and the owner/manager of an enterprise agree that the skills used in the enterprise will be passed on to the trainee under certain conditions

Vocational training institutions – It was used in this study as the generic term for all non - advanced training provision in Kenya, including YPs

1.13 Summary

According to ILO (2001), it is quite evident from recent studies that YPs have lost most of its original focus without indicating a clear reason for it. What is critical is to review and completely change the content and mode of training at YPs and other technical training institutions (Daily Nation, 2007)

The main objective of the study was to establish the relevance of YPs' programmes towards youth employment using Chepkorio and Iten YPs of Keiyo District as case study

The main purpose of the study was to assess the relevance of the YPs' programmes to the requirement of world of work
Besides the academic award for which the this research is aimed, it will form a basis for making the YPs relevant to the empowerment of youths in Kenya

The study was based on the conceptual framework that argues that there is significant relationship between the YP programme levels and their market relevance

Keiyo District was chosen as a research site because of evidence of increasing problem and challenges facing YPs in the area. The main limitation in the study was attributed to the sample size and generalization of the findings. There are over 600 YPs in Kenya

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews a number of publications such as journals, articles, seminar papers, government policy papers, conference proceedings, training manuals, legislative documents, research reports, business journals, textbooks, newspapers, and periodicals. To shed light on relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment, this chapter reviews the previous authors and provides the gap, thereafter a summary was made to show how unique the study is. This chapter is subdivided into sub-sections under:

2.2 Preview

2.2.1 The concept of Youth Polytechnics and their relevance

The concept of YPs was developed and popularized in the mid-1960s by the National Christian Council of Kenya (NCCK) as a solution to the problem of education and employment of primary school leavers. In a study titled “After school, what?” it was argued that school leavers could not become self-employed or obtain wage jobs because of inadequate education and training. YPs (originally called village polytechnics) were to provide rural youth with skills that could be used in the local economy. They would provide practical training, linked with production, and so assist in the formation of a cadre of trained artisans and other self-employed workers (Ngware et al, 1999).

According to Ndegwa (1991), initially the NCCK was the main sponsor of the YP programme; the YPs were gradually taken over by the Government, which paid mainly the salaries of the teachers. They were expected to become self-sustaining over time, on the basis of the production of goods for the local market. The programme expanded massively over the years. There are now over 600 YPs. Most of them are small training centers that provide local youth with an opportunity to learn practical skills, usually in masonry, carpentry, tailoring, dressmaking, knitting, home economics and livestock raising (Kerre, 1998). A survey of YPs conducted in 1989 registered a total of almost 24,000 students in 18 different courses and put the average output at an average of 6,379 per year for the 1987-92 period (Oketch, 1999). However, it would appear that less than 20 per cent of total YP capacity is utilized: in 1995, YPs were estimated to have the capacity to absorb up to 40,000 school leavers, but actual enrolment was only 7,927 (Danish International Development Agency, 1998).

Earlier assessments of the YP programme found that it was successful in changing the attitudes of young people towards technical education and manual work and that it had enabled many young people to engage in gainful employment. More recent studies indicate that the YPs have lost most of their original focus (Atchoarena and Delluc, 2001). Possibly this is related to the increased role of, and especially the decreasing contributions from, the Government. The YPs now offer opportunities for training only to a small fraction of the rural school leavers and unemployed. They have become more attached to the formal trade's certification system, and most of their trainees are now

concerned about certificates and finding a wage job and less interested in entrepreneurial skills and self-employment.

The areas in which YPs are offering training are rather limited. The skills in home economics and tailoring are not even in high demand in the rural areas. The training in business skills is inadequate for those considering entering into self-employment. In fact, in the early 1980s less than a quarter of the YP trainees were found to take up self-employment. There is a need for credit schemes to support the ventures started by YP graduates and assist them to purchase tools and equipment. This should be done on an individual basis as it is evident that, while the Government is encouraging them to work in groups, the trainees prefer to be self-employed individually (Owano, 1988).

A further problem of the YPs is their poor image in the community where they are seen as catering only for school drop-outs who are generally considered as failures. Other problems include (Danish International Development Agency, 1998):

i) YPs get few orders, and as a result the trainees lack practical experience; there are also few incentives for instructors to engage in active marketing of YP production;

ii) Many YP management committees and instructors lack a clear vision of the role and purpose of their institution, and the overall focus consequently tends to remain limited to passing as many trainees for the trade test as possible;

iii) The instructors' technical and pedagogical skills are inadequate, and their motivation is undermined by salaries below subsistence level;

iv) There is an appalling lack of tools and training materials for practical exercises;

v) In a number of YPs, buildings and workshops are in need of refurbishing and expansion;

vi) There are no textbooks available, and the theoretical side of the different trades is mostly dealt with on a copy-note basis;

vii) YPs succeed only in limited industrial attachments for their trainees, who consequently possess only limited practical experience when they graduate, which results in low job opportunities;

viii) YPs lack training for innovative skills, all training is done in the same trades and in the same kinds of products.

Possibly the most important problem of the YPs at this point in time concerns their financing. Most of the YPs are community owned, the Government is not responsible for them. Still, it supports about half of the existing 600 YPs, supposedly the most promising ones, generally with a contribution to trainers' salaries. In recent years, this contribution has been starkly reduced. In the (Daily Nation, 23 October 2000), the Permanent Secretary Ministry of Labour was quoted saying that the "Government plans to upgrade some 120 YPs to offer high quality training to *Jua Kali* artisans". "The aim is to rehabilitate, strengthen and upgrade youth polytechnics to turn them into 'centres of excellence in skills' "- [for instance through] a new scheme of service (i.e. salary payments) to motivate the instructors to improve their service delivery; a proposal for funding will be sent to the donors (Daily Nation, 23 October 2000).

Danish International Development Agency, which started to support YPs in the 1980s, has recently expanded its assistance to include YPs in Taita Taveta, Kitui, Makeuni, Kwale and Thika districts (DANIDA, 1998). This Micro Enterprise Development Programme aims to strengthen the 17 YPs in these districts through:

(i) community mobilization programmes to empower them to better manage organizations;

(ii) Insertion of practical training in the curriculum of the YPs;

(iii) Skills upgrading and broadening of knowledge of YP managers and trainers;

(iv) Acquisition of tools and training materials to improve the quality of YP training;

(v) Introduction of skills development courses for women's groups and small farmers;

(vi) Introduction of short training courses on technical and management subjects for people already active in the *jua kali* sector (as owners, workers or apprentices);

(vii) Provision of credit as well as technical and management support to local MSEs.

According to Danish International Development Agency (1998), Micro Enterprise Development programme would enable links between the YPs, self-help women's groups and *Jua kali* associations and will create business development centres. The latter will carry out market surveys, maintain a database for use by the J*ua kali* artisans and other stakeholders conduct training in business skills and provide advisory services on business

planning. Initially, these services will be free of charge, but the long-term perspective of the business development centres is that they have to be run commercially and will become self-sustainable. One of the ideas is to register them as share- holding companies. Initially, DANIDA would take 50 per cent of the shares, while the rest would be distributed to the other stakeholders (YPs, women's groups, *Jua kali* associations). After two years of operation, DANIDA would gradually offer its shares for sale to the private enterprises, *Jua kali* associations and other suitable ventures in the districts.

2.2.2 Training Providers

According to Owano (1988), there are a large a number of public and private training institutions in Kenya that provide technical training, including: over 600 Youth Polytechnics, 20 Technical Training Institutes, 17 Institutes of Technology and 3 National Polytechnics; furthermore the National Youth Service operates Training Centres, and there are Industrial Training Centres, YMCA Vocational Training Centres and Christian Industrial Training Centres.

In addition, there are a large number of private-for-profit training institutes, many of which have come up in recent years and concentrate on courses in office and business skills. The youth account for almost one third of all the trainees enrolled in these training institutions (ILO, 2001)

According to ILO (2001) statistics, the large majority of youth from each level of education might not find a place in the next higher level of education, nor find a job in the formal sector. In 1995, enrolment in Primary schools, Secondary schools and Universities was 5.5 million, 632,000 and 44,900 respectively. In 1996, almost 440,000 pupils sat for the Kenya Certificate of Primary Education, of whom only 150,000 (i.e. less than one third) proceeded to secondary schools. In 1997, some 156,700 candidates sat for the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education, of whom 17,287 – of whom girls (i.e. 11%) qualified for the admission to public universities. The exact capacity of the training sector is not immediately known, but in 1995 about 33,000 trainees were enrolled in the following training institutions; teacher training colleges (51%), technical training institutions (25%) and Youth Polytechnics (24%).

In Kenya there is a longstanding awareness that employment needs to be conceived in terms of more than formal and agricultural jobs, and training initiatives have included the development of Youth Polytechnics, Institutes of Technology and Technical Training Institutes (ILO, 2001). A survey of YPs conducted by ILO in 1989, indicated that there are total registered of almost 24,000 students in 18 different courses, and puts an average output at an average of 6,379 per year for the 1987 to 92 period. However, it would appear that less than 20% of total YP capacity is utilized: in 1995 YPs were estimated to have the capacity to absorb up to 40,000 school leavers, but actual enrolment was only 7,927.

According to Kerre (1998) the curriculum of YPs is too narrow and the skills in some vocational training are not in high demand in the rural areas. The training in business skills is inadequate for those considering entering into self-employment. In fact, in the early 1980s less than a quarter of YP trainees were found to become self-employed. ILO (2001) emphasized the need for credit schemes to support the ventures started by YP graduates and assist them to purchase tools and equipment. This should be done on an individual basis, as it has been shown that while the government is encouraging them to work in groups, the trainees prefer to be self-employed individually.

A further problem according to ILO (2001) was the YPs poor image in the community, were they are seen as catering only for school drop-outs who are generally considered as failures. Other problems are;

(i) YPs lack training for innovative skills: all training is done in the same trades and in the same kinds of products.

(ii) YPs get few orders and as a result the trainees lack practical experiences, there are also few incentives for instructors to engage in active marketing of YP production capacity.

(iii) Many YP Management Committees and Instructors lack a clear vision of the role and purpose of their institution, and the overall focus consequently tends to remain limited to passing as many trainees for the trade test as possible.

(iv) The Instructors' technical and pedagogical skills are inadequate and their motivation is undermined by salaries below subsistence level.

(v) There is an "appalling" lack of tools and training materials from practical exercises.

(vi) In a number of YPs buildings and workshops are in need of refurbishing and expansion. There are no textbooks available and the theoretical side of the different trades is mostly dealt with on a copy-note basis.

(vii) YPs succeed only in limited industrial attachments for their trainees, who consequently posses only limited practical experience when they graduate which results in low job opportunities.

There are a large number of public and private training institutions in Kenya that provide technical training, including: over 600 YPs, 20 technical training institutes, 17 institutes of technology (ITs) and three national polytechnics. Furthermore, the National Youth Service (NYS) operates training centers, and there are industrial training centres,

YMCA's vocational training centers and Christian industrial training centers (CBS/ICEG/K-REP, 1999).

In addition, there are a large number of private for-profit training institutes, many of which have come up in recent years and concentrate on courses in office and business skills. The YPs (see case study A below) account for almost one-third of all the trainees enrolled in these training institutions (Oketch, 1995). This makes it important for the YPS Programmes to link with either employment or self – employment.

The ITs (previously the Harambee Institutes of Technology) were started in the 1970s within the spirit of self- help. They were originally set up and funded by the local communities and created a tradition of community involvement in the management of vocational training centers, ensuring that "the majority of Kenyan training institutions are not simply the statistic enclaves common in many other countries" (McGrath, 1997:16). ITs were to train school leavers as craftsmen to meet the growing demand for skilled manpower in the rural areas. They were to produce self-employable people at a higher level of skills and technology than the Youth Polytechnics. The training takes three years. Management skills were included as part of the curriculum. In the mid-1980s, there were 15 ITs with a total enrolment of 3,900 students. They attracted considerable funding from government as well as donors. Assessment studies of ITs found that they have to some extent achieved their objectives but many of their students, once graduated, fail to establish their own businesses, and less than 10 per cent become self-employed. Since the skills obtained in ITs refer to relatively capital- intensive equipment, the graduates require

considerable amounts of capital to start up a business, and as this is generally not available many of them try to find wage employment.

In Kenya, there are also 20 technical training institutes (previously technical high schools), which essentially seek to upgrade the basic knowledge of school leavers to enable them to enter one of the country's three national polytechnics. They offer a four-year mostly theoretical programme, although they also provide some introductory training in workshop technology, and the training includes attachment to an industrial firm. They tend to produce middle- level skilled manpower for the modern sector.

The National Youth Service also provides technical training and is, in fact, the second largest training programme for unemployed after the YP programme. It recruits youth up to 30 years of age, stimulates good citizenship and provides work and specialized training. The National Youth Service operates a vocational training centre in Mombassa for training in masonry, carpentry, motor vehicle mechanics, fitting and plumbing, electronics, welding, panel beating and tailoring. In the mid-1980s, it had an enrolment of some 7,000 students. The National Youth Service was originally directed at primary school leavers, but over the years it has recruited more and more secondary school leavers. Also, while it started with a rural focus, it has gradually adopted an urban bias.

Statistics show that the large majority of youth from each level of education will not find a place in the next higher level of education, nor find a job in the formal sector (data from the Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA), 1998). In 1995, enrolment in

primary schools, secondary schools and universities was 5.5 million, 632,000 and 44,900 respectively. In 1996, almost 440,000 pupils sat for the Kenya Certificate of Primary Education, of whom only 150,000 (i.e. less than one-third) proceeded to secondary schools. In 1997, some 156,700 candidates sat for the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education, of whom only 17,287 qualified for admission to public universities. The exact capacity of the training sector is not immediately known, but in 1995 about 33,000 trainees were enrolled in teacher training colleges (51 per cent), technical training institutes (25 per cent) and YPs (24 per cent). In 2009, a total of 7 million children were enrolled in primary schools. Seven hundred and twenty seven thousand (727,054) sat the Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE), and only 360,000 could be enrolled in form one at secondary level during the year 2010, of which 241,121 missed the capacity for education and training. Previously, about 250,000 pupils missed opportunities to proceed to secondary level annually.

2.2.3 Training for productive self-employment

Although not a core element of international development strategies, training continues to be seen by many African governments as an important element of industrialization strategies. Within training policy and provision, an increasingly important area of concentration is the encouragement of vocational training institutes (VTIs) to shift their focus towards preparing students for self-employment. However, the extent to which this has happened and the number of students making successful transitions to self-employment are in need of examination. It seems that policies have typically been too poorly focused on exactly what they expect from VTIs and this has resulted in the lack of

a sufficiently coherent vision at the institutional level. Moreover, the weaknesses of the VTI should lead us to be cautious about the ability of institutions to manage a successful transformation programme (Grierson and McKenzie 1996).

There are a number of different types of institutions which form sub-classes of the VTI category. Where reference is to a particular sub-class, it will be mentioned by name. The reform programmes have also failed to pay sufficient attention to the obstacles to their goal of putting VTI graduates into self-employment. As McGrath and King (1995) argued, there is typically a considerable time period between training and the successful transition to self-employment. This considerable period is as a result of a number of factors such as irrelevant to the job market .Lack of feedback from employers on what they look for in a candidate who has graduated from these institutions and the limited employment opportunities.

There have been varying experiences of policies and programmes of training for self-employment in various countries. With support from UNDP and ILO, during the early 1990s Kenya developed a series of small business centres (SBCs) as part of an attempt to promote entrepreneurship amongst students in technical training institutes, institutes of science and technology and polytechnics. A central focus here was on assisting students to develop business plans and this was subsequently made part of the official curriculum. However, as Ferej (1999) makes clear, the shortness of the input, the poor staff preparation and the artificial nature of the exercise made success inevitably limited.

Moreover, whilst the programme was declared a success at the evaluation stages, subsequent accounts from the institutions tell a radically different story (McGrath 1998b).

Good staff have proved hard to retain; one leading training institution reporting five different SBC directors in two years. Also, there is widespread anecdotal evidence of business plans being treated the same way as many other academic exercises, with copying rife and submission of plans totally unconnected to students' areas of training common (McGrath 1997a). It appears that the programme has failed to become successfully sustainable after the ending of the donor-supported phase (McGrath 1998b).Kenya was also the site of one of the national programmes for the ILO's skills development for self-reliance (SDSR) project. Here, there was an attempt to support existing training provision through rapid market appraisal; additional training arising out of this demand determination process; credit; and follow-up services. However, this too proved to be a highly donor-dependent project and was not sustainable (McGrath and King 1995).

Another innovative programme was the linkage between Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) and the University of Illinois to establish an enterprise education programme. Whilst JKUAT seems to be producing a capable group of MSc graduates and a series of interesting dissertations, the broader impact of the programme is less apparent (Oketch 1995; McGrath 1997a). However interesting these dissertation may be, they do not themselves as guarantee employment opportunities.

In spite of these and other major interventions in the Kenyan training system, there is a continuing weakness of training policy whether directed at the larger, formal sector firm or at the needs of the jua kali sector. The system appears to be driven by projects rather than an overall vision. In the light of the *Master Plan's* claim to be for both education and training (Republic of Kenya 1998), the status of attempts to develop a national training strategy (McGrath 1997a) remains unclear. Whatever the strengths and weaknesses of the *Master Plan* as a blueprint for education reform, the use of training in its title is not sufficiently reflected in the concerns of the text. Neither does it touch matter relating to self employment or even self- employment. One is left wondering the connection between training and employment opportunities.

It is not surprising, therefore, that in spite of the projects noted above and others, there is no conclusive evidence that Kenyan training institutions as a whole are adequate providers of training for self-employment. Indeed, the evidence found by Oketch's survey of providers is, on balance, negative about the success of graduates in accessing self-employment. However, it should be noted that the lack of tracer studies makes it difficult to judge success with any certainty (Oketch, 1999).

The Kenyan reforms have tended to be project-driven rather than systematic. They have left unanswered important questions such as whether training for self-employment means more than introducing enterprise education or whether different technical skills than those needed in the formal sector are required.

Massive reorientation and insertion into sustainable self-employment of training institution students were never really likely. There are huge barriers to successful rapid transitions from formal training to sustainable self-employment. Whilst many training graduates are undoubtedly entering the Jua kali sector, it is crucial to have detailed knowledge of whether this is entry into the more sustainable levels and niches that their training intended them for or into bare survivalist activities where little or none of their skills are utilized. This was illustrated by the account of one technical training institute principal. She agreed that her students did aspire in the main to self-employment (Oketch, 1999).

However, instead of graduating into the Jua kali sector, as they anticipated, they found themselves limited to hawking activities, lacking as they did the capital, skills and experience to break into an already heavily populated sector (McGrath 1997a). Attitudinal data regarding students in vocational training institutes also provides some interesting information. Kerre (1998) and Oketch (1999) survey suggests that it is those in lowest status training institutions who reflect the greatest interest in being self-employed. This can be read as showing that they are being realistic about their future. This seems to agree with the general perception within the sector that Youth Polytechnic graduates are those most likely to persevere in Jua kali activities (King 1999). However, it should also be noted that Kenyan data gathered for this project suggests that this group appear to be the least successful technical graduates in the Jua kali sector in terms of their ability to access high value niches (Oketch, 1999)

Crucially, this data on student attitudes and aspirations across public training providers reflected the same occupational aspirations as school students. Male students favoured doctor, lawyer, teacher and accountant; female students preferred nurse, teacher, accountant and lawyer. This is quite striking given that these students are on vocational courses in other areas. The aspiration to further study is still strong in this group. 32% of the post-secondary grouping wanted to obtain a further qualification (Kerre and Oketch, 1999). This mismatch between aspirations and attempts to reorient training towards self-employment may well arise from students using some types of public training providers as a second chance route to further educational studies. Whatever its origin, the mismatch has been identified as a central obstacle to successful reorientation of these providers (Grierson and McKenzie, 1996). They argue that it is vital that there be consistency between selection of students and the training provided to them. Otherwise, training cannot achieve optimal efficiency. This anticipates an issue to be considered later in this chapter: whether training for those already engaged in SME activities is a more efficient option than pre-service provision. 2 The sample included youth polytechnic students who do not require a secondary certificate for admission. They are excluded from this sub-set even though some individuals may have completed secondary schooling.

2.2.4 The responsiveness of Youth Polytechnics (VTI'S)

A major part of the weakness of VTIs in preparing students for competitive niches in self-employment or wage employment in successful SMEs is the inability of vocational training institutes (VTIs) to respond adequately to global and local economic changes. This is reflected both in their slowness to respond to the policy message that they should

increasingly focus on self-employment and their inability to shift training provision so that it adequately prepares students to access viable employment in all sizes and types of firms. As Grierson and McKenzie (1996) argued that VTIs cannot hope to impart market survival skills without market involvement. Successful vocational training for self-employment will need to find effective ways of involving local enterprises and industries from both the formal and informal sectors (Grierson and McKenzie 1996:30-1).

It is important to know how VTIs are responding to a challenging new environment. However, there is a weakness of evidence in this regard and, in particular, a lack of tracer studies of what activities students enter on or after graduation. Although what follows is concerned primarily with state provision, it should be remembered that many of the same problems are also likely to apply to private and NGO training.

Central to the challenge facing training institutions in Kenya, as in the other two countries, are major concerns about the quality of training provision. Equipment is not being maintained and technologies are outdated (Republic of Kenya, 1998). Staff are increasingly engaged in other activities and staff development at VTIs is very poor (Oketch, 1999). Oketch sums up the problem thus: Due to the overall reduction of public expenditure as a result of the structural adjustment programmes, most government assisted vocational training institutions are experiencing serious budgetary constraints.

(Oketch, 1999) emphasized that vocational training institutions can neither afford nor maintain technology required in updating programmes. According to the author, responsiveness is also an issue. Improved links to local industry, both large and small,

and to the host community are acknowledged as important but few institutions stand out here. There is a lack of universal work placements, of adequate curricular responsiveness and of tracer studies (McGrath 1997a; Republic of Kenya, 1998).

Institutions are showing increased attempts at responsiveness to new conditions. All of the institutions surveyed by Oketch had mission statements and most emphasized "their desire to link their training directly to skills required by the labour market" (Oketch, 1999: 12). Two-thirds of these are new missions identified in the 1990s to reflect changed contexts. Curricular change is occurring in several institutions and there is some introduction of evening classes, which are often more attractive to those already employed in the Jua kali sector (Oketch, 1999).

Increased cost recovery is in many ways the most problematic element of Kenyan training policy. In line with government policy, many institutions are pursuing quite an active strategy of cost recovery, either through fees or production units. However, the policy has failed to consider the possible negative impacts of these on equity in enrolments and local industry respectively (McGrath, 1998b). There is evidence of a shift of institutional resources to business activities at the expense of training and it is argued that the increase in fees is impacting upon enrolments (Oketch, 1999). The greater cost recovery does not seem to be leading to training becoming more competitive. Moreover, in so far as it undermines local Jua kalis through subsidized production, it is actually negatively impacting upon the ability of entrepreneurs to maintain sustainable niches. The challenge is to see how cost recovery can be developed in ways that strengthen institutions and their linkages to their community and its enterprises. For instance, cost

recovery through evening hire of equipment or staff advice to Jua kalis could be further investigated as means of raising income, providing valuable services and increasing mutual understanding.

2.2.5 Vocational training institute: Cross – national issues

A number of important issues can be charted across countries in Africa. There are signs of improvement but institutions are still not responsive enough and simply lack a culture in which training provision is driven by determination of actual demand r realistic projections of future skills requirements and equity considerations. In part, this relates to institutions' lack of data regarding the destination of students or requirements of enterprises, particularly smaller ones. It is also a product, though less so in South Africa than in much of the continent, of a historically major dependence on donors in the funding of elements of public training provision.

Better VTI links with enterprises are everywhere a policy imperative. Nonetheless, there are very powerful constraints on the ability of provider institutions to enter into closer relationships with enterprises of whatever size. At the heart of VTI – enterprise links conventionally has been the industrial placement. However, the weakness of large enterprises in Ghana and Kenya, and the frequent reluctance of such enterprises in South Africa to train, have been coupled with the rise of the private candidate to produce a situation in which the majority of VTI students are unable to acquire placements. The severity of the problem is shown by Tanzania data, which finds only 10% of public sector trainees obtaining placements (Bennell, 1998).

At the same time, existing funding mechanisms for public training institutions mean that their financial viability is not sufficiently driven by concerns about placements and relationships with enterprises. It is difficult to criticize VTIs for behaving rationally in the face of the system that confronts them. Levies are used in many countries, and have recently been revamped in South Africa. However, it is apparent internationally that levies have a mixed impact and run the risk of encouraging less rather than more training to actually take place (Bennell, 1999). Thus, there is still much to be done to make public training providers adequate supporters of learning-led competitiveness in the medium and large enterprise sector.

The relationship between VTIs and the SME sector is even more problematic. Few VTIs have any sense of the needs and realities of such enterprises. Whilst some Kenyan VTIs have sought to explore the possibility of Jua kali work placements, there is considerable reticence within the SME sector of being drawn into the bureaucratic ambit of formal relationships. There is also a concern about student insurance whilst on placement, an issue that also affects placements in larger firms. More positive moves are being made by some Kenyan VTIs to open their facilities to small artisans, for instance, through use of heavy equipment on VTI premises or doing finishing or other specialist work as sub-contractors to small scale producers (McGrath, 1997a). If such links develop, then the gap of understanding between VTIs and producers can perhaps be bridged. Action research to support and evaluate such activities may well be valuable both in Kenya and in other countries.

Curriculum reform is an important aspect of the drive towards the responsive VTI. Modularization of training has been an important element of change in some countries. This is being pursued quite actively in some African countries and is at core of NQF approach. However, caution is required regarding its epistemological and administrative suitability. There is a related concern with making training more competence- or outcome-based; although this has not yet broken the hold of time constrained programmes. It is worth noting, however, that this is not discussed in the Kenyan *Master Plan*. Here too it is necessary to bear in mind the critique of such approaches in OECD countries, where many authors have questioned the ability of a competence-based approach to improve skills, particularly those perceived as necessary for competitiveness under conditions of globalizations (Barnett, 1994; Hodkinson and Issitt, 1995). Moreover, it is necessary to examine whether the balance of the argument is different in African contexts.

Part of the logic of a shift to a competency approach is that there is no set time in which a student should become competent. This compares with the traditional assumption that a student will take a course for a fixed amount of time, and either pass or fail

The adaptation of the curriculum to SME needs is very poorly developed. In Kenya, the tendency has often been to add on items such as preparation of a business plan, rather than really address the training needs of a new or additional clientele. In some African countries, informal sector association involvement in certification has emerged as part of World Bank funded projects. One of the intentions of the most recent such project is to

seek to lever change in the mainstream curriculum of training providers (McGrath, 1997b). This, however, will be a long term task. In some Africa countries, the learnership approach could make the curriculum more small enterprise friendly. However, it seems equally likely that it could force training for self-employment to mirror more closely provision for wage employment in large firms, given the drive towards a single system (King, 1997; McGrath, 1998c).

There are signs that many VTIs are trying to change both the range and content of subjects they offer (Afenyadu, 1998a; McGrath, 1998a; Oketch, 1999). In these attempts, they often feel thwarted by bureaucratic delays. The best balance between institutional autonomy and state oversight still needs to be established. The whole system needs to be driven by a concern to provide quality training related to actual or realistically projected market needs.

2.2.6 Education and training policies

McGrath (1997) observed that the education and training sector in Kenya appears to be in a state of instability. According to him, the national policy on vocational training has not yet emerged. The process has been hampered by the government reshuffle in 1999. As one of the outcomes of this, the Ministry of Research, Technology and Technical Training (MRTTT), which up to then was responsible for both technical training and the development of the *Jua kali* sector, was split up, with basic vocational training becoming the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour, while the higher colleges of technology went to the Ministry of Education. As a result of the large number of training initiatives, the continuing institutional confusion on training responsibilities, and lack of time, the

present study will touch only on two aspects of the current training sector, both of which represent attempts made to reorient students towards self-employment: the “8-4-4” and the introduction of business skills education.

Since the expanded education opportunities after independence did not result in the expected automatic employment of primary school leavers, in 1984 a fundamental restructuring of Kenya’s education system was decided. Known as “8-4-4” (replacing the “7-4-2-3” system), it places emphasis on attitudinal and skills preparation for the world of work and self-employment in particular. New subjects such as woodwork, metalwork, leatherwork, tailoring and business skills, together with agriculture, home science and art, were added to the curriculum. The new system encountered problems from the start: the implementation was carried out in a hurry without proper testing; most schools lacked teachers, workshops and equipment to implement practical education; technical subjects still form only a small part (15 per cent of learning hours) of a broad curriculum offered in primary schools; and the curriculum appears to have been made in ignorance of the skill needs of the informal sector (Oketch, 1995). Consequently, many graduates from youth polytechnics cannot find their way into informal sectors of employment and this defeat the relevance of youth polytechnics to employment.

Moreover, "the attitude of pupils to technical educations further undermined by lack of basic facilities and qualified teachers to handle the practical subjects in most of the schools. Innovative attempts by some schools to use local craftsmen to demonstrate certain skills to the students have received negative reaction from the students who feel or

believe that they know more than the local craftsmen. This has undermined the integrity of practical subjects in the eyes of the learners. Teachers' and pupils' attitudes to learning practical subjects have remained negative (Oketch, 2000:62).

The results are consequently mixed: while the curriculum has a number of useful vocational elements, the students cannot link what they learn directly with employment or production; only a minority of school leavers when asked to indicate the source of their skills mentioned practical subjects taught in school (Shiundi, quoted in Oketch, 1995). Even a high government official told the author that his daughter had the item for her crafts examination made by a *Jua kali* entrepreneur. Other observers feel that the curriculum is too broad and overloaded on core subjects such as English, mathematics and science (quoted in McGrath, 1997). It is likely that as one of the outcomes of the current debate on education and training in the country, some of the practical subjects will be reduced to optional status or disappears altogether (ibid.).

Furthermore, the new system, although voluntary in theory, is costly for the parents who have become central in the financial strategies of the schools. This might be one of the reasons for the apparent sharp decline in enrolments over the life of "8-4-4" and the continued failings of the Kenyan school system with regard to access, repetition and drop-outs (McGrath, 1997).

Possibly the major change in Kenya's education and training system in the past decade has been the introduction of business skills education at almost all levels of education and training - in primary and secondary education and from youth polytechnics (YPs) to

national polytechnics. In addition, there is now a Masters programme in entrepreneurship in the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) and a higher diploma course at the Kenya Teachers' Training College (KTTC). This type of education appears to be widespread, although its quality is not known.

There are indications that it is not actively offered at all institutions due to staffing and other constraints, although a new cadre of well-oriented trainers and managers has been trained at KTTC and JKUAT (McGrath, 1997). It seems that some vocational training centre (VTC) principals refuse to employ qualified teachers, while the skills of the trainers are very marketable for which reason they are difficult to retain by VTIs. The impact of business skills education is not yet clear. Some of the students appear to be more interested in obtaining the credentials than genuinely acquiring the skills, and they copy existing business plans instead of developing their own.

2.2.7 Apprenticeship training

The private sector has in recent years filled part of the vacuum left by the public sector. There are no data on the number and quality of non-government training facilities. They include various church-owned and other NGO training centres; private for-profit training providers (PPTPs), many of which have come up in recent years and focus on the development of business skills; and the traditional apprenticeship system. Most of the technical training in the MSE sector is carried out through the traditional apprenticeship system, particularly in manufacturing and services. A study carried out by the World Bank in 1992 estimated that 40 per cent of all trainees acquire their skills through

apprenticeship (quoted in CBS/ICEG/K-REP, 1999: 55). The 1999 MSE Baseline Survey registered a total of almost 53,000 apprentices. Most of them were in woodworking (41 per cent), retail (32 per cent) and repair services, with minor numbers in pottery, construction and textiles. The average period of the traditional apprenticeship depends on the economic activity and is 6-12 months in textiles and 12-18 months in metalworking and woodworking (Baiya and Jeans, 1998).

A survey among master craftsmen and apprentices who participated in the Skills Upgrading Programme of Strengthening Informal Training and Enterprise (SITE) found that:

(i) 75 per cent of the SITE host trainers charge fees for their apprenticeship training – these fees constitute 8 per cent of reported business profits in woodworking, 9 per cent in metalworking and 18 per cent in textiles;

(ii) 76 per cent of the trainees pay fees for their apprenticeship training, ranging from US$ 5-16 per month (mean: US$ 12);

(iii) 80 per cent of the master craftsmen do not regard their apprentices as immediate competitors - in fact, a large proportion of them develop subcontracting linkages with their former apprentices, depending on their quality consciousness.

2.2.8 Changing training needs of the Micro and Small Enterprises

It is estimated that there are around 500,000 new entrants to the labour market every year, including some 10,000 university graduates, 120,000 secondary school graduates and 250,000 primary school leavers (ICEG, 2000). With the shrinking public sector and the

severe economic recession undermining employment in the formal sector, there can be no doubt that the MSE sector will have to absorb the very large majority, some observers say even 80 per cent (DANIDA, 1998), of these newcomers. Existing training capacity is inadequate to deal with such a high number of people who need to be prepared for informal employment. Few studies were found that chart the exact training needs of the MSE sector. The National MSE Baseline Survey discussed earlier (CBS/ICEG/K-REP, 1999) shows that the micro and small entrepreneurs are relatively young: the mean age of male entrepreneurs is 36 years and that of female entrepreneurs 33 years. Their level l of education is relatively low: just over 10 per cent have no education at all, more than half of them (54 per cent) have only education up to primary, and 33 per cent have secondary education.

The Survey results indicate a relation between the level of education and the level of incomes. It was also found that entrepreneurs with higher levels of education are more frequently members of a membership organization, and those with university education are remarkably often members of “other business associations” (as opposed to popular informal mutual insurance groups and regular, area-based MSE associations). The survey also provides information on the role of training for the MSE sector in Kenya. A total of 85 per cent of all informal sector operators have received no training at all; the figures are slightly higher for rural and women entrepreneurs. Technical training (8.3 per cent) is more frequently given than management training (0.9 per cent).

Training is not deemed to be very important by the small producers: about half the MSE owners indicate that there is no need for training of their workers, 23 per cent suggest management training for them and only 10 per cent feel they require technical training. The training needs for themselves are almost identical, although in manufacturing and construction the entrepreneurs feel more need for technical than for management training. In other words, while relatively more technical training is given, entrepreneurs are more interested, for themselves as well as for their workers, in management training - with the exception of clearly technical trades. Two-thirds of those who were trained sponsored themselves, 9 per cent were sponsored by private business institutions, 7 per cent by the Government while 6 per cent by the church.

The survey results also suggest a relationship between the possession of vocational training certificates and income, but this relationship is weaker than in the case of education. Existing information does not permit a gender analysis of the training needs of informal sector operators. Even a specific study of training needs of informal workshops does not honour its objective to establish whether training needs vary by gender (see box). The enormous influx of entrants in the *jua kali* sector in recent years clearly is threatening the absorption capacity of the sector. Already many of the markets for MSE goods and services are effectively saturated, and the potential for gainful insertion of additional job seekers in the more traditional MSE trades has become extremely limited.

A recent study of training needs in informal workshop clusters in Nairobi found that in Ziwani, one of the oldest informal sector clusters in Kenya consisting of metalworking and car-repair activities, more than three-quarters of the enterprises had apprentices -

ranging from 1 to 20 per firm. The owners of the firms obtained their skills predominantly “on the job” (71 per cent), in various training centers (19 per cent), and from friends (7 per cent).

With regard to the recruitment of apprentices by these MSE owners, there does not appear to be a fixed set of admission criteria: the main entry requirement is actually their ability to pay the training fee (69 per cent), completed primary school (16 per cent) and physical abilities (8 per cent). Almost half of the apprentices who sign up for training drop out before finishing the training period - in almost two-thirds of the cases, as a result of difficulties in payment of training fees. Two-thirds of the masters provide letters of recommendation to their apprentices, but there is little testing of the training results, as only 10 per cent of the apprentices are sent for trade testing, and most are judged by the quality of the work they do.

Some of the apprentices receive payments during the training period, ranging from KSh. 2,000 to 3,000 (US$ 25-40). More than 60 per cent of the apprentices are said to stay on after completion of the training period; then they are paid between KSh. 2,000-6,000. The cost of the training is estimated by the MSE owners to range from KSh. 500-90,000, depending on the economic activity. The main problems mentioned in relation to providing apprenticeship training are lack of training tools and equipment, operating costs to run the training programme, and lack of workshop space. The study concludes that:

(i) Apprenticeship training programmes are rather static without any changes over the years;

(ii) Apprenticeship training focuses only on the technical aspects of production and repair;

(iii) The training methodology is practical “learning by doing”;

(iv) Many of the apprentices stay on after the training period;

(v) Graduated apprentices who start a business are competing for the same jobs as their ex-masters.

2.3 Summary of literature review

The forgoing literature has exhaustively reviewed issues concerning relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment, a growing body of empirical analyses (discussed above) clearly indicates the challenges faced by the Youth Polytechnic in their quest for market relevance programmes. It seems fair to say that the development of Kenya’s informal sector in the past two decades has been rather disappointing.

With regard to skills development for informal sector operators, however, the picture is still rather bleak. While the introduction of youth polytechnics programmes is a step in the right direction, it must be feared that the actual implementation has greatly reduced its final impact. More importantly, the capacity of the youth polytechnics in Kenya is by far inadequate. The curricula are both demand- neither led nor flexible, and the central control of curriculum development has prevented intensive relations between industry and youth polytechnics. Their impact is very limited due to inappropriate training.

Still, with the industrialization strategy lacking details and the absence of an official vocational training policy, very few well focused, high quality training programmes are in existence. Therefore, the review of literatures identified the main problems as: low success rate of external examinations; declining student enrolment in particular (traditional) courses/trades; widespread lack of tuition materials such as textbooks and workshop materials; limited opportunities to gain meaningful exposure to work through industrial attachments; growing unemployment among graduates of technical training institutions; the growing burden of fee payments shouldered by parents; poor conditions of equipment and physical facilities and the growing debt burden in many training institutions. It is felt that various external forces should not be used to excuse the dismal performance. However, complacency and general lack of preparedness in the management of youth polytechnics training programmes should be realized. There is need for Ministry of labour to embark upon a programme to support the training youth polytechnics graduates who do not manage to obtain a formal sector job.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The study sought to investigate the relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment. The chapter outlines the methodology and procedures and modalities in data collection. It also covers research design, determination and identification of the population sample size, sampling design, sampling procedure, the instruments of data collection, validity and reliability of data collected, sources of data, methods of collecting data and methods of analyzing the data.

3.2 Research Design

While carrying out the study the researcher employed case study method since it involve in-depth investigation of a group, or an institution. The choice to use the qualitative case-study approach in this study is based on the arguments that have been made by various researchers for the use of a case-study method in studying phenomena such as the relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment in Kenya.

Meredith (1998) identified the following advantages of case study research: the phenomenon can be studied in its natural setting and meaningful, relevant theory generated from the understanding gained through observing actual practice, the case method allows the much more meaningful question of why, rather than just what and

how, to be answered with a relatively full understanding of the nature and complexity of the complete phenomenon and the case method lends itself to exploratory investigations where the variables are still unknown and the phenomenon not at all understood.

According to Remenyi et al. (1998), a case study has two distinct features; firstly, it can be used in establishing valid and reliable evidence. Secondly, the case study can be used as a vehicle for creating a narrative description of the situation being studied (Remenyi et al., 1998). The preceding statement means that the narrative resulting from the description of a situation being studied represents a research finding in its own right and thus can be said to have added something of value to the body of knowledge. One of the reasons for choosing to use the case-study method in this study is that it will allow for a better understanding of the process and the relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment in Kenya industry which is a real-life event as it will be studied within a real-life context.

3.3 Area of Study

This study was conducted in Chepkorio and Iten Youth Polytechnics situated in Keiyo District, Kenya. The district is bordered by other districts. To the East, Baringo; to the North, Marakwet; to the South, Koibatek; to the West, Eldoret East. The area is agriculturally productive. It receives adequate rainfall and has good soils enabling it to practice subsistence crop farming. Livestock farming is also practices. The area is made up of two constituencies namely Keiyo North and Keiyo South. This district was chosen by the researcher because the two Youth Polytechnics in the district were operational.

Other districts were not disregarded. These institutions were chosen because they have remained operational as opposed to others, which have ended up being closed from time to time. The two (2) institutions have been admitting students every year and also conducting Trade Tests for final years. Chepkorio Youth Polytechnic has 120 students in total while Iten Youth Polytechnic has 150 students. It was therefore appropriate for providing the study areas to investigate on the relevance of the Youth Polytechnics towards youth employment.

3.4 Target Population

The target population of this study comprises of youth polytechnic learners (270), employers of youth polytechnic graduates (20), Project Managers and Deputy Managers (4), employees (20), instructors (20) and opinion sharper's of the community from Keiyo district. There are two youth polytechnics in the district (Chepkorio and Iten Youth Polytechnics) with a combined student population of 270. The study focused on two youth polytechnics that offer candidates for Government Trade Test certificate. This is shown in the table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Target population

Target population	**Frequency**
Project Managers	4
Instructors	20
Employees	20
Employers of youth polytechnic graduates	20
Opinion shapers of the Community	150
Trainees	270
TOTAL	**484**

3.5 Sampling techniques and sample Size

This is a definite plan for obtaining a sample from the sampling frame. It refers to the technique or procedure the researcher used in selecting the sample from the population.

3.5.1 Sampling procedure

The study units from the target population were included in the research project using two approaches. First, a combination of non-probability sampling and purposive sampling were used in determining the focus groups, key informants, instructors and the employers included in the study This is because they were specifically picked, as they possessed the required characteristics. Secondly, probability sampling using stratified random sampling was used to identify the employees from the alumni list of ex-graduates. The goal of stratified random sampling technique is to achieve desired representation from various subgroups in the population (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). Stratified random sampling was used because the target population is heterogeneous. The target population in the study consists of different categories of respondents with varying characteristics and comprised of:

(i) Project Managers

(ii) Instructors

(iii) Trainees

(iv) Employers of youth polytechnic graduates

(v) Employees

(vi) Opinion shapers of the Community

In the selection process, the population was divided into logical categories or strata. The relative size of each category was determined in terms of proportions. Then the sample

was selected with categories similar to that of the population, at the same time maintaining their proportions in the sample. This method is also referred to as proportional sampling.

3.5.2 Sample size

A very important issue in sampling is to determine the most adequate size of the sample. The major criterion to use when deciding on the sample size is the extent to which the sample's size is representative of the population (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). In determining the absolute sample size for the study, the researcher adopted the tables that statisticians have developed to assist in determining the sample size and degree of confidence that the findings will reflect the whole population. The tables provide the researcher with the sample size when the target population number is known. This was developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) using the formula:

$$s = X^2 NP (1-P) / d^2 (N-1) + X^2 P (1-P)$$

Where s = required sample size, X^2 = the table value of chi-square for one degree of freedom at the desired confidence level, N = the population size, P = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size) and d^2 = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05)

Using the formula and tables recommended by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) and quoted by Kathuri and Pals (1993), a sample size of 115 respondents were needed for the study.

Kerlinger (1978) states that a sample size of at least 10% would be adequate so long as it is large enough to:

(1) allow for reliable analysis of cross-tabulation,

(2) provide desired level of accuracy in estimates of the larger population, and

(3) test for significance of difference between estimates

According to this, minimum sample size of 133 questionnaires had been studied as the sample size of this research. Sample size 133 respondents were chosen from each of the strata. This is shown in the table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2 Sample size of respondents

Respondents	**Total number**	**Procedure**	**Sample Size**
Project Managers	4	100%	4
Instructors	20	100%	20
Employers of youth polytechnic graduates	20	100%	20
Employees	20	100%	20
Opinion shapers of the Community	150	10%	15
Trainees	270	30%	54
TOTAL	**484**	-	**133**

3.6 Instruments of data collection

This involves the techniques adopted by the researcher in the data gathering phase of the work. The researcher used the following instruments to collect the data:

(a) Questionnaire

(b) Interview Schedule

(c) Observation

(d) Document Analysis

3.6.1 Questionnaires

The researcher administered a comprehensive questionnaire with open and closed ended questions to the respondents. Questionnaires are appropriate for gathering the views of a large number of people about a particular phenomenon (Cohen and Manion, 1983). Questionnaires were used to gain general picture of the relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment in Kenya. The questionnaire schedule comprised of (a) questions on personal data (age, gender, level of education); (b) questions on their occupations. Some structured questions have either Yes or No or True or False alternatives. The instrument also contained unstructured items that capture opinion, feeling and suggestions of the respondents in the space provided. The questionnaires contained a number of items which were basically solicit for responses pertaining to the research variables, such as rating the degree of contribution of competencies to career success in the employment industry and rating the degree of contribution of youth polytechnic course to career success. All the questions in the questionnaire were related to the objective of the study and the research questions of the study. The questionnaire has more advantages because it allows the collection of a lot of data and it is easy to administer, less time is required in collecting information from the respondents, information collected from a questionnaire can easily be analyzed, respondents remain anonymous in their responses, it is less expensive and it helps to ensure that all respondents reply to the same set of questions and that answers are in the words of the respondents and thus free from the interviewer's bias (Koul, 1986).

3.6.2 Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted on the key informants. This helped to guard against distorting the questions since the interviewer could clarify the questions thereby helping the respondent give relevant responses. Interviews are powerful tools for collecting research data because the researcher was able to gain useful insights from what is said and from what is not said and how it is said. An interview assists in getting in-depth data which is not possible to get using questionnaires (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). Through interviews, the researcher was able to seek in-depth responses that could not be captured by questionnaires. It also minimized such weaknesses as low response return rates of questionnaires, artificial atmosphere and misinterpretation of questions. The interviewer had the opportunity of probing for detailed clear responses. Furthermore, through careful motivation of the subject and maintenance of rapport, more insightful information was obtained including negative aspects about the subject.

Interview time varied in length from 15 to 30 minutes. The interviews were recorded by note taking. The interview was made up of questions relating to the relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment in Kenya.

3.6.3 Observations

Observational indicators are useful for evaluation of physical conditions of the community (Kothari, 2003). The researcher was able to observe the infrastructure of the sub-locations like the roads, telecommunications and social amenities. The living standards of the people were also observed. This method was employed side by side

during interviews and Focus Group Discussions in order to capture non-verbal behaviour and to explore interactions that are flexible. Here it is necessary that the researcher focused only on issues relevant to the study.

3.6.4 Document analysis

The researcher used this method to establish the relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment in Kenya in the sampled YPs between 2005 and 2008. Information was also obtained from teachers lesson plans, schemes of work and record of work books. Information was also gathered from documents such as TVET annual report, journals, and industry magazines. This provided a better understanding of the research problem and findings, so as to able to get a broader view and a deeper understanding of the youth polytechnics.

3. 7 Reliability and validity of instruments

The trustworthiness of the study was established through provisions of validity and reliability.

3.7.1 Reliability

Reliability is the extent to which any measuring procedure yields the same results on repeated trials (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). The reliability of the instrument was improved through piloting and pre-testing. Furthermore, the reliability and validity of the results was obtained through member checks to help indicate whether the findings appeared to match with perceived authenticity. This was done in order to limit the distorting effects of random errors on the findings. Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research

instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials. In order to enhance the reliability of the research instrument, a test-retest method of the questionnaires was piloted to similar youth polytechnics in Koibatek district. A time lapse of 14 days between the first test and the second test was allowed for. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) between the scores of the responses was used to determine the reliability of the questionnaires administered on two different occasions.

3.7.2 Validity of instruments

The validity of the research tools was ascertained by consultation with supervisors in the department of Technology Education at Moi University. They analyzed the content of the research instruments and certified that the instruments were suitable for the purpose, which they were set for. A test is valid if it measures what it claims to measure (Koul, 1992). This was to do with how accurate the data obtained in the study represented the variables of the study. There was matching of research objectives and questions in the data collection instruments.

3.8 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher proceeded to collect data from the selected respondents after receiving approval from the School of Education, Moi University and permission from the Government, and Chepkorio and Iten Youth Polytechnics. The researcher then visited the study areas before hand for familiarization and acquaintance with targeted respondents, during this visit, the researcher informed the respondents within the study areas about the purpose of the intended study and book appointments for the data collection. After familiarization, data were collected from the respondents using the three mentioned

instruments. The research assistant was trained by the researcher and assisted in the distribution and collection of the questionnaires from the respondents. The completed instruments were verified and collected within a period of twenty eight days from the day of distribution.

3.9 Data analysis

The questionnaires were checked for completeness and consistency of information at the end of every field data collection day and before storage and then it was coded, edited and summarized using descriptive statistics. Data capturing was done using Microsoft word Excel 2007. The data from the completed questionnaires were cleaned, re-coded and entered into the computer using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) for Windows for analysis. Data analysis and the findings were reported in chapter four. Descriptive statistics (i.e. frequency analysis) was computed for presenting and analyzing the data. Descriptive statistics enabled the researcher to describe the aggregation of raw data in numerical terms (Neuman, 2000 p. 317). These methods were incorporating the use of frequency distributions, percentage tables and measures of central tendency. The research also incorporated the used of measures of variation such as: ranges, percentiles and standard deviations for univariate analysis.

The relationship between knowledge, demographic information, socio-economic factors and the relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment in Kenya were investigated and tested for significance using Chi-square tests. The Chi-square test is normally used to test for the independence of one variable on another. The knowledge is measured by a “Yes” or “No’ response as the dependent variable, and education level is measured in terms of years at school, then a contingency table could be

formed. Respondents falling in each cell of the table were counted and the Chi-square value was calculated and tested for significance at a significance level of 95%. P-values determined, using Chi-square test, where appropriate, were considered statically significant when less than 0.05.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1. Introduction

The chapter reports the data colleted from the respondents sampled for the study. Data was analyzed in an attempt to assess the relevance of youth polytechnics programme towards youth employment**.** Out of the grand total of 133 questionnaires that were distributed, 115 were returned, generating a response rate of 86%. This was good due to high percentage rate of responses. In this section, the data is presented in non-linear form beginning with the respondents' personal information and then followed by the specific information that addresses the objectives of the study.

4.2. Background Information of the Respondents

The background information of the respondents is broken down into age, gender, relationship with the institution, period/tenure of training, level of training, tenure of service, level of education.

4.2.1. Gender

The study sought to establish the gender of the respondents sampled in the study. Gender as a variable was operationalized as either male or female. Gender was deemed necessary to the study so as to establish the correlation between the gender of the respondents, the programme choice, and the relevance of the programme in terms of employment. That is to establish whether gender is a determinant in the choice of the most relevant

programme in the world of employment. The respective frequency and percentage were calculated and the results summarized in the table below:

Table 4.1 Gender of Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	60	52.2
Female	55	47.8
Total	**115**	**100**

The majority of the respondents were male (52.2%) compared to female (47.8%) from the tabulated results. The percentage gender disparity was recorded at 4.4% (52.2% - 47.8%). Such disparity is too low, meaning that relationship between the two genders is close. Gender was further correlated with the programmes; and it was established that highly marketable programme (Engineering-based) are highly correlated with gender. This means that it is the nature of the programmes that determine the gender or nature of the trainees undertaking it. Highly marketable were therefore open and universal in terms of choice by both genders. However, the situation was different when examining the gender of instructors, where the gender disparity was higher than that among trainees. The male trainees dominated in Engineering-based courses e.g. motor vehicle, electrical installation etc. This was based more on preference than intellectual ability.

4.2.2. Age

The study sought to establish the most common age bracket among the respondents. The variable age was then operationalized using the age brackets against which the frequency and percentages calculated. Age was relevant to the study in order to establish the age

bracket that is highly correlated to the choice of highly marketable courses. This was determined by calculating the correlation co-efficient.

Table 4.2 Ages of Respondents

Bracket	Frequency	Percentage
12-17yrs	13	11.3
18-25yrs	76	66.1
26-30yrs	10	8.7
30-34yrs	9	7.9
Over 35yrs	7	6.1
Total	**115**	**100**

From the tabulated results, most of respondents belonged to the age bracket 18-25yrs (66.1%). Generally, more than three quarters of the respondents were aged between 12 and 30 years (86.1%) compared to those over 34 years (13.9%).

When the age was correlated to the selection of courses among trainees, it was established that the correlation co-efficient (0-1) was higher towards marketable courses (Technical-based) compared to other courses like masonry, carpentry and joinery, tailoring etc., which registered a correlation co-efficient of 0.8. This suggests a strong relationship between age and selection of courses highly related to the employment opportunities. Employment opportunities thus are a determinant of course selection, but this is influenced by the age of the respondent for the case of trainees. Thus the variable age becomes an intervening variable is the relationship between course selection and employment opportunities.

When employers were asked to state the age bracket they preferred if they were to employ the graduates from the youth polytechnics, most employers (76%) mentioned between 18-29 years. This further explains why the most of the trainee respondents were aged below 30 years (86.1%). This suggests that the employment specifications are a determinant of the age bracket of a trainee. These also suggest that the trainees aged over 30 years were either in employment or self-employment and were only interested in developing their professional skills, but not studying for employment.

4.2.3. Relationship with the institution

Since the study sampled respondents from various segments of the population i.e. trainees, trainers, employers, employees etc, it was deemed necessary to establish the relationship of each segment to the institution. This was used to establish the segment of the population that is highly correlated with the youth polytechnics.

Table 4.3 Relation with Institution

Segment	Frequency	Percentage
Trainees	54	46.9
Instructors	17	14.7
Project Manager	4	3.4
Employer	15	13.0
Employees	15	13.0
Member of the Community	10	8.6
Total	**115**	**100**

From the tabulated results, the segment with the highest frequency was trainees 46.9% and the one with the lowest was employees (3.4%). The percentage range between trainees and employers is (64.3%). This range is attributed to the fact that not all trainees get employed after training. This is the gap between training and employment which is currently widening in Kenya, partly attributable to programme content and career choice.

The instructors and project managers have a significant role to play in linking training with job opportunities. Instructors and project managers constitute an intervening variable, when analyzing the relationship between training and employment. The correlation co-efficient between employment and training was determined and recorded at 0.8. This suggests that the gap between training and employment is high, despite the fact that employment and training are highly correlated.

4.2.4 Tenure of Stay at the Institution

The study sought to establish the tenure of the respondents at the institution, be they trainees, instructors, project managers and member of the community. However the tenure does not apply to employees and employers. Tenure of stay at the institution for trainees it is an indication of the duration of study. For instructors and project managers is the period of service. The tenure of stay was operationalized categorically and their respective frequency and percentage calculated.

Table 4.4 Tenure of stay at the Institution

Bracket	Frequency	Percentage
1yr	5	4.3
2yrs	5	4.3
3 yrs	10	8.7
4yrs	20	17.4
Over 4yrs	75	65.2
Total	**115**	**100**

From the tabulated results, a majority of the respondents had stayed in the institution for over 4yrs (65.2%). For student respondents the tenure of stay is equivalent to the duration of their study, while for the instructors it is an indication of their working experience. For

both instructors and trainees, the tenure is equivalent to the amount of time spent at a programme to gain or pass the knowledge and skills to enable trainees get employment.

The tenure of stay was correlated with the programme level, and it was established that the programme level (certificate, craft or diploma) vary in the same direction as duration of stay for students. For instructors the tenure of stay varied in the same direction as experience (working experience). However, duration of stay or teaching does not correlate with the employment opportunity. This is due to the existence of distort variables such as failure to complete the course, training outside a curriculum or undertaking courses whose employment opportunities are depleted. If these distort variables are controlled for in a training environment, then duration of training will correlate with employment opportunities. Employers would always want to employ trainees who have already completed their respective programme and acquired the relevant knowledge and skills.

The working experiences of instructors and project managers do not correlate with their highest level of education. This implies that however much trainers are educated or however long they teach in their respective youth polytechnics, it will not translate to trainees get employed after training.

4.3. Specific information

4.3.1. Programme levels offered at the Youth Polytechnics

The study found it necessary to establish the programme levels offered at the Youth polytechnics. The variable programme level is operationalized as trade test, craft, diploma and higher diploma. Programme level was important so as to correlate with access to employment opportunities.

Table 4.5 Programme levels

Level	Frequency	Percentage
Trade test	115	100
Total	**115**	**100**

The only programme level among trainees is the trade test (100%) compared to craft. To explain why trade test was common, the programme level was correlated with the entry requirements. It was established that trade test vary in the same direction indicating that the entry requirements is a determinant to entry into a programme level. Trade test was the easiest level to qualify since it required primary level of education. Having successfully passed through trade test, the trainees join the market for employment opportunities.

The variable programme level was further correlated with access to employment opportunities. There was no correlation between programme level and access to employment opportunities. The lack of correlation is attributed to the existence of distort variables such as nepotism, bribery etc. Essentially, the higher the programme level the high the chances of getting employed. When employers were asked the level of programme preferred for employment a majority (75%) suggested craft. Therefore from the employers perspective, the higher the programme level, the higher the chances of employment.

4.3.2. Determinants of programme market relevance

The study found it necessary to establish the factors that determine the programme's market relevancy. This was necessary to establish the ingredients of a programme that makes the programme highly marketable. If these ingredients are identified then the marketability of a programme can be enhanced.

Table 4.6 Determinants of programme market relevancy

	Determinant	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Programme content	75	65.2
2.	Job advert	10	8.7
3.	Job interviews	10	8.7
4.	Information from former students	10	8.7
5.	No. of students employed	10	8.7
	Total	**115**	**100.0**

From the tabulated results programme content (65.2%) is the most common determinant of a programme's market relevancy. Others include information contained in an employer's advert (8.7%), questions asked during an interview (8.7%), information from former students (8.7%) and the number of students employed after completing each course.

A correlation between the programme content and employment opportunities was determined, and the co-efficient of relationship was 0.8 indicating a positive relationship, meaning the variables vary in the same direction. However, it is not always that all that trainees acquire is relevant to employment opportunities.

The information from former students was also correlated with job opportunities. It was established that this information was only essential in the selection of course before joining the institution to train in that course. Therefore information from former trainees is not a direct determinant of job opportunities, but contributes towards access to job opportunities. In any case, this information is an extraneous variable to the relationship between programme content and access to employment opportunity.

Whereas the job advert and questions asked during interviews may determine the course to study, they have no correlation with the programme content since they are extraneous to the training process, and therefore not a direct determinant to access of employment opportunities.

4.3.3. Contribution of the programmes towards youth employment

The study found it necessary to identify the particular ways in which the programmes contribute to youth employment. If the exact contributions of the courses are known, then the courses can directly be linked with access to employment, and this can form the basis for any training. Each contribution was correlated with employment opportunities and the respect frequency and percentage calculated.

Table 4.7 Contribution of programmes towards youth employment

	Contribution	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Provisions of skills and knowledge employers insist on	70	60.1
2.	Provision of knowledge and skills for self-employment	30	26.1
3.	Incorporating job specifications into training	10	8.7
4.	Provision of practical skills	5	4.3
	Total	**115**	**100**

From the tabulated results, the most common contribution of the programmes towards youth employment is the provision of knowledge and skills that employers insist on (60.1%). Others include provision of knowledge and skills for self-employment (26.1%), incorporating the job specification into training (8.7%) and provision of practical skills.

The skills and knowledge variable was correlated with access to employment and the direction and size of relationship determined. The variables were found to be varying in the same direction, indicating a positive relationship. This implies that skills and knowledge determine a trainee's access to employment including self employment. The skills and knowledge were further correlated with employer's expectations, and the result was a positive correlation indicating that two variables vary in the same direction. This also suggested that any training programme needs to incorporate the knowledge and skills that employers ask for in a job interview, job adverts etc. Moreover, employer's specifications need to be built into training since these specifications determine the trainee's prospects after training.

4.3.4. Challenges faced by institutions in their quest for market relevant courses

The study attempted to establish the challenges faced by the polytechnics in their quest for market relevant courses. The rationale behind this objective was that if the challenges are addressed, then the institutions will succeed in their quest for market relevant courses. Various challenges were identified and their respective frequency and percentages determined.

Table 4.8 Challenges in the quest for market relevant courses

	Challenge	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Ever-changing job market demands	20	17.4
2.	Insufficient training personnel	70	60.9
3.	Insufficient feedback from previous employers	20	17.4
	Total	**115**	**100**

The most pressing challenge from the results is the insufficient training resources and personnel (60.9%). Others include the ever-changing job market demands (17.4%) and insufficient feedback from previous employers (17.4%).

The respondents were asked to rate the adequacy of training personnel, which they rated as inadequate. The adequacy of training resources was correlated with employment opportunities, and a negative relationship was established. This implies that the more the inadequacy of the training resources the less the accessibility of the knowledge and skills employers want, hence the less the chances of employment.

The feedback from previous employers was also wanting. A small number of respondents (30%) mentioned the availability of feedback from previous employers concerning their expectations of a successful job candidate. The scanty feedback from previous employers was correlated with the course content and the variables suggested a non-directional relationship, meaning that the variables do not vary in the same direction. The result is that employers' feedback is never built into the course content every time the curriculum is revised. Thus the basis of syllabus revision was found wanting.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction

The findings of chapter four are further summarized here with a view to crystallize the specific findings in relation to the research objectives. The findings are presented completely with their statistics. The conclusion is then drawn based on the findings and in order to answer the research objectives. The researcher then provides recommendations made to improve the quality of educational programmes of Youth Polytechnic in their quest for market relevance based on the study's findings.

5.2 Summary of the findings

5.2.1 General Information

The findings of this work have been derived from the objectives and answers to the research questions. In retrospect, the study sought to test the following hypotheses:-

(i) There is no significant relationship between the youth polytechnic programme levels and their market relevance.

(ii) There is no significant relationship between the determinants of the programmes relevancy and youth employment opportunities.

(iii) There is no significant relationship between the youth polytechnic programmes and the employment opportunities.

(iv) There is no significant relationship between the quest for market relevant programmes and the challenges associated with such quest.

5.2.2. Relationship between the programme levels and their market relevance

While testing this hypothesis, the programme levels were identified as trade test, craft and diploma. It was established that a majority of the trainees were enrolled in trade test level (100%) compared to craft (0%) and diploma (0%). The variable market relevance was determined by the case with which trainees' access employment opportunities. The variable programme level was further correlated with access to employment opportunities. There was no correlation between programme level and access to employment opportunities. The lack of correlation is attributed to the existence of distort variables such as nepotism, bribery etc. Essentially, the higher the programme level the high the chances of getting employed.

5.2.3 Relationship between the determinants of programme relevance and the Employment opportunities

While testing this hypothesis, the determinants of programme market relevance were first identified as programme content (65.2%), job advert (8.7%), job interviews (8.7%) information from former students (8.7%) and the number of students employed (8.7%). The variable employment opportunities were correlated with the determinants of programme market relevancy. It was established that the correlation was with programme content (65.1%), followed by job advert, job interview, information from former students and number of students employed at 8.7%% each.

5.2.4 Relationship between the programmes and youth employment

While testing this hypothesis, the programmes contribution to employment was determined. The contribution of the programmes was identified as provision of skills and knowledge employers want (60.1%), provision of knowledge and skills for self-employment (26.1%), incorporating job specifications into training (8.7%) and provision of practical skills (4.3%). Each of these contributions was correlated with employment opportunities. It was established that correlation was high when the programme contains the skills employers want (60.1%), followed by that when the knowledge and skills lead to self-employment (26.1%) and when the programmes incorporate job specifications and practical skills (8.7%) and (4.3%) respectively. The higher the correlation value, the stronger the relationship.

5.2.5. Relationship between quest for employment and the challenges associated with such Quest

The youth polytechnics had made various efforts in their quest to offer market relevant courses. However, these efforts had been met with various challenges. While testing this hypothesis, the challenges were identified as the ever-changing job market demands, insufficient training resources and insufficient feedback from previous employers.

Each of the above challenges was correlated with employment opportunities. The variable employment opportunities were qualified by market relevance. The correlation value was high for insufficient training resources (60.9%) followed by ever-changing job market demands and insufficient feedback from previous employers (17.4%) and (17.4%) respectively.

5.3. Conclusion

Having tested the hypotheses, the section draws conclusions concerning the relationship between the variables in this study, based on the objectives and research questions.

The study has established that there is correlation between youth polytechnic programme levels and the market relevance or employment opportunities, since a programme level cannot be relevant in the job market and fail to offer employment opportunities to the trainees. The study thus concludes that the higher the programme level, the higher the chances of access to employment.

The study has also established a correlation between employment determinants and access to employment opportunities. When the determinants of employment are built into a programme, the programme is enriched and thus suitable for employment. The more the determinant of employment is integrated into the youth polytechnic programmes, the more the programmes become marketable and thus the more they enhance the trainees' access to the employment opportunities. The correlation between programmes and employment opportunities has also been determined. It was established that when the required knowledge and skills (by employers) are incorporated into the programme, and when the job specifications are known; and when the programmes provide knowledge and skills for self-employment, then the access to employment is enhanced.

5.4. Recommendations

Based on the findings, the study wishes to make the following recommendations:-

(i) There is need to review regularly the programmes offered by youth polytechnics to make them more relevant to the job market. This can be done by incorporating employers' specifications and requirements in the respective courses.

(ii) The youth polytechnics reported insufficient resources for training (human, material, equipment, finance) etc. The youth polytechnics need to beef up their training resources base by conducting a resource audit internally and provide specifications for meeting the deficit.

(iii) While designing the curriculum for training youth polytechnics, there is need to incorporate the instructors' views and inputs from trainees who have gone through the training process.

(iv) The dearth of instruments to facilitate youth entrepreneurship in Kenya is in part due to this narrowness of perception regarding the nature of entrepreneurship, but also due to the lack of empirical knowledge of the young entrepreneur's experience and their assistance needs. In Kenya, activities to address this knowledge gap are a necessary precursor to effective policy developments in the field. This would help prevent policy becoming fragmented and focused on addressing short-term rather than long-term youth employment issues. It would also ensure that 'young entrepreneurs' are

viewed in their own right – with the potential for different behaviors from that of other entrepreneurs.

(v) The lack of integration and institutionalization of current 'youth' policy means that the young as a group are being trapped in the zones between existing organizations that either cooperate or compete with each other in terms of often-scarce resources. There is need only for careful programme evaluation and exploratory work on the needs of young business owners so that situation is able to change so that cooperative connections can be established at both a micro (individual) and macro (policy and service provision) level

(vi) The development of YPs should be streamlined into the proposed Technical, Industrial, Vocational Education and Training (TIVET) structure, which is expected to oversee the national skill straining system and provide avenue for advancement to higher levels of training.

(vii) The quality of training programmes in existing YPs should be done in a similar manner as it is in primary and secondary schools so that they can develop into constituency centers of excellence. These centers could also be used by MSEs Jua Kalis to improve their technological capabilities.

(viii) The staffing levels in YPs should be upgraded to a minimum of a diploma, and managers should have at least a higher national diploma qualification. Upgrade the caliber of the current managers and give them both management and entrepreneurial who are trainable to acquire new grades, skills and instructive to enable them join approved scheme of service. Instructive training and industrial experience should be mandatory for all instructors.

(ix) In order to enhance entrepreneurship development in Kenya, there is need for a collaborative effort among all the key partners to formulate a more comprehensive entrepreneurship program catering for the needs of every potential entrepreneur, including pupils in schools, school leavers, and rural women. The education system and entrepreneurship training should be integrated so that young people are exposed to enterprise culture and actual business operations in their formative years. The government needs to take a lead role in coordinating training in order to maximize resources. Efforts to promote enterprise culture should take into account cultural backgrounds of communities by, for example, utilizing the business opportunity profiles developed at district level. There is also need for more enhanced participation by the private sector through fiscal incentives and the design of more demand-driven programs that encourage cost sharing and thereby increase sustainability.

5.5 Suggestions for further research

Since this research zeroed in on the relevance of youth polytechnics programmes towards youth employment in Chepkorio and Iten youth polytechnics of Keiyo district**.** It would be necessary for a further study to be carried out in other related areas to supplement the findings. The study recommends the following areas for further research:-

(i) The challenges facing the youth polytechnics in the quest to provide job market relevant courses.

(ii) Factors affecting employment prospect of youth polytechnic graduates

(iii) A similar study can be undertaken in other districts of Kenya to determine relevance and competence of training in youth polytechnics.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

RESEARCHER: HOSEAH KIPLAGAT

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE PROJECT MANAGERS, INSTRUCTORS, TRAINEES, EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYEES

INTRODUCTION

I am a student of Moi University undertaking a master of Philosophy degree in school of Education (Technology Education (Electrical Option**)**). I am conducting a research study entitled ‘an assessment of the relevance of Youth Polytechnics programmes towards youth employment a case study of Chepkorio and Iten Youth polytechnics in Keiyo District’ as part of the requirement of this degree. This questionnaire therefore is to help me collect information from you for purely academic purpose. You are therefore kindly requested to participate and respond as best as you can to items in the questionnaire. The information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will be used only for the purpose of this study.

SECTION A: RESPONDENTS’ DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1) Indicate your gender by appropriately ticking in the box.

Male ☐

Female ☐

2) Select your age bracket from the choices given (Tick in the appropriate box).

12 – 17 years ☐

18 – 25 yeas ☐

26 – 30 years ☐

30 – 34 years ☐

Over 35 years ☐

Other, specify----------

3) Indicate your relationship with the Youth Polytechnic

Student ☐

Instructor ☐

Project manager ☐

Community member ☐

Potential or prospective Employer ☐

Other, specify----------

4) Based on your relationship with the Youth Polytechnic, for how long have you known the Polytechnic?

For one year ☐

For two years ☐

For three years ☐

For four years ☐

For over four years ☐

Other, specify----------

5) Based on your knowledge of the Youth Polytechnic, for how long has the institution been in training

For the last one year ☐

For the last two years ☐

For the last three years ☐

For the last four years ☐

For over four years now ☐

Other, specify----------

6 a) For trainees only

For how long has been training in this Polytechnic?

Last three months ☐

Last six months ☐

Last one year ☐

Last two years ☐

Last three years ☐

Other, specify----------

b) For instructors only:-

(i) For how long have you been an instructor in this Polytechnic?

Last three months ☐

Last six months ☐

Last one year ☐

Last two years ☐

Last three years ☐

Other, specify----------

(ii) What is your highest level of training?

Craft ☐

Diploma ☐

Higher Diploma ☐

Degree ☐

Masters ☐

Other, specify----------

(iii) Indicate the area in which you're specialized as an instructor?

Carpentry and joinery ☐

Masonry ☐

Welding ☐

Motor vehicle mechanics ☐

Electrical Engineering ☐

Other, specify----------

c) For project managers:

(i) Indicate your highest level of training

Diploma ☐

Higher Diploma ☐

Degree ☐

Masters ☐

Other, specify----------

(ii) For how long have you been a project manager?

For last three months ☐

Last six months ☐

Last one year ☐

Last two years ☐

Last 3 –4 years ☐

For over 5 years now ☐

Other, specify----------

B. SPECIFIC INFORMATION

1) From the list provided, select the programme levels available in the Youth Polytechnic

Trade Test ☐

Artisan ☐

Craft ☐

Diploma ☐

Higher Diploma ☐

Other, specify----------

2) Based on the programme levels selected, tick in the appropriate box to indicate the courses offered in this Youth Polytechnic?

Driving ☐

Motor vehicle mechanics ☐

Welding ☐

Electrical installation / Engineering ☐

Masonry ☐

Carpentry and joinery ☐

Tailoring and dress making ☐

Any other, list:-

(i) ----------

(ii)----------

(iii)----------

(iv)----------

(v)----------

3) From the courses reselected, provide a list of the examining bodies. (Select from the list).

Kenya Nation Exams Council ☐

The Youth Polytechnic ☐

Any other, specify ☐

4) Indicate the availability of the curriculum for training

Available ☐

Not available ☐

Not aware of its availability ☐

Available but not in the institution. ☐

Other, specify----------

5) How often is the curriculum revised?

Once a year ☐

After every two years ☐

After every 3-4 years ☐

After every five years ☐

Not aware ☐

Other, specify----------

6) Who designs the curriculum for training in the courses offered-?

Relevant ministry ☐

Kenya Institute of Education ☐

Course instructors ☐

Other, specify----------

7) From the list below, select the factors that determine the market relevance of a programme?

Programme content ☐

Job advert ☐

Questions asked during interview ☐

Information from former trainees ☐

Employers' specifications ☐

Current demand for the course ☐

Number of former students employed ☐

Information in admission related documents e.g. brochure, preceptors profiles, documentaries etc. ☐

Other, specify----------

8) Based on the information from your experience, where have former students been employed?

Local authorities ☐

Parastatals ☐

NGOS ☐

Government ministries ☐

Private companies ☐

Any other, specify:

(i) ----------

(ii)----------

(iii)----------

(iv)----------

(v)----------

9) On average, how many students are employed after completion of training

One student ☐

Two students ☐

Three – four students ☐

Over five students ☐

Other, specify----------

10) In what particular ways do other programmes contribute to Youth Employment?

Provision of skills and knowledge employers insist on ☐

Provision of knowledge for self employment ☐

Incorporation into training the job specifications in newspaper adverts ☐

Provision for practical taking while undertaking the course ☐

11) The Polytechnic usually faces a number of challenges in their quest for market relevance courses.

Failure to incorporate the instructors' views in the designing of curricular for training ☐

The ever – changing job market demands ☐

Insufficient training resources and personnel ☐

Insufficient feedback from previous employers ☐

Insufficient funds for research studies on employers' expectations of trainee's knowledge and skills ☐

Insufficient time for organizing career talks with prospective employers. ☐

12) Which policy do you suggest should be adopted for effective operations of youth polytechnics?----------

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Thank you for your precious time

APPENDIX 1I

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PROJECT MANAGERS

I am a student of Moi University undertaking a master of Philosophy degree in school of Education (Technology Education (Electrical Option**)**). I am conducting a research study entitled ‘an assessment of the relevance of Youth Polytechnics programmes towards youth employment a case study of Chepkorio and Iten Youth polytechnics in Keiyo District’ as part of the requirement of this degree. This interview questions therefore is to help me collect information from you for purely academic purpose. You are therefore kindly requested to participate in the interview schedule and respond as best as you can to the interview questions. The information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will be used only for the purpose of this study.

1) Could you kindly describe the nature of workshops in your institution?
2) What are the things you like most about youth polytechnics’ programmes?
3) What are the things you don’t like most about youth polytechnic are programmes?
4) How do you rate the technical capability of your instructor towards preparing trainees to the world of work?
5) What can you say concerning the admission and completion rate of trainees in your institution?
6) Which courses are offered in your institution?
7) Is there an ICT component within the youth polytechnic programmes?
8) What is the employment rate of the trainees from the youth’s Polytechnic?
9) What are the some of the challenges that face the trainees in the world of work? Kindly give reasons.
10) Do you think the youth polytechnic programmes prepare the trainees adequately for employment?
11) If YES in 10 above, briefly describe.
12) If NO in 10 above, what are your recommendations towards the improvement of youth polytechnics programmes?

APPENDIX 1II

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE AND FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR INSTRUCTORS

I am a student of Moi University undertaking a master of Philosophy degree in school of Education (Technology Education (Electrical Option**)**). I am conducting a research study entitled ‘an assessment of the relevance of Youth Polytechnics programmes towards youth employment a case study of Chepkorio and Iten Youth polytechnics in Keiyo District’ as part of the requirement of this degree. This interview questions therefore is to help me collect information from you for purely academic purpose. You are therefore kindly requested to participate in the interview schedule and respond as best as you can to the interview questions. The information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will be used only for the purpose of this study.

1) How do you rate the nature of your workshop(s) in your institution?
2) What are the things you like most about youth polytechnics’ programmes?
3) What are the things you don’t like most about the polytechnics’ programmes?
4) What is your view concerning youth employment as result of Youth polytechnic programmes?
5) What are some experiences do the trainees go through during their industrial attachment?
6) Do you think youth polytechnics’ programmes are preparing the trainees adequately for the world of work?
7) If YES in 6 above, briefly describe.
8) If NO in 6 above, what are your recommendations towards the improvement of youth polytechnics programmes?

APPENDIX 1V

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR THE MEMBERS OF THE COMMUNITY

I am a student of Moi University undertaking a master of Philosophy degree in school of Education (Technology Education (Electrical Option**)**). I am conducting a research study entitled ‘an assessment of the relevance of Youth Polytechnics programmes towards youth employment a case study of Chepkorio and Iten Youth polytechnics in Keiyo District’ as part of the requirement of this degree. This interview questions therefore is to help me collect information from you for purely academic purpose. You are therefore kindly requested to participate in the interview schedule and respond as best as you can to the interview questions. The information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will be used only for the purpose of this study.

1) Could you kindly describe briefly what you know about existence of YPs?
2) What are the things you like most about Youth polytechnics’ programmes?
3) What are the things you don’t like most about Youth Polytechnic’s programmes?
4) Do what extend do the trainees of Youth Polytechnic contribute to the society? (i) Positively (ii) negatively.
5) Do you think Youth Polytechnic’s programmes prepare the trainees adequately to the world of work?
6) If YES in 5 above, briefly describe.
7) If NO in 5 above, what are some of your recommendation towards the improvement of the Youth Polytechnic’s Programmes?
8) What are some of the challenges that face the trainees of the youth Polytechnics after their completion that ought to be noted?

APPENDIX V

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR EMPLOYERS

I am a student of Moi University undertaking a master of Philosophy degree in school of Education (Technology Education (Electrical Option**)**). I am conducting a research study entitled ‘an assessment of the relevance of Youth Polytechnics programmes towards youth employment a case study of Chepkorio and Iten Youth polytechnics in Keiyo District’ as part of the requirement of this degree. This interview questions therefore is to help me collect information from you for purely academic purpose. You are therefore kindly requested to participate in the interview schedule and respond as best as you can to the interview questions. The information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will be used only for the purpose of this study.

1) Could you kindly give a brief description of your company?
2) What are the things you like most about the trainees from Youth polytechnic?
3) What are the things you don’t like most about the trainees of Youth Polytechnics?
4) How many are the employees from the youth Polytechnic?
5) How frequently do you employ the trainees from the youth polytechnic?
6) In what areas of training do you take the trainees of Youth polytechnic from (e.g. plumbing, tailoring etc)?
7) How do you rate the competence of the trainees from the youth polytechnic?
8) According to your rating, what level of employment do you place the trainees from youth polytechnics?
9) Do you consider computer literacy as requirement in your employment?
10) What are some of the staff development initiatives in your company/ institution which are given to the employees?
11) What improvements would you like to see in Youth polytechnic’s programmes? Please give your recommendations.

APPENDIX VI

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE AND FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR TRAINEES

I am a student of Moi University undertaking a master of Philosophy degree in school of Education (Technology Education (Electrical Option**)**). I am conducting a research study entitled ‘an assessment of the relevance of Youth Polytechnics programmes towards youth employment a case study of Chepkorio and Iten Youth polytechnics in Keiyo District as part of the requirement of this degree. This interview questions therefore is to help me collect information from you for purely academic purpose. You are therefore kindly requested to participate in the interview schedule and respond as best as you can to the interview questions. The information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will be used only for the purpose of this study.

1) Could you kindly mention the courses/ programmes you are undertaking?
2) How do you rate the nature of your workshop (s)?
3) What are the things you like most about studying in a youth polytechnic?
4) What are the things you don’t like most about studying in youth polytechnic?
5) What do you intend to do after completing your course?
6) Do you do any computer course?
7) If YES / NO in above in 6, above; how is it useful towards the development of your career?
8) What impact has Youth polytechnic’s programmes caused in your life since you started the course?(i)positive (ii) negative
9) What were your experiences during your industrial attachment?
10) Do you think youth Polytechnic programmes are preparing you adequately towards the world of your work?
11) If YES in 10 above, briefly describe.
12) If NO in 10 above, what are some of your recommendation towards the improvement of the Youth Polytechnic’s Programmes?

APPENDIX VII

No	**OBSERVATIONS**	YP1		YP 2		YP 3		YP 4		YP 5		YP 6		YP 7		YP 8		YP 9	
		Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N
1.	Availability of physical infrastructure																		
2.	Adequate plans for general improvement																		
3.	Sufficient workshop attendants																		
4.	Internship links with employer - documentary evidence to support																		
5.	Adoption of new curriculum and syllabi																		
6.	Availability of reference textbooks																		
7.	Availability of suitable tools &equipment																		
8.	Tools and equipment in good working conditions																		
9.	All department operating as expected																		
10.	Community financial support- evidence of support																		
11.	Govt financial support- evidence to proof																		
12.	NGO financial support-evidence to proof																		
13.	Church financial support- evidence to proof																		
14.	Available of credit facilities for graduates to start own business																		
15.	Available of modern and serviceable equipment																		
16.	Adequate workshops																		
17.	Assurance of business and employment opportunity for graduates																		
18.	Sufficiency of teaching staff																		
19.	Sub-contracting documentary proof																		
20.	Adequate qualified teaching staff																		

PERSONAL OBSERVATION LISTS

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