EFFECTIVENESS OF GOVERNMENT POLICY INTERVENTIONS TOWARDS ENHANCED ACCESS TO PRE-PRIMARY AND PRIMARY EDUCATION BY STREET CHILDREN IN SELECTED URBAN AREAS IN NORTH RIFT, KENYA

BY

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DECLARATION

Declaration by student

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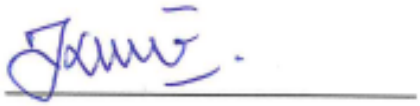

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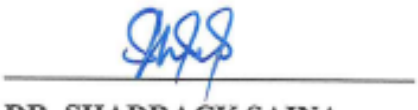

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my loving and supportive wife Veronica Chepkosgei Tuwei and my children Collins Kipkemboi Rono, Vianne Chebichii Lagat, Prudence Chepkoech Lagat, Abel Kiplimo Yego and Mitchel Cheruto Lagat for their patience, belief in me, and constant encouragement during the most challenging times. I also dedicate this achievement to my parents; Peter Kiplagat arap Baiywa (late) and Elizabeth Chesanga Kiplagat for planting the seed of education in me during my tender age and always supporting me through this endeavour. I also dedicate this achievement to my immediate relatives for their individual and collective unwavering support, love, and encouragement that have carried me through this journey.

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ABSTRACT

Many nations world over strive to achieve Education for All (EFA) for its citizens, a service considered to be the best building block for every society. Studies reveals that achievement of access to education by street children has been elusive in most countries. Kenyan Government has continued to foster development and implementation of policy interventions towards enhanced access to education by all children. Studies however reveal that notwithstanding heavy government funding on policy interventions, many street children are still out of school. The purpose of this study was to examine effectiveness of Government policy interventions towards enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children as addressed by the following objectives: to examine policy interventions aimed at enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children, and to evaluate the extent to which the Government policy interventions have enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children. The study was informed by programme theory as proposed by Weiss and used Mixed Methods Research; concurrent triangulation design approach, and pragmatism philosophical paradigm. The study sample comprised of street children, County Directors of Education, Quality Assurance Officers, officers in the department of children welfare, teachers in public primary schools, Non-Governmental Organizations and Community-Based Organizations working with street children within the selected urban centers. Quantitative data was collected through questionnaires while qualitative data was collected through interviews and observation guides and analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics and thematic analysis respectively. The analysis showed that majority of the teachers agreed that Government policy interventions had not effectively enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children. Majority of the respondents felt that policy interventions were not adequate and that supervision of the implementation process needed to be enhanced. Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.711 was obtained which indicated that there was statistically significant relationship between Government policy interventions and access to pre-primary and primary education by street children. Anova test gave a p value = 0.773 indicating that there was no statistically significant mean difference between Government policy interventions and enrolment by street children in pre-primary and primary education. The study also revealed that roles of other stakeholders towards enhancing access to education by street children needed to be supported and synergies with Government interventions be strengthened. The study concluded that enhancing effectiveness of policy interventions, implementation process and informed support to vulnerable families to mitigate factors contributing to emergence of street children need to addressed in order to promote access to education by street children. The study recommended that Government should strengthen policy implementation and supervision framework and work on mitigating social challenges that contribute to children opting for street life.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
UNFPA	United Nations Family Planning Association
VEG	Village Exchange Ghana
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationists
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
KEDAHR	Kenyan-Danish Research Project
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
KARDS	Kenya African Research Development Studies
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
CSC	Consortium of “street children”
APBE&T	Alternative Provision for Basic Education & Training
FDSE	Free Day Secondary Education
EMIS	Education Management Information System
UNICEF	United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund
NFE	Non-Formal Education
CSOs	Civil Society Organizations
CDE	County Director of Education
CASC	Catholic Action for “street children”
UBEP	Undugu Basic Education Program
DAE	Department of Adult Education
MHA	Ministry of Home Affairs
KIE	Kenya Institute of Education
DCS	Department of Children Services
GTC	German Technical Cooperation
SFP	School Feeding Program
HVS	Home Village Society
ILO	International Labour Organization
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
TANF	Temporary Assistance to Needy Families
PP1	Pre-Primary One
PP2	Pre-Primary Two

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

This chapter covers the background of the concept of street children and Government policy interventions towards enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children. It provides statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research objectives and research questions that the study sought to answer, statement of hypotheses, justification, significance and assumptions of the study. It also covers scope of the study, limitations and theoretical and conceptual framework.

1.2 Background to the Study

The problem of children living in the streets is a worldwide phenomenon. Many cities and urban centers of the world have become a haven of survival for many children in distress (Boakye-Boaten 2008). The United Nations estimates the population of children on the streets worldwide to be around 150 million with the number rising daily. Of these, 20 million are in Africa, 40 million in Latin America, 25 to 30 million in Asia while 25 million are in other parts of the world (UNICEF, 1999; Casa Alianza, 2002). The more recent figures from UNESCO estimates the worldwide number of children in the street situations at around 300 million. Among these, 70 million are in Africa and the figure accelerates as the world population rises (UNESCO, 2019).

Education is a fundamental human right and is the key to unlocking the doors out of poverty situation. International policy agendas, such as the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) prioritize universal access to quality education, positioning school as

the place where children belong and education—heralded as improving outcomes and life changes—as a panacea for poverty (Kaneva and Corcoran 2020).

According to Povian, Gurza, & Dumitrescu, (2014), education is undoubtedly one of the greatest aspects of social development that is greatly emphasized in the world. Giving special attention to the way we educate and form all our children of school-going age is important and it affects the future generations' achievements or failures. Because of this therefore, quality education to all children should be affordable and prioritized because children are the hope for the country's development (Boholano, 2013).

Importance of education is clearly stated in the Article 31 of Constitution of Indonesia, which indicates that every citizen has the right to get an education. Furthermore, Article 34 says that compulsory education is the responsibility of the state, particularly public educational institutions, Local Governments, and communities. In line with Al-Dien (2009), the Convention on the Rights of the Child is clear that every child has the right to quality education that is relevant to his or her individual life and personal development. This requirement of quality education to children therefore includes children in the streets.

Street children are an old social problem in the world. UNESCO estimates the worldwide number of children in the street situations at 300 million. Among these, 70 million are in Africa and the figure accelerates as the world population rises (UNESCO, 2019). It is envisaged by Action International (2010) as cited by (Goyal, 2015) that by the Year 2030, the number of street children will increase to eight hundred million.

There are many institutions at the international, regional and national level which are concerned with street children and their social welfare. UNICEF for instance has developed an integrated child protection system that seeks to ensure that street children access education and health care services. The organization is keen in bringing on board various stakeholders to address the problem of street children (UNICEF, 2010).

Governments have responsibility of providing an enabling environment for children of school-going age to have access to quality basic education and therefore needs to be in the forefront in designing enablers that will include policies and their corresponding intervention measures (IBE- UNESCO, 2017).

According to Goodman et al. (2016), the number of children living on the street in Kenya was estimated to be 250,000. As stated by Goodman et al, there has been increasing attention to the presence of the children living on the streets in Kenya, mainly in major urban areas of Nairobi and Western Kenya (Goodman et al. 2017). According to Kenya's 2018 National Census of Street Families, 46,639 street families live in all cities and towns of Kenya. The numbers of street families in the North Rift indicated Uasin Gishu county leading with 2,147, 299 in Trans Nzoia, 428 in Samburu, 244 in Turkana, 187 in Elgeyo Marakwet and 191 in West Pokot County. Children of school-going age forms 36% of the population of street families (The National census report on street families GOK, 2018).

Kenyan Government has supported programs geared towards enhancing access to education by street children through formulation of relevant policy interventions. Among them are the free primary education policy, pre-primary education policy,

inclusive education policy, inclusive education policy, special needs education policy and non-formal education policy among others.

Free Primary Education policy of 2003 in Kenya was a major milestone in the country's education system as it opened the doors for children who would otherwise have missed a chance to receive education and improve their lives. It was presumed that Free Primary Education would guarantee access to primary education, equity, quality and relevance to all children of school-going age (GOK, 2004). To realize this, the government was expected to provide the minimum necessary facilities and resources to enable children of school-going age to join and remain in school and complete their primary cycle of education. In a nutshell, it was aimed at enhancing enrolment, retention, transition and completion of the education cycles. A record of 1.3 million children registered in various schools across the country, raising the enrolment from 5.9 million in 2002 to 7.2 million in 2003 (GOK, 2003).

The implementation of Free Primary Education (FPE) in 2003 led to an influx and inclusion of new categories of Special Needs Children such as autistic children, those with down syndrome, cerebral palsy, locomotor impairment, maladjusted children, multiple handicapped children and gifted and talented learners in public schools (GOK, 2009). The Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 underscored the importance of Special Needs Education as human capital development that empowers those most likely to be marginalized to participate in mainstream education sector. Indeed, street children are marginalized by the nature of life they go through in the streets. They have been exposed to drug abuse and ended up being maladjusted children hence special case.

In a study on realizing street children's right to education, Uthayakumar stated that children in the street situations phenomenon are becoming a complete global problem and each country around the globe has encountered this growing phenomenon. Because of their way of life in the streets, such children live a very vulnerable life situations. They are traumatized and underprivileged in terms of access to social services including education opportunities (Uthayakumar, 2019).

Inclusive education policy is also one of the government policy interventions aimed at making sure that all children of school-going-age are enrolled in schools. In research by Uthayakumar in 2019, it was indicated that street children were among the world's hardest-to-reach children who were not able to be included in mainstream schools and encountered high school drop-outs. Despite a commendable progress and rising rates in the enrolment in primary schools estimated at 91%, this excludes information on children in the streets whereas they are not also included in the 9% that are not enrolled in school (Uthayakumar, 2019).

A study done by Mwarari in 2020 revealed different indicators of inclusive practices and among the mentioned were availability of adapted curricula and support curriculum materials, availability of sufficient resources to support inclusion and enrolment of special needs learners in regular schools (Mwarari, 2020). Inclusive practices should provide for alternative ways of accessing education by learners whose prevailing conditions would otherwise deny them an opportunity to access education. Dutta (2020) in a study on access of street children to education and health in 2018 stated that the challenge of main streaming street children was indeed difficult for social interventions (Dutta, 2020). Inclusive education policy therefore is

expected to provide for flexibility in provision of education and to lower the cost of provision of education.

The Constitution of Kenyan 2010 provides for all children's right to free and compulsory basic education which means that all school-going age children ideally should be attending school. This therefore means that even the children from the very disadvantaged families or backgrounds including those in the streets should have an opportunity to go to school as per this statute but the contrary is true.

This constitutional dispensation and other education policy interventions by the Government coupled with the United Nations conventions on the rights of the child and the Africa charter on the rights and welfare of the child ideally should be providing an enabling environment for all children of school-going age to attend school. International community had reaffirmed its commitment to ensuring universal primary education access and retention by year 2015 during the World Educational forum held in Dakar in April 2000. The UN Secretary General, in his vision statement during the Transforming Education Summit 2022, observed that: "Education is a fundamental human right. It has long held a special place in the hearts and minds of people across the world, and for good reasons". Throughout history therefore, education has been a source of personal dignity and empowerment and a driving force for the advancement of social, economic, political, and cultural development. Yet today, beset by inequalities and struggling to adjust to the needs of the 21st century, education for all and especially for the disadvantaged groups of children including the street children is still a mirage. With the foregoing statement in mind, foundational skills are essential to fulfilling children's rights to quality education as articulated in Sustainable Development Goal 4 on: ensuring inclusive and equitable quality

education and promoting lifelong learning opportunities for all. This, in essence, means that every child should be able to complete primary school and achieve at least minimum proficiency in reading and numeracy, among other 21st Century skills. This will enable them to attain personal dignity and be empowered to contribute meaningfully to sustainable development.

In the 21st Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers (CCEM) held in Nairobi, Kenya in 2022, it was acknowledged that Education lays the foundation for personal and social development, responsible action and good citizenship. It is a human right and the best guarantee against unemployment and poverty. But for our communities and societies to reap these benefits, we need high-quality and inclusive education systems. The conference reiterated commitment to leave no one behind and to ensure that resources are made available in an equitable way for an improved and resilient education system that caters for the needs of all learners, including girls, marginalized and vulnerable groups, and those with special learning needs. The conditions under which street children live puts them in the category of the vulnerable groups and hence should be given preference in the provision of education.

Kenyan Government over years has recognized the importance of providing education to all children of school-going age in its development agenda and has devoted considerable resources to develop policy interventions to facilitate achievement of the intended goals. The sector has continuously received high allocation in the Government's annual budget. This budgetary allocation in comparison to the whole budget in the recent past indicates substantial allocation of the total national budget of 17.35% in 2016, 17.71% in 2017, 19.04% in 2018, and

18.52% in the year 2019. In 2022/23 financial year, education sector was allocated 544.4 billion shillings (World Bank, 2023).

Indeed, Kenya has made enormous progress in expanding education access in pre-primary and primary education since 1990s with an intention of bringing on board all children of school-going age. Yet questions still remain unanswered about the very many street children who are still out of school and who are found in the streets of the major cities (IBE- UNESCO, 2017).

The global phenomenon of street children has escalated into a significant social concern, with the United Nations estimating over 150 million children living on the streets worldwide. A majority of these children are deprived of their right to education, contravening the principles enshrined in the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4, Target 5, which calls for the elimination of disparities in education access among marginalized populations. As a signatory to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC), the Kenyan government has initiated policy interventions targeting universal access to pre-primary and primary education. Despite budgetary allocations and legal frameworks, a considerable number of street children in urban areas, particularly in North Rift Kenya, remain out of school. This study sought to evaluate the effectiveness of the governmental efforts in improving educational access for street children and to identify the underlying challenges hindering successful policy implementation.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Kenyan Government has continued to invest heavily in education sector with the main target being to make sure that all children of school-going age attend school and

get quality education. On average, Kenya's education budget is about 5% of the Country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and out of this, the basic level of education takes about 22% of the total budget. This indeed is a heavy investment that its effect in terms of access to education and especially basic education by all school-going-age children should be achieved.

Kenyan Government has also undertaken several intervention measures to address the challenges of access to pre-primary and primary education by all children. Although the Government has instituted these policies aimed at ensuring universal access to basic education, persistent exclusion of street children from formal education raises questions about the effectiveness of these interventions. Barely all street children in Kenyan cities and urban centers are out of school. Ideally, these policy interventions should make it easy for street children to attend school.

According to Goodman et al. (2016), the number of children living on the street in Kenya was estimated to be 250, 000. Goodman noted that there has been increasing attention to the presence of the children living on streets in Kenya, mainly in major urban areas of Nairobi and Western Kenya (Goodman et al. 2017). Statistics held by children's department in Eldoret office gave the number of street children in Eldoret town to be around 1,900 (GOK report, 2018). In its national census of street families' report 2018, the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection, State Department of Social Protection showed that the North Rift alone had 3,648 street families. With the increasing budgetary commitments and a growing population of street children in the North Rift region, it is imperative to assess whether government policies are achieving their intended goals. This study addresses the gap by evaluating policy effectiveness and identifying barriers to successful implementation.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to evaluate effectiveness of Government policy interventions towards enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in Kenyan North Rift region. The study took place in the three towns of Eldoret, Kapsabet and Kitale in the North Rift region.

1.5. Specific Research Objectives

1. To examine Government policy interventions aimed at enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in Kenya.

2. To evaluate the extent to which the National Pre-primary Education Policy has enhanced access to education by street children in Kenya

3. To Assess how Free Primary Education Policy has enhanced access to education by street children.in Kenya

4. To analyse how Inclusive Education has enhanced access to education by street children in Kenya

5. To evaluate how the Special Needs Education Policy has enhanced access to education by street children in Kenya

1.6 Research Questions

1. Which Government policy interventions on access to education have enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in Kenya?
2. To what extent has the National Pre-primary Education Policy enhanced access to education by street children in Kenya?

3. To what extent has Free Primary Education Policy enhanced access to education by street children in Kenya?
4. To what extent has Inclusive Education Policy enhanced access to education by street children in Kenya?
5. To what extent has Special Needs Education Policy enhanced access to education by street children in Kenya?

1.7 Research Hypotheses

In this study on the effectiveness of Government policy interventions on enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in North Rift, the following hypothesis was formulated;

H_{01}: There is no statistically significant relationship between the Government Policy Interventions and access to Pre-primary and Primary Education by street children in Kenya.

1.8 Justification of the study

Despite the universal recognition of education as a fundamental human right, street children remain one of the most marginalized and underserved populations in terms of access to education. Numerous governments and international organizations have implemented policy interventions—ranging from mobile schools and feeding programs to free primary education and inclusive education mandates—to address these barriers. However, the effectiveness of these interventions remains under-researched, particularly in developing countries where street children face complex socio-economic and institutional challenges.

Kenya for example has continuously registered rapid increase in the number of street children in the streets who require immediate attention and urgent response. There has been increasing attention to the presence of the children living on streets in Kenya, mainly in major urban areas of Nairobi and Western Kenya (Goodman et al. 2017). An international charity organization; Consortium of street children (CSC, 2015) gave the number of street children in Kenya to be as high as between 250,000 and 300,000. According to Goodman et al. (2016), the number of children living on the street in Kenya was estimated to be 250, 000. Statistics held by children's department in Eldoret office gave the number of street children in Eldoret town to be around 1,900 (GOK report, 2018). In its national census of street families' report 2018, the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection, State Department of Social Protection showed that the North Rift alone had 3,648 street families (Uasin Gishu County 2,147, Samburu 428, Trans Nzoia 299, Turkana 244, West Pokot 191, Elgeyo Marakwet 187 and Nandi County 152). The same report gave a national average of 36% of the population of street persons to be children of school-going age (The National census report of street families; GOK, 2018).

In a report on HIV prevalence in young people and children living on the streets of Kenya by Paula Braitstein et.al (2018), there were 1,903 persons living in the streets of Eldoret town. Out of these, 766 were children of age 18 years and below whom ideally should be attending school. It is believed that there are between 1,000 and 3,000 street-connected people in and around Eldoret at any time and that this number varies with seasonal changes and migration patterns in this highly mobile population (Braitstein P. 2018). These statistics shows that indeed the number of street children

in urban centres of this region are big and provide justification for a study on their access to basic education.

This study is justified on the grounds that it will fill a critical gap in empirical evidence regarding effectiveness of Government policy intervenetions in enhancing educational access and outcomes for street children. By evaluating the effectiveness of existing interventions, the research will provide policymakers, educators, and other stakeholders with actionable insights to refine or redesign strategies, ensuring resources are allocated to programs that yield measurable improvements. Ultimately, this study would contribute to more equitable education systems and help uphold the rights of vulnerable children to receive quality education.

The use of a mixed methods research design in this study is justified by the complex and multifaceted nature of the research problem. Understanding the effectiveness of Government policy interventions on enhancing access to education for street children requires both quantifiable evidence of outcomes and a deep contextual understanding of the lived experiences of the street children as well as the perceptions of policymakers, policy implementers, educators and other actors.

Quantitative methods are essential for measuring the reach, coverage, and statistical impact of specific interventions, such as enrollment rates, retention, completion or transition. However, these numerical indicators alone cannot fully capture the social, emotional, and structural barriers faced by street children, nor do they explain why certain policies succeed or fail in specific contexts. Qualitative methods—through interviews, focus groups, and observations—provide rich, narrative data that can

uncover underlying factors such as stigma, systemic exclusion, and personal motivations.

By integrating both approaches, mixed methods research offers a more comprehensive, reliable, and nuanced understanding of the issue. This methodological choice enhances the validity of the findings and ensures that policy recommendations are grounded in both evidence and lived realities.

1.9 Significance of the study

The study provided an evaluation of the effectiveness of the Government policy interventions in enhancing access of street children to pre-primary and primary education in North Rift region. The study analysed the challenges encountered during implementation of the policy interventions and offered suggestions on how their effectiveness could be improved further. To the policy makers, the study would provide crucial information on how the policy interventions would contribute to enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children. This then is expected to help inform on the improvement of policy implementation or in the design of subsequent policy interventions and their implementation framework that would best address access to pre-primary and primary education by street children. The study would be significant to all stake holders in education sector as it will give them insights on the challenges faced by policy implementers. The findings of the study would also add knowledge to society about the policy interventions and how they influenced access of street children in pre-primary and primary education and how to make them more effective and responsive to the situations. Finally, the study would provide foundation for further research on issues related to street children and their access to pre-primary and primary education.

1.10 Assumptions of the study

One of the assumptions that was made in this research was that the respondents would give honest and truthful responses. It was also assumed that all the respondents would be reached and that all would be able to respond to the research tools appropriately. Additionally, it was assumed that the responses would be received in good time as per the research schedules and that there would be no delays.

Statistical models in mixed research designs would be accompanied by assumptions as well as the fact that they varied in their strictness. These assumptions generally affected the characteristics of the data, such as distributions, relational trends, and variable types among others.

Mixed methods research (MMR) blends qualitative and quantitative approaches, and carries a unique set of assumptions that guide its design, data collection, analysis, and interpretation. It is often grounded in pragmatism, assuming that research should focus on what works to address a problem, rather than being bound by a single methodology. This research method assumes that qualitative and quantitative methods can provide complementary insights, with each addressing different aspects of a research question. MMR assumes that combining data sources increases the credibility and depth of findings and that data from interviews, surveys and observations can be coherently brought together. It assumes that insights from qualitative and quantitative analyses can be combined or compared meaningfully while validity and reliability can be assessed differently across methods and combined for a holistic view.

1.11 Scope of the Study

The study was done in three urban centers of the North Rift Region of Kenya i.e. Eldoret, Kitale and Kapsabet and the data collection done in the period between 1st and 31st December 2022. It was delimited to these urban centers so that the goals of study could not become impossibly large to complete. The study was also delimited to the stated objectives, research questions and variables as outlined in the respective subsections of the study. Similarly, the study was more concerned with the challenges of access to pre-primary and primary education by street children and the effectiveness of the said policy interventions in addressing their access to education. North Rift region was selected because no such research had been done despite the presence of big numbers of street children who were out of school in the region. Many studies on street children had been conducted in Nairobi and other big cities in the country and none of the same breadth and target group had been carried out in the targeted urban centers and with the same research objectives.

1.12 Limitations of the study

Mixed methods research requires the integration of both qualitative and quantitative approaches, which can be conceptually and practically complex. Designing a study that effectively merges the two was a bit challenging, particularly in aligning the research questions, data collection strategies, and interpretation of results.

Collecting and analyzing both quantitative and qualitative data required more time, personnel, and financial resources. This was a constraint, especially in contexts with limited finances or tight timelines.

Combining findings from qualitative and quantitative strands into a coherent interpretation was another hurdle in dealing with this research method. The researcher

had to ensure methodological rigor in both strands and find meaningful ways to merge the insights, which sometimes offered conflicting or contradictory results. Reporting mixed methods findings in a clear and concise manner was also a challenge, especially within the space constraints of timeframes. It was not easy to present both strands with equal depth and clarity expected.

The study also encountered limitations that included street children being reluctant to give information. It was also difficult to get some of them to respond to the questionnaires accordingly since most of them were illiterate and unable to clearly understand the questions. Most of them spoke Kiswahili language instead. The researcher therefore had to translate the questions to Kiswahili; a language that they understood. It was sometimes difficult to get the actual responses as would have been if the questions were asked in English due to translation distortions. Because of street children hostile nature, it was difficult to work with them and became uncooperative and suspicious. Some of the them were not willing to provide data related to their problems or deliberately gave false information/responses. It was hard to convince them of the intention of the research in a bid to collect information from them. Because of their nature still, street children asked for money in exchange for the information and hence it was not easy to get information from them. Some street children were used to other favours and did not cooperate since they were under the influence of drugs. To counter these limitations, research assistants had to create rapport with them in advance before going in to the field for data collection. At some point, the research assistants had to use some other people within the children's areas of stay whom they were friendly to the children in order to get information needed and to assist in the interpretations of the questionnaires because of language

differences. Lastly, the study suffered from methodological limitation where correlation was used to evaluate effectiveness. However, correlation cannot be taken to stand alone as a definite evidence tool to measure effectiveness; not a substitute for causal methods. There might exist other co-founding variables that might explain the observed correlation.

1.13 Theoretical framework

This study was anchored on programme theory whose proponent was Weiss C.H. (1972). Weiss defines program theory as the mechanisms that mediate between the delivery (and receipt) of the program and the emergence of the outcomes of interest (Weiss, 1998). Program theory uses three components to describe a program: the program activities or inputs, the intended outcomes or outputs, and the mechanisms through which the intended outcomes are achieved (Reynolds, 1998; Rogers, 2000; Rogers et al, 2000; Sedani & Sechrest, 1999). The inputs in this case refers to the resources invested (public funds) in the programme or policy intervention while the output is the expected goals (access to education) to the recipients and the nation at large.

Carol H. Weiss's program theory approach is highly relevant to this study. Her framework provides a structured way to understand how and why a program (or policy) is expected to work, enabling evaluators to go beyond assessing whether a policy worked to understanding how and why it worked (or didn't work). The program theory provides a conceptual and methodological backbone to a study evaluating educational policy interventions for street children. It allows evaluators to trace the causal logic, test the effectiveness of each link in the chain, and ultimately offer insightful, actionable recommendations.

Weiss emphasized the importance of articulating a theory of change or program theory, which maps the pathways between policy inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes, and impacts. It helps in outlining how specific policy interventions are expected to translate into increased school enrolment, completion, transistion and retention in school among street children.

Weiss argues that understanding program theory can expose flaws or weaknesses in the implementation chain of the policy intervention. This in essence helps to detect whether failure to enhance access is due to design flaws or implementation issues. It encourages inclusion of stakeholder perspectives in assessing what is or isn't working and enables identification of assumptions behind the policies.

The requirement that governments be accountable for the investment of public funds makes it more important to demonstrate the merits of a policy intervention and its programmes. In formulating policy interventions, one useful discipline is to use a theoretical model (logic model) or framework that helps articulate how the policy and its programmes and interventions will work, and how the policy is expected to cause the desired effect. Programme theory is often seen as the basis for measuring programme impacts. Logically, the policy formulation phase is the appropriate time to describe the intended impacts of a programme on its beneficiaries; define what will cause impacts, and outline the intervention that is intended to be executed, as well as setting out the inputs and assumptions that would underlie a successful implementation. The theory assist in providing an understanding to stakeholders of what change is expected and why. It is also useful for justifying effort and resources to support policy decision-making.

A rigorous approach to articulating the programme theory, including the expected outcome to the beneficiaries/target groups, is a helpful anchor to the subsequent stages of implementation and evaluation. It is perfectly feasible that programme theory considerations – causality, assumptions and dependencies – need to be addressed during the assessment phase and articulated in the policy formulation documentation.

Programme theory rests on the assumption that new programs, products, and initiatives should be developed and implemented to address specific problems, needs, or gaps that exist in organizations or communities. Another assumption is that programme theory processes should be very beneficial to organizations looking to create or update programs, products, or any other type of initiative. Specifically, it is expected to help stakeholders develop a shared understanding of the need, document specifications as a basis for funding and making it easier to identify successes and challenges, and to ensure that decisions are based on a complete and consistent set of information.

1.14 Model Representation of the Variables

The conceptual framework of the study is underpinned by the United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 4, Target 5, which advocates for inclusive education and elimination of discrimination toward marginalized groups, such as street children. The framework establishes a global and national policy context for analyzing variables i.e. independent and dependent variables. Independent variable (Government policy interventions) in this study refers to deliberate strategies, programs, and legislative frameworks designed by the Kenyan government to increase

access to education for street children. Dependent variable (access to pre-primary and primary education by Street children) is a measure implied by indicators like enrolment rates, attendance and participation in class, retention, transition rates and completion rates among street children.

The model below outlines how the independent variables relate with dependent variables. The model representation suggests that effective implementation of the policies points towards the expected products of improved enrolment, retention, transition and completion rates.

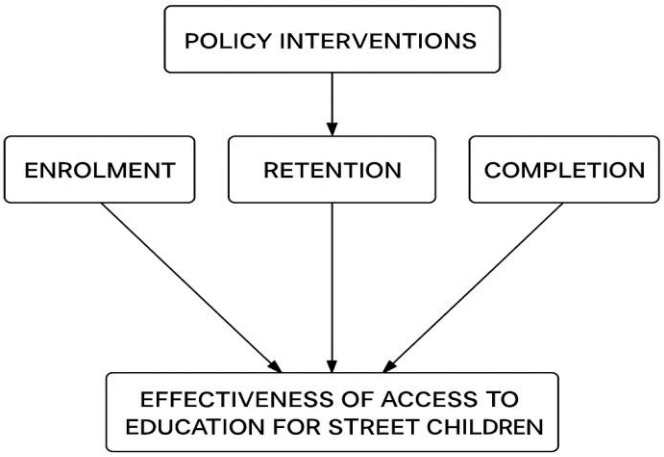


Figure 1.1: Model Representation (Source: Research 2023)

1.15 Conceptual frame work

The study adopted a conceptual framework that conceptualized Government policy interventions towards enhanced access to education by street children in North Rift Kenya. It guided the study in investigating how the interventions affect the educational outcomes of street children by integrating independent variables, dependent variables and intervening variables (contextual factors).

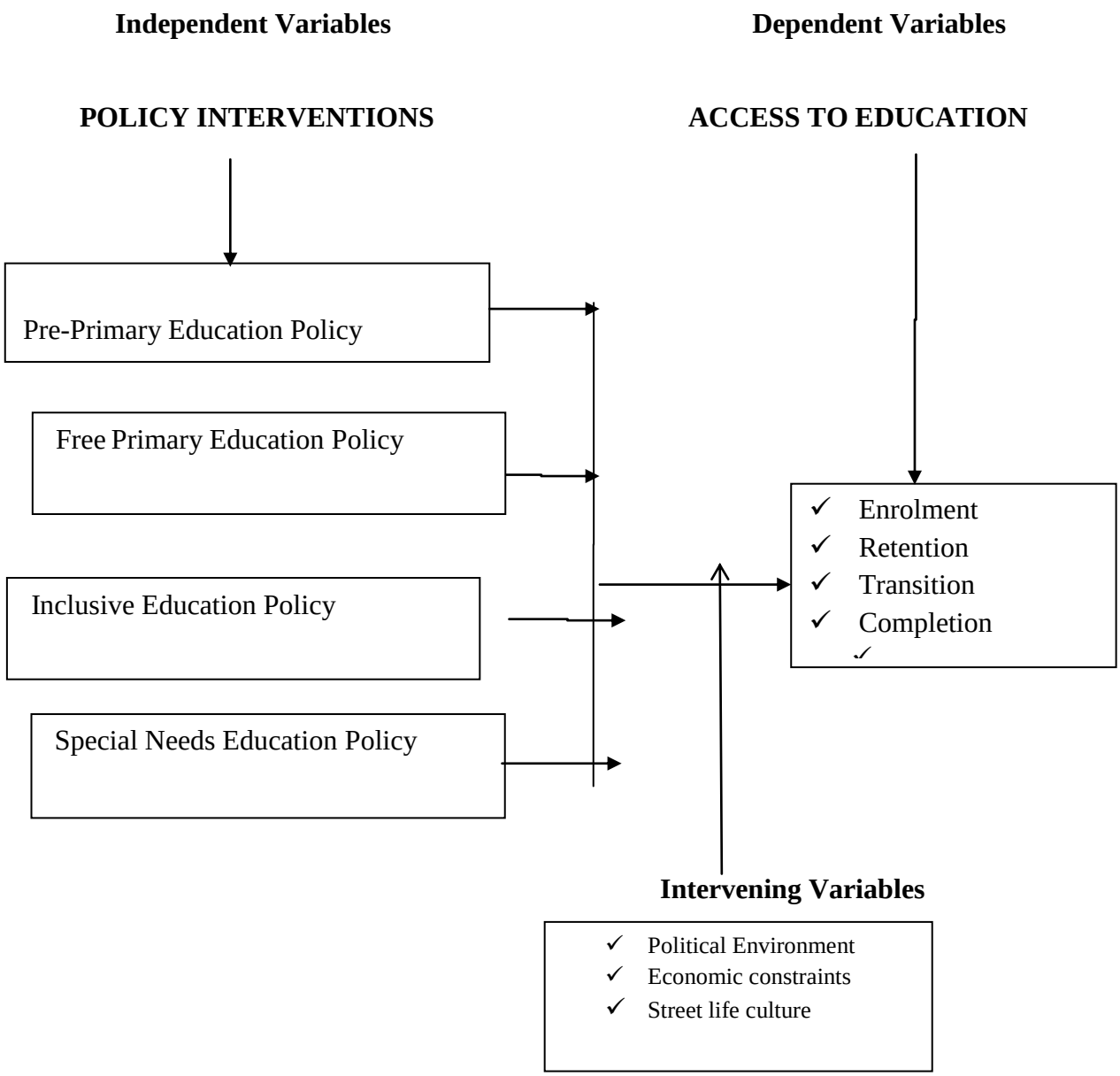


Figure 1.2: Conceptual presentation of variables ***(Source: Research 2023)***

The policy interventions (independent variables) are expected to directly influence access to education by street children depicted by enrolment, retention, transition and completion rates (dependent variables). Challenges act as constraints or barriers that can weaken or obstruct the effectiveness of the policy interventions. Intervening variables on the other hand may either enhance or impede the success of policies

depending on the context (e.g., strong political will may improve policy implementation).

1.15.1 Alignment of research questions with the conceptual framework

The research questions reflect a logical progression from identifying policy interventions, evaluating their effectiveness, and examining the challenges and context that mediate their outcomes.

Research Question 1: Which Government policy interventions on access to education have enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in Kenya?

Aligned Variable: Independent Variable (Government Policy Interventions)

Purpose: Identify the scope, nature, and design of existing interventions by the government. Directly linked to the input component of the conceptual framework.

Research Question 2: To what extent has Pre-primary education policy enhanced access to education by street children?

Aligned Variables: Independent variable (Pre-primary education policy interventions) and dependent variable (access to education)

Purpose: Evaluate the relationship and impact of the policy interventions. This aligns with the core hypothesis of the study—whether interventions have translated into improved education access outcomes or not.

Research Question 3: To what extent has free primary education policy enhanced access to education by street children?

Aligned Variables: Independent variable (free primary education policy interventions) and dependent variable (access to education)

Purpose: Evaluate the relationship and impact of the policy interventions. This aligns with the core hypothesis of the study—whether interventions have translated into improved education access outcomes or not.

Research Question 4: To what extent has inclusive education policy enhanced access to education by street children?

Aligned Variables: Independent variable (Inclusive education policy interventions) and dependent variable (access to education)

Purpose: Evaluate the relationship and impact of the policy interventions. This aligns with the core hypothesis of the study—whether interventions have translated into improved education access outcomes or not.

Research Question 5: To what extent has Special Needs Education Policy enhanced access to education by street children?

Aligned Variables: Independent variable (Special Needs Education Policy interventions) and dependent variable (access to education)

Purpose: Evaluate the relationship and impact of the policy interventions. This aligns with the core hypothesis of the study—whether interventions have translated into improved education access outcomes or not.

1.15.2 Summary of variable-question alignment

Research Question	Aligned Variable(s)	Role in Framework
RQ1: What policy interventions exist?	Government Policy Interventions **(IV**)	Input variable; defines scope
RQ2: To what extent has Pre-primary education policy enhanced access to education?	**IV → DV** relationship	Check successes
RQ3: To what extent has free primary education policy enhanced access to education?	**IV → DV** relationship	Check successes
RQ4: To what extent has Inclusive Education Policy enhanced access to education?	**IV → DV** relationship	Check successes
RQ5: To what extent has Special Needs Education Policy enhanced access to education?	**IV → DV** relationship	Check successes

The alignment between the conceptual framework and the research questions is coherent and systematically structured. It enables the study to identify what the government has done in form of policy intervention **(RQ1**), check on the successes in the outcomes of the policy interventions in **RQ2** through to **RQ5.** This triadic structure not only reflects the logical flow of the study but also supports the evaluation of value for money and policy effectiveness, which is a critical concern raised in this study.

1.16 Operational definition of terms

Street Children:	Children who are under the age of 18 years and who spend most of their life on the streets.
Children in street situation	Young people (under 18 years of age) whose lives and identities are closely tied to the street
School-going-age children	children between 3 and 18 years old, encompassing the full span of basic education
Pre-primary Education	The stage of education that occurs before primary school, targeting children between the ages of 3 and 5 years old.
Primary Education	The first stage of formal education that begins after pre-primary education and precedes secondary education
Access to education:	Opportunity to enrol, continue learning, transition to next level and successfully complete a given education level
Enrolment	Joining school for purposes of learning
Retention	Staying in school without dropping out
Transition	Movement from one level of education to another
Completion	Successful graduation from a given level of education

Government policy intervention:	The regulatory action taken by government to change situations
Effectiveness of Government Policy Intervention:	The extent to which Government policy interventions have achieved the intended purpose
Implementation of Government Policy Intervention	The process of putting government's planned actions, laws, or strategies into practice
Challenges	Problems, barriers, obstacles or difficulties encountered while attempting to implement a task

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

This chapter gives a general overview of the previous research works done on street children, education for street children and other related issues. It addresses and reviews related literature as guided by the specific objectives and conceptual framework. Discussion carried out on the concept of street children, policies and Policy interventions on access and retention of street children in primary education in different countries and their effectiveness compared so as to identify the knowledge gaps. The review of the literature was organized as per variables identified in the research objectives and research questions.

2.2 Street Children

Before introducing the phenomenon of street children, it is important to understand children in totality in a given social system. Moreover, it would be helpful to set a criterion for defining Children. According to United Nations, any boy or girl below the age of 18 years is a child. This central line on the basis of age is given by the United Nations and according to this all individuals below 18 years in the world population are children (CRC, 2000 and UNICEF, 2019).

The United Nations defines a street-child as “any minor for whom the street has become his or her abode and/or source of livelihood and who is inadequately protected, supervised or directed by responsible adults” (Veale, 1997). Cosgrave (1990) defined, “a street child as any individual under the age of majority whose

behaviour is predominantly at variance with community norms for behaviour and whose primary support for his/her development needs is not a family or family substitute. Glasser (1994) in a worldwide overview of street children concludes that, "the words used for street children often reflect the jobs they do". For example, the "*khate*" in Kathmandu, Nepal, who live by collecting trash for sale while in Kenya street children are known as "*chokoraa",* roughly translated from Kiswahili as digging in garbage or dustbins in search of food and other valuables.

The term street children is a cross-cultural term. There is a tendency to resist the use of the term in developed countries, and replace it with, "runaways" (children who have run away, or left home or residential care) or simply homeless young people. Children grouped within the category of *street* children range in age from three to thirteen. Street children are often defined as a "mobile population" and are considered to be "out of place" as many do not have a place to call their home. The idea that these children are "out of place" speaks of the societal oppression that these children face. The vulnerability of these children and their life circumstances cannot be properly summed up in the title of street children (Tufail, 2005).

Mondal (2013) holds the firm view that "Children are the source of hope and inspiration for the society." He further insists: "That is why they have the right to be brought up in a positive environment"". This perspective by Mondal (2013) is crucial, but it is completely contrasting when one tries to arrive at a conceivable definition of street children. There exist many definitions on the grounds that different countries construe them in several ways. Thus, it is very complex to accurately formulate an accurate one for them. Reza and Henly (2018) believe that the street environment is

often filled with illness, violence and poverty and these children rely on each other for survival. Consortium for Street Children (CSC) notes that many people use the terms street children and homeless children interchangeably but there are some differences. For example, not all street children are homeless.

The Committee on the Rights of the Child, in its General Comment No. 21 of 2017, adopted the term “children in street situations”. This term includes children who depend on the streets to live and/or work, whether alone, with peers, or with family; it also includes a wider population of children who have formed connections with public spaces and for whom the street plays a vital role in their everyday lives and identities (CRC, 2017) The Committee recognised that this wider population includes children who periodically – that is, not always – live and/or work on the streets and children who do not live or work on the streets but who regularly accompany their peers, siblings, or families in the streets. The Committee observed that, concerning children in street situations, “being in public spaces” includes spending a significant amount of time on streets or in street markets, public parks, public community spaces, squares, and bus and train stations. It does not include public buildings such as schools, hospitals, or other comparable institutions.

In the East African region, and most especially in Kenya, Mwithu and Andrew (2019) revealed that 92% of 41,733 street children can be found to be living in large cities of Nairobi, Kisumu, Mombasa and Nakuru, with the phenomenon more prevalent in densely populated urban hubs.

The Kenyan Children Act takes a welfare approach towards street children, describing them as children in need of care and protection. However, the Act contradicts the

CRC and constitutional standards that advocate for a child's-right approach to be applied to all children. Premised as it is on the welfare approach, the Act has only made provision for temporary shelter in form of alternative care as a component of social security. By failing to provide for shelter as a substantive right for street children, the Act may raise concerns about discrimination.

Definition in Kenya Street children in Kenya are referred to pejoratively as "chokoraa", which translates both as "street child" and "curse". "Chokoraa" is a negative label assigned by society to children in street situations, one that devalues their individual identities. Derived from the Kiswahili language, chokoraa also connotes the idea of "garbage pickers", given that street children are often seen picking from public garbage cans. The term "chokoraa" serves to stigmatise street children, who are viewed as "other" and unfairly discriminated against or treated differently from children who are not in street situations. In short, "chokoraa" is a negative label and its usage paves the way for discrimination against street children.

The Oxford Dictionary gives a basic definition of street children as neglected children who live chiefly in the streets. This is succinct, but does not embrace those who live within their family home, yet spend time working on the streets. A lucid statement from Brazil defines street children as those minors who spend at least major part of their hours working or wandering in the urban streets (UNICEF, 2019). street children have been defined in many different ways and popularly been labelled in various terms like in Vietnam they have been referred to as children of the dust, homeless kids, vagrant children, or roaming children in the streets.

The problem of street children dates back to the eve of industrial revolution in Europe when street children became a dominant social ill (Short, 1990). Writers of that time recorded the establishment of settlement centers in the towns of Chicago around 1850 as an indication of the prevalence of the problem (Ibid). Queen Elizabeth II had taken serious efforts in order to solve the problem of street children by establishing Alms houses in 1986 of which children were kept and given basic needs, including education (Kagunila, 2004).

Street children are an old social problem in the world with the current estimate of abandoned street children being between one hundred and two hundred million globally (Brighton, 2013). However, despite their contribution, there has been continuous influx of street children to the big cities of the world in both developed and developing countries (UNICEF, 2010). The problem of street children is not limited only to the Third World countries but there are hundreds of thousands of children running away from home and living on the streets of the big cities worldwide. The reasons for this phenomenon are not just economical but rather complex issues that tend towards becoming a pandemic problem for many Governments in the World. The concern along this inclination is what the Governments have put in place inform of policies and interventions and the effectiveness of such policies in addressing the issues of street children and especially provision of their education needs to be given priority (Udisi, 2016).

Extensive research has shown that street children is a socially constructed concept and is described in different ways by different social actors, depending on the context in which the phenomenon takes place (De Moura, 2002; Stephenson, 2001). De Moura argues that the way in which the concept of street children is socially

constructed influences perceptions about those whom the term is applied, and gives direction to the interventions undertaken by various agencies to address the phenomenon. Data from several studies suggest that the socio-economic and cultural contexts and the locality in which the street children live influence how people understand and interpret the concept of street children (Owoaje et al., 2009; Stephen & Udisi, 2016). In the light of this emerging common perception of street children as a socially constructed concept, which is understood and described in different ways, we argue that the voices and opinions of all social actors who interact with learners in their classrooms and outside schools should be heard and be taken in to perspective (Stephen & Udisi, 2016).

Street children phenomenon is an old phenomenon that has affected many African and European countries. Nonetheless, available literature focuses mostly on the causes and consequences of the street children phenomenon and there is limited knowledge about the access to education for such children and their integration in schools (Le Roux, 1996). Based on a study done in major towns in Sierra Leone, Cummings (2017) acknowledges that there is a gap in policies and a lack of response from the education authorities regarding the teaching and learning of street children.

If street children's issues including provision of education are not well articulated and managed, chances are high that they may join the country's enemies and become a cause of havoc in the society. Some of them usually grow in to deviant adults in the streets and with families which may not have the societal virtues. The importance of street children attending school is highlighted by Ward and Seager (2010), who recommends that ensuring that children stay in school is one of the measures that could reduce the risk of children taking up street life.

In Canada, street children are characterized as children from dysfunctional families, who were abused, traumatized and exploited (Karabanow, 2008). This viewpoint was contended by Conticini and Hulme (2006) who conceptualized that in Bangladesh, children escaped hostile home environments and adjusted to coping mechanisms on the streets. Extensive research on street children has shown that street children is a socially-constructed concept, and is described in different ways by different social actors, depending on the context in which the phenomenon takes place (De Moura, 2002; Stephenson, 2001). Data from several studies suggest that the socio-economic and cultural contexts and the locality in which the street children live influences how people understand and de-construct the concept (Owoaje et al., 2009; Stephen & Udisi, 2016). Owoaje found out that street children in a rural context are children who live with their parents and work on the streets to earn a living, making the construction of the concept different from that in the popular literature that depicts street children as children with no family ties (Owoaeje et al., 2009)

In light of this emerging common perception of street children as a socially constructed concept, which is understood and described in different ways, we argue that the voices and opinions of those describing street children should be expounded to take care of all categories of children that fits in to this context. The current trends in the society have given rise to situations where categorization of children and especially street children's needs to be widely understood to allow for inclusivity in case of intervention considerations. If not well articulated, chances are high that some may be excluded and the available statistics may be inaccurate in so far as the numbers of street children are concerned (Stephen & Udisi, 2016).

In the recent past, there has been a growing literature that recognizes the plight of street children across many disciplines which have necessitated studies to be done globally on the conceptualization of street children phenomenon. All these studies show the different lenses used in exploring and de-constructing the concept of street children. In some studies, street children are perceived as vulnerable victims, while in other studies they are perceived as survivors. Concern of these researches have in most cases focused in understanding what happens in the education sector and specifically schools regarding how such learners are taken and what is being done for them in the provision of the education. Many researches have consistently shown that street children dwell on the streets and are street workers who earn an income and contribute to the economy of their respective families (Stephen & Udisi, 2016).

2.2.1 Global Population of street children

The United Nations estimates the population of children on the streets worldwide to be around 150 million with the number rising daily. Of these, 20 million are in Africa, 40 million are in Latin America, 25 to 30 million in Asia while 25 million are in other parts of the world (UNICEF, 1999; Casa Alianza, 2002). Many of them are doing difficult and dangerous jobs and are injured in serious accidents (Ennew, 2000). Although homelessness is not yet seen as a major public problem in most African countries, children on the streets are now being recognized as a social problem worth of urgent attention (Aransiola, 2013). In spite of the United Nations estimation that there are up to 150 million street children in the world, no one knows the exact number because they are often unknown to social care providers and Government organizations. The difficulty in ascertaining the exact number of children in the streets can be attributed to the temporary nature of street children.

The phenomenon of street children is rapidly becoming one of global epic proportions. In 2002, UNICEF reported, the estimates number of children as high as one hundred million. More recently the organization added, “The exact number of street children is impossible to quantify, but the figure almost certainly runs in to tens of millions across the world. It is likely that the numbers are increasing” (Sara T. 2007). The number has increased in recent decades because of political turmoil, civil unrest, family breakdowns and death of parents, war, poverty, natural disasters, HIV/AIDs, rapid industrialization or simply social economic collapse. Many destitute children are forced to eke out a living on the streets scavenging, begging and hawking in the slums of polluted cities of the developing world (UNICEF, 2007).

According to Lewis (2021), report from 2018 Consortium for Street Children, UNICEF estimated that 100 million children were growing up on urban streets around the world. The report however contends that the exact number of street children is impossible to quantify, but the figure almost certainly runs into tens of millions across the world. It is likely that the numbers are increasing (UNICEF, 2018). In the United States of America, the number of homeless children supported had reached a record high after increasing from 1.2 million in 2007 to 1.6 million in 2010 (Poonam; Naik; Seema; Bansode; Ratnenedra; Shinde & Abhay, 2021). Interesting to note is that about 83% of street children in the United States of America did not leave their state of origin, and if they did leave their state of origin, they were likely to end up in large cities, notably the New York, Los Angeles, Portland, and San Francisco (Poonam, et al 2021). In the USA, the Department of Housing and Urban Development reported that 553,742 people were homeless on a single night in US in 2017. Though there has been a decline in that number in most of the US cities, the situation remains

unprecedented in others, like Los Angeles and New York city, where more than 50,000 and 75,000 people respectively lack homes.

There are wide controversies concerning the reliable estimate of the number of the street children around the world. The widely contested claim of the United Nations International Children's Fund (UNICEF) stating the figure at 100 million is now rendered baseless and currently the estimate is stated in the area of tens of millions with a rapidly increasing pattern due to a rapidly urbanizing and growing global population (De Benitez, 2011). Together with increasing inequalities and migration, studies suggest that numbers are generally increasing, including in richer regions. Studies suggest factors like war, HIV/AIDS, economic and social disintegration, family separation and abuse for increasing pattern of the number of street children (UNHCR, 2012).

Sofiya and Galata (2019), state that globally the number of street children continues to rise at an alarming proportion. They further claim most of the street children in developing countries total about 650 million. On an international scale, there are about 100 million street children, and this number continues to increase rapidly with a high concentration in the developing world (Kamruzzaman and Hakim, 2015). UNICEF (2012) state: "Globally there are over 100 million street children: 40 million in Latin America, 30 million in Asia, 10 million in Africa and the remaining 20 million in Europe, the United States, Canada and Australia." UNICEF (2012) claims that while it is impossible to quantify street children, they are increasing daily at alarming proportions.

The street children phenomenon is a global challenge. Laura Del Col, cited in Salihu, (2019), states that there were over 30 000 children, who were staying and working in

the streets of London, as way back as 1848. The street children phenomenon is a characteristic of both developed and developing countries. Hassen and Manus (2018), posit that although street children's issues are a worldwide phenomenon, they tend to be highly pronounced in developing nations, due to lack of adequate social infrastructure and socio-economic programs. The developmental needs of children are therefore difficult to meet in developing countries. Estimates are that the global street child population could range between 100- 150 million and the numbers are increasing. However, UNHRC, (2012) argues that the actual number of children living and working in the streets worldwide is not known. The numbers fluctuate, according to changes in the social-economic and cultural-political contexts and patterns of urbanization.

Viewed as wretched, street children and homeless people remain among the most invisible members of the world's populations, often overlooked by governments, policy makers and thee society in general. They can be found sleeping on the pavements, cardboard boxes of bare ground.

Brazil has between 200,000 and 8 million street children spread across its cities. This compares with South Africa, where the economy has failed to grow, inequality is increasing and where many people are becoming socially excluded. South Africa and Brazil have the highest inequality rates in the World.

In 2005, UNICEF declared that it is not possible to enumerate accurate numbers of street children, but it is most likely that there has been an increase in parallel to population growth, internal migration, and urbanization (UNICEF 2005). Subsequent studies, which have attempted to quantify the phenomenon, have revealed that the

number of children working on the streets is increasing worldwide, especially in developing countries (De Benitez S, 2011).

African states are increasingly confronted with a rising number of street children. This create concerns over the state of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) which envisioned reduced inequalities across the world.

Although children living on the streets phenomenon are a global concern, it is more prominent in Latin America, Asia and Africa. In South America alone, there are at least 40 million children with majority living on the streets of Mexico City, in Asia, 25 million children and Europe approximately 26 million while the estimates in most countries have fluctuated widely (UNICEF 2007). In Brazil, the exact number of children living on the streets is not known. According to unofficial estimates, the numbers range between 200,000 and 1 million, but this number does not necessarily correspond to the number of children who live on the streets. These children fall between ten and eighteen years of age. These children do what they can to survive ranging from selling candy on street corners, shoe shining and watching parked cars; to drug peddling, petty theft and prostitution (Michael, 2010).

UNICEF (2010) estimated that there are over 32 million children living on the streets in the African region. It is estimated that Angola 10,000, Ghana 30,000 and Zambia 1.5 million children and 450,000 children live on the streets of Sudan and 450,000 in Ethiopia. The growing numbers of street children is one of the most serious urban social problems facing Ethiopia today. In the country as a whole, it has been estimated that as many as one hundred thousand children are engaged in varying degrees of street life activities. However, little is known about the exact nature and extent of involvement of children in street life in Ethiopia.

Street children are visible in major urban cities that include Johannesburg, Kinshasa, Nairobi, Dakar, Kano and Bamako among others. They are called different names in different countries; in Nigeria, they are called *Almajiri* (Yusuf, 2019), Senegal *Talibes* (Ousmane, 2005)), Tanzania *Watoto wa mitaani* (Flynn, 2005), Kenya *Chokorra* (Hope, 2008) etc. In most of these countries, they are excluded from the social equation (Lugalla & Mbwambo, 1995). This has therefore compelled the need to ask whether it is a deliberate state policy to tolerate children parading the streets of African cities.

An established fact is that children generally are still being used for all forms of labour in Africa. The International Labour Organization (ILO) reported that almost half of the child labour (72.1 million) are found in Africa (ILO website, 2020). A summary report of ACRWC after 30 years stated that in the 25-year period to 2015, mortality rates for African children under 5 years of age reduced by over 50 per cent and huge strides had been made in universal primary education, increasing from 63 million to 152 million students in the said period (UNICEF, 2020).

According to the Consortium of Street Children, in Africa there are over 150,000 street children in Ethiopia, 30,000 in Accra Ghana, about 30,000 in Kinshasa Democratic Republic of Congo, around one million in Egypt and between 250,000 and 300,000 in Kenya.

Street children phenomenon in Zimbabwe is on the increase and public perceptions and concerns are that both government and humanitarian partners are seemingly failing on the child protection front. Street children venture into crime and are in trouble with law enforcement agencies. Bullying and other forms of conflicts are now a common feature, as street children fight over territorial space. While in the streets,

children are discriminated and stigmatized by the public and are exposed to all forms of child abuse and maltreatment and if this situation is not arrested, Zimbabwe risks having an influx of children in the central business district, thereby, further violating the children's rights of education, health, safety and protection, as enshrined in the Committee on the Rights of Child (CRC).

In Zimbabwe, there are no actual statistics to indicate the number of street children. In Harare Central Business District however, the numbers continue to increase, and it becomes difficult to ascertain the actual figures, due to the high mobility of these children. Boys tend to outnumber girls in the streets. Ogan and Ogan (2021) concur that male street children outnumber girls because girls are more controlled by their families probably because of their multi tasks at home. Lasting solutions to this challenge elude both government and partners. Sometimes the authorities respond by forcibly sending these children to children's homes, but the same children soon find their way back to the streets. The public tends to discriminate and stigmatize street children and label them a menace in the streets.

In Ethiopia a recent report by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs indicate that the number of homeless people in Addis Ababa was around 24,000 in 2018; approximately 10,500 street children and 13,500 homeless adults (UNICEF, 2019). Similar evidence showed that over four million children are anticipated to live under particularly difficult circumstances in Ethiopia (Fite A, 2016). They are at high risk of sexual and physical exploitation. Evidence showed that 15.6% of the street children are practising risky sexual activity, and 61.6% of the street children face health problems (Bayene Y., 1998). Nonetheless, despite the growing burden of health problems among Ethiopia's street children, there is no policy emphasis on the

country's health system and other social welfare of street children including access to education.

The precise estimate of number of street children in Ethiopia is also controversial. In 2007 the ministry of Labour and Social Affairs conducted a study that is supported by the UNICEF and estimated the overall number of children on or off the street at around 150,000 with about 60,000 living in the capital city of Addis Ababa. The recent estimates of the number of street children in Jimma town in Ethiopia is between 500,000 and 700,000; roughly five times higher than the report of 2007 and approaches two to three times the population of the whole of Jimma town. Efforts to curb the increasing number of street children in Ethiopia were largely ineffective due to fragmented interventions, increasing effect of push and pull factors on children and rapid urbanization of the country (Chimdesa A., 2016).

It is now being observed that the number of street children is significantly increasing. However, little is known about the prevalence of the problems, including the factors that lead to be street child and their health status (Cumber S.N, 2015). There is lack of comprehensive and adequate information about street children to take action.

The Kenya Draft National Policy on Rehabilitation of Street Families 2020 was developed to address the concerns of street families, who for long have faced exclusion from governmental socio-economic interventions targeting vulnerable persons. However, it has taken a long time indeed for the 2020 policy to be approved. As a result, street children and families continue to suffer while awaiting approval and implementation of the policy. In contrast to the National Street Families Policy, the discourse around the affordable housing programme in Kenya contravenes the

vulnerability principle provided for under the Constitution because street children and families as vulnerable groups cannot meet the criteria of affordable housing. This is because the programme targets income earners, but street children do not earn income that can qualify them for to programme, and it also requires birth registration, notwithstanding that most street children lack documents such as national identity cards. Street children in Kenya suffer the plight of being excluded from benefiting from policies and programmes that ought to support them in realising their socio-economic rights envisaged under regional and international instruments (Kenyan Draft National Policy on Rehabilitation of Street Families 2020).

In Uganda, the concept of street children emerge when a number of children took to the street because of poverty and hunger as individual families could not meet the basic demand (Amed 2021). A UNICEF Report (2021) estimated the number of street children at 28,276 and about 47% of that living on the streets of Kampala city, with the same report noting that in Lira City (Lira Municipal Council), there were an estimated 11.06% living on the streets. Considered a young country, over half of the population (56%) accounted for in Uganda is under 18 years old, equating to 17.1 million children (MoGLSD, 2011), based on most recent published data. However, given the social and economic conditions of Uganda, many children are described as vulnerable, and either orphans, defined as bereaved of one or both parents (Swahn et al., 2017), or street children, who live on the streets with transient sources of shelter (Kamya & Walakira, 2017).

Despite the common misconception that children living within orphanages are orphans, in Uganda, many, if not most, are not. For example, Riley (2012) reported that 85% of children within orphanages had living, contactable parents. Further,

within a sample of 1282 children, Walakira et al (2014) found that most (64%), had living parents, with only 19% reporting orphanhood as their reason for being there. Childcare institutions in Uganda are described as part of a money-making industry, with Western donors believing that they are responding to 'orphan crises, when in fact, such institutions recruit children from impoverished families, or from the streets (Brubacher et al., 2021; Cheney & Rotabi, 2015; Kamya & Walakira, 2017). Although Uganda has a large population of children who spend timeon the streets, many are not homeless, instead they are described as 'street connected children' who go to such settings to generate income rather than living there (Kamya & Walakira, 2017). Though there is neither recent nor exact figures capturing the number of children living on the streets in Uganda, the last estimates in 2014 were around 10,000 (Fallon, 2014). The lack of data by which to quantify the number of street children is attributable to a high prevalence of unregistered births, and lack of systematic methods in accessing and accounting for this population (Bhatia et al., 2017; Dutta, 2018). Despite the ambiguities, Fallon (2014) reported a 70% increase in street children between 1993 and 2014, with approximately 16 new children coming to the streets of Kampala every day (Fallon, 2014). However, contrary to common assumptions amongst those from the West, that children on the streets in Uganda are all orphans.

In Tanzania, alike, poverty is considered to be the main driver for street children. World Bank (2019) reports that in the period of two years, 10,000 children went into the streets which indicates a rapid increase in the number of street children in Tanzania. The challenge of street children in Tanzania is more historical since then. Saramba (2002) attests that 30,000 children are in Tanzania while Dar es Salaam was

leading with 10,000 street children. Mwinyiani (2004) reveals that the population of street children increased to about 40,000.

Street children can have complex circumstances and are a very vulnerable lot of the world population. It is even hard to reach them with vital services such as education and healthcare. They miss out on their right to education because they are trying to support themselves or their families and hence less formal approaches might be needed to try to get them into learning set ups. Worldwide, there is a big confirmation that there are no significant strategies being employed by Governments through their respective ministries to address issues of access to education for street children. While some Governments have implemented programs to deal with street children, the general solution involves placing the children into orphanages, juvenile homes, or correctional institutions where efforts have been made by various Governments to support or partner with non-Government organizations (World Bank, 2013). Even with this arrangement, little is mentioned about their education programs in the said social services or the orphanages.

According to D'Souza, Castelino and Madangopal (2002) Asia, Africa and Latin America are famous for having the largest percentages of street children in the world who fall prey to drug and substance abuse and some have been raped. Indeed it can be argued that the number of street children has been growing steadily with social economic changes currently sweeping the world (UNICEF, 2020).

Cuc and Flamm (2000) opined that the number of children living and working on the streets has been on the rise in both rural and urban areas in Vietnam. However, no one has been able to say with certainty how many of these children live and/or work on

the streets in Vietnam. Estimates vary from one organization to another, as it has proved difficult to make a general survey of street children. It is estimated that in the whole of Latin American and the Caribbean Island, the number is 50 million (Ibid). In Brazil for example, there are 30 million children living in the streets (Gustafsson and Pyne, 2002).

In the United States of America, the number of street children grew from 1.2 million in 2010 to 2.0 million in 2020 (UNICEF, 2020). It has become almost a common practice in the United States for children to run away from their homes each year. It is out of this phenomenon that it has become very necessary to give priority on issues related to street children and especially on their livelihoods and access to their basic rights like education. In United States of America, education of street children has been central to the planning of education authorities and, as such, it is not just a socio-economic issue but also an educational concern (Cunningham, Harwood & Hall, 2010).

South Africa is an emerging economy and is regarded as a 'third world' country where poverty, urbanization, the apartheid legacy, the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) pandemic and the migrant labour system are among the factors that have contributed towards dysfunctional families hence rising trends of the street children phenomenon (Cummings, 2017). A large number of street children live on the streets of South Africa while others live in squatter camps, which are characterized by poor structures such as mud-and-cardboard dwellings roofed with plastic sheets or with sheets of corrugated iron placed over stick frames and tied together with twine (Neuwirth, 2007). Such camps usually lack running water, sewerage systems, sanitation or toilets hence subjecting these families in to very absurd deplorable

conditions. Street children in South Africa therefore, are among the groups of children who are considered to be vulnerable owing to the harsh living conditions they are exposed to and the parental care and supervision that they lack. Despite their being considered a vulnerable group, the circumstances of street children in South Africa and their access to education have not improved over the decades. Hansen (2012) reports that the Special Education policy that exists in South Africa may not be beneficial to street children, since White Paper 6 (Department of Education, 2001) does not offer a proper classification of street children mainly because street children may not have visible physical or mental disabilities. This means that educational issues such as teacher preparedness, curriculum design, the legislative and policy framework, and assessment practices have all not been aligned with the educational needs of street children (Engelbrecht, 2006; Pather& Nxumalo, 2013; Schuelka & Johnstone, 2012).

Klich (2002) noted that there are a million street children in Mexico City whose majority are between the ages of 5 and 15 years and who most of them have been forced into the street to find support for themselves and their families at home. The least lucky ones are those who have been abandoned by their families and live night and day on the streets.

In Nigeria, there were 3.5 million economically active children in 1995 between the ages of 10 to 14 years in the streets (ILO, 1997). In the year 2000, there were 3.9 million economically active children between the ages of 10 and 14 years in Nigeria (ILO, 2000). This significant increase in the number of street children in the streets of Nigerian cities is a replication in most of the African Countries.

It is therefore very clear from these figures that the number of street children living in the streets of the world cities will continue to grow and hence need for their attention is a reality. Some children, particularly girls are withdrawn from schools into early marriages and into extensive child labour such as street trading and related activities (Child Welfare League of Nigeria, 1996). In Nigeria, two of the main forms of child labour outside the home are street vending and weaving where children as young as 6 years old can be found in the streets trading. Trafficked children are made to work as hawkers and petty traders, beggars, car washers, bus conductors, farm hands or cattle keepers. Child Welfare League of Nigeria (1996) noted that the use of children as hawkers, beggars and bus conductors is widespread in urban areas. In Lagos alone there are about 100,000 boys and girls living in the streets and who are involved in the said businesses (UNICEF Child Domestic Workshop, 1998).

In Kenya, the problem of street children grew in the 1970s where only 115 street children were recorded in 1975 but the number increased to 17,000 in 1990 and subsequently to over 600,000 in 2017 (Sorre, 2019). In the recent past, there has been a growing number of street children seen roaming in the streets of Kenyan cities and urban centers. Moreover, this big number of street children are of school-going age but are not attending school. The number of street children was substantially increased in the years 2007/2008 as a consequence of the post-election violence that left thousands of Kenyans in the greater Rift Valley Province, Western Kenya, Nairobi and other parts of the Country homeless. The situation has also been aggravated by high economic inflation and widespread human rights abuse both in rural and urban areas. It has also been attributed to the increased catastrophes such as floods and Corona Virus Disease of 2019. All these have contributed to presence of

many street children in the streets which now cannot be ignored but instead initiation of effective management programs specifically targeting the enhancement of their access to basic rights is needed. Among many other interventions to accord street children access to basic services, policy interventions towards access to pre-primary and primary education should be given priority (Sorre, 2019).

2.2.2 Factors contributing to emergence of street children

Wisal Ali El Tahir (2015) opined that there are pull and push factors that contribute to emergence of street children. Pull factors such as boredom of staying at home, conviction by their friends, addiction to glue sniffing, and feeling restricted to household works leads children to feel low in self-esteem and decide to leave home for street life. In addition, external push factors such as poverty, looking for job opportunity, loss of family members or bad treatment by step parents cause children to leave home.

The trajectory that often leads children from poor families to resort to the street life include but not limited to poverty, dysfunctional family and child abandonment. As a matter of fact, some of these children live on the streets to escape violence at home and others have been abandoned by their families who cannot afford to support them or are not available to do so because of death or imprisonment, or extreme sickness. Some resort to begging and pick-pocketing because these are the only sources of income for their destitute families (ODCCP, 2002).

In the Central Asian Republic of Kyrgyzstan, a growing number of children have been abandoned by their families and are forced to live on the streets due to poverty (World Population Awareness 2004). Ruiz (2006), however, categorized the causes of

the street children phenomenon into three groups. The first group is called immediate causes that push children and their family into the street life which is clearly seen in the low socio-economic status of each family. They include poor and large families, unemployed/underemployed parents/children, irresponsible parents, family values which are materialistic/consumerist, family conflict, family environment, vices of parents, degradation of morals, violent upbringing by parents, traditional family values, lack of knowledge and parenting skills and emerging social values conflict with traditional values. The second one is called underlying causes related to the environment of the community that does not give favourable condition for them to operate their daily life. They include ineffective access to basic services, non-availability of adequate employment opportunities, inequitable distribution of resources and opportunities in the community (e.g. land ownership), nature and conditions of work/employment, formal and informal sectors, congestion in slum areas, inadequate housing/poor housing facilities, poor law enforcement/exploitation by law enforcers, style of delivery of education, deterioration of values and central body being unable to provide for children. The last but much influencing cause is called root causes which is embedded within the society (Economic, political and ideological superstructure, structural roots of poverty and underdevelopment, the unequal world order and the debt burden). Similar study by Radmard, & Beltekin, (2014), Bhowmik (2005) mentioned that lack of the basic food and the level of poverty line of poor family is also the reason that family members have to push their children to the streets.

In Africa, different scholars have identified different reasons that explain forces behind street children. Kagunila (2014) conducted a study on street children in Africa

and noted that the accelerating urban growth, inequitable distribution of resources, severe economic crises, unstable political conditions that resulted to social unrest have all contributed to the increasing deprivation and breaking-down of many families, hence increase in the number of street children. Deprivation and breaking-down of families have resulted to many children moving away from their families so as to find alternative means to acquire their life requirements. UNICEF report of 2014 acknowledges that children who live without families mostly in towns as street children are on the rise. This number of street children has also increased more significantly in places experiencing armed conflict namely Freetown (Sierra Leone) and Monrovia (Liberia), where parents or Caretakers have been killed, economy disrupted and family and community ties severed. They are also victims of an uncaring community that is increasingly being characterized by poverty, breakdown of family life, violence and economic hardships (Kopoka, 2010).

According to a survey by Kenya African Research Development Studies (KARDS; 2010), the contributing factors of the increasing number of street children include global economic recession, rapid urbanization, high unemployment rate, rising cost of living, social disintegration, family breakdowns and HIV/AIDS pandemic. Furthermore, Rwegoshora (2002) contended that population pressures, new epidemics such as HIV/AIDS, urbanization and its density and heterogeneity of population, rural-urban migration, class differentiation and increasing levels of poverty have all overstretched and weakened the efficacy of African traditional extended family system to the point of collapse. This disruption of the traditional social fabrics to a large extent has led to the emerging social problem such as the increasing number of street children in urban areas.

People living in the urban slums are not only dealing with poor environments, overcrowded, inadequate housing, lack of clean water, uncollected waste and poor sanitation and sewage facilities but they also face evictions, as the Government is trying to clean up the areas. This in turn leads to more poor families ending up living in the street or families being divided, hence, increasing the number of street children (Cradle et. al. 2004). Abuse and neglect from the family, and family separations are also some of the main factors of why children end up in the streets. Family separations can occur due to abuse, but also divorce, deaths, arrests and employments. Forced or voluntary migration from rural to urban areas, often related to economic challenges brought by the Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs), or ethnic clashes also lead to rising number of street families and "street children". Poverty might be the crucial factor that seriously impact on children to live and work in/off the street (Duong, & Ono, 2005, Boholano, 2013). With all the aforementioned, there is no accurate numbers of street children, but it is estimated that the number of world's street children has reached between 30 and 170 million and was approximated to reach 800 million in 2020 if there were no immediate actions to reduce the problems causing children resorting to being street children (Patriasih, Widiaty, Dewi, & Sukandar, 2010).

A study by Stephen and Udisi (2016) in Nigeria also report poverty and deprivation as a "push" factor and family relations as a "pull" factor among children living on the streets. All these studies show the different lenses used in exploring and de-constructing the concept of street children. It seems that in some studies, disciplines and contexts, street children are perceived as vulnerable victims, while in other studies they are perceived as survivors. The major concern of these studies stops at

the emergence and causes of street children but ideally, they should have gone further to address the fact that these children have been put in a situation where access to their basic right of education has been compromised.

In Egypt, studies have attributed the causes of street children to rapid urbanization, deteriorating economic conditions, declining social programs and the weakening of family ties (Hussein, 1998; Koraim, 1998; Bibars, 1998). Under the current Egyptian law, street children fall under "children at high risk" and therefore can be arrested when found and placed in corrective institutions. Surveys on these children have found that they range in age from nine to eighteen years of age although the majorities are around thirteen years of age. Most of them are members of the local urban poor but some are older children that migrate from rural areas in the hope of finding employment. Many street children in Egypt have left families facing extreme forms of poverty and many of them do not attend school, do not receive health care and are unprotected by adults.

Although there are no official statistics on the magnitude of the street children problem in Egypt, some efforts have been made to estimate their number, regardless of accuracy or techniques used to ensure both validity and reliability (Sedik 1995). Based on the records of HVS, estimated number of street children in Egypt, both males and females to have reached two million in 1999 (The General Egyptian Association for Child Protection, 1999). Both primary and secondary data indicate that the reasons for the lack of valid and reliable data on the magnitude of the problem are based on many reasons. Firstly, there is difficulty in carrying out surveys due to the constant mobility of street children from one area to another and between major cities in Egypt. Secondly, the recent use of the term street children at both the

academic and official levels, and the paucity of academic literature on the topic. Thirdly, various social and legal terms have been used to refer, not particularly to "street children", but to all criteria of problematic children or children at risk, including juvenile delinquents, vagrants, and cases of exposure to delinquency. This makes it hard to determine the exact magnitude of the problem, hence the inability to accurately define the meaning of the term street children.

The last reason is that official police and court records do not refer to the actual magnitude of the problem in Egypt, but rather to the total number of children who have been reached by the police and sent to social care juvenile institutions with a court order (ODCCP, 2002). It is important therefore to mention that the problem of street children in Egypt cannot be related to a single cause unlike the situation in other countries where a single factor such as extreme poverty, civil wars, or natural disasters might be the leading cause (Aina, 1997). The problem of street children in Egypt therefore, is multi-dimensional with a combination of factors often leading to a single child ending up on the street. Still, most research seems to agree that the leading causes of the problem include poverty, unemployment, family breakdown, child abuse and neglect, dropping out of schools, child labour, the effect of peers, and other social and psychological reasons related to the social environment or to the personality of the child such as behavioral disorders or sensation seeking (Abu El-Nasr, 1992; Abdel Nabi, 1994; Sedik, 1995; Koraim, 1998; Bipars, 1998). Accordingly, the street children phenomenon is not solely a result of inefficiencies in the formal school system, but a product of a variety of factors. Mobility of street children in most cases is greatly affected by urban and weather conditions. Cairo being one the major cities in Egypt seems to attract the greatest number of "street

children". Statistics of cases of exposure to delinquency during the period (1987-1997) show that Cairo is attracting more street children (31.6 percent), followed by Port Said (16.8 percent), Suez (14.3 percent), and then Alexandria (6.3 percent) (Koraim, 1998).

Omwong'a (2013) found that there were several service providers identified by the street children who included NGOs, FBOs, Business Community and Good Samaritans. However, some of the services provided by the Business Community and Good Samaritans were identified by Social Workers, as a factor that led to more children coming to the streets. Street children revealed that they needed to be more involved in informing service providers on what they would want to be assisted with. It is also clear that street children would want to participate in long-term initiatives which are sustainable and would assist them to be self-reliant in the long run. The study recommends that a sector-wide training approach for service providers should be adopted in dealing with street children at all levels by the Government in collaboration with stakeholders to provide standard and holistic services to street children in the country. It is clearly observed that in Kenya, the plight of street children is left to NGOs and not much is done by the Government to provide education.

Onyiko and Kimuli (2015) investigated the Impact of Institutionalization of street children in Nairobi Kenya and established that the number of street children in Kenya keeps on burgeoning by the day. This happens despite the fact that there are many programs that have been put in place to curb the street children phenomenon. These initiatives have been constituted by the Government and private players. The number of street children keeps on burgeoning every day (Shashi, 2005). Is it that the impact

of the concerted effort is not effective at all? Or is it that the work of the organizations is only but partial? Why do children continue pouring into the streets despite the work of charity organizations? There is a big problem because every day you wake up, you encounter hundreds of street children moving and eking a living up and down the streets of Nairobi. The study found out that institutionalization used alone will not curb street children in Nairobi County. Institutionalization is only addressing the eruptions, the real volcano keeps on boiling and producing more eruptions. The argument in this paper is for how long are we going to keep addressing the eruptions (street children) when the volcano continues to be fuelled by the ingredients like poverty, diseases, and mushrooming slums?

Government policies that embrace liberalization and the free-market economy are contributory factors to the persistent phenomena of poverty and hence street children (Rwegoshora, 2002). Therefore, the forces behind the increase of street children differ from one location to another and thus it is important to investigate this phenomenon on the basis of the location and other social economic structures. The family as a basic unit of a community is supposed to be the bedrock of children's welfare and protection but instead, today the family is becoming a major cause of the problem of "street children". Children need to find for themselves the means to acquire their welfare and sometimes the welfare of the family as a whole. Because of such circumstances, the children in the streets are faced with quite a number of problems such as violence, community disapproval, police arrests, and robberies of savings, health problems, rape, prostitution, drug and malnutrition (Smith, 1997; Hlatshwayo, 1997). Street children are therefore disadvantaged and have no access to formal

education, basic services or family affection and support and hence are disfavoured children with poor chances of having a decent future, condemned to live by deceit.

Children from poor families, where the parents are not able to provide for the whole family, are sometimes expected to be helping in providing for the daily bread, and some end up begging or collecting trash on the streets or at the large dump sites, which they can then sell (Cradle et al. 2004). As a result of that, the department of children services plays a major role in supervising Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC) interventions in the country, cooperating with several Governmental departments (Department of Children Services 2008:3). However, due to the Government's financial constraints, there is a great need for the civil society to assist in the support and safety of these children and young people. It has often been up to the CSOs to rehabilitate, feed, shelter, empower, educate and provide security for the orphaned and disadvantaged street children.

Causes of exclusion have been identified to include high poverty levels, regional and gender disparities and inadequate policy guidelines on inclusive education. Other causes include cultural barriers, discriminations due to religious and cultural practices; disabilities and child labour. In addition, limited opportunities for maximum transition from one level to the next; inadequate funding, inadequate quality assurance mechanisms to oversee inclusion and inadequately trained teachers to handle special need education in learning institutions continue to contribute to exclusion (National Report of Kenya, Ministry of Education, 2008).

2.2.3 Why education for street children?

The Convention on the Rights of the Child is clear; every child has the right to quality education that is relevant to his or her individual life and personal development (Al-Dien, 2009). Based on this therefore, it can be implied that education plays significant role in a child's life. This motivates the stakeholders to carry out community service activities by providing basic knowledge and motivation to street children as well as introducing teaching for street children.

Salokangas, (2010) pointed out that through education, street children can become more useful and responsible in the society where they live by determining their task in the society, their basic human rights and responsibilities, respecting and assisting them in order to respect others as well. All children and especially street children therefore can be made useful citizens in the society by being taken through an education system. Through education of such children, their families' economic status changes and ultimately become empowered and self-sustaining entities.

Alam and Wajidi (2014) recommended that the process and techniques of educating the street children must be friendly and simple. All these therefore points to the fact that education to street children is very key to the society for it produces useful citizens and it should be organized in such a way that it is appealing to street children. It should be designed in a very friendly way so as not to discourage street children from enrolling in school.

The universal right to education has a solid basis in international law and is a key component of the United Nation's 2030 Agenda, centred on leaving no one behind. The goal to get all children, adolescents and youth into education by 2030 has seen

rising global enrolment rates reach 82% in 2017, the figure being as high as 91% for primary school aged children. Despite this commendable progress, street children are at risk of being left behind. The numerous societal, practical and health barriers street children face mean that they are still among the millions of the world's hardest-to-reach children who are unable to attend mainstream schools and face high drop-out rates from formal education programs (Natalie Turgut, 2017).

Improving the value and scope of education and redesigning its objectives to take cognizance of the significance of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) should be any country's utmost priority and in particular inclusive education. Obviously, all children of school-going age should access basic education for free which is applicable for both developed and developing countries around the globe. In order to fully benefit from the education, each Government must ensure that all children are not harmed in any kind of violence, discriminations, and any restricted policies that the schools provide (World Education Forum, 2000).

Efforts by individual Governments in the recent past has led to commendable increase in enrolment of children of school-going age. However, a high proportion of children especially street children still do not have access to basic education, while those who enrol continue to drop out of school. Street children like all the other children have the right to obtain decent education. However, majority of street children of school-going age are not attending school.

Successful policy interventions programs are directly tied to the quality and access in basic and all the other levels of education. But too often than not, scarce resources

may hinder process of development and implementation of Government interventions. Low- and middle-income countries including.

Education is undoubtedly one of the greatest aspects of social development that is greatly emphasized throughout the world. The main reason for this emphasis is the importance of education in social, economic and political development (King and Hill 2013; World Bank, 2011, Republic of Kenya 2008 & Ministry of Education (MOE), 2011). Because of this importance, the Government has devoted vast amounts of resources to education sector in order to improve enrolment levels as a way of widening access to education (Karega 2014; Hyde, 2008). Similarly, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO) and international organizations like UNICEF have made efforts to boost access to education by all children of school-going age.

The Kenyan Government has put significant efforts to address issues of street children by formulating policies, and setting up departments and ministries that deal with youths, gender and children. The Government had put strong efforts to promote high quality of education and new ways to cater for the needs of children as well as finding the solutions to achieve the EFA goals by 2015. Moreover, the Government introduced policies for inclusive society that mainly focused on equal opportunity to all children with no exception for all to gain benefits from education and contribution to poverty alleviation. For example, the establishment of Ministry of Home Affairs which runs preventive programs and support for street children and establishment of the children's department under the Ministry of Home Affairs (MHA) to run public, supportive and preventive programs for the benefit of actual and potential street children can be cited (GOK, 2013)

When data on enrolment rates are gathered, street children not enrolled in schools are often not included – as most of the data is gathered through household surveys (UNESCO Ed. 2017). This therefore means that they are neither part of the 91% of children in primary schools, nor part of the 9% of children not in primary schools – they remain invisible altogether (UNESCO, 2017). But this does not mean that they are a number that can be ignored; in case of anything, they need to be seriously considered. It is time to ensure street children no longer remain invisible but are able to benefit from the efforts towards inclusive and quality education for all. It is also paramount to ensure that they are included in data collection on access to education. Most street children are unable to attend school simply because they have to work to support themselves and the few who do go to school are regularly absent and achieve poor learning outcomes due to lack of time to study.

UNESCO Bangkok, the Consortium for street children and Child Hope Asia initiated the "Promotion of Improved Learning Opportunities for street children Project" to facilitate knowledge-sharing between organizations and capacity-building of practitioners working with street children. Project activities took place during 2004 and 2005 in four selected countries within the Asia-Pacific region: Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan and the Philippines with an overall objective of promoting quality of education for street children within the framework of the National EFA Action Plans in the participating countries. As a result, Resource Pack was developed to assist those working with and for street children to learn from these experiences and to access many useful resources for their work. This resource pack provided beneficial resources to strengthen the expertise of practitioners who worked with street-living and street-working children. Section one of the pack contained country case studies

on Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan and the Philippines and a synthesized regional study while section two contained policy forum reports for advocacy that provided reviews of policies and programs for educating street children and policy recommendations and commitments. This approach should act as a benchmark for many countries if policy issues for street children are to be exhaustively handled. The national EFA action plans need to be reviewed in this context and in cooperation with NGOs and their network to accommodate the needs of street children through flexible, child-friendly and inclusive approaches (UNESCO, 2017).

The international developmental movement on human rights and educational access rights was started 1948 to establish the Universal Declaration of Human Rights to provide education as compulsory for everyone (Stubbs, 2008). Each individual is expected to sustain the developmental context of inclusive education as a fundamental right to access education and not to be excluded from the formal system (Stubbs, 2008).

The recognized international event called Education for All (EFA) Declaration in 1990 which was held in Jomtien, Thailand, endorsed universalizing access and promoting equity to education for all children, youth and adults, especially for the vulnerable and marginalized groups from any form of discrimination and exclusion (Stubbs, 2008). Lunenburg (2000) stated that the investment in the early stages of child development is very crucial to the development of children's readiness for formal schooling and retention but also their achievements in later stages of life. There is recognition of the importance of educational opportunity for all citizens especially for the vulnerable and poor children to access primary education (Dy & Ninomiya, 2003). This indeed is a justification that children should not lose their

early stages of life in the street but instead be given education in preparation for their subsequent development to be useful personalities in the society.

According to the World Declaration on Education for All supported by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Convention on the Rights of the Child, all kinds of children including children from difficult circumstances, ethnicity and vulnerable children should be able to access and get benefits from education (Jomtien, 1990). Following this, World Education Forum was therefore established in 2000 with the purpose of promoting EFA learning goals which were to be achieved by 2015 in order to make sure that all children had equal access to and complete free and compulsory quality basic education.

In Indonesia, Hum, Darnawati and Irawaty (2018) investigated street children's problem in getting education. The study observed that despite the fact that every child in the country had the same right to get education, majority of the street children were not able to claim what they are supposed to obtain. To the majority of the street children underprivileged economic conditions did not allow them to get decent education and to play like other children. The study indicated that most street children in Indonesia underwent some financial and family problems which made them unable to afford education tuition fees. These problems appear to be the factors causing them to stop attending schools and therefore prefer to be street children and work as street musicians, bearers, and parking attendants so as to meet their day-to-day needs. According to Hum et al, (2018), the main purpose for street children education should not be limited to imparting information which is relevant for examination but rather to seek to provide education that is relevant to the children's impoverished circumstances and the need to earn a living.

In another study in Indonesia, Jamiludin, et al (2018) investigated street children's problem in getting education focusing on economic and parental factors. They opined that every child in this universe has the same right to get education. However, some street children are not able to claim what they are supposed to obtain, such as the right to get a decent education and to play like other children due to economic conditions which do not allow them to obtain their rights. The researchers attempt to facilitate them to develop their skills in English so that they can achieve their dreams. The research result indicated that most street children in Kendari underwent some financial and family problems which made them unable to afford education tuition fee. In essence, these problems appear to be the factors causing them to stop attending schools and therefore they prefer to be street children and work as street musicians, bearers, and parking attendants to meet their day-to-day needs. Based on their research, they concluded that education problem is still regarded as the responsibility of the Government. Cultural factors and lack of parents' attention to the importance of education cause street children to help their parents work for a living, leading them to drop out of school. The Government therefore needs to conduct an education campaign in form of socialization and face-to-face dialogue.

Boholano (2016) in his study of learning skills of the street children in Metro Cebu revealed that most of the street children are not in school because they either dropped out or have not been to school since birth. Furthermore, most of them were living in the street selling candies and cigarettes and roaming about as beggars or scavengers. The study also disclosed that they are educable and willing to learn, provided proper attention and intervention are given to them. The study concluded that street children need proper care by providing them with the right amounts of nutritious foods that

they need and encouraging them to value-laden education that will develop their potential in the academic faculty making them functional literate. Therefore, quality education should be afforded to all children for they are the hope of our country.

Athi (2016) investigated the street children in Cambodia as an impediment to inclusive education and challenged education access processes and strategies to reintegrate them back. This was in the light of concern that though education is considered as a fundamental component for an honoured life of each individual and placed as the first priority in the Government's rectangular strategies, many school-going-age children are still out of school. Among other objectives, the study aimed at identifying policy mechanisms to intervene so that they could reintegrate street children in to the mainstream schooling.

From the study, it was found that some challenges such as poverty or social-economic burdens, low family aspiration of their children's future, domestic violence, child abuse, child labours, social ignorance, poor social services, and unfriendly school environment, impeded street children to access education. The study revealed among other factors that successful mechanism of interventions to reintegrate street children to school should include provision of free healthcare, childcare, food and nutrition and education services.

Mtaita (2015) investigated the perceptions of street children and the role of community in supporting their access to education; a case study of Ilala municipality, Tanzania. This study focused on the perceptions of street children and the role of community in supporting them to access education. It specifically explored the perceptions that primary school teachers have about street children, and how the

street children identify themselves. It also examined the role of the community in supporting street children to access education. The key findings revealed that there are mixed feelings in identifying and talking about street children. There are those who identified street children as just like any other children and can be accepted in to school set up again and there are those who considered them as polluted by the street life and impossible to be normal. Education therefore should be able to correct this perceived "abnormal nature" of street children and re-integrate them back to the society. Street children on their side, identified themselves as normal kids, but there are those who identified themselves with the names that other people identify them with, such as *"chokoraa", "watoto wa mitaani",* thugs, homeless, and the like. Furthermore, the role of the community in supporting the street children to go to school was identified as offering these children shelter, home and other necessities (Mtaita, 2015).

The United Nation (UN) policy on education is that it is a human right (UN; 1948) and that all children must receive basic primary education. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child has had a huge impact in defining conceptual frameworks and humanitarian concerns regarding children in adversity. The Convention asserted a number of rights for children worldwide, formulated basic principles to be applied, and created a legal obligation to put these rights and principles into practice. Concern for children in difficult circumstances was no longer a matter of humanitarian and charitable concern, but now it is a legal responsibility falling on the state as part of the Convention (Panter-Brick, 2001). The Convention heralded a change in the prevailing discourse regarding street children and more generally, children facing adversity. The emphasis moved significantly from

highlighting the needs of vulnerable children to defending their rights as citizens (Moss et al., 2000). It is not enough to simply ensure that children attend school but the convention on the Rights of the Child is clear that every child has the right to quality education that is relevant to his or her individual life and personal development. The Convention on the Rights of the Child's perspective on quality education encompasses not only children's cognitive needs, but also their physical, social, moral, emotional and spiritual development (UNICEF, 1999; ANPPCAN, 1995).

Street children world over have varied and almost the same problems in their daily life. Rafi, Ali, & Aslam (2012) points out that problems faced by street children in their environment are often hunger, lack of adequate shelter, clothes, and other basic needs, as well as lack of/or limited educational opportunities, health care, and other social services. More specifically, Hossain (2016) spells out the three most common problems, namely housing, food and lack of jobs. Most street children have to take harmful jobs in exchange for food and shelter. Hai (2014) argues that to keep the wolf of hunger away from their stomach many of them were obliged to embrace hazardous jobs. Myburgh, Moolla, and Poggenpoel (2015) on their part argue that children living on the street usually try to avoid the police arrests by hiding in very dangerous places like in the tunnels or in the heaps of garbage dumped in horrible sites. They can stay in such environments for weeks or even months.

Most street children do not go to school since there are some administration fees to be paid. Awatey (2014) says that “some street children really struggle for survival. When survival becomes an issue, long term strategies tend to be constrained by the need to fulfil the most basic necessities of life”. The importance of education is clearly stated

in the 1945 Constitution Article 31, which indicates that every citizen has the right to get an education. Furthermore, the 1945 Constitution Article 34 also says that compulsory education is the responsibility of the state, particularly public educational institutions, local Governments, and communities. In line with, Al-Dien (2009) also argues that "the Convention on the Rights of the Child is clear: every child has the right to quality education that is relevant to his or her individual life and personal development". Based on the above, it can be implied that education plays significant role in life.

According to Yohanes (2005) and Cambodian street children profile, majority of street children give up school because of the poverty (the economic reasons) that their families cannot afford the school tuition fee, and informal costs such as learning materials, informal fees to teachers and school uniforms. Commonly, they are demanded to play an important role to generate incomes as one of their family members' responsibilities.

According Gurung (2014) research report on the policy of the rights of street children, barriers to education for out-of-school children, particularly street children, include trafficking, political instability, HIV/AIDS, sociocultural structure, poverty, family disturbance, sexual exploitation, violence, poor parenting, illiteracy and natural disasters. These factors could be obvious obstacles that prevent street children from accessing educational system and leads them to street life. From this, there is a clear manifestation of lack of clarity on the responsibility of stakeholders on how these children could be helped to enrol in schools. Alternatives should therefore be sought to counter the spread of this menace in the society by investigating on the best approaches to manage it.

Lalor, (2000) illustrated that most parents of street children are of low educational status and because of this they are in poor condition both in the urban and rural areas. Bhowmik (2015) added to his study about the Street Vendors in Asia that street children's parents who are the street vendors have poor background and the level of parents' education much influenced their children's sustainability. When they divorce their husbands or wives, the divorced parents do not want to get new partners, although they ask their children to work and help them to earn income. Such acts in the family set-ups promote the increased number of street children in the cities. To contain such acts among these families will bring down the numbers of children in the streets. The only fast remedy for such families to get out of this status is through education for their children. But as this is postulated, the big question now is who among the Governments, civil societies and non-Governmental organizations should check on these vices that promote and increase the number of street children in the cities? As much as Governments and other players have put a lot of efforts to manage issues of street children, more of it should still be directed to activities that target such root causes.

Ruiz (2016) stated that poor access to education is one of the main issues for street children. Generally, they are excluded from schools for several causes such as the need to work for money, inability to pay schools fees, cost of basic needs and distance of their house from school. Yohanes, (2015) indicated that school environment was also a factor which was not favourable to street children in school and especially those children who did not have good relationship with school teachers and therefore they could not stay safe and secure to learn in school because their teachers always use violent and cruel actions and lead them to drop out of school.

Most of the formal school systems may also be a hindrance for street children to attend school because they may be so used to a particular way of life that is not found in the school environment. This makes it difficult for street children to access free education in the formal schooling system as they are in the disadvantaged groups (Ruiz, 2016).

The phenomenon of street children in Tanzania has been the subject of several important reports in the last decades; the report of the United Nations committee on the rights of the child; the national report on the follow-up to the World Summit for Children (WSC) and the situation analysis by UNICEF (UNICEF, 2002). All of these reports attempted to synthesize information about the condition of street children in a manner which would be widely accessible to planners at many levels to regulate and improve life of "street children". Within their plans for improvement of street children lives include provision of basic education.

The Kenya Government passed that every child should be entitled to education, the provision of which it shall be the responsibility of the Government and parents (Kenya Gazette; 2011). This means therefore that education for street children is a right and they should not be denied. Street children's lack of access to education is therefore considered a violation of one of the fundamental human rights: the right to education proclaimed in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights to the 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNICEF, 1999). Education is key to the protection of democratic institutions and human rights through well informed citizens. All children including the vulnerable and disadvantaged children should enrol in schools to achieve their education. The policy of integration and inclusion has been implemented to reach the majority of children with special needs (MOEST,

2004). The marginalized groups like the orphans, children involved in labour, street children and girls is a challenge which has prompted the Government to put up boarding primary schools in the Arid and Semi-Arid areas (ASAE), and provided School Feeding Program (SFP) to retain children in schools and to enhance concentration.

Despite of the inability of some street children to attend school, Malindi and Machenjedze (2012) reported the advantages of school attendance by street children to include among others, the optimism about the future and change in social behaviour. The school provides a safe and secure environment where the children develop resilience and basic skills of life. Education therefore is an important tool to empower marginalized groups (Njoroge, 2014). Even with this understanding, many street children in Kenya have not been accorded opportunity to access education and are thus disadvantaged when it comes to participation in affairs of the nation. However, over decades the Government has recognized the importance of children in its development efforts and has devoted considerable resources to child development programs especially in education and health (Kisirkoi & Mse, 2016).

2.3 Policy Interventions

2.3.1 Global Overview

Human beings value children for they determine the communities' future and place them at the Centre of their family life. Over the decades, Governments have recognized the importance of children in their development efforts and have devoted considerable resources to child development especially in the fields of education and health. There are many international, regional and national interventions to reduce the numbers of vulnerable children including the street children by both developed and

developing countries. The numbers of such children population cannot yet be determined accurately as they always move irregularly (Patriasih, Widiaty, Dewi, & Sukandar, 2010). Children living in the streets are a global phenomenon yet little is known about what it means to be a street child not attending school (Dladla Jacob & Ogina T.A. 2018). Teachers and the general public have different perceptions on street children and their education. Street children phenomenon has been experienced across the world over the past decades and remains a reality in many developing countries. Street children work almost the whole day in very dangerous situations and are vulnerable to exploitation and in most cases do not have access to education.

According to a UNICEF report of 2015, developing countries had more street children than the developed countries due to poverty levels and ineffective policies. An estimated 10 million were in Africa while 25 million were in Asia while India is home to the world's largest population of street children, estimated at 18 million (UNICEF, 2015). Owing to unemployment, increasing rural-urban migration, attraction of city life and a lack of political will, the number of street children in developing countries is increasing rapidly (Giles, 2011). Kopoka (2000) contended that the problems of street children are a growing concern worldwide, more so in African countries. He also noted that more than 10 million children in Africa live away from their families and most of them are found in cities and towns living as street children and not attending school. Among many other parameters mentioned by the UNICEF report of 2015, ineffective policies may have contributed to many of the street children not to access education. There could be other possibilities including the adequacy of the available policies among others that may have contributed to the said scenario.

Provision of education to all school-going children has continuously been a mirage to many nations of the world. It is increasingly recognised that formal school alone cannot provide quality basic education for 'all'. The global progress made towards Education for All (EFA) since the World Education Forum in 2000 has arguably been significant, particularly with regard to enrolment and gender parity at primary level. Yet, there were more than 57 million out-of-school children of primary age worldwide in 2011. At least another 69 million young adolescents were not attending primary or secondary school, due to the multiple and often inter-connected disadvantages they face, such as poverty, rural location, gender bias, disability and social discrimination. Moreover, the current structure of formal education in many countries is in itself excludes specific groups of children. To uphold the right to education of those who are not enrolled in schools, diverse forms of provision through different learning pathways are required. Non-formal education is one such pathway. Characterised by a high degree of flexibility and openness to change and innovation in its organisation, pedagogy and delivery modes, non-formal education caters to diverse and context-specific learning needs of children, young people and adults worldwide. It thereby involves a wide range of stakeholders, including educational establishments, the private sector, non-governmental organisations and public institutions (UNICEF, 2014). Non-formal education has been evolved over past decades and regained currency in recent years in light of changing educational and developmental landscapes (Council of Europe, 2003; Rogers, 2004; Hoppers, 2006, 2007b; Rose, 2009; UNESCO Bangkok, 2012; UNESCO and UNICEF, 2013).

Several global initiatives were conducted to address the challenge of street children in the developing countries including the African Countries. These initiatives include an

introduction of Millenium Development Goals and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Despite the implementation of aforementioned global initiatives, the problem of street children is still a daily reality in African Countries (Kopoka, 2000; URT, 2009; De Benitez, 2011). This situation is attributed by absence of comprehensive interventions for addressing income poverty and promoting family development. Interventions regarding income poverty have seen separated which results to limited linkage among income poverty, family development and street children in the developing countries. There is no accurate information regarding the exact figure of street children around the global and the estimated figure differs according to the source.

African countries especially the Sub-Saharan countries are faced with extreme poverty (Ward and Seager, 2010; Le Roux, 2016). The rampant poverty in Sub-Saharan Countries has contributed to the problem of street children who do not have an access to education, nutrition, food, shelter, water, sanitation and good health services (Kopoka, 2000). In addition, the consequence of poverty, with reference to income poverty, is argued to be the main cause of street children (World Bank, 2019). This is because income poverty determines the family development level in terms of family's ability to accommodate the basic needs of its members including children (World Bank, 2019).

Recently, Tanzania has developed a number of National documents to guide Social Welfare Programs including those of children. These documents include the National Guidelines for Economic Strengthening of Most Vulnerable Children Households; The Law of the Child Act of 2009; The Child Protection Regulations of 2013 and the Child Development Policy of 2008. Other documents include Safe Family

Reunification Guidelines for Child Victims of Trafficking in Tanzania (2016); and Standard Operating Procedures for Protecting, Assisting and Referring Trafficked Children in Tanzania (2016). This indicates that Tanzania is not short of the National Frameworks that protect and promote Children's Welfare but the challenge of having street children still dominates the social dialogues.

Nigeria for example has an under-18-years' population of over 75 million and more than 60% of these children are living in poverty (De Milliano & Plavgo, 2018). Research shows that over 15% of the total Nigerian children are not in school or acquiring education with about 12 million children between the ages of 10–14 years forced into domestic enslavement and other vulnerable conditions (Okeshola & Adenugba, 2018). The Federal Government of Nigeria promulgated the Child Rights Act (CRA) in 2003 and there are many programmes emerging in addition to previous programmes, benefiting children of which the street child is a part (Owolabi, 2017). These programmes include the provision of support in the area of feeding, clothing, housing, medical care and education. These events were meant to raise significant development in alleviating the phenomenon of street children and related challenges in the country. There are also some government agencies as well as non-governmental organisations (NGOs), community-based organisations (CBOs) and faith-based organisations (FBOs) working to support the street children in various areas in Nigeria to access some of the basic needs including education.

Despite all these efforts, the problem of street children seems to be expanding unabated while it is becoming a permanent feature of Nigerian societies. Education remains a key social component and process in capacity building and the maintenance of society (Faegerlind & Saha, 2016). It remains a key variable in the development

strategy of every nation. It is a weapon for acquiring knowledge, skills and habits for survival in an ever-changing world. It remains a key via which the challenges of children in street situations will be defeated.

A major cause of streetism in children in Nigeria is the lack of access to basic education, poverty, unemployment and the harsh effects of structural adjustment programmes (Abari & Audu, 2013). To bridge this gap, many states have adopted policies that promote free education. One of these policies is Nigeria's Universal Basic Education (UBE) Programme, commissioned in 1999, which promotes free universal basic education for every Nigerian child of school-going age as one of the mandates (Gabriel, 2013).

The influx of street children is a growing trend in Ghana. Gyan (2016) posited that the street children phenomenon continues to increase even though social intervention policies aimed at preventing street children influx are continually being introduced by the government. The Ghana Statistical Service (2018) reported an estimated 90,000 street children in the Greater Accra Region. An important focus within the social protection space and policy debates is to understand the high influx of children living on the streets in major towns (Kakuru et al., 2019) and the impact of social intervention policies in curbing the problem. Children who are homeless constitute the largest vulnerable group, and their social protections remain far less developed than for the older population (Kamerman & Gatenio, 2006).

The problem of child streetism has grown over the years and has become a recognized national and international issue. Ghana's population is estimated at 30 million with the majority living in the Greater Accra, Ashanti, Eastern, and Western region (Ghana

Statistical Service, 2018), with an estimated 300,000 children living on the street (Department of Social Welfare [Department of Social Welfare,2019). The influx of these children on the street is a worrying trend because life on the streets is a challenge to meet basic human needs and for access to health care services. The exposure of these children on the street is made worse by the lack of education on sexually transmitted diseases such as AIDS and other sexual and reproductive health issues. Associated with these challenges are serious child and family welfare issues including traditional harmful practices such as early marriage and female genital mutilation; exclusion of children with disabilities; and limited access to education for orphans, vulnerable children, and children with special needs.

In various African countries such as Ethiopia, Zambia and Botswana one of the most rapidly increasing welfare problems is that of street children (Mwansa, Mufune, & Osei-Hwedie, (1994). In Zambia, Children have been living in the streets for a number of years and are highly visible in the urban cities of Zambia. According to a study conducted in 1991 by Lungwagwa, there was an estimated 35,000 street children in the country. But pressure began to mount over the years from the donor agencies to the Zambian Government on the need to implement strategies to manage these street children. Zambian policy interventions have proved not to have borne fruit as it has been using a one-size-fit-all approach for diverse groups (MCDSS, 2016). This assumption may be the key underpinning reason as to why many interventions seem not to yield the expected results of giving many street children opportunities to attend school.

Policy implementation problems found in Philadelphia area under the Temporary Assistance to Needy Families (TANF) reveals massive delays in program start ups

and strained program operations (Roberta Rehner Iversen, 2000). Such barriers to implementation occurred regularly, but received little public attention. Miguel Nino-Zarazua & Serena Masino (2016) in their research on types of interventions that can improve the quality of education in developing countries concluded that interventions are more effective at improving student performance and learning when social norms and inter-temporal choices are factored in the design of education policies, and when two or more drivers of change are combined. Thus, supply-side interventions alone are less effective than when complemented by community participation or incentives that shift preferences and behaviours. This study targeted provision of quality education to learners in formal education system which may have excluded street children because of the nature of their environment.

In Malaysia, the Child Act (2001) was designed to provide care and protection to all children while the National Advisory and Consultative Council on children was also established in addition to the Coordinating Council for the Protection of Children.

Namibian Government on its part passed a Children Act aimed at protecting the rights of all children. However, little or nothing has been achieved in the area of implementation of these pieces of legislations in so far as protection and provision of basic services to the street children are concerned.

Over the years, there have been some improvements in the area of legislation on child right in some Third World Countries. On this front, Mensah Williams and Winkler (2004) noted that the Nigerian Parliament for example passed a Child Right Act (2003), which set out the rights and responsibilities of a child and provided for a system of child justice administration.

In Egypt, the Government has an obligation to provide education to all children although many actors ranging from international agencies to local communities, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and religious groups play vital roles in delivering education. For provision of education to street children, the Egyptian Government has boasted a number of NGOs to address them. Majority of the NGOs endeavour to provide programs that cater for street children's special needs, which include educational programs, family reunion, substance abuse eradication, emergency services, health programs, child rights and protection (ODCCP, 2002). Despite the emphasis of the Government through the NGOs to provide special education, the success of the programs in promoting access to basic education by street children has not been critically assessed to determine its achievement. Therefore, there is need to assess success of Government policies and interventions towards addressing the plight of street children towards access to education.

Al-Dien (2011) investigated the role of Hope Village Society (HVS) on Education for street children in Egypt to establish the strengths and weaknesses of NGOs in providing street children with education. The findings of the study revealed that HVS played a major role in providing education for street children in Egypt. However since its establishment it had recorded fluctuating enrolment rates. The report therefore suggested that Egyptian Government should offer more financial contributions to organizations that provide education to street children and that there was an immediate need to engage other possible partners of HVS's education programs (Al-Dien (2011).

The above study focused on the challenges of providing education to street children but failed to highlight the success of the organization's policy implementation in

relation to providing street children with access to education which is a concern to this study. The study was also conducted in Egypt and focused on the role of NGOs in providing education to the street children while the current study will be conducted in Kenya and will focus on the effectiveness of Government policy interventions in promoting access to education by street children.

Introduction of Universal Primary Education (UPE) in many countries in Sub-Saharan Africa has seen many children who had been out of school enrolled in school and provided with the opportunity to pursue an education (GOK, 2005a; Ngware, Oketch, Ezeh, & Mudege, 2009; Ohba, 2009; Oketch, Mutisya, Ngware, & Ezeh, 2010). Despite the fact that the main goal of many countries in Sub Saharan Africa was to provide universal education and Free Primary Education (FPE), the goal has been elusive for years after independence. With the inclusion of UPE in the Millennium Development Goals agenda, the attention toward achieving UPE has been accelerated, especially between 1990 and 2000 (Watkins et al., 2008). The accelerated effort has been demonstrated in Malawi (1994), Uganda (1997), Tanzania and Lesotho (2000), and Burundi, Rwanda, Ghana, Cameroon, and Kenya (2003) (Grogan, 2008; Kadzamira & Rose, 2003; Watkins et al., 2008). Despite the introduction of FPE in these respective countries, research evidence shows that there has been concern with quality of instruction offered even when many Governments have put a lot of emphasis on access and transition (Deininger, 2003; Oketch & Somerset, 2010).

In Tanzania, tracing back during Arusha declaration in 1967 Mwalimu Julius Nyerere advocated for a self-reliance policy in education which anticipated that through this policy, all children would automatically attend primary school education and be

prepared to carry out productive activities after completion of primary education. However, as time went by social economic conditions changed which resulted to the increase of number of children moving to urban areas year after year (Nyoni, 2007). Children under 15 years constituted about 46% of population in Tanzania whereby the urban population was estimated at about 26% (Ibid). Therefore, there has been an increase of street children since early 1990's due to various reasons varying from one location to another.

According to Rweboshora (2002) impacts of poverty in households and the effect of HIV/AIDS are among the major reasons behind this phenomenon. A survey conducted by Mkombozi (2010) revealed that there was an increase of street children and that 22% of children migrating to the streets were as a result of school exclusion associated with inability to pay school fees. Moreover, boys and girls who live and work on the streets were vulnerable to wide and extreme violations of their rights. Street children also had difficulties in accessing basic services and were verbally, physically and sexually abused and hence socially excluded and unable to access basic services including education.

Anna (2014) in her research on the effectiveness of intervention strategies used towards addressing the problem of street children in Dar es Salaam identified non-attendance to school by street children as an area of concern and that policy interventions should be re-looked at. It is out of this observation that this study is premised and especially for Kenya because Anna's study was based in Dar es Salaam. Policy intervention measures may have been put in place but then the aspect of their effectiveness in addressing what was intended to address need to be assessed.

Many developing countries all over the world have social, economic, and political problems which force some poor families to live and work in the streets with extremely difficult situation. As a result of this phenomenon, their children (street children) do not attend school and therefore lack education and inevitably lead them to be harassed and engaged in vices like prostitution (Radmard, & Beltekin, 2014).

The level of educational background of the street children may differ from one country to another. A national census by Kenyan Government on street children and street mothers to improve their living standard conducted by the department of social affairs in collaboration with two local NGOs; Catholic Action for street children (CASC) and Street Girls Aids (SAID) showed that 41.6% of the street children had dropped out of school; many of whom had dropped out within the past 15 years while 58.4% had never attended school at all. The percentages of street children involved in taking drugs and alcohol were 6.8% and 3.6% respectively. Having such a big percentage of children in the streets and without attending school is indeed a reason to worry all citizens of the world.

With this number of children graduating in to adults without basic skills and knowledge in life would give to a society a population that may be difficult to manage in future. There is need therefore for Governments to strengthen policy interventions to enhance education to street children with a hope of instilling basic virtues of good citizens and raising the living standards of their citizens and the overall development of the country.

One of the most conspicuous symbols of poverty for any country is the growing presence of children in the streets who have not had access to school and who make a

living by scavenging, hawking and soliciting for favours while their peers are attending school. In view of the importance that has recently been accorded to education by many countries, the allocation of education budgets in various developing countries has relatively increased. However, this financial allocation to education seem not to create a big impact on alleviating the problem of the presence of big numbers of street children who are not attending school as anticipated by the various legislations and legal provisions to facilitate their reintegration.

Children living in the streets are a global phenomenon and its concept has multiple approaches and interpretations. Yet little is known about what it means to be a street child attending school or not attending school. In Indonesia, Yohanes (2015) summarized the common approaches to street children as street-based approach, family and community-based approaches and children's family caravan centers approach. Street-based approach involves communication with street children and listening to their problems, solving their problems, supervising and counselling them within the streets. This approach aims at preventing them from negative influences of the streets and instilling in them good values, knowledge and vision. Children's Friendly Caravan Center based approach provides street children with shelter in a central or a Centre for activities or a house at a certain time. In this respect street children are provided with services that include education. Family and Community based approach is another approach and involves families and communities attended to for the purpose of preventing their children from going in to the streets and providing facilities needed by the children as substitutes. This approach aims at developing awareness among family members and communities of their

responsibilities in solving the problems of street children. This is a non-formal education program that can be applied across the board (Yohanes, 2015).

2.3.2 Government Policy Interventions in Kenya

Education is one of the fundamentals of human rights and is recognized as a vital opportunity especially for children living in the underprivileged social conditions to get better life for their future. Kenyan Government has significantly strengthened its legislation on the rights of children, both in their recognition and in methods of protection for the last twenty years. Having ratified the 1990 UN International Convention on the Rights of the Child, Kenya revised its legislation on children in 2001 through the Children's Bill Act, translating some principles of the Convention, as well as those of the African Charter into national law. During the constitutional reform of 2010, some rights of the children were anchored in the constitution. All these legislations were put in place in order to prevent children from running to street life or/and protect street children from the many societal vices and allow them to enjoy their basic rights that include education. Casa Alianza (2004) noted that the social phenomenon of street children is increasing as the World population grows and in fact, the largest-ever global generation of children will be born in this decade.

Kenya also ratified and implemented the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) whose major benchmarks in dealing with the problem of street children have been included in the ratification of the Convention. For example, the convention on the rights of the child states clearly that, "every child has the right to quality education that is relevant to his or her individual life and personal development". Accordingly, the convention's perspective on quality education encompasses the children cognitive needs, their physical, social, moral, emotional and spiritual

development (UNICEF; 2015, ANPPCAN, 2014). Street children's lack of access to education is therefore considered a violation of fundamental human rights (UNICEF, 2013). The protocols among other provisions have safeguarded children's rights, best interests and participation in relevant decisions making process including their right to recovery, reintegration and compensation. It has also raised awareness among the public at large including the children, through information, education and training about preventive measures and harmful effects of the offences referred to in the OPSC.

From the aforementioned, it is clear that the state has a responsibility to accord all children the necessary support in accessing education. With education, any child would be in a position to access all the other rights as envisaged by CRC and the other protocols of the United Nations. Kenya became a signatory to the UN convention on the rights of the child as a major milestone in the protection and promotion of children's rights and welfare (The National Council for Children's Service 2015). Overall, Kenya has made great strides in endeavours to fulfil the rights of the child in spite of many challenges. There is still need however, to strengthen efforts and to establish mechanism for coordination and allocation of adequate resources to support children rights at both national and local levels and more so on the education for street children.

There are many challenges that street children face as they live in the streets and which by nature are demeaning and hence increases the number of them not being able to attend school or for those who may have had a chance to enrol drop out. Such children are forced by circumstances that drive them to work instead of spending their time to attend school or even engage in constructive games and activities appropriate

to their ages. Although some of them have precluded their school life to be on the streets, they are more or less affected in their performance negatively. A range of Government policy interventions to improve access to education and ensure that all school-going children receive basic education have been implemented over years. Several authors however, have repeatedly grappled with the issue of identifying effective policy interventions and strategies for street children (Radmard & Beltekin, 2014).

Under the National Alliance Rainbow Coalition (NARC) government (2003), Office of the Vice President and Ministry of Home Affairs was created with the mandate to coordinate all children services as stipulated in the Children's Act of 2001. The Government also set up the National Council for Children Services to oversee proper planning, financing, coordination and supervision of child welfare activities. Representatives were drawn from relevant government ministries, civil societies, private sector and religious organizations. At the district level these structures are called Area Advisory Councils (AACs) (Kenya Gazette, 2002). In 2008, the Government of Kenya reorganized its ministries and the Department of Children Services was moved from Office of the Vice President and Ministry of Home Affairs to Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development currently under the state department of Labour Social Security and Services. The Ministry through the Department of Children Services empowers the vulnerable groups and children in need of care and protection such as street children, orphans, marginalized children. Although the governments have all this rehabilitative strategies, the number of street children is escalating therefore this study sought to find ways of improving this efforts by evaluating better rehabilitative strategies in Kenya. The NARC Government

through the Ministry of Local Government embarked on a rehabilitation program for street children in collaboration with the National Youth Services (NYS) to offer trainings, in an effort to provide them with rehabilitation services, non formal education, vocational skills, reintegration back to formal education and family reintegration. Reception centres were also set up in four (4) provinces including Central, Coast, Rift valley and Nairobi. In the reception centres street children are received, assessed, categorized and given appropriate support and assistance or referred to relevant agencies Consortium for street children (2011). In 2003, 6000 ex-street children were rehabilitated and enrolled in different primary schools countrywide while 800 other street children acquired vocational skills in various national youth service units countrywide. This study sought to establish the social status of these graduates from these rehabilitation interventions so as to see the programme's effectiveness and impact. Under the president Kibaki NARC administration, the Government of Kenya made great strides in the provisions of supportive services to street children. Various bodies were created and mandated to work with street children in Kenya. In 2003, The Street Families Rehabilitation Trust Fund (SFRTF) was established under the Ministry of Local Government now under Ministry of Devolution and Planning through a Gazette Notice No. 1558 of 11th March 2003 (Undugu, 2008). The mandate of SFRTF was to coordinate rehabilitation activities for street families in Kenya in partnership with other service providers, educate the public, mobilize resources, manage a fund to support rehabilitation and reintegration activities, and encourage decentralization of activities to County governments to benefit those surviving on streets of Kenya's towns among other functions (Awori, 2007). This however has not been done by SFRTF either because of lack of good will from the stakeholders or inadequate resources. Apart from

government funding, this study sought to establish other sources of funding to street children rehabilitation interventions. The Street Families Rehabilitation Trust Fund (STRF) rehabilitates and returns street children to their families and supports their re-integration into the community. The Trust has moved from emergency response and immediate basic needs such as food, clothing, shelter, health and psychosocial support to long-term programs including support for their education, vocational skills and small scale business for self-reliant. Another government of Kenya strategy for improving street children social development was the National Youth Service Act, Chapter 208 provides for the establishment of a National Youth Service (NYS).

2.3.2.1 The National Pre-primary Education Policy (2018)

The constitution of Kenya 2010 provides the rights of every child that include education as enshrined in the Bill of rights. Article 53 of the constitution highlights the key fundamental rights of the child such as right to free and compulsory basic education among others. Basic education in this includes pre-primary, primary and secondary levels of education. Additionally, Article 54 guarantees the right to access of educational institutions and facilities for all children. The constitution obligates the state to take measures and ensure that young children access developmentally appropriate education level. In addition, the state is required to put in place affirmative action to ensure that marginalized groups are provided with special opportunities in educational and economic fields to enhance equity and inclusiveness.

Kenya Government ratified the Sustainable Development Goal number 4 that obligates the Government to ensure provision of inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all. Target 4.2 of this goal

commits to ensure that by 2030 all girls and boys have access to quality Early Childhood Development Care and pre-primary education so as to allow them to be ready for primary education. The Government of Kenya recognizing the importance of pre-primary education and in consultation with County Governments and other development partners developed the National Pre-primary Education Policy in 2017.

The National Pre-primary Education Policy refers to the elements of care, early stimulation and early learning experiences provided to children before entry to grade one. The policy focuses specifically on the education and training services for children attending pre-primary schools, their teachers and other child care givers. The development of this policy was informed by the need to provide quality, equitable, inclusive and relevant pre-primary education to enable children attain the highest requisite age-appropriate competencies in their cognitive, effective, socio-economical and psycho motor domains (National Pre-primary Education Policy, 2018).

The National Pre-primary Education Policy was intended to align the provisions of early childhood development education and training to the constitution of Kenya 2010, the Kenya vision 2030 and other international protocols. The policy also provided a frame of reference to the County Government in their endeavours to provide quality and relevant pre-primary education in line with the fourth schedule of the constitution. The fourth schedule assigned the national Government the function of developing education policies, standards, curriculum, examinations and granting university charters while assigning the County Governments the function of pre-primary education, village polytechnics, home craft centres and child care facilities.

Pre-primary education continues to receive a lot of attention in terms of policies and programs from the National Government. Such initiatives have led to improvement in access to education across the country by increasing the enrolment from 2.71 million in 2012 to 3.2 million in 2016. In spite of these encouraging figures, statistics of street children within this bracket is very negligible. This in essence means that many street children of this age group are not captured despite the fact they were also expected to benefit from this policy. The policy requires that all children are eligible for admission to Grade1 after their sixth birthday and that no interviews/examinations shall be conducted for the purpose of admission to Grade 1. It also requires that there shall be no charges in any public pre-primary schools. Practically, all these aspects that the policy wanted to prevent from excluding some children from access to education are still the one expected from the street children to fulfil.

The national pre-primary education policy provided for guidelines on management of various aspects touching on provision of quality education services to all children (including street children) at this level. This therefore calls for an assessment on the contribution of this policy towards enhancing access to pre-primary education by the street children of school-going age (National Pre-primary Education Policy, 2018).

Kenya's pre-primary education policy faces several challenges, including inadequate funding, insufficient infrastructure, and a lack of qualified teachers. Additionally, disparities in access and quality between urban and rural areas, along with cultural and socio-economic barriers, hinder its effectiveness.

The 2003 introduction of free primary education (FPE) negatively affected the pre-primary education programs in Kenya. Parents and other stakeholders had a feeling that pre-primary education was not a government priority and hence many parents

pulled out their children to stay at home, until they are of age to join FPE. Other parents failed to pay fees for the pre-school administrators which then affected the feeding programme and ECDE salaries. The prior enthusiasms that had been instilled in parents, teachers and other stakeholders on ECDE declined, (Karanja, 2015). The Government had commited to mainstreaming ECDE to primary education which would make it easy to monitor the centres. The children were expected to join from the age of four, and hence a comfortable transition from the centres to Standard 1. Over 20,000 teachers would be employed for nursery schools. However, this was contradicted by the ministry, which said the programme to be mainstreamed, had been hampered by lack of resources. On the contrary, efforts by the Ministry of Education to make Early Childhood Development Education part of the primary school system flopped in 2010.

The policy provides that education is a basic right for all children and that all children should have access to free and compulsory basic education. The policy also highlights the element of care to the learners and employment of care givers in the pre-primary schools should be given priority. The reality in the schools is that there are no care givers in our pre-primary schools employed by Government as envisaged by the policy.

The policy stresses provision of quality education which implies engagement of well trained teachers, provision of adequate learning materials and standard classrooms. All these are not available in most of the pre-primary schools in Kenya. The contributing factor on the failure of this aspect is lack of funding from the Government. As much as the government insist on the implementation of the policy,

it has done very little to facilitate its implementation by allocating comensurate budget for the activity.

The promulgation of the constitution of Kenya 2010 curved out the pre-primary section of education to the devolved unit. This therefore implied that the funding of the pre-primary education was fully the mandate of the County Governments. This meant that employment of the teachers, care givers and provision of learning materials and class rooms now was in the hands of county Governments. The approved schemes of service for teachers is very expensive to be implemented by the Counties and hence most of them have decided to do in piece meals. Even with this, there is no uniformity in the implementation and there exist huge variations in terms of the numbers of teachers engaged among the counties. This in itself will affect negatively the quality of education given to the learners in different Counties.

2.3.2.2 Policy of Free Primary Education in Kenya

Free Primary Education was introduced in Kenya as a commitment by the Government towards the realization of Universal Primary Education by 2005 and Education for All (EFA) by 2015. On launching the FPE, it was said that the program was in response to the World conference on education for all that was held in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990 and the World education forum in Dakar Senegal in 2000. Free Primary Education (FPE) led to significant increase in primary school enrolment. Among the children who were enrolled in school were street children but still many more of them remained in the streets.

The FPE program of 2003 was not the first initiative aimed at achieving UPE but had first been introduced in the country in 1974 when the Government at the time abolished the school fees for Standards one to four. The elimination of school fees was extended to Standards five to seven in 1978 and subsequently reintroduced in 1979 again. These school fees abolition initiatives had significant impact in increasing primary school enrolment, particularly for Standard one in 1981 (Ohba, 2009). However, scholars argue that one to two years after abolishing tuition fees in 2003, enrolments fell and drop out rates rose substantially (Oketch & Somerset, 2010). Experts attributed this phenomenon to declining quality of education due to massive surge in enrolment, overcrowding of classrooms and lack of textbooks and shortage of trained teachers (Oketch, Mutisya, Ngware, & Ezeh, 2010).

In spite of the free primary education in Kenya in 2003 it was estimated that about one million children would not have been enrolled in schools that year had it not been for this initiative, and who would mainly be from rural, arid, semi-arid and slum areas (Sivasubramaniam 2006). Furthermore, illnesses like Malaria and HIV/AIDS have caused many children to lose their parents and that there are about 2.6 million orphaned children in Kenya; where 1.2 million have lost parents due to HIV/AIDS (UNICEF 2011). Many of these children are then left to other relatives, often old or poor grandparents or older siblings, who are not able to provide fully for them. The bulk of this group ends up in the street as street children. When children are not supported with social services either by the Government or by the civil society, they often end up spending most of their days in the streets.

After the Kenyan Government introduced Free Primary Education (FPE), school fees no longer blocked poor children's access to primary education and within a year,

enrolment increased by 17%. It was expected that for FPE to be effective and sustainable, it should be a program that in the long run be accessible to all beneficiaries and provide opportunities to all school-age children to gain access to quality basic education for a full cycle of education. Some information exists on the impact of FPE on education; but the information is far from conclusive (Sivasubramaniam 2006).

The tens of thousands of "over-age" street children or those who dropped out of school to work and who now wished to return to finish their primary schooling increased with the introduction of FPE and who needed to be catered for urgently. While statistics on their numbers are not yet available, preliminary figures show enormous figures. In the Mukuru slum area of Nairobi for example, only about 500 of the 5,000 new pupils who enrolled in schools with the introduction of FPE were of "normal" school-going age. Meanwhile, many other marginalized children did not even make it to school. While some schools are genuinely full, others simply did not want to accept children who did not have the correct uniform, or who looked untidy, or had the “wrong background” which in most cases referred to street children.

While enrolment may have been free, the numerous hidden costs of education such as uniforms and textbooks meant that many if not all street children simply could not afford to be in mainstream schools. Moreover, for the many street children who are driven to the streets by poverty, attending school means that it would take time away from their income generating activities. Whilst no child should have to engage in work that limits their educational opportunities, to stop them earning money and attend full-time schooling is simply not realistic for street children whose families’ survival depends on them.

Evidence shows that FPE in Kenya was announced barely one month before the start of school term in January 2003. Therefore, rapid implementation was the main priority, and very little time was given for consultation with teachers (Somerset, 2009). Therefore, there was little time if any for teacher induction into the new FPE policy. There was inadequate teaching and learning resources coupled with financial constraints that led to ineffective implementation of the policy, and high pupil-teacher ratio with poor remuneration. The Government through session paper N0. 1 of 2005 recommended the development of a comprehensive Early Childhood Development Education (ECDE) and education policy frame work and service standard guidelines. The development of this policy frame work took cognizance of the critical role of investing in young children in order to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), poverty eradication, Child mortality rate, universal school enrolment, maternity mortality and creation of gender equality (Karanja, 2015).

The introduction of Free Primary Education (FPE) program in 2003 and Free Day Secondary Education (FDSE) in 2008 resulted in phenomenon growth of number of learners in our schools from 6.7 million in 2003 to over 12 million in 2015. Despite this, an estimated 1.9 million primary school-going-age children aged between 6 and 13 years and 2.7 million school-going children aged between 14 and 17 years were still out of school according to the Kenya Household Population Census (KHPC) of 2009.

Kenya's FPE policy, introduced in 2003, aimed at increasing access to education for all children, particularly those from marginalized backgrounds. While successful in boosting enrollment and achieving nearly gender parity, FPE has also faced challenges, including resource constraints, teacher shortages, and potential impacts on

the quality of education. FPE was met with both support and criticism during its introduction. Overall, the policy was well-liked because it made parents worry less about their budgets and provided educational chances to kids who otherwise wouldn't have had them. However, problems with execution and sloppy preparation plagued the policy. Instead of encouraging increased enrollment and retention, it undermined student engagement and the quality of education. Thereafter it was followed by a rise in the dropout rate and a decline in enrollment. According to Muyanga et al. (2010), government indifference and underfunding contributed to disorganized and occasionally nonexistent FPE policy implementation framework.

The Constitution of Kenya (2010), Article 43, recognizes that every person has a right to education, and Article 53(b) states that every child has a right to free and compulsory basic education. This is effected by section 39(c) of Education Act 2013, which mandates the Cabinet Secretary to ensure that children belonging to marginalized, vulnerable, or disadvantaged groups are not discriminated against or prevented from pursuing and completing their education. These provisions therefore implies that there is need for concerted effort from the relevant arms of Government to ensure that such policy interventions are effected. But on the contrary, the policy intervention was pronounced and handed over for implementation and seemingly no mechanism for follow up were put in place.

According to Haddad and Demsky (1995) framework, the FPE policy should go through two stages: the pronouncement of the policy decision and implementation. In so doing, key stages that would have brought more participation of the teachers including agenda setting and issue identification, planning of policy implementation, evaluation and modification, and subsequent policy cycles could have been missed.

Because of the hurry in the implementation of the FPE policy, not all expected beneficiaries that include street children of school-going-age were not reached or considered. This may explain why the numbers of school-going age children in the streets kept rising despite such policy interventions that would otherwise encourage them to enrol in schools.

2.3.2.3 Policy on Inclusive education in Kenya

Inclusivity in education means according all school-going age children access to education. In spite of inclusive education policy guidelines, education for street children remains a major cause of discrimination in Kenyan schools. Inclusive Education was introduced with the aim of making schools to be centers of learning for all children and that education system should be caring, nurturing, and supportive to communities where the needs of all children are met in a true sense. Inclusive schools no longer provide regular education but provide special education instead. Inclusive schools are expected to provide an inclusive education and as a result all children are expected to learn together. In other words, it is open to all children, and ensures that all can learn and participate in a common situation and a common milieu without any form of discrimination. In short, inclusive education is a process of enabling all children of school-going age, including previously excluded groups like street children to learn and participate effectively in education within mainstream school systems.

Implementation of inclusive education can only be predictable when all relevant policy elements that control the implementation process are put in place (Schuelka, 2018). This is because policy implementation is a function within the school

structures through which policy objectives are put into practice. Some of the dilemmas connected with practices of inclusive education policy that are obvious during implementation are as a result of blunders made from the other stages (Gallup, 2017). Successful inclusive education policy implementation requires school transformation and systems change, for the purpose of learners to get education in a mainstream school (Schuelka, 2018). According to Mulugeta (2015), five elements that influence implementation process are the policy content and the context through which the policy must be implemented; the commitment of implementers towards the policy, the capacity of the implementers to implement the policy and the support of policy consumers and partners whose interests are affected by the policy (Puhan et al., 2014; Tesfaye et al., 2013). This therefore implies that for any policy intervention to yield the expected results, all these aspects must be considered and put in to perspective.

Kenya adopted inclusive education policy so as to ensure that all learners, including those with disabilities and the marginalised children who include street children have equal access to education in inclusive environments. The policy aimed at addressing barriers like discrimination and exclusionary practices to improve access for all learners. While the policy framework is in place, its implementation faces several challenges, including underfunding by government, inadequate trained teachers and negative cultural attitudes. Street children face significant challenges accessing and maintaining their education, even with the available policies that targets their inclusion in education access. The policy may not have fully addressed the specific needs of street children. Lack of safe and supportive environment for street children makes it difficult for them to attend school and focus on their studies. Institutional

factors, such as the availability of resources and the support systems within schools also impact on the participation of street children in school since the system favours children who have some support from parents/guardians.

Not withstanding the fact that inclusive policy emphasizes access to education by street children, many of them may not be adequately prepared for the demands of formal schooling due to their lack of access to early childhood development and pre-primary education. Implementing the policy and practices that address the specific needs of street children, such as providing alternative learning programs and supportive services, can help them adjust to the environment easily. There is also need to provide a more flexible education system that include non-formal education settings that offer vocational training and skills development that can help street children acquire marketable skills and gain access to employment.

A study by Bibiana et.al (2020) revealed that there are various structural modificational challenges that face the implementation of inclusive education policy in public schools. The findings suggest possible link between the structural modification challenges and weak implementation of inclusive education policy. Thus, the study concluded that lack of effective structural modification approaches in secondary schools were major obstacles to the implementation of inclusive education policy. But because inclusive education was supposed to cut across all levels of education, this has prompted the possibility that the same problems could be facing implementation of policy interventions towards access to pre-primary and primary education by street children.

Emergence of Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) in the 1980s and 1990s impacted directly on the aspect of inclusive education. Prior to this there were many constraints on the CSOs as there were no clear national framework, bad cooperation, and tension between NGOs and Government (Kameri-Mbote, 2000).

In 2002, after the election, the new Kenyan Government had an effect on the Civil Societies since they were part of the reason why the Government came to power, and so were key actors in the democratization process in Kenya (Kibwana 2004). However, the Government has become more cooperative with the CSOs, following the new reforms, which have made them more vocal in policy making but their power is still limited (Mulama 2006). In order for the CSOs to be more effective in their work, a good cooperation with the Government is important. In regard to education, the CSOs have a big responsibility because Government may not have sufficient funds to meet the demands of education. The CSOs often pay for indirect costs of education and reach out to bigger group of young and marginalized people in the rural and slum areas (Ogachi 2002). However, many CSOs are focused more on the non-formal education (NFE) sector, especially when dealing with street and other vulnerable children. The CSOs do not receive financial support which poses a number of challenges for the organizations (Sivasubramaniam, 2006).

The NGOs, municipal and city education departments have since established rehabilitation centers for street children. The institutions identified street children who live and/ or work due to factors such as poverty and family disintegration (BRC, 2004). They put up facilities or centers for rehabilitation or provision of education, health services and recreational activities for such children. The Government centers in Kenya includes Joseph Kang'ethe, Kayole, Pumwani, Bahati and Eldoret Rescue

Centre among others. The named institutions continue to face technical, social and cultural challenges which constrain their ability to achieve their goal of rehabilitation, provision of services and education for street children. However, the problem of street children is still persistence in the country and there is need for laid down strategies through which the problem could be solved through an inclusive education system.

2.3.2.4 Special Needs Education Policy of 2009

The Government of Kenya recognizes the importance of Special Needs Education as a crucial sub-sector for accelerating the attainment of Education for All (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Sessional Paper No 1 of 2005 on "Policy Framework for Education, Training and Research" outlines the vision of our education sector as a major enabler of our youths. This vision will be achieved through the provision of quality education that is accessible and relevant to the lives of all children including those with Special Needs and those in the streets of Kenyan cities and urban centers.

For a long time, those concerned with education have been grappling with the serious question of what kind of education should be provided for street children especially in the context of varying and differing abilities of the children. Traditionally, education had come to be separated into two types, namely, general education and special education. Experts and authorities have been increasingly questioning for some time now if this was the correct approach for providing education in a situation where there were children with differing abilities. It had been believed earlier that children with differing needs and especially those with special needs must be given education separately. Owing to lack of knowledge, educational access and technology, special

or challenged and disabled children were therefore initially segregated from other children. This had led to the rise of general schools on one hand and establishment of ‘Special Schools’ for the disabled on the other hand. For the last three decades this segregation in the education field has come under severe criticism and now a consensus has begun to emerge that instead of continuing with segregated education, inclusive education should be provided. Hence efforts have been made in this direction, particularly during the last two decades and because of the term inclusiveness, other special categories of children that include street children have been considered as special category. On this basis therefore, Government policies have been established to take care of the same. What need to be looked at now are the implementation and the effectiveness of the same policy interventions in addressing the flagged off shortcomings.

Street children can and often should be considered special cases and hence considered for special education needs. While the term "special education" might be broadly used, it's important to understand that many street children have unique and complex needs that require tailored educational support. These needs can arise from trauma, lack of access to basic resources, and the challenges of street life itself. Many street children have experienced abuse, violence, and neglect, which can lead to mental health challenges like anxiety, and depression. Special education can provide a safe and supportive environment for these children to address their emotional and psychological needs.

Street children often lack access to regular schooling, which lead to significant delays in their academic development and which special education can provide them with the necessary support to catch up with their peers. They may need additional

support in areas like social skills, coping mechanisms, and building relationships. Special education can provide these crucial resources.

Access to education for street children can be classified under special category on realization that children who have spent most of their lives in the streets qualify to be handled differently from the regular school-going children. They are ‘special’ group of children who have social traits that may not conform to the societal expectations and hence special needs education. By extension, the kind of education provided to them needs to be customized to attract many of them in to joining school rather than excluding them from access. The education for street children therefore should be flexible in nature to allow them to gradually re-integrate in to the society and avoid drastic change approach whose sum result may discourage them.

Education policy interventions therefore should be accepted and embraced as a way to mobilize children to attend school especially from the marginalized groups. However, if the access to education services is not useful and lacks quality, it will not produce good education (Global Thematic Consultation on Education and the Post-2015, Development Framework, 2013). Obviously, access to education by street children still remains a challenge for achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and national education targets. In turn, the number of street children not attending school has continued to increase in the recent past in Kenyan urban centers that include North Rift Region towns like Eldoret, Kitale, Kapenguria, and Kapsabet; the area of study for this study. Given the awareness that the street children are vulnerable to exploitation both physical and emotional (dangers of drugs, trafficking, and sexual predators) their education is distracted by the time they work in the streets.

The policy interventions towards their access to education and reintegration back to school need to be re-looked and strengthened.

Special education should in essence be a customized instructional program to meet the unique needs of learners with disabilities or learning challenges including challenges faced by street children. For street children, ideally special education should be more broadly defined to encompass remedial education for literacy and numeracy, psychosocial support, including counseling and trauma-informed teaching, flexible learning approaches, such as mobile classrooms, non-formal education, or evening classes and vocational training tailored to their interests and contexts. These require a lot of planning and resource mobilization which in reality does not happen. Street children therefore do not have equal playing ground with the rest of the learners in terms of provision of quality education.

2.4 Policy Interventions Implementation Processes

Rehabilitation interventions experience relatively similar problems and constraints in their operation and expansion. These include budgetary constraints, lack of land, delays in placement of graduates and lack of public and government support and a possible retreat of the graduates to street life (UNCEF, 2005). There seems to be no co-ordination among the NGOs themselves or between the NGOs and the government departments involved in the rehabilitation programmes to the street children.

The role of NGOs and religions organizations in addressing the problem of street children is crucial. This is because programs for street children cannot be based entirely on Governmental funds (UNICEF, 1986). Mobilization of non governmental human and fiscal resources is an essential condition for the success of these programs,

and an appropriate place must be found for these organizations to function effectively (WHO, 1993). One of the problems that most NGOs face is lack of transparency and accountability. NGOs must ensure organizational accountability and be transparent with regard to their interests, objectives, procedures and funding (UNDP, 2000). According to the UNICEF (2000), it is necessary for NGOs to work simultaneously by combining preventive measures and rehabilitations.

In spite of the good intentions and extensive efforts accompanying the numerous programs for helping street children, the attitude of the general public toward them remains largely negative (Kayongo,1984; Lugalla and Mbwambo; 1999). In Tanzania, it is imperative to change the focus of policies and programs from street children to all children, by giving interventions such as social and developmental support. Focusing attention on street children alone can thus cause agencies to overlook or ignore the much larger problem of urban and rural poverty that is the underlying causative agent. A more holistic approach to community development needs to be undertaken in Tanzania, with a focus on community and family support that would address much of the causation of street children. Furthermore, services for marginalized children need to be taken back to families and communities, due to the reason that it appears that there is no community pressure to force government actions or NGOs to find a lasting solution to the problem of street children.

Successful policy implementation programmes especially for street children normally must have rescue strategies and rehabilitation approach. The level of involvement of stakeholders in any government interventions is therefore inevitable. The idea of engaging all stakeholders during development and implementation of policies is very critical in achieving effectiveness of policy interventions. Restricted participation

leads to lack of understanding which leads to cost error when the policy in being implemented. Failure to include key influencers within the plan will result in the entire programme, or part of a project being stalled. When people participate, they feel responsible for the changes that happen around them. Fear of replacement preparation and responsibility foresee their pressure point changing positions. This varies according to organization, within each organization, the reaction differs between individuals and depends on a number of variables, including personal knowledge and previous experiences with change (Magambo, 2011).

Although data may not stand alone as proof of success or failure for a given intervention, they represent one of several factors to be appraised in the process of intervention-based policies or operational decisions (Rychetnik et al., 2002). Implementation science for any policy intervention should be grounded in knowledge, participatory approaches and systems thinking and includes four elements: culture-centred approach, community engagement, systems thinking and integrated knowledge translation.

First, implementation should be guided by the culture-centred approach (CCA). The CCA argues that social structures of health can be transformed by providing opportunities for community voice/agency, reflexivity among researchers, and providing resources to address structural Challenges. Such an approach helps to ensure Indigenous cultural perspectives are part of the definition of the problem and integrated into the interventions to facilitate implementation effectiveness (Dutta M, 2013).

Second, high levels of community engagement (CE) are associated with greater implementation effectiveness and improved outcomes. CE is a process of collaborating with groups directly affected by a particular issue or with groups who are working with those affected (Wallerstein, 2018). CE ranges from very limited community involvement to community ownership and management. High levels of CE are reflected through shared decision-making and communication among researchers and community members which helps with sustainability, capacity building and long-term outcomes (Cook WK, 2008).

Third, systems thinking (ST) helps to address the complexity of the local contexts and the variety of levels and determinants of problems (Rittel, 1973). ST also facilitates new strategies that are associated with improved projects and outcomes (Frerichs L, 2016). It allows for new ways of thinking for researchers, practitioners and community members through considering different perspectives, relationships among people/facets of the system and multiple level of analysis. ST also acknowledges holistic perspectives towards problems and examines the inter-relationships of the various parts that need to be understood within a larger context (Frerichs L, 2016).

2.4.1 Monitoring and Evaluation of Implementation Process

The aim of monitoring and evaluation of the implementation process of policy interventions is to find out what works towards attainment of the expected impact on the target group. To ascertain this therefore, all interventions should be subjected to impact evaluation to estimate their effect on attainment. Policy interventions need to be monitored and evaluated to measure how well they have achieved their intended outcomes. During monitoring and evaluation, there is generation and analysis of data

to examine how an intervention is put into practice, how it operates to achieve its intended outcomes and the factors that influence these processes. Implementation of policy interventions should be looked at as a multidimensional construct through the generally agreed upon dimensions rather than a single implementation dimension (Humphrey N. 2016).

During the process of monitoring the effectiveness of the policy interventions, emphasis is very much on evidence of promise (e.g. is there evidence of expected change happening?) feasibility (e.g. is the approach acceptable to participants?), and readiness for trial (e.g. is it replicable and affordable?). How manageable is the intervention and what appear to be the most important factors in successful implementation? The emphasis is on identifying factors which should be explored more systematically at efficacy level or which might inform the design of the subsequent interventions.

At efficacy level, the evaluation may well be powered to find significant associations between aspects of implementation and uptake which correlate with successful outcomes. At this stage the emphasis is on understanding variation more systematically, generating further hypotheses for exploration, and/or to help with guidelines for successful implementation for larger-scale effectiveness. A key part of this is rigorous assessment of different aspects of implementation (e.g. fidelity).

At effectiveness level, evaluation should explore how the intervention is interpreted or used at larger scale. This may include exploration of the influence of contextual variability on implementation. The emphasis should be on identifying features of successful interventions (and learning from challenges of unsuccessful interventions)

which could guide future policy interventions or practice guidelines to improve the chances of success at larger scale (Humphrey N 2016).

2.5 Challenges faced by street children

Despite of a lot of emphasis on the importance of education in both developed and developing countries, street children is one of the major social problems confronting many countries in the world and are not able to attend schools. The EFA Global Monitoring Report of 2006 estimates that about 100 million children of primary school age are not enrolled in school. This significant number of out of school children has been one of the major obstacles to achieving Education for All (EFA).

Although many Governments in the regions have ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and committed themselves to achieving the EFA goal, many children from disadvantaged groups, particularly street children are often excluded from Government education programs. Many of them have no legal status or identity, as they are often mobile. Consequently, education and other social services are provided to them largely by charitable organizations, non-Governmental organizations (NGOs) and ad-hoc Government projects.

Research has consistently shown that street children dwell in the streets and some are street workers who earn an income and by so doing contributes to the economy (Stephen & Udisi, 2016). However, some of the street children inhabit the streets and also attend school, although they lack adult supervision and other resources, which contribute to their drop out from school (Owoaje et al., 2009).

Street children face numerous problems in their respective social, economic and cultural set ups. They are neglected, abandoned, or even emotionally and physically tied up with their families who live together in the same house. In general, the characteristics of street children are being in public places (street, markets, shops, amusement parks) for between 3 and 24 hours in a day, having low level of education, failure to attended any school, or having dropped out from schools or still being in primary school and originally coming from poor families and working in informal sectors.

In Kenya for example, poverty is one of the biggest challenges in attaining the national educational goals. There have been strategies that have necessitated policy adjustments in education sector like the Kenya Interim Poverty Eradication of 2000-2003 (K1PE). Wandera, (2004) concurs with the statement that many students drop out of school due to increased household poverty. According to MOEST, Budget 2002, 2003 & 2004, the budget for the School Feeding Program (SFP) increased from Kenyan Shillings 172 million to 250 million and then to 267 million respectively in order for the children to be fed in schools to allow for higher concentration and to enhance retention in the schools.

According to Rono; 1990, Gachungi; 2005 and Ngau 1991 among others on factors leading to drop out in schools, they outlined learning disabilities, behaviour disorder, irrelevant curriculum, punishments, poor academic performance, poverty as the leading contributors to children dropping out of school. The ultimate result of such school drop-outs is that the big population of such children ends up in the streets as “street children”. Raju (1973) identified some causes of educational wastage as economic problems, poor living conditions, irrelevant curriculum, lack of parental

guidance discouragement and poor medical care. Therefore, the drop out rates need to be addressed by the educational stakeholders as per the recommendations of the researchers. Other than those who drop out of school, there is also a pertinent need for children in the streets who have never had a chance to attend schools to be given considerations.

Commonly said, street children have the same problems in their daily life as outlined by Rafi, Ali, & Aslam (2012) who pointed out that problems faced by street children in their environment are often hunger, lack of adequate shelter, clothes, and other basic needs as well as lack of educational opportunities, poor health care and other social services. More specifically, Hossain (2016) spelled out the three most common problems facing street children, namely housing, food, and lack of jobs. Most street children have to take harmful jobs in exchange for food and shelter. Hai (2014) argued that to keep the wolf of hunger away from their stomach, many of the street children have been obliged to embrace hazardous jobs. To make it worse, Myburgh, Moolla, and Poggenpoel (2015) argued that children living on the street may try to avoid the police by hiding in very dangerous places within the cities and most of them do not go to school since there are some administration fees to be paid. Awatey (2014) opined that some street children really struggle for survival and when survival becomes an issue, long term strategies tend to be constrained by the need to fulfill the most basic necessities of life. From this discussion, it may be true that it is not only policy issues that may have contributed to street children not to attend school but there may be many more factors beyond this that may require more research studies to identify and find way out on their address. This research among other objectives

may want to explore in case of other issues that other researchers may not have been able to research on.

In Kenya several strategies have been put in place but despite such efforts, attaining education for all (EFA) has remained elusive. There still exist children on the streets and out of school during school hours. Research on national working committee (2009) sought to find out the factors that might be contributing to the marginalization of some children in the streets and their exclusions particularly from formal schooling. The research was more interested on the factors that encouraged street children to be in the streets contrary to what this study wishes to research on; the effectiveness of the Government policy interventions in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by "street children".

To address the above-mentioned issues, a meeting was held between German Technical Cooperation (GTC), the National Council for Children Services (NCCS), MOEST, Ministry of Home Affairs (MHA), Department of Children Services (DCS), Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) and Department of Adult Education (DAE) in February 2005. The main agenda of the meeting was to improve the quality of service provided to the disadvantaged children, whom street children form part of. It was emphasized promotion of oriented networking and collaboration and better utilization of synergy effects between the Government and NGO partners as a better way of addressing "street children's" education matters. It was observed that various stake holders have volunteered to deal with the provision of education and social services for street children. The "Undugu" Society of Kenya (USK) for example provided non-formal education to "street children", helping the children that are facing

difficulties by enrolling them in non-formal educational settings. “USK regards children in the streets as children who have, by definition, been denied their basic right to education; a disadvantage in life which Undugu tries to rectify. The USK has made an initiative with providing opportunities to marginalized children of the street to have shelter, non-formal education and nutrition while they learn skills that can afford them opportunities for a better future. Each child comes from different background, but the initiative made by the USK through “Undugu” Education Program (UBEP) tries to take the street children’s special needs into consideration, while offering non-formal education. Even though primary education was made free of charge in 2003, many street children still want to take a non-formal education instead of the formal one (Ouma, 2004).

The increasing number of street children in Kenya especially around markets or shops in cities and urban centers is a concern for many people, including researchers and authors. These children deserve a decent form of education to upgrade their knowledge and time to play and gather around with their friends. They also need to change the lives of their family for the better in their later years through empowerment that is associated with education. But due to various reasons they do not obtain what they are supposed to get but instead they become more concerned with earning money to meet their family needs. Some of them make a living by working as bearers, parking attendants, street musicians and even beggars. As street children are the same as other children, they also have the right to access decent basic education to get knowledge and to play.

2.6 Summary of the chapter

This chapter reviewed existing literature on the global policy interventions, Government policy interventions, the nature of educational challenges facing access to education by street children in Kenya, and the effectiveness of various policy interventions with the aim of identifying gaps. The review identified scarcity of studies effectiveness of the policy interventions. Very few evaluations of policy implementation effectiveness at local levels were identified.

Through this review, knowledge gap was identified in terms of what have been researched on and what have not been researched. Yohannes (2015) suggested that issues on education for street children should adopt street-based approach which must involve communication with the affected children and effective supervision of the implementation of policy interventions. Beltekin (2014) agrees with this approach and state that if street children are not supported to attend school, it will lead to them engaging in vices like prostitution. Anna (2014) identified non-attendance to school by street children as an area of concern in relation to the effectiveness of the policy interventions put in place. This agrees with Arusha declaration (1967) as proposed by Mwalimu Julius Nyerere that education policy interventions must be self-reliant. GoK (2005), Ngware & Mudege (2009) and Oketch (2010) all argued that many street children across the world continue to drop out of school despite many policy interventions by Governments. Watkins (2008), Devininger (2003), Grogan (2008), Oketch and Somerset (2010) argues that despite introduction of Free Primary Education by many countries including Kenya, there still exist concerns on access of education and quality of education given to street children. There is also concern in their enrolment, retention, transition and completion rates. Iversen (2000) and

Masimo (2016) identified policy implementation barriers and provided that for the policies to be effective, interventions should not be supply-side alone but must be complemented by the end consumers and community participation. On this account therefore, there is need to investigate how the various stakeholders charged with the task of enhancing access to education by street children have played their roles.

From this review, the topic on the effectiveness of the Government Policy interventions towards access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in Kenya was flagged out as a research area. Previous research extensively explored the causes and consequences of streetism; highlighting poverty, family breakdown, and abuse as major contributors. However, few studies had assessed the effectiveness of government policy interventions targeting the street children. Related topics may have been researched but on different geographical settings or different scope and depth or with different target population from this study. A critical gap existed in evaluating the justification on the outcomes of public investments in policy interventions towards enhanced access to education by street children. There was limited research assessing the coordination between stakeholders, the scalability of existing interventions, and their actual impact on access to education among street children. By focusing on the implementation process of policy interventions, this study aim at contributing to new insights on how strong government involvement, collaborative approach and co-management practices can shape policy interventions outcomes. The study noted that despite the existence of robust policy interventions and considerable government expenditure, many street children still remain out of school. This creates a policy-practice gap, which the study aimed to explore.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview

This chapter describes the general methodology that links the procedures to outcomes and explains how the study was conducted, including how and where it was done to generate the necessary data that answered the research questions as observed by Creswell (2014). It focuses on research design used so as to achieve the objectives of the research and included examination of policy interventions in relation to access to pre-primary and primary education, investigating their effectiveness and implementation challenges faced by policy implementers and challenges faced by street children towards access to pre-primary and primary education. This chapter incorporated an introduction, the philosophy of the study, research design with the justification of the choice, study area, population and sample determination, data collection methods, validity and reliability of the instruments used, data analysis techniques and ethical considerations observed in the course of the study.

3.2 Philosophical paradigm

Philosophical paradigm comprises the basic beliefs and norms that define a researcher's philosophical orientation (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). This study adopted pragmatism as a philosophical justification for the study. This is because pragmatism is considered to be "the philosophical partner" of the mixed research approach as its underlying assumptions provides the essence for mixing research methods (Mitchell, 2018). Many scholars have suggested many different philosophies to justify the mixed research approach but between all these philosophies, pragmatism is

considered by many researchers to be the most common philosophical justification. (Barnes, 2019; Fetters and Molina-Azorin, 2017; Ghiara, 2019).

Pragmatism does not prioritize one method over the other but recognizes that both qualitative and quantitative data collected can offer valuable insights into the research question(s). For example, quantitative methods can provide broad statistical data, while qualitative methods can offer in-depth perspectives and contextual understanding of the problem.

Pragmatism allows the researcher to conceptualize the ontological, epistemological and axiological stances in a way that combines both the quantitative and qualitative paradigms' points of view as two integrated and not conflicting philosophies and hence presenting it as a coherent point of view.

3.2.1 Ontology

Based on the principle of the ontological foundationalism, there was need to have a clear view about reality where there existed one reality and multiple perceptions of this reality in the social mind of the actors. This approach therefore allowed the switch between the two views of the one external reality and the multiple perceptions of reality and thus between the quantitative and qualitative research approaches and methods. It adopted the relativist beliefs that recommend a balance between subjectivity and objectivity throughout the inquiry.

The principle of the ontological foundationalism allowed a clear view about reality which ultimately led to the right methodological choices. The construct of the interpretation of what the respondents made of the effectiveness of the Government policy interventions in access to pre-primary and primary education by street children

in terms of enrolment, retention, transition and completion rates was relayed to the researcher.

3.2.2 Axiology

Axiology indicates the ethical issues that should be considered in research. It considers the philosophical approach to making choices of significant decisions in all stages of research. Based on the former ontological and epistemological stances that allowed the observable or unobservable knowledge using both quantitative and qualitative methods, a pragmatic researcher should be biased only by the degree necessary to enhance his research and helps to answer the research questions. This is what is called the axiology (necessary bias) principle. All the necessary Criteria were considered including the outcomes of the study that resulted in a meaningful outcome that would satisfy many stakeholders. Secondly, the intrinsic moral values were maintained during the research and thirdly, the researcher was fair to all participants and ensured that their rights were maintained.

3.3 Research Design

This study adopted Mixed Methods Research (MMR). MMR is an emergent and contemporary method of research design that emerged because quantitative researchers believe, and recognize that qualitative data can play important roles in quantitative research. This research method also emerged because of the complexity of current research problems which calls for answers beyond simple numbers in quantitative sense or words in qualitative sense.

As Creswell, (2011) wrote, mixed methods research comprises of philosophical assumptions that will guide the direction of data collection and analysis and methods

of inquiry that will allow a mixture of quantitative and qualitative approaches through the phases of research process. In this study, mixed methods research was chosen because of the systematic integration, or "mixing," of quantitative and qualitative data within a single investigation. The basic premise of this methodology is that such integration permitted a more complete and synergistic utilization of data. This method was important for this study because it enabled the combination of elements of qualitative and quantitative research to be achieved.

For this study, the research adopted pragmatism paradigm. Pragmatism is a paradigm that claims to bridge the gap between the scientific method and structuralism orientation of older approaches and the naturalistic methods and free-wheeling orientation of newer approaches (Creswell 2013; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Pragmatism as a research paradigm finds its philosophical foundation in the historical contributions of the philosophy of pragmatism (Maxcy 2003) and as such, embraces plurality of methods. As a research paradigm, pragmatism is based on the proposition that researchers should use the philosophical and/or methodological approach that works best for the particular research problem that is being investigated (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). It is often associated with mixed methods or multiple-methods (Biesta, 2010; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Maxcy 2003; Morgan 2014; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

The use of a mixed methods research design in this study is justified by the complex and multifaceted nature of the research problem. Understanding the effectiveness of Government policy interventions on enhancing access to education for street children requires both quantifiable evidence of outcomes and a deep contextual understanding

of the lived experiences of the street children as well as the perceptions of policymakers, policy implementers, educators and other actors.

Quantitative methods were essential for measuring the reach, coverage, and statistical impact of specific interventions, such as enrolment rates, retention, completion or transition. However, these numerical indicators alone could not fully capture the social, emotional, and structural challenges faced by street children, nor could they explain why certain policies succeeded or failed in specific contexts. Qualitative methods—through interviews and observations—provided rich, narrative data that could uncover underlying factors such as stigma, systemic exclusion, and personal motivations.

By integrating both approaches, mixed methods research therefore offered a more comprehensive, reliable, and nuanced understanding of the issues. This methodological choice enhanced the validity of the findings and ensured that policy recommendations were grounded in both evidence and lived realities.

In this research method, procedures were developed and refined to suit a wide variety of research questions (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). For this study, the procedures were developed with an aim of responding to the three research questions. Authors in support of this school of thought have viewed mixed methods research more as a methodology that spanned viewpoints to inferences and that include combination of qualitative and quantitative research. Similarly, a combination of both forms of data provides a most complete analysis of problems whose central premise is that the use of both approaches provides a better understanding of research problems than what can be attained by either approach alone. For this research, research questions on

effectiveness of Government policy interventions and those on policy implementation processes were analysed quantitatively while research question on the challenges faced were analysed qualitatively. Integration of the two sets of analysis was then done to establish their points of convergence or divergence.

Mixed methods research design is an intellectual and practical synthesis based on qualitative and quantitative research model that recognizes the importance of both traditional quantitative and qualitative research as well as offering powerful paradigm choices that often provide the most affirmative, complete, balanced, and useful research results that are defendable. Mixed methods are employed because it partners with the philosophy of pragmatism in one of its forms, follows logic principles that are helpful for producing defendable and usable research findings. Mixed methods research is recognizant, appreciative and is inclusive of local and broader socio-political realities, resources and needs. It provides superior research findings and outcomes. Mixed methods research allows the researcher to situate numbers in the contexts and words of participants and frame the words with numbers, trends, and statistical results. It allow a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection, examination and analysis in each single case or group of cases because the research problem has more than one variable. The aim is to look at how variables affect the dependent variables individually or combined together. Quantitative methodology of causal comparative best applies to this research problem because it allows for examination for the relationships between the variables of Government policy interventions and access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in urban centres in the Kenyan North Rift region. This involved measurements through administration of questionnaires, interviewing participants and

review of existing policies and their implementation process. Similarly, it also involved examining and analysing situations of street children as they were without manipulation after occurrence. The study also involved classification, analysis, comparison and interpretation of collected data. Mixed Methods Research is a study that attempts to discover the pre-existing causal conditions between groups and tries to verify formulated hypotheses that refer to the present situation in order to elucidate it (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2008).

The qualitative part of the Mixed Method Research design involved analysing the situations or events as they were without manipulations. Observations, interview schedules and document analysis methods were used as methods of collecting data.

The study involved visits to the streets of Eldoret, Kitale and Kapsabet urban centres to collect data. In the study area, data was collected within the provision of deep and wide data collection to enhance mixed methods research since the study sought the effectiveness of Government policy interventions on access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in Kenya. Street children, Government officials and other stakeholders like some NGOs, CBOs and religious groups involved with education for street children were the participants in the study. The researcher investigated their participation and contributions towards implementation of the Policy interventions to access by street children to pre-primary and primary education.

Mixed Methods research other than having its advantages pose some disadvantages. Firstly, data collection and analysis is a very lengthy process and therefore, it became expensive in terms of cost and time. Secondly, integrating qualitative and quantitative

data was a difficult task. Quantitative and qualitative methods were guided by different epistemological and philosophical frameworks and therefore, the concerns in integrating them included whether the assumptions in each paradigm got the same value or attention in the study and whether the data derived from the two methodologies were viewed as incommensurable. Similarly, as pointed out by Yu (2012), the difficulty associated with this design is that quantitative measures must be compatible with the qualitative findings, which requires distinct and accurate themes to be found in the qualitative data. As pointed out by Plano Clark and Creswell (2018), most mixed methods researchers obtain conflicting results from the qualitative and quantitative strands.

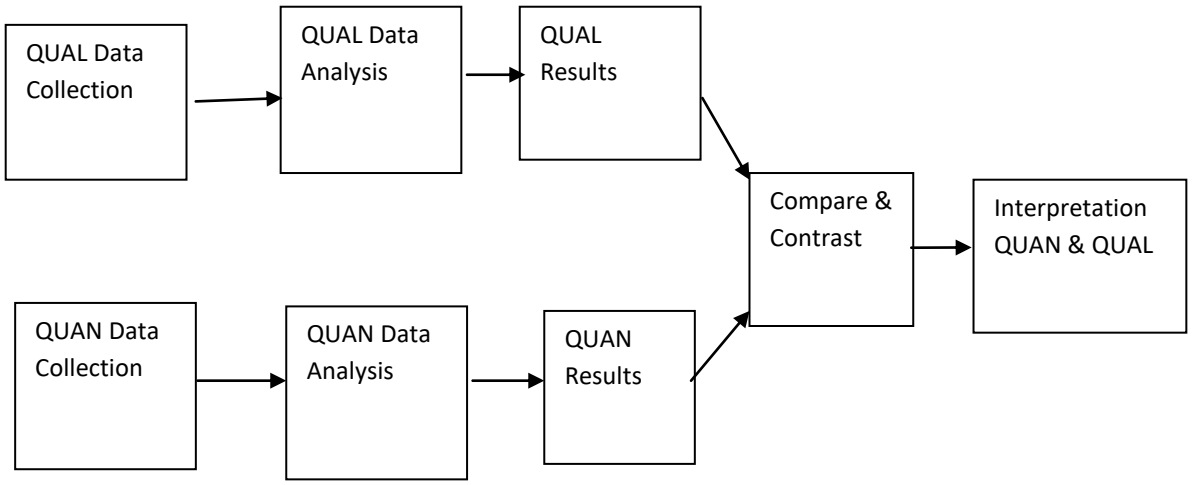
To mitigate on the costs associated with this research, the data collection was compressed to be done within one month and used six research assistants i.e. two in every urban centre. To minimize the incompatibility of qualitative and quantitative data, research tools integrated items to collect both qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously.

3.4 Research Approach

Mixed methods research is viewed as an approach which draws upon the strengths and perspectives of each method, recognizing the existence and importance of the physical, natural world as well as the importance of reality and influence of human experience (Johnson and Onquegbuzie, 2004). The concept of mixing methods was first introduced by Jick (1979), as a means for seeking convergence across qualitative and quantitative methods within social science research (Creswell, 2003). Creswell, et al (2003) classified mixed methods designs into two major categories: sequential and

concurrent. In sequential designs, either the qualitative or quantitative data are collected in an initial stage, followed by the collection of the other data type during a second stage. In contrast, concurrent designs are characterized by the collection of both types of data during the same stage. Within each of these two categories, there can be three specific designs based on the level of emphasis given to either the qualitative and quantitative data, the process used to analyse and integrate the data, and whether or not the theoretical basis underlying the study methodology is to bring about social change or advocacy (Creswell et al., 2003).

Creswell et al. (2003) identified three concurrent mixed methods designs; (a) concurrent triangulation, (b) concurrent nested, and (c) concurrent transformative designs. This research adopted concurrent triangulation design model. This refers to a mixed methods design where both qualitative and quantitative data are collected simultaneously (concurrently) to cross-validate and corroborate findings by comparing the results from each method, essentially using multiple data sources to strengthen the overall research validity. It involves collecting both types of data at the same time, but analyzing them separately to identify consistencies or discrepancies between the two perspectives. The quantitative approach measured the properties and objective aspects of the problem while the qualitative approach was applied to understand and describe the subjective aspect. Hughes (2016) advocates that this approach allows the researcher to examine phenomena on different levels.



(Source: Creswell 2003)

3.5 Study Area

The North Rift Counties of Kenya comprises of Turkana, Samburu, West Pokot, Trans Nzoia, Uasin Gishu, Elgeyo Marakwet and Nandi Counties with major urban centres of Lodwar, Maralal, Kapenguria, Kitale, Eldoret, Iten and Kapsabet respectively. The population of street children in Kenyan urban centres vary from one urban centre to the other and in the Kenyan North Rift Region, their numbers are high in Eldoret and Kitale compared to other urban centres in the region (National census report of street families, 2018). Omondi, S.A (2015) in her project report on factors influencing the influx of street children in Kitale town, observed that the population of street children had increased from 200 in 2002 to around 700 by 2012. It is worth noting that the number may have since escalated as indicated by an outcry from Kitale-based businessmen to the governor of Trans-Nzoia County to remove street children from Kitale town and settle them in Children homes. According to Ayaya & Esamai (2001), there were over 1,000 street children in Eldoret town and over 2000 of them in Kitale town by the year 2000. Ayuko in his research on street children;

“Their social, physical and mental health” indicated that there were 2000 street children in Kitale town and 1000 street children in Eldoret town (Ayuko, 2004).

However, with the inception of devolution in Kenya in the year 2013 and with substantial work done by the devolved Governments in rounding off street children and repatriating them, their numbers in the streets slightly changed. Literature review showed that research studies on the selected topic of research and the target area had never been carried out. This therefore informed the choice of the Kenyan North Rift region as the research area. The choice of the three urban centres was by purposive and random probability picking from a pack of numbering. Because of the big numbers of street families in Uasin Gishu (2,147), Eldoret was purposively chosen. The other six towns in the Kenyan North Rift region (Kapenguria, Iten, Lodwar, Maralal, Kitale and Kapsabet) were randomly assigned numbers i.e. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6. These numbers were shuffled and 30% (30/100 × 6 = 1.8) of them picked randomly. From the exercise, Kitale and Kapsabet were picked and hence formed the sample urban centres.

3.6 Target Population

Population is a particular group of people that the researcher will identify as participants of the study or a set of elements having a trait of concern that are being investigated. Based on this therefore, the study targeted a population of about 2050 participants in the selected three urban centers of the Kenyan North Rift region; Kapsabet, Eldoret and Kitale. The respondents of the study included street children of school-going age, County Directors of Education, Quality Assurance Officers from the ministry of education, and County Governments who were in charge of policy implementation, officers from children department, head teachers and teachers of

public primary schools and Early Childhood Education Centres (ECDE) within the urban centres, Non-Governmental Organizations and civil societies and Faith Based Organizations within the selected urban centres.

Street children were targeted because they were the beneficiary population of children who government policy interventions towards access to pre-primary and primary education were targeted. Some of them were found to have benefited previously from the said government policy interventions. Non-Governmental Organizations, Faith Based Organizations and Community Based Organizations had been involved in assisting street children to access education and other social services and therefore provided very important information to the study. On the other hand, Government officials were directly or indirectly responsible for the implementation of Government policy interventions and had a clear understanding of the policy interventions. The population of all the participants was 2,050.

3.7 Sample and Sampling Procedures

Research for a whole population is very hard to be carried out but instead a sample is obtained. A sample is a group of people, objects, or items that are taken from a larger population for measurement (Mujere, 2016). It is a subset of individuals from a larger population.

The sample should be representative of the population to ensure that generalization of the findings from the research sample to the population as a whole can be done (Dilman, 1994). Sampling means selecting the group that one will actually collect data from in the research. The sample urban centers in the Kenyan North Rift region

was obtained through purposive and random sampling as highlighted in section 3.5 above which yielded Eldoret, Kitale and Kapsabet as the sample towns for the study.

The study targeted street children of school-going age for pre-primary and primary education in the three selected urban centers in the Kenyan North Rift region. The study also targeted the education officers in charge of policy implementation at the county level from which the respective urban centers were found. Other key education stakeholders like Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), Community Based Organizations (CBOs) and Faith Based organizations within these urban centers were also targeted.

The sampling technique used in the study was Krejcie & Morgan sampling technique, which helped to effectively determine the number of samples needed to represent the population. With the targeted population of **2,050** participants and with a degree of accuracy of **0.05** under calculation based on the formulae and the table, the sample for this study was calculated and **322** was obtained.

Morgan & Krejcie Formula

$s = x^2 N (1-P) \div d^2 (N-1) + X^2 P (1-P)$

Where;

s = required sample size

$\mathbf{X^2}$ = the table value of chi square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (95% for this case)

N = the population size

P = the population proportion (assumed to 0.5 for maximum sample size

d = the degree of accuracy as a proportion (0.05)

$s = 3.841 \times 2050 (0.5)^2 \div (0.05)^2 \times 2049 + 3.841(0.5)^2$

$s = 1{,}968.5 \div 6.1$

$s = 322.7$

The table below gives a summary of the target population, sample size, sample method used and data collection method that was employed to obtain adequate data.

Table 3. 1: Sample population

Description	Target Population	Number Sampled	Sampling Method	Data Collection Method
County Directors of Education	3	3	Purposive	Questionnaire and Interview schedule
Quality Assurance Officers	9	9	Purposive	Questionnaire and Interview schedule
Teachers	150	45	Random sampling	Questionnaire and Interview schedule
NGOs & CBOs	12	4	Random sampling	Questionnaire and Interview schedule
Management of rescue centers	6	6	Purposive	Questionnaire and Interview schedule
Other staff in the rescue centers	20	6	Stratified and random sampling	Questionnaire and Interview schedule
Street children	1,850	249	Random sampling	Questionnaire and Interview schedule
Total	**2,050**	**322**		

3.7.1 Street children

The street children were approached within their areas of operation in the selected urban centers and interviewed one after the other depending on how they reacted to the exercise. Others resisted and refused to be interviewed but with the rapport that the research assistants had developed with most of them, majority were willing to be interviewed. Krejcie and Morgan (1970) model was used to determine the sample size of the street children. This model ensured that equal chances were given to all street children to participate in the study. A sample of 249 participants was expected to be involved in the study.

3.7.2 Education Officers

The researcher used census approach on the County Director of Education where all the three directors in the three counties were interviewed. Quality Assurance Officers from the ministry of Education and County Government and officers in the Ministry of Youths and Social Services in the three counties were involved in the study. Some head teachers and teachers from public primary schools and ECDE centres within the urban centers from the selected urban centres were involved in the study through simple random sampling. Out of the total number of teachers in the five (5) public primary schools in the area with about 150 teachers, a representative of 30% (45 teachers) were interviewed.

3.7.3 The NGOs, CBOs and FBOs Respondents

The other stakeholders included the officers from children department, Community Based Organizations, Non-Governmental Organizations and Faith Based Organizations involved with issues of street children and who were randomly sampled. Their contributions and views on the best way to implement policy interventions towards access to primary education by street children was sought.

3.8 Data Collection Methods

To meet the objectives of the study, the researcher collected data using multiple sources and methods including surveys, semi structured interviews, observation and document reviews. Survey method was used for the purposes of generalization of information on the effectiveness of the Government policy interventions to access of primary education by street children in urban centers in Kenyan North Rift region. A large sample was needed and therefore a survey was used to get as many respondents as possible (Creswell, 2014). Semi-structured in-depth interviews, observation and

document reviews were used to seek to understand the participants' lived experiences and interpret their meanings to produce knowledge that contributed to more general understanding of the study phenomenon.

To achieve on the target of collecting data from street children who appear to be hesitant or non-cooperative, the research assistants made friends with the street children before engaging them. During usual operations in town especially during car parking the researcher on his side identified himself with some of the street children. This was helpful during data collection exercise because by this time, they were not so suspicious.

Research instruments are simply devices for obtaining information relevant to research project. They are measurement tools designed to obtain data on particular topic(s) of interest from research subjects (Wilkinson, 2003). They are tools used to obtain, measure, and analyze data from subjects around the research topic. Both primary and secondary data collection methods were used to acquire data for this study. Research question one sought to collect data on relevance of the Government policy interventions while question two sought to collect data that was used to investigate policy intervention implementation process. Research questions three sought to collect data that addressed issues on challenges faced by the implementers of the policy interventions. On this basis therefore, questionnaires and interview schedules were used to obtain quantitative data for research questions number one and two while content/document analyses, interview schedules and observation schedules were used to obtain qualitative data for research question three.

3.8.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are appropriate tools because they are economical and provide considerable research data at relatively low costs, provide standardized participant responses as they exposed participants to exactly the same set of questions and data that was easy to arrange and yielded pre-coded answers. In line with the study methodology and with statements by Decombe (2007), questionnaires reveals straight forward views, believes, attitudes, preferences and capture data on opinions.

The researcher developed and administered questionnaires to the participants. The questionnaires had both closed-ended and open-ended items and captured both quantitative and qualitative data. The questionnaires had three parts; general instructions, personal information and the body. General instructions of the questionnaire provided basic information on the background of the research. Personal information section gave the demographic details of the respondents like gender, age, level of education while the body contained the main substance of the questionnaire. There were questionnaires for street children, Government officers and for the other participants that included the staff working with CBOs, FBOs and NGOs.

Research assistants were first trained on the administration of the questionnaires. In the training, emphasis were put on child-friendly communication skills, handling of disclosures and safety protocols. During administration of questionnaires to street children, it was noted that most street children had low literacy level or completely illiterate and so the research assistants resorted to reading the questions aloud to the street children.

Some of the adaptations made in order to get information was use of local language or slang. Questions in the tool were adjusted to reflect the everyday language of street children. The interactions with street children were adjusted to be very short sessions to suit their attention spans and daily schedules.

3.8.2 Observation Schedules

Observation is a way of gathering data by watching people, events, or noting physical characteristics in their natural setting. Observation is the systematic description of the events, behaviors, and artifacts of a social setting (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). It is a list of the specific behaviours being observed. These include verbal and physical behaviours which indicate the outcome. Observation schedule is a form prepared prior to data collection that delineates the behaviour and situational features to be observed and recorded during observation.

Observation schedules developed by the researcher were composed of two parts; part one which captured basic information like the name, site location, date and time of observation and part two had the main body and gave a list of specific behaviours observed and key research issues. The observation schedule was used to collect qualitative data for the study. The areas to be observed were made and evaluated repeatedly with the need to understand the living conditions. This was aimed at obtaining information relating to the respondents access to primary education.

Observation schedule was used to capture some information for the street children. Recording data in the observation schedule involved noting the behaviuors, events, or conditions as they occurred in real-time. A predetermined checklist was used to capture the information needed.

3.8.3 Interview schedules

An interview schedule is basically a list containing a set of structured questions that have been prepared to serve as a guide for interviewers, researchers and investigators in collecting information or data about a specific topic or issue. Interview schedules contained questions prepared beforehand and focused on the real issues and hence ensured that the answers obtained were correct and accurate. According to Lindlof & Taylor (2002), interview schedules increase the reliability and credibility of data gathered. The schedule was used by the interviewer to fill in responses to the questions asked during the interview and captured both quantitative and qualitative data.

Interviewing schedules developed had three major parts; the opening which was composed of the introduction (creating rapport with the interviewee) and which aimed at making the respondent feel welcomed and relaxed; the body which had the main items of the research and the closing part which guided the exit process.

Semi-structured interviews were used where many precise questions and their follow-up questions were listed along with a few topic areas. Interviews were carried out for all the respondents and were made flexible to permit participants to expand on their initial answers which allowed for the inclusion of additional data to the research study.

Request for interview appointments were placed especially for the respondents other than the street children and the interviews were done after the permission was granted. As an introduction, the interviewees were invited and told what was expected

of them in the study. Methods used and data collection processes were explained to the respondents.

3.9 Validity and Reliability of research instruments

Quality of a research tool in a study is measured by reliability or validity of the instrument. Reliability and validity are closely related, but they mean different things. A measurement can be reliable without being valid. However, if a measurement is valid, it is also reliable. Reliability and validity of research tools/instruments are concepts that ultimately would evaluate the quality of research. Reliability is about the consistency of a measure, and validity is about the accuracy of a measure.

3.9.1 Validity

According to Vosloo (2014), validity is described as the degree to which the research findings accurately reflect the phenomena under study. The content validity was achieved through consultation with experts in the field of education. The researcher gave the research instruments to three experts in the field of education who carried out an analysis and ensured that there was relevance in the instruments. Their suggestions and comments were used as a basis to modify the research items to make them adaptable to the study. Validation was done by reading the research items in the questionnaire and interview schedule to establish whether they were gauging what they were envisioned to measure. Training of research assistants on administration of questionnaires items was done to ensure representativeness. The information looked at propositions, clarifications and other inputs that were used in making obligatory changes. The reactions to the issues were patterned in line with the research objectives and provided purpose as to why content was used.

Construct validity was carried out to test the extent to which the measurement method accurately represented a construct and produced an observation, distinct from that which was produced by a measure of another construct. This was done through factor analysis and correlation tests. This process enabled the researcher to identify or detect weaknesses in the questionnaires and corrected before the actual data collection process. The contents designated and encompassed in the survey forms were explored and adjusted before being applied to the study.

3.9.2 Reliability

Reliability is the extent to which research instruments come up with consistent results. It is the quality of being trustworthy or performing consistently well or the degree to which the result of a measurement, calculation, or specification can be depended and accurate Vosloo, (2014). Reliability of research instrument is the consistency of scores obtained. Reliability is said to be achieved if it gives consistent results with repeated measurements of the same object with the same instrument.

Questionnaires, interview schedules and observation guides were tested for reliability. To test reliability of the research instruments, pilot study before the actual study was done where by the researcher administered the tools to a selection of the intended respondents and thereafter the correlation index was determined. Through this process, research instruments reliability correlation index of 0.8 was obtained.

Stage analysis and stage coding was used to measure the reliability of the data collection instruments, whereby at each stage the findings output were compared with the output of the researcher. Stage creation of narrative matrices in different thematic

variables and thereafter the results were triangulated to deduce the findings, maintain reliability and reduce researcher's bias.

3.10 Data Collection Procedures

Permission and approval from relevant authority to conduct the study was sought for before administering the research instruments. The researcher first sought an introductory letter from Moi University which was then used to apply for a research permit from The National Council for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). This was granted. The researcher then sought for research authorization from the education office and the county commissioners of the three counties where the selected urban centres were located. All the three clearance letters were granted. Prior to administration of the research instruments, it was important for all research assistants to be thoroughly trained on research ethics and instructions on the content of the instruments explained to them. They were advised to take all measurements in the most consistent manner across all respondents, to record and compile the data accurately.

The study collected data using questionnaires administered by trained research assistants with a check list to monitor the despatch and return of questionnaires. The questionnaires were administered through drop and pick approach. This method was useful because it gave the respondents ample time to respond to the questions and applied to all the other respondents save for the street children. The interview schedules were administered simultaneously with a view to obtaining in-depth responses which could not be captured in questionnaires. Both observation schedules and document analysis were also used to obtain qualitative data.

3.11 Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis means a process of cleaning, transforming and modelling data to discover useful information for business decision-making. Traditionally, as noted by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007), data analysis in mixed methods research consists of analysing both quantitative and qualitative data using quantitative and qualitative methods respectively. The study presented analysed data by using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics was used to summarize the primary data for purposes of enabling meaningful interpretation while descriptive statistical analysis helped to limit generalization to a particular group of individuals. The descriptive analysis techniques that were used in this study included percentages, means, and standard deviation. Descriptive statistics was analysed in the form of frequencies, percentages and means. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was employed to test whether there was mean difference on the street children access to pre-primary and primary education. One-way analysis of variance was also used to identify the significant differences between them and probability values of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant for the above statistical tests. For the purposes of hypotheses testing to determine the relationship and predictions between the independent and dependent variables, Chi-square statistical techniques was used. The Chi–square was employed to test the effectiveness of Government policy interventions towards access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in Kenyan North Rift Region.

Table 3.2: Data Analysis Matrix

Research Objective	Type of Data	Data collection Method	Analysis Technique
To analyse implementation processes of Government policy interventions towards enhancing access to primary education by street children	Quantitative	Questionnaire	Percentages Means Standard deviation Correlation test
Evaluate effectiveness of the policy interventions towards enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children	Quantitative and Qualitative	Questionnaire, Interview guide and Observation schedule	Percentages Means ANOVA test Correlation test Chi-square test
To evaluate the main challenges faced during implementation of policy interventions for access to pre-primary and primary education by street children	Quantitative and Qualitative	Questionnaire, Interview Guide and observation schedule	Thematic analysis

3.12 Ethical Considerations

Ethics is an ever-present concern for all researchers; it pervades every aspect of the research process from conception and design through to research practice, and continues to require consideration during dissemination of the results. (Goodwin et al., 2003). Moral deliberation is relatively essential in investigation for it pursues the agreement of the participants, for no one can be compulsory to contribute in the investigation (Roux *et al.*, 2005). Researchers need to protect their research participants, develop trust with them, promote integrity of research, guard against misconduct and impropriety that might reflect on their organization or institution and

cope with new challenging problems (Israel & Hay 2006). Ethical considerations therefore are concerned with issues related to the rights of research participants and emphasize on ensuring protection of research participants by the researcher who is expected to follow good research practices and ethical mindfulness. Ethical consideration also requires the researcher to observe social justice, non-disruption of hegemonic structures and observe moral principles such as respect for participants, beneficiaries and obtaining informed consent from the relevant authorities to conduct research. The researcher is also expected to keep good relationship with the participants, community, environment, stockholders and stakeholders (Mvumbi and Ngumbi, 2015).

On these aspects, the intentions of the investigation were elucidated to contestants before data collection. This was to permit the respondents to make knowledgeable judgement on the contributing of the investigation. The investigator endeavoured to be accountable at all time, watchful, heedful and profound to human pride. McMillan and Schumacher (1997) frazzled that throughout investigation, study data should be unidentified throughout the investigation era and therefore contributors' replies need to be presented namelessly. Besides, the enquiry was conducted at the suitability of the respondents to circumvent discommoding their timetable.

During the process of development of the purpose or the central intent and questions for study, the researcher conveyed the purpose of study and described it clearly to the readers to eliminate ethical issues on deceptions by participants. It is also during this time that the researchers made it clear to the participants that the research was being carried out for academic reasons and not for other purposes.

During collection of data from the participants' necessary ethical approval were obtained. The approval was obtained before the commencement of data gathering from participants and they were respected and at no time were they put at a risk. The researcher developed an informed consent form for participants to be informed on the engagement and in this form, participants' rights and protection were acknowledged. Confidentiality issues like not revealing participants identity or inclusion of some data against their consent was also to be adhered to and handled professionally. The purpose and the use of the data collected was relayed to the participants and an assurance was undertaken to solely utilize the data for the intended purpose.

During data analysis stage, information collected from participants was treated as private and confidential as much as conceivable. Data analysis and interpretations was done to promote anonymity of participants and to protect their identity. Issues on ownership of the collected and analysed information was made clear to the participants at the entry point. Accurate account of the information was adhered to during the whole process.

Finally, during the process of writing and disseminating the information, use of language and words that are biased against persons based on gender, sexual orientation, personal status, race or ethnic group was avoided. Issues of suppressing information, falsifying information or inventing findings, was also avoided.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Overview

This chapter presents analyses and discusses the study objectives as guided by the research questions outlined below;

1. Which Government policy interventions on access to education have enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in North Rift region of Kenya?
2. To what extent has the National Pre-primary Education Policy enhanced access to education by street children in Kenya?
3. To what extent has Free Primary Education Policy enhanced access to education by street children in Kenya?
4. To what extent has Inclusive Education Policy enhanced access to education by street children in Kenya?
5. To what extent has Special Needs Education Policy enhanced access to education by street children in Kenya?

Having collected relevant information and as guided by each research objective, data was analysed using relevant and appropriate techniques and every research question was addressed as guided by the research methodology presented. Information on general characteristics of the respondents was collected, statistical analyses made through the help of spread sheet program on measures of central tendency, percentages and descriptive interpretation of data made. Qualitative data was also

collected, organized and analysed in thematic areas. Respective tools from the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16 were also of great use in data analysis. Analysed data was presented, interpreted and discussed accordingly.

4.2 Research Instruments' Return Rate

The questionnaires return rates for the sampled respondents of street children, teachers, education officers and other stakeholders was 93.5 % as summarized in table 4.1 below;

Table 4.1: Research Instruments' Return Rate

Category	Sample	Returned Sample	Return Rate
Street children	249	241	96.8 %
Teachers	45	45	100 %
County Director of Education	3	3	100 %
Quality Assurance Officers	9	6	66.7 %
Other respondents	16	6	37.5 %
Total	**322**	**301**	**93.5 %**

4.3 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The study received responses from 301 respondents from the sample target whose demographic characteristics were as outlined in next section of the analysis.

4.3.1 Street children

The study sought to ascertain the gender demographic distribution of the street children who were interviewed.

4.3.1.1 Gender of the street children

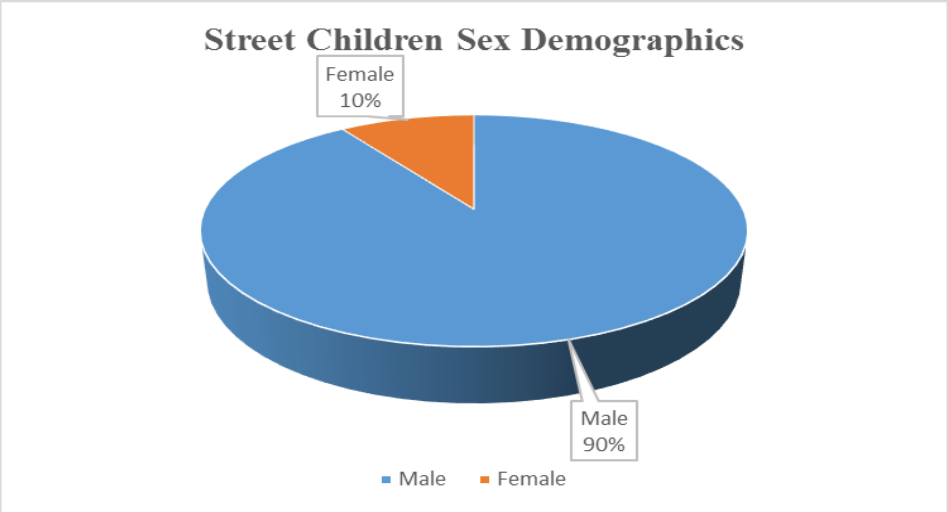


Figure 4.1: Sex Demographics of the Street Children ***(Source: Research 2023)***

As indicated in Figure 4.1 the sex demographic distribution of the street children who participated in the research, 218 (90 %) were males while 23 (10 %) were females.

4.3.1.2 Age of the street children

The questionnaire had items that inquired on the street children's age brackets which by extension would indicate their levels of classes or grades that they would be if they were enrolled in school.

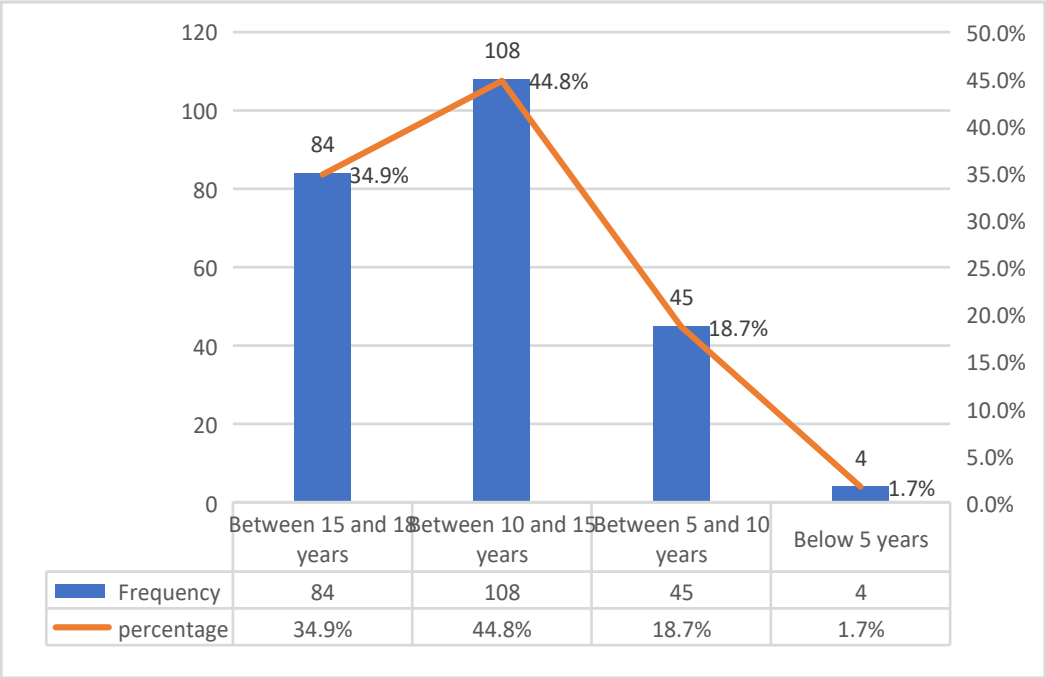


Figure 4.2: Age Distribution of the Street Children *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.2 represents the age distribution of the street children who gave their responses where 108 (44.8 %) of them were between ages of 10 and 15 years, 84 (34.9 %) were between 15 and 18 years whereas 45 (18.7 %) and 4 (1.7 %) were between 5 and 10 years and below five years respectively. These statistics therefore indicate that all interviewed street children fell in the category of school-going-age children and hence ought to be attending school at basic education level.

4.3.1.3 Where the street children frequently slept

Street children were asked to indicate places where they most frequently slept at night.

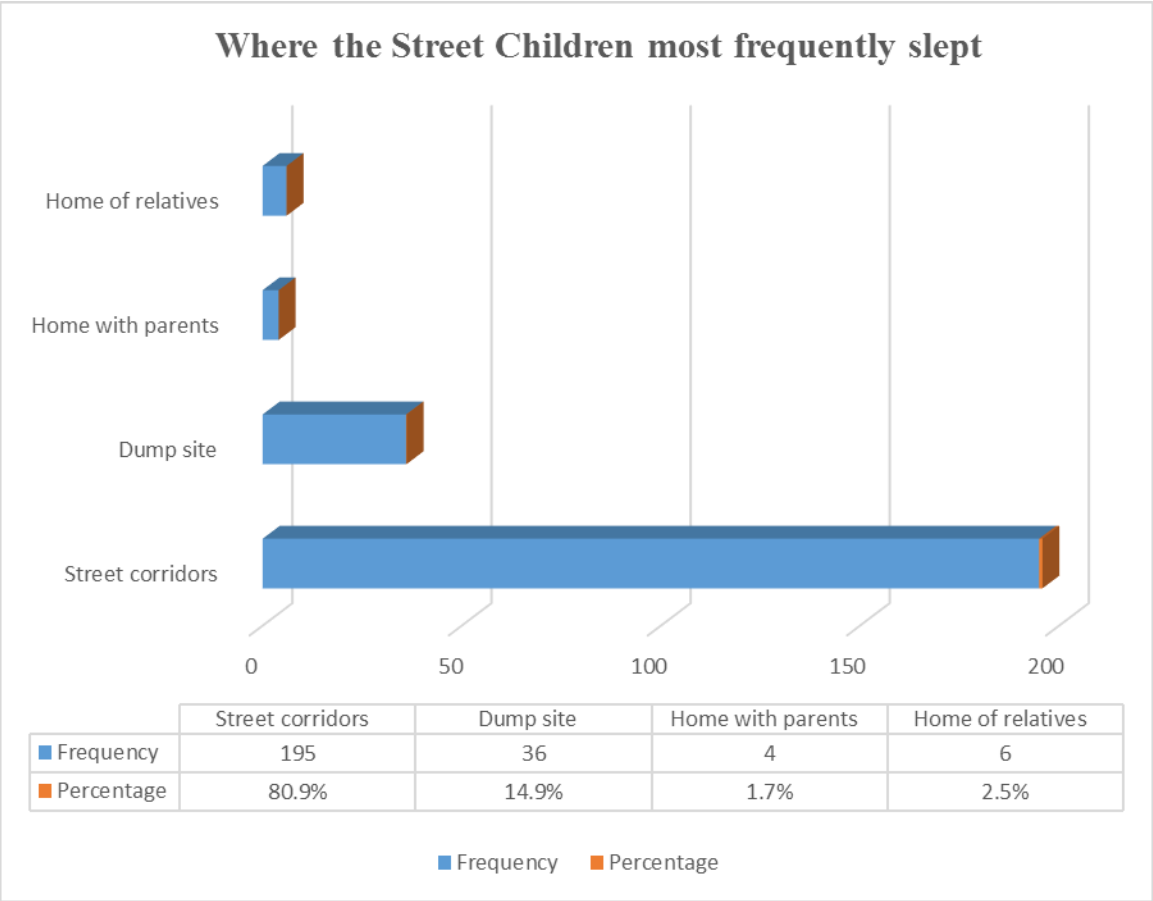


Figure 4.3: Where Street children most frequently slept *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.3 indicates that, 195 (80.9 %) of the respondents frequently slept in the street corridors, 36 (14.9 %) of them frequently slept at the dump sites within the towns, 6 (2.5%) and 4 (1.7 %) frequently slept at the homes of relatives and their homes with parents respectively. With this information, it suffices to say that majority of them slept in hostile environments (streets and dump sites) which are not conducive for learning. This environment therefore restricted them from attending school.

4.3.1.4 Years that the street children had spent in the streets

Street children were asked to indicate the number of years that they had lived in the streets and the distribution were as given in table 4.2 and figure 4.4 below;

Table 4.2: Years spent in the streets by street children

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Between 1 and 5 years	82	34.0	34.0	34.0
	Between 6 and 10 years	89	36.9	36.9	71.0
	Less than 1 year	15	6.2	6.2	77.2
	More than 10 years	55	22.8	22.8	100.0
	Total	**241**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

(Source: Research 2023)

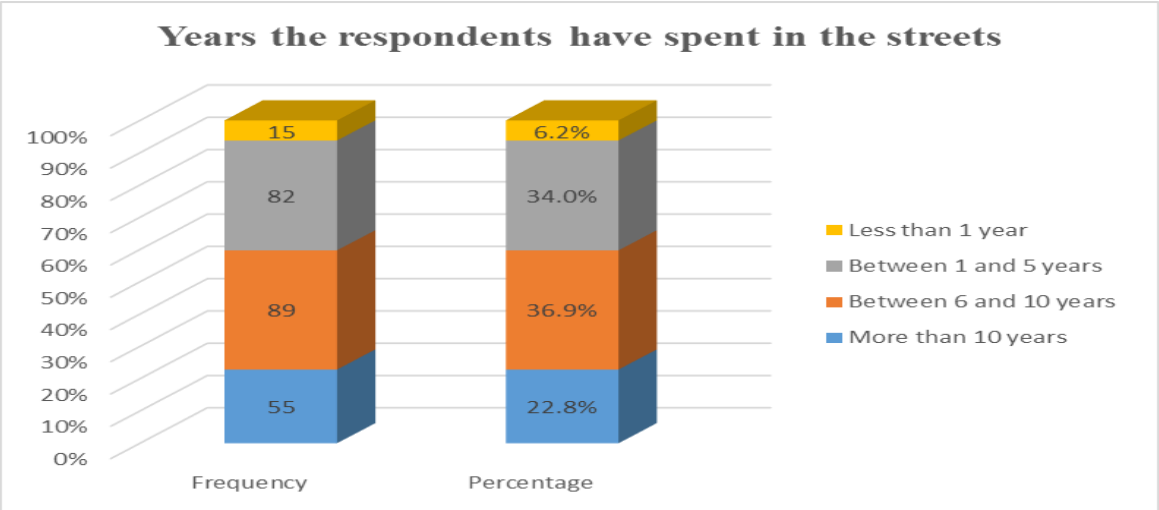


Figure 4.4: Years spent in the streets *(Source: Research 2023)*

Table 4.2 and Figure 4.4 show the number of years that street children had spent in the streets. From the results; majority of the respondents 89 (36.9 %) had stayed in the streets for a period between 6 and 10 years, followed by those who had stayed in the street for a period of between 1 and 5 years with the frequency of 82 (34 %). Those who had spent more than 10 years and those who had spent less than 1 year recorded 55 (22.8 %) and 15 (6.2 %) respectively. This therefore implies that most of the street children had spent barely all their lifetime in the streets. This environment indeed is not conducive for their basic right of access to education.

4.3.1.5 Respondents who attended school during the study period

The study sought to know the number of street children who were attending school by the time the research was conducted.

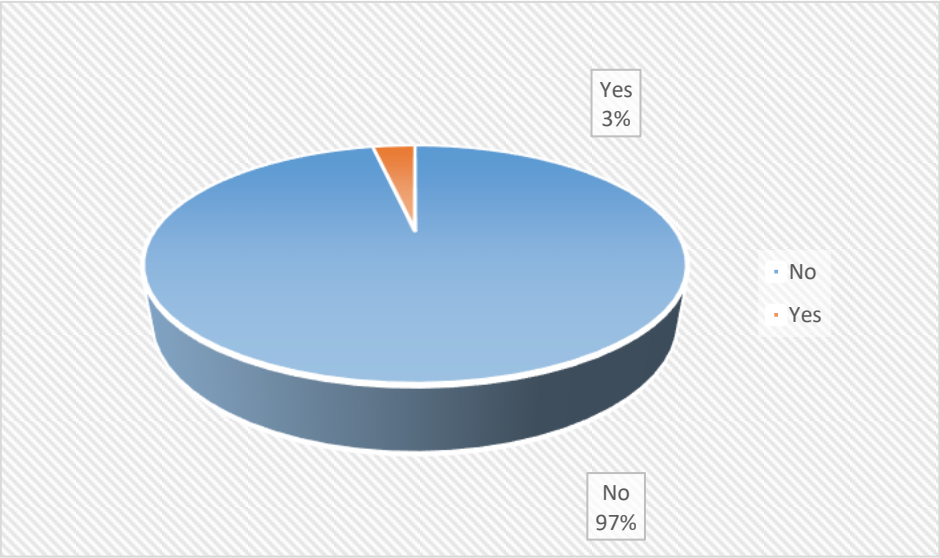


Figure 4.5: Respondents who attended School *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.5 shows the ration of respondents who were attending and those who were not attending school at the time of research. The result indicated that the majority 233 (97 %) of the respondents were not attending school at the time of research while very negligible number of 8 (3 %) were attending school. This is a clear picture of

the state of affairs of street children in terms of access to education. Basically, all street children do not attend school.

4.3.1.6 Class or grade attended by street children

The study sought from the street children who were attending school to know the specific grades and classes they were attending at the time of the study and the responses are given by table 4.3 and figure 4.6 below.

Table 4.2: Class or grades attended by street children

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Between Grade 1 and Grade 3	3	1.2	37.5	37.5
	Between Grade 4 and Grade 5	3	1.2	37.5	75.0
	Between Grade 6 and standard 8	1	.4	12.5	87.5
	Between PP1 and PP2	1	.4	12.5	100.0
	Total	8	3.3	100.0	
Missing	5	233	96.7		
Total		241	100.0		

(Source: Research 2023)

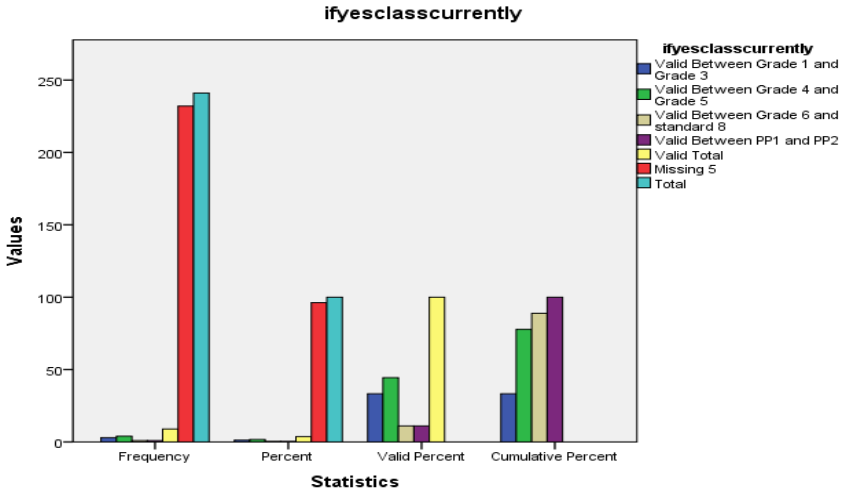


Figure 4.4: Class attended at the time of study *(Source: Research 2023)*

Table 4.3 and *figure 4.6* is a representation of the respondents' class levels of those who were attending school at the time of conducting the research. Out of the eight responds who were attending school when the research was conducted, three (3) were between grade 1 and grade 3, another three (3) were between grade 4 and grade 5, whereas one (1) each was between grade 6 and standard 8 and between pre-primary one and pre-primary two respectively.

4.3.1.7 Highest level of education attained by street children

Street children who had previously enrolled in school were asked to indicate the highest level of education they had attained before dropping out of school.

Table 4.3: Highest level attained by street children who previously attended school

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Between Grade 1 and Grade 3	67	27.8	40.6	40.6
	Between Grade 3 and Grade 4	1	.4	.6	41.2
	Between Grade 4 and Grade 5	59	24.5	35.8	77.0
	Between Grade 6 and standard 8	29	12.0	17.6	94.5
	Between Grade 6 and standard 9	1	.4	.6	95.2
	Between PP1 and PP2	8	3.3	4.8	100.0
	Total	**165**	**68.5**	**100.0**	
Missing	7	76	31.5		
Total		**241**	**100.0**		

(Source: Research 2023)

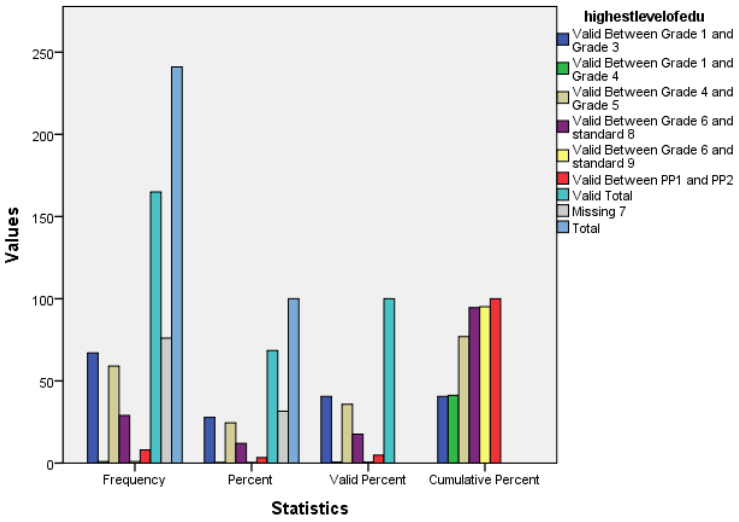


Figure 4.5: Highest level of education attained *(Source: Research 2023)*

Table 4.4 and *figure 4.7* shows that out of 233 respondents who by the time of the research were not enrolled in school, 165 (68.5 %) of them had previously attended school and dropped at different levels while 76 (31.5 %) had never attended school previously. It was noted that majority of them 127 (77 %) dropped between grade 1 and grade 5 whereas very few 30 (18.2 %) dropped between grade 6 and grade 8 while 8 (4.8 %) did not go beyond pre-primary. The big number of drop outs from school is a clear indication that school environment did not favour street children. The school environment is expected to be accommodative to all children and more so with the many policy interventions put in place by the government, school environment should be able to attract more school-going age children.

4.3.2 Teachers responses

4.3.2.1 Age Distribution of Teachers

The study sought to know the age distribution of the teachers interviewed during the study and was as given in figure 4.8 below;

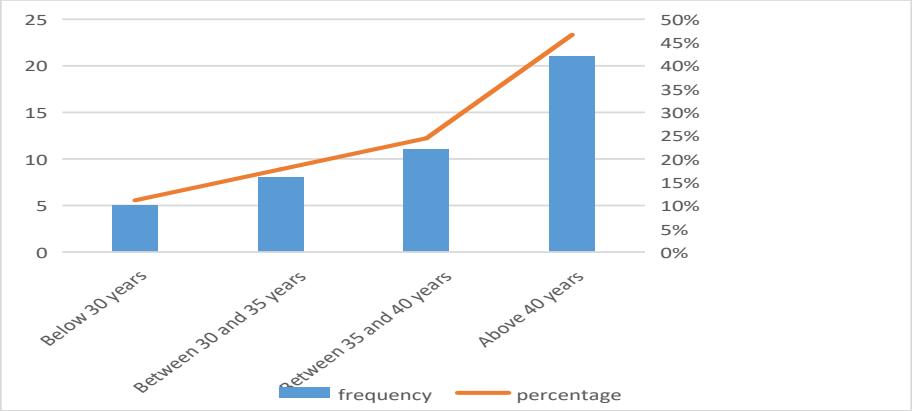


Figure 4. 6: Teachers' age distribution *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.8 is a representation of the teachers' age distribution. The results indicates that 21 (47 %) of the teachers were above 40 years old, 11 (24 %) were between 35 and 40 years whereas 8 (18 %) and 5 (11 %) were between 30 and 35 years and below 30 years respectively.

4.3.2.2 Teachers' Gender

The questionnaire for the teachers had items for gender identification of the teachers and the distribution was as given in figure 4.9 below;

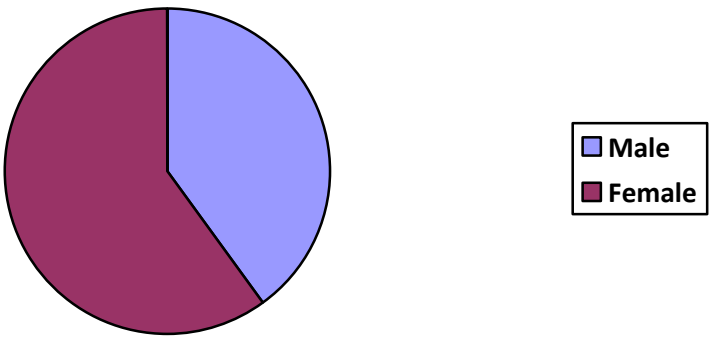


Figure 4. 7: Teachers' Gender Distribution *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.9 indicated that 27 (60 %) of the teachers were females while 18 (40 %) were males.

4.3.2.3 Teachers' work experience

Teaching experience of the teachers interviewed was sought for and the responses were as given in figure 4.10 below;

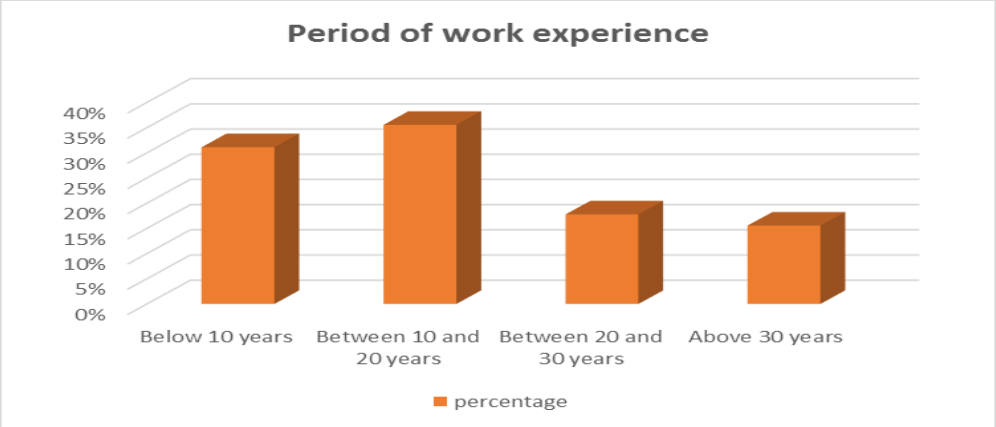


Figure 4.8: Teachers' work experience ***(Source: Research 2023)***

Figure 4.10 is a representation of the time period that the respondents had been in the teaching profession. It was found out that many teachers 16 (36 %) had a work experience of between 10 and 20 years, 14 (31%) had a work experience of below 10 years, 8 (18 %) between 20 and 30 years whereas 7 (16 %) had work experience of above 30 years. These statistics therefore gave vast experiences of the teachers' interactions with street children in school environment. The information obtained from teachers of such vast experiences would paint a clear picture of the status of the concerns on the area of study. Their input therefore was crucial in adding value to the findings of the study.

4.3.2.4 Teachers' highest level of education

Teachers' highest level of academic qualification was sought for from the interviewed teachers and the responses were as given by table 4.5 below;

Table 4.4: Teachers' highest level of education

		Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
Level	Certificate	12	27%	27%
	Diploma	18	40%	67%
	Degree	15	33%	100%
	Post Graduate	0	0%	100%
	Total	**45**	**100%**	

(Source: Research 2023)

Table 4.5 represent the highest level of education attained by the teachers. It was found out that 18 (40 %) of the teachers had academic qualification of Diploma as their highest education level, 15 (33 %) were degree holders while 12 (27 %) were certificate holders. None of the teachers had post graduate qualification as their highest level of education.

4.3.3 Other Respondents

Responses were obtained from other respondents that included the Government actors who monitored the implementation of the Government policy interventions towards access of pre-primary and primary education by street children. The Government actors who were engaged during the data collection and whose responses were considered to be key in this research included County children's officers, County Directors of Education (CDE) from the three Counties, and the Quality Assurance and Standardization Officers (QASO). Others included NGOs, CBOs and the Religious Organizations who were also interviewed as they represented the views of the non-state actors' responses about the Government policy intervention measures towards access to pre-primary and primary education by the street children.

4.3.3.1 Officers working with NGOs, CBOs and FBOs

The study sought to know the gender distribution of the respondents from Non-Governmental Organizations, Community Based Organizations and Faith Based Organizations that worked with street children and especially in regards to their sex orientation and education background. The responses were as given in figure 4.11 below;

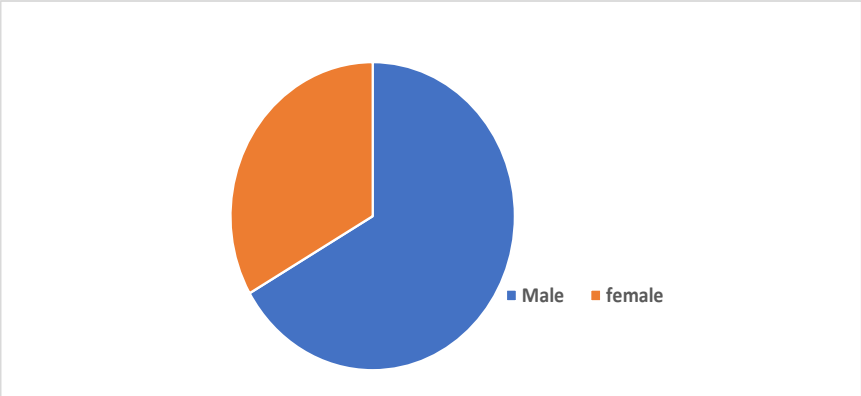


Figure 4. 9: Gender of the Informants *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.11 is a representation of the gender demographic information of the key respondents. It was found out that 9 (67 %) of the respondents were males while 6 (33 %) of the respondents were females.

4.3.3.2 Highest level of education

The study sought to know the highest level of academic qualifications of the informants from the NGOs, CBOs and FBOs that worked with the street children.

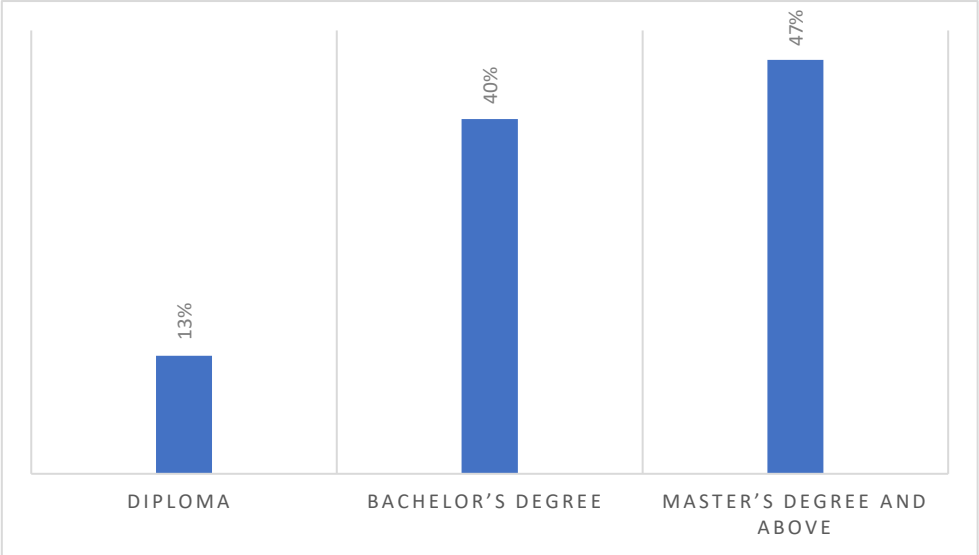


Figure 4.10: Highest Level of Education ***(Source: Research 2023)***

Figure 4.12 is a representation of the respondents' highest level of education which indicated that 7 (47 %) of the respondents had masters and above, 6 (40 %) had bachelor's degree and 2 (13 %) had diploma level of education.

4.4 Government policy interventions

To identify government policy interventions that enhance street children's access to pre-primary and primary education in Kenya, several policy documents were reviewed. Review involved critically analyzing government policies to understand their objectives, implementation strategies, and intended outcomes. The review was aimed at evaluating how the policy interventions addressed the issues on access to education by street children and to identify strengths, gaps, and areas of improvement in their implementation. The policy interventions were assessed from the lens of their initial objectives, inclusion measures, implementation strategies, outcomes and impacts. To capture data on Government policy interventions information from multiple sources that included Government policy documents, government programs and direct engagement with the stakeholders was carried out. Data of interest was

those that addressed access to education for vulnerable children and specific provisions targeting street children. Document review of policy papers, government reports and interviews with policymakers and education officials was also done. From the analysis, it was found out that Kenya has implemented a range of policy interventions to improve access to basic education, aimed at achieving universal education and promoting equity. These interventions span from legislative, financial and structural reforms. Some of the policy interventions from the document analysis carried out to ascertain their impacts on access to education are outlined below;

The National Pre-primary Education Policy: The national pre-primary education policy was intended to align the provision of early childhood development education and training to the constitution of Kenya 2010, the Kenya vision 2030 and other international protocols. The policy has played a foundational role in expanding access to early childhood education, but its impact on street children—one of the most marginalized groups—has been limited and mixed, due to several persistent challenges.

Some of the positive impacts realized include the Recognition of Early Childhood Education (ECDE). The Basic Education Act 2013 and the National Pre-Primary Education Policy (2018) recognize early learning (ages 4–5 years) as a compulsory part of basic education. This formal recognition led to increased public investment in pre-primary centers, especially through county governments, who are now responsible for ECDE. The other notable impact was the increased Infrastructure and Enrollment. Many counties therefore have invested in building ECDE centers, especially in urban and informal settlements and some street-connected children living in shelters or with support from NGOs have benefited from increased access.

Some of the limitations of this policy include lack of targeted strategies specific tor street children. The pre-primary education policy does not include clear, targeted provisions for street children, who often lack documentation, guardianship, and a fixed address—all of which are informal barriers to enrolment. There is also inadequate Social Support Services for street children. Street children often face issues like hunger, trauma, drug use, and abuse, which are not adequately addressed by mainstream ECDE programs. Lack of feeding programs in some ECDE centers also limits attendance for vulnerable children who depend on food as an incentive.

Free Primary Education (FPE) Policy – 2003: This policy was implemented with the objective to eliminate school fees for primary education to achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE). Its implementation resulted to an increased enrollment significantly, especially among children from poor and marginalized communities. It however lead to overcrowded classrooms, shortage of teachers and learning materials.

Inclusive Education Policy: The Inclusive Education Policy in Kenya, particularly as outlined in the Sector Policy for Learners and Trainees with Disabilities (2018) and related frameworks, has positively influenced the national conversation on educational access for marginalized groups. However, its direct impact on access to education by street children has been limited, mainly because the policy is not explicitly focused on them.

The positive Impacts of this policy include the emergence of the broader definition of inclusion. The Inclusive Education Policy promotes the idea that all learners, regardless of background or ability, should learn together. While it primarily targets learners with disabilities, it provides a conceptual basis for including street children and other marginalized groups. Furthermore, this policy indirectly supports the

establishment of Non-Formal Education (NFE) Centers that more often serve the street children. These centers offer flexible learning hours, basic literacy, psychosocial support, and sometimes transition pathways to formal schools. Through awareness and advocacy, the policy has led to greater awareness among education stakeholders (schools, county governments, and CSOs) about the need to adapt learning environments to the needs of vulnerable learners and some counties and NGOs have used this policy framework to advocate for inclusive practices that benefit street children.

The inclusive education policy however has faced some challenges in its implementation. This policy lacks the aspect of specific Targeting; street children are not explicitly mentioned or targeted in the Inclusive Education Policy. As a result, implementation tends to prioritize learners with disabilities, leaving street-connected children on the periphery. Documentation and placement barriers is another limitation in this policy. Street children often lack birth certificates, guardianship, and health records, which are still required in many public schools. Inclusive education practices therefore have not yet overcome these bureaucratic obstacles in many counties.

Special Needs Education Policy: The Special Needs Education (SNE) Policy in Kenya—primarily designed to support learners with disabilities—has had limited direct impact on street children, but it has laid some groundwork that can be leveraged to support them. The Special Needs Education Policy defines special needs broadly, including learners with emotional and behavioral difficulties, which may cover some street children. This broader lens allows for the possibility of inclusive interventions targeting learners outside the traditional scope of disability. The Special Needs Education framework has encouraged inclusive attitudes among some education

stakeholders and led to the development of Individualized Education Programs (IEPs)—which could be adapted to street children with unique learning or behavioral needs.

Special Needs Education Policy is however faced with challenges that include limited awareness and training for teachers. Most teachers trained under SNE are equipped to work with learners with physical or intellectual disabilities—not with children who face trauma, addiction, or social reintegration challenges like street-connected youth. This limits the ability of schools to meaningfully support these children, even if they are admitted. The SNE policy also does not mandate collaboration with child welfare or rehabilitation services, which are essential for reintegrating street children into the education system.

The Children Act (2022) identifies street children under the category of children in need of care and protection and reaffirms the right of every child to education while outlining the responsibilities of the state and parents. Basic Education Act (2013) guarantees free and compulsory basic education for every child but does not explicitly reference street children. The National Plan of Action for Children mentions vulnerable children, including those living on the streets, and emphasizes their right to education, protection, and rehabilitation.

Non-formal Education Policy: The Non-Formal Education (NFE) Policy in Kenya has had some impact on improving access to education for street children. While not without its challenges, NFE has created flexible and accessible pathways for marginalized children who are excluded from the mainstream school system. NFE centers offer flexible schedules, informal teaching methods, and non-traditional entry points; a key factor in accommodating street children who may not thrive in

structured, rigid school environments. These centers allow for bridging programs that help children catch up academically before reintegration into formal schools.

Many NFE programs offer school meals, healthcare, psychosocial support, and shelter, addressing the broader needs of street children which improves both access and retention. The Ministry of Education, through the NFE Policy Guidelines (2009), began registering NFE centers and linking them to formal education pathways. Out of this arrangement, learners in NFE centers can now sit for national exams under special registration codes, allowing them to transition to secondary education. However, most NFE centers are not fully funded by the government; they rely heavily on donors and NGOs which creates inequities in quality and sustainability across centers. Although the NFE policy was formalized, its implementation has been uneven across counties. Lack of a national database or robust monitoring system makes it difficult to track outcomes for street children in NFE programs.

Free Day Secondary Education (FDSE) Policy – 2008: FDSE was designed to provide free tuition in public secondary schools to increase transition from primary to secondary education. This arrangement was made possible by the Government paying tuition fees, while parents were expected to cover meals and boarding in some cases. Implementation of this policy resulted to improved transition rates from primary to secondary education.

Analysis of all the documents carried out indicated that Kenya has made considerable policy commitments toward universal primary education and that there is recognition of street children as a vulnerable group in need of support towards their access to education. However, the lack of a coordinated, street-specific education policy

framework undermines effective access and integration of street children into the education system.

From the document review, the following conclusions were drawn;

Kenya has made considerable policy commitments toward universal primary education, and there is recognition of street children as a vulnerable group in need of support towards their access to education. While the all the policy interventions reviewed acknowledged street children in broader sense, they do not provide targeted strategies to address their unique challenges. The reliance on decentralized implementation without clear budget lines or capacity-building support limits the effectiveness of the said policy interventions. Absence of specific monitoring indicators for access of street children to education hampered the ability to assess whether the policy interventions were reaching the group. The policy interventions missed the aspect to formalize collaboration with NGOs and other actors already working with street-connected children, which could enhance outreach to the street children. Lack of a coordinated, street-specific education policy framework undermines effective access and integration of street children into the education system.

4.5 Effectiveness of Government Policy interventions

To ascertain the level of contributions of the Government policy interventions towards enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children, specific questions relating to effectiveness of the policy interventions in terms of enrolment, retention, transition and completion were asked.

4.5.1 Responses from street children

Street children's thoughts were sought for in terms of their ratings of the contribution of the policy interventions on enrolment, retention, transition and completion of education.

4.5.1.1 Why street children had not enrolled in school?

The study sought to find out the reasons why the street children had not enrolled in school and the findings were as given in figure 4.13 below;

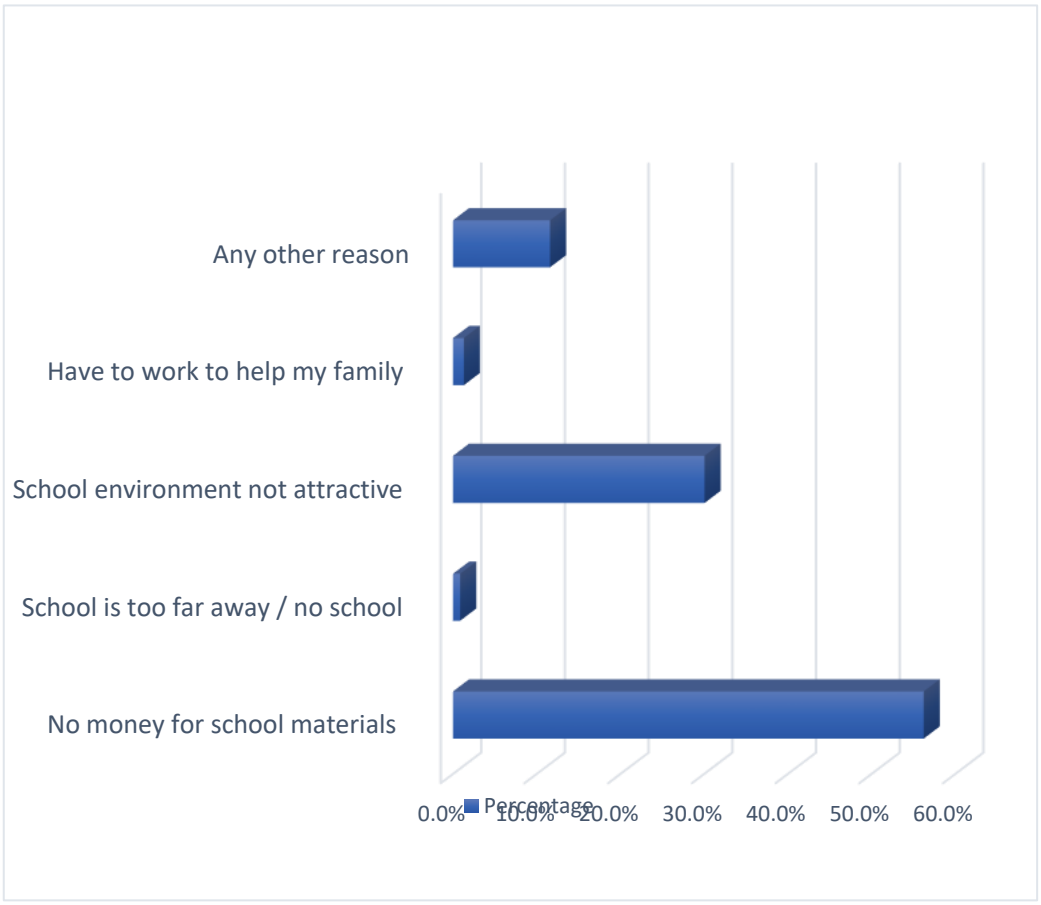


Figure 4.11: Reasons for not enrolling in school *(Source: Research 2023*)

Figure 4.13 is a graph showing the respondents' reasons for not having been enrolled in school. The result indicates that most of them 131 (56.2 %) had not been enrolled

in school due to lack of money for school requirements, 70 (30 %) had not enrolled because the school environment was not attractive to them, while 27 (11.6 %) had other reasons, 3 (1.3 %) and 2 (0.9 %) had not enrolled in school because they had to work to help their families and that schools were too far for them. Some of those who had other reasons reported that they had been born and raised in the street hence they had no idea about school life while others reported that they were over-age hence they could not join school with junior pupils. Some were trapped in early parenting responsibilities hence they had to be out of school to raise their young siblings.

4.5.1.2 Adequacy of Government Policy Interventions

To assess the level of effectiveness of the Government Policy Interventions towards enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children, the respondents were asked questions related to the adequacy of Government policy interventions and the influence by the visitations and monitoring by Government officers from the Ministry of Education. The street children were also asked if in their opinion, they thought the Government had put in place adequate policy interventions that could make it appealing for them to attend school.

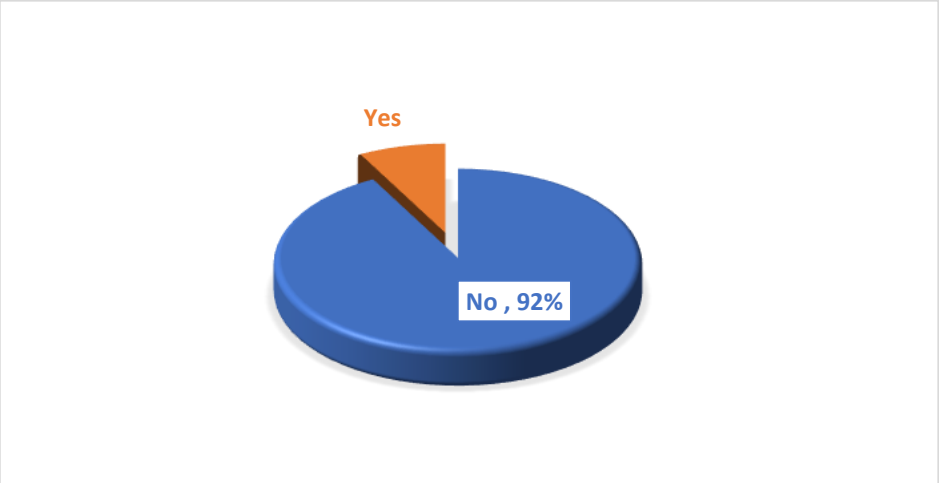


Figure 4.12: Adequacy of Government policy interventions *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.14 gives the respondents' views about the adequacy of Government policies towards influencing them to attend school. The findings indicated that majority 222 (92 %) of the respondents indicated that the Government policies were not adequate whereas 19 (8 %) indicated that the Government policies were adequate.

4.5.1.2 Influence by Government Officers

The respondents were also asked whether the visits by the Government officers influenced or persuaded them to attend school and their responses were as indicated in *figure 4.15* below:

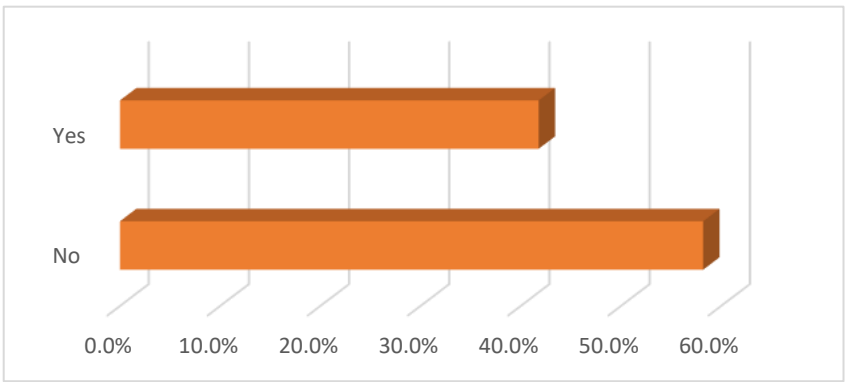


Figure 4.13: Influence of the Government officers *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.15 shows that; only 66 street children had interactions with Government officers during their visitations. Out of these, 39 (58.2 %) of the respondents indicated that despite the Government officers' visitation to the street, the visits did not influence their interest to attend school, while 28 (41.8 %) indicated that the Government visitation contributed to their interest to attend school. The major challenge for street children not to enrol in school was lack of money for school materials. This problem of lack of school materials remained unsolved despite the visitation from the Government officers from the ministry of education.

4.5.2 Responses from Teachers

Teachers' responses on the contribution of Government policy interventions towards enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children were sought for.

4.5.2.1 Contribution of Government policy interventions

Respondents were asked to rate on the levels at which the existing policy interventions had enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in specific aspects. Their responses were as enumerated in *table 4.6 below;*

Table 4. 5: Contribution of policy interventions in enhancing access to education

		Free Primary Education Policy		Pre-primary Education Policy		Inclusive Education Policy		Special Needs Education Policy	
Variable	**Level**	**Frequency (45)**	**Percentage (100%)**	**Frequency (45)**	**Percentage (100%)**	**Frequency (45)**	**Percentage (100%)**	**Frequency (45)**	**Percentage (100%)**
	Strongly Disagree	18	40%	19	42%	9	20%	12	27%
	Disagree	17	38%	11	24%	24	53%	25	56%
Enrolment	Neutral	6	13%	13	29%	7	16%	5	11%
	Agree	4	9%	2	4%	4	9%	3	7%
	Strongly Agree	0	0%	0	0%	1	2%	0	0%
	Strongly Disagree	17	38%	18	40%	4	9%	13	29%
	Disagree	22	49%	15	33%	30	67%	23	51%
Retention	Neutral	5	11%	11	24%	7	16%	6	13%
	Agree	1	2%	1	2%	4	9%	3	7%
	Strongly Agree	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	Strongly Disagree	9	20%	16	36%	12	27%	15	33%
	Disagree	27	60%	20	44%	21	47%	20	44%
Completion	Neutral	6	13%	8	18%	10	22%	8	18%
	Agree	3	7%	1	2%	2	4%	2	4%

	Strongly Agree	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	Strongly Disagree	19	42%	18	40%	9	20%	14	31%
	Disagree	19	42%	18	40%	24	53%	20	44%
Transition	Neutral	4	9%	8	18%	9	20%	7	16%
	Agree	3	7%	1	2%	2	4%	4	9%
	Strongly Agree	0	0%	0	0%	1	2%	0	0%

Table 4.6 represents the ratings from the head teachers and other teachers about the contribution of various education policy interventions towards enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children. Free-primary education policy, the national pre-primary education policy, inclusive education policy and special needs education policy were assessed and the following findings obtained;

i) The National Pre-primary Education Policy

Teachers were asked whether the national pre-primary education policy enhanced enrolment of the street children at pre-primary school and 19 (42 %) of them strongly disagreed, 13 (29 %) neither agreed nor disagreed, 11 (24 %) disagreed while 2 (4 %) agreed that pre-primary education policy had enhanced enrolment at pre-primary education by street children.

On whether the national pre-primary education policy had enhanced retention of the street children in pre-primary school, 19 (42 %) of the teachers strongly disagreed, 15 (33 %) disagreed, whereas 11 (24 %) and 1 (2 %) neither agreed nor disagreed and agreed respectively that pre-primary education policy had enhanced retention at pre-primary education by street children.

Teachers' responses on whether the national pre-primary education policy enhanced completion rates of the street children 20 (44 %) of them disagreed with the claim, 16 (36 %) strongly disagreed, 8 (18 %) were neutral while 1 (2 %) agreed that pre-primary education policy enhanced completion at pre-primary education by street children.

The responses on whether the policy had enhanced transitioning of the street children, 18 (40 %) of the teachers strongly disagreed with the claim, 18 (40 %) disagreed, 8

(18 %) were neutral, 1 (2 %) agreed whereas none of the teachers strongly agreed with the claim.

ii) Free Primary Education Policy

Responses of teachers on free primary education policy towards enhanced enrolment of the street children to pre-primary and primary education indicated that 18 (40 %) of the teachers strongly disagreed with the fact that this policy had enhanced enrolment to primary education by street children. 17 (38 %) of the teachers disagreed that this policy enhanced enrolment of street children at primary education while 6 (13 %) had neutral opinion i.e. they neither agreed nor disagreed. A small number of teachers 4 (9 %) agreed whereas none of them strongly agreed that free primary education policy had enhanced enrolment of street children at primary education.

On retention of street children in primary school by free primary education policy 22 (49 %) of the teachers disagreed, 17 (38 %) strongly disagreed, 5 (11 %) were neutral while 1 (2 %) of the teachers agreed that free primary education policy enhanced retention of street children at primary education.

On whether free primary education policy enhanced completion rates by the street children; 27 (60 %) of the teachers disagreed, 9 (20 %) strongly disagreed, 6 (13 %) neither agreed nor disagreed while 3 (7 %) and 0 (0 %) agreed that free education policy had enhanced completion of education by street children. No teacher strongly agreed that the free primary education policy had enhanced completion rates at primary education by street children.

Teachers were also asked on whether free primary education policy enhanced Transitioning of the street children in school and 19 (42 %) of the teachers strongly

disagreed, 19 (42 %) disagreed, 4 (9 %) neither agreed nor disagreed whereas 3 (7 %) agreed that the free primary education policy enhanced transitioning of street children in primary education.

iii) Inclusive Education Policy

Teachers were asked to comment on whether inclusive education policy had enhanced enrolment of street children in pre-primary and primary education and 24 (53 %) of them disagreed, 9 (20 %) strongly disagreed, 7 (16 %) neither agreed nor disagreed, 4 (9 %) and 1 (2 %) agreed and strongly agreed respectively.

On the claim that inclusive education policy had enhanced retention of the street children in pre-primary and primary education, 30 (67 %) of the teachers disagreed, 7 (16 %) neither agreed nor disagreed, 4 (9 %) strongly disagreed and another 4 (9 %) agreed that inclusive education policy had enhanced retention of street children at pre-primary and primary education.

Teachers' responses on the claim that inclusive education policy had enhanced completion rates of street children, 21 (47 %) of the teachers disagreed, 12 (27 %) strongly disagreed, 10 (22 %) were neutral and 2 (4 %) agreed with the claim.

The claim that inclusive education policy had enhanced transitioning of the street children to the next class or grades showed that 24 (53 %) of the teachers disagreed while those who strongly disagreed and those who were neutral tied at 9 (20 %). Subsequently, 2 (4 %) and 1 (2 %) agreed and strongly agreed respectively that inclusive education policy enhanced transition of street children at pre-primary and primary education.

iv) Special Needs Education Policy

Majority of teachers 25 (56 %) disagreed with the claim that Special needs education policy enhanced enrolment of the street children in pre-primary and primary education while 12 (27 %) of them strongly disagreed. Similarly, 5 (11 %) of teachers neither agreed nor disagreed while 3 (7 %) agreed that special needs education policy enhanced enrolment of street children at pre-primary and primary education.

On retention, many teachers 23 (51 %) disagreed with the claim that special needs education policy enhanced retention of the street children at pre-primary and primary education while very few of them 13 (29 %) strongly disagreed. An even smaller number of teachers 6 (13 %) neither agreed nor disagreed while 3 (7 %) of them agreed that special needs education policy enhanced retention of street children at pre-primary and primary education.

On the claim that special needs education policy had enhanced completion by the street children, 20 (44 %) of the teachers disagreed, 15 (33 %) strongly disagreed, 8 (18 %) neither agreed nor disagreed and 2 (4 %) agreed that special needs education policy enhanced completion at pre-primary and primary education by street children.

On the claim that special needs education policy had enhanced transitioning of the street children to the next class or grade, 20 (44 %) of the teachers disagreed, 14 (31 %) strongly disagreed, 7 (16 %) were neutral and 4 (9 %) strongly agreed that special needs education policy enhanced transition at pre-primary and primary education by street children.

4.5.3 Responses from other Key Informants

4.5.3.1 Contribution of Government policy interventions

Other key informants who included the County Directors of Education, Quality Assurance and Standards Officer, Officers from children's department, staff working with NGOs, CBOs and FBOs were asked to give their views on how Government policy interventions had enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in terms of enrolment, retention, transition and completion rates. The responses were as indicated in table 4.7 below;

Table 4.6: Contribution of policy interventions in enhancing access to education

		Free Primary Education Policy		**Pre-primary Education Policy**		**Inclusive Education Policy**		**Special Needs Education Policy**	
Variable	Level	Frequency (15)	Percentage (100%)	Frequency (15)	Percentage (100%)	Frequency (15)	Percentage (100%)	Frequency (15)	Percentage (100%)
	Strongly Disagree	5	33%	0	0%	2	13%	2	13%
	Disagree	4	27%	7	47%	3	20%	1	7%
Enrolment	Neutral	1	7%	3	20%	5	33%	5	33%
	Agree	3	20%	5	33%	5	33%	7	47%
	Strongly Agree	2	13%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	Strongly Disagree	0	0%	0	0%	2	13%	2	13%
	Disagree	4	27%	6	40%	4	27%	2	13%
Retention	Neutral	2	13%	5	33%	3	20%	3	20%
	Agree	9	60%	4	27%	6	40%	8	53%
	Strongly Agree	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	Strongly Disagree	3	20%	2	13%	3	20%	2	13%
	Disagree	5	33%	5	33%	2	13%	3	20%
Completion	Neutral	3	20%	5	33%	5	33%	4	27%
	Agree	4	27%	2	13%	5	33%	6	40%
	Strongly Agree	0	0%	1	7%	0	0%	0	0%

	Strongly Disagree	4	27%	2	13%	2	13%	1	7%
	Disagree	3	20%	6	40%	2	13%	2	13%
Transition	Neutral	4	27%	4	27%	6	40%	5	33%
	Agree	4	27%	3	20%	5	33%	7	47%
	Strongly Agree	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%

(Source: Field data 2023)

Table 4.7 is a representation of the NGOs, CBOs, and Faith Based organizations, QASO, Directors of education and Children officers' responses about the contribution of the various education policies towards enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by the street children. Free-primary education policy, inclusive education policy, special needs education policy and pre-primary education policy were assessed in reference to enrolment, retention, completion and transition.

a) The National Pre-primary Education Policy

On whether National pre-primary education policy had enhanced enrolment by the street children in pre-primary education, 7 (47 %) disagreed, 5 (33 %) agreed, 3 (20 %) were neutral and there were respondents that strongly agreed or disagreed with the sentiment.

The number of the respondents who disagreed with the sentiment that pre-primary education policy had enhanced retention was 6 (40 %) while those who agreed were 4 (27 %). The respondents who returned neutral were 5 (33 %).

The respondents who agreed and those who returned neutral on whether the pre-primary education policy enhanced completion of pre-primary education tied at 5 (33 %) while those who strongly agreed and disagreed tied at 2 (13%).

On whether the pre-primary education policy had enhanced transition of street children in pre-primary education, the responses were as follows; 6 (40 %) disagreed, 4 (27 %) were neutral and 3 (20 %) agreed.

b) Free Primary Education Policy

On whether the Free primary education policy had enhanced enrolment of the street children to primary education, 5 (33 %) strongly disagreed, 4 (27 %) disagreed, 3 (20

%) of agreed, 2 (13 %) strongly agreed whereas 1 (7 %) was neutral on the claim that free primary education policy had enhanced enrolment of street children to primary education.

Respondents' views on whether Free primary education policy had enhanced retention of the street children at primary education returned 9 (60 %) in agreement, 4 (27 %) disagreed while 2 (13 %) were neutral on whether free primary education policy had enhanced retention of street children in primary education.

On whether free primary education policy had enhanced completion of primary education by street children, 5 (33 %) of the respondents disagreed with the claim, 4 (27 %) agreed with it while those who strongly disagreed and who were neutral tied at 3 (20 %).

On whether Free primary education policy enhanced transitioning of the street children, the respondents who strongly disagreed, those who were neutral and those who agreed tied at 4 (27 %) while 3 (20 %) disagreed with the claim that free primary education policy had enhanced retention of street children in primary education.

c) Inclusive Education Policy

On whether the inclusive education policy had enhanced enrolment to pre-primary and primary education by street children, there was a tie of 5 (33%) of the respondents who were neutral and those who agreed while 3 (20 %) and 2 (13 %) disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively with the claim.

The respondents returned their views on how the inclusive education policy had enhanced retention of the street children in school as follows; 6 (40%) agreed, 4 (27

%) disagreed, 3 (20 %) and 2 (13 %) were neutral and strongly disagreed respectively.

On whether the inclusive education policy enhanced completion of pre-primary and primary education by the street children, there was a tie of 5 (33 %) of the respondents who indicated neutral and those who agreed while 3 (20 %) and 2 (13 %) strongly disagreed and disagreed respectively.

On whether inclusive education policy had enhanced transition in school by the street children 6 (40 %) returned neutral responses, 5 (33 %) agreed while those who strongly disagreed and those who disagreed tied with a frequency of 2 (13 %).

d) Special Needs Education Policy

7 (47 %) of the respondents agreed with the sentiment that special needs education policy had enhanced enrolment of street children in pre-primary and primary education while 5 (33 %) neither agreed nor disagreed. Another 2 (13 %) and 1(7 %) strongly disagreed and disagreed respectively with the sentiment that special needs education policy had enhanced enrolment of street children in pre-primary and primary education.

On whether special needs education policy had enhanced retention of the street children in pre-primary and primary education, 8 (53 %) agreed, 3 (20 %) disagreed, whereas there was a tie of 2 (13 %) for those who strongly agreed and those who strongly disagreed.

The responses on whether special needs education policy had enhanced completion of pre-primary and primary education by the street children 6 (40%) agreed, 4 (27 %) were neutral, 3 (20 %) and 2 (13 %) disagreed, and strongly disagreed respectively.

Responses on enhancement of transition of street children in pre-primary and primary education by special needs education policy, responses indicated that 7 (47 %) of the respondents agreed with the sentiment, 5 (33 %) neither agreed nor disagreed, 2 (13%) and 1 (7 %) disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively.

In all cases, very few teachers agreed that the four Government policy interventions have contributed to enrolment, transition, completion or retention in pre-primary or primary school of street children. On pre-primary education policy, less than 5% of teachers agreed that the policy had enhanced access to pre-primary education. 4% of teachers agreed that pre-primary education policy had enhanced enrolment, 2% agreed that it had enhanced completion, 2% agreed that it had enhance transition and another 2% agreed that it had enhanced retention.

On free primary education policy for example less than 10% of teachers agreed that the policy had enhanced access to primary education. 9% of teachers agreed that free primary education policy had enhanced enrolment, 7% agreed that it had enhanced completion, another 7% agreed that it had enhance transition and 2% agreed that it had enhanced retention.

On Inclusive education policy, less than 10% of teachers agreed that the policy had enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education. 9% of teachers agreed that inclusive education policy had enhanced retention, 6% agreed that it had enhanced transition, 4% agreed that it had enhance completion while 2% agreed that it had enhanced enrolment.

On special education policy, less than 10% of teachers agreed that the policy had enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education. 9% of teachers agreed that

special education policy had enhanced transition, 7% agreed that it had enhanced enrolment, another 7% agreed that it had enhance retention and 4% agreed that it had enhanced completion.

Other respondents that included the officers from the department of children, Non-governmental organizations, CBOs and the religious organization agreed that among the four policy interventions discussed, free pre-primary education policy had the least influence (47%) on enrolment to pre-primary education by street children. They however agreed that inclusive education policy had the highest influence (66%) on the enrolment of street children to pre-primary and primary education. It was also observed by all the respondents that the four policy interventions in the study least enhanced the transition from one level to the other of street children in pre-primary and primary education.

The above analysis indicate that teachers and other respondents have low opinion on the contributions of all the four Government policy interventions towards enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children. The opinion rating from the respondents who interact with street children in the schools and other set ups has an implication on the level of effectiveness of the policy interventions. The low rating therefore implies low level of effectiveness on the interventions.

4.5.3.2 Relevance of the laws, regulations and policy interventions

Table 4. 7: Relevance of laws, regulations and policy interventions

		Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Inadequate	2	22 %	22 %
	Neutral	2	22%	44 %
	Adequate	5	56%	100 %
Total		**9**	**100.0**	

(Source: Research 2023)

Table 4.8 is a representation of the Government officers' responses on their ratings on the relevance and adequacy of the laws, regulations and policy interventions put in place by the Government to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by the street children. The results indicated that, 5 (56 %) of the respondents indicated that policy interventions were adequate while those who returned inadequate and neutral tied at 2 (22 %). These findings contradicts the findings on the same as given by the street children. This may imply that government officers who are the implementers of the policy interventions are comfortable with the outcomes of the interventions but the children who are the beneficiaries of the interventions seem not to appreciate the relevance of the interventions. There is therefore need to relook at the relevance of the interventions with the aim of improving on their relevance to the target population of street children.

4.6 Implementation of Government policy interventions

4.6.1 Responses from street children

4.6.1.1 Visitation by the Government Officers

The respondents were asked whether Government officers charged with the responsibility of making sure that all children of school–going age attended school ever visited them in their areas of stay. The responses were as given in *figure 4.16.*

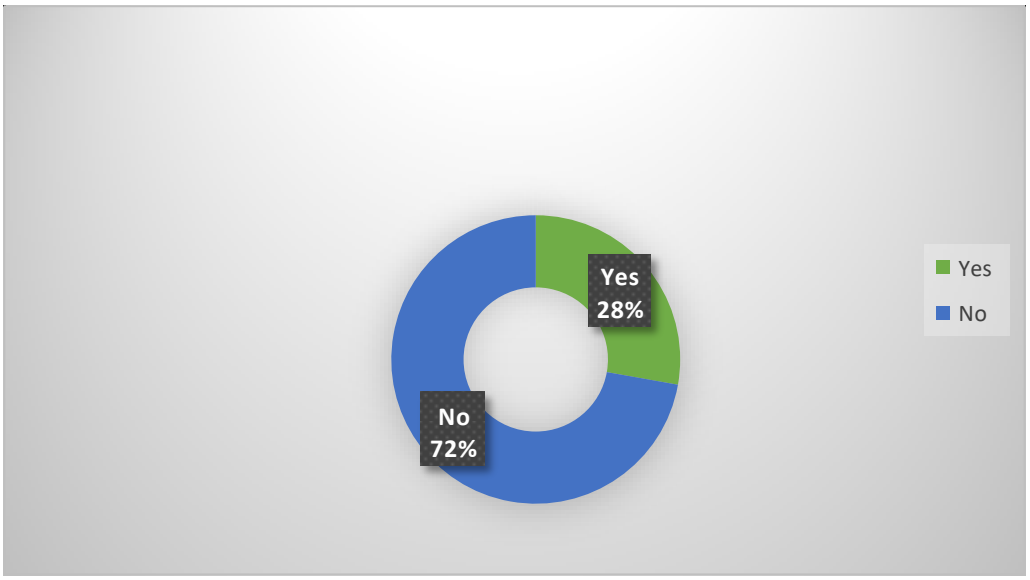


Figure 4.14: Visits by Government officers *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.16 shows the respondents' views concerning the visitation by the Government officers from the Ministry of Education to talk to them about attending school. From the figure; 174 (72 %) of the respondents said that they had not interacted with Government officers to talk to them about attending school, whereas 67 (28 %) said that they had some interactions with Government officers from the ministry of education to talk to them about attending school. The high percantage of the respondents who returned that they had not interacted with the Government officers by itself is an indication that either the officers do not visit the street children more often or generally do not consider their programs on street children seriously. A

regular program on such visitations need to be drawn and shared with all stakeholders to allow for concerted efforts by all towards managing issues of access to pre-primary and primary education for street children.

4.6.1.2 Contacts by social workers

The respondents were asked whether there were social workers or any other members of organizations who visited and talked to them about attending school other than the officers from the Ministry of Education and their responses were as given in *table 4.9 below;*

Table 4.8: Contact by social workers or any other community volunteers

	Frequency	**Percentage**
Yes	77	32 %
No	164	68 %
Total	**241**	**100%**

(Source: Research 2023)

Table 4.9 indicates that the majority of the street children 164 (68 %) had not had contacts or sessions with social workers or any other community volunteers to tell them about attending school whereas those who had interacted with the social workers or community volunteers were 77 (32 %). Of those who indicated that they had interacted with the groups about attending school, 50 (65 %) indicated that they witnessed the officers referring to Government policy documents about attending school while 27 (35 %) indicated that they never saw them refer to or mention about any Government policies as given by *table 4.10* below;

4.6.1.3 Reference to Government policy documents

Table 4.9: Reference to Government policy documents

	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	50	65 %
No	27	35 %
Total	**77**	**100%**

(Source: Research 2023)

4.6.2 Responses from Teachers

4.6.2.1 Adequacy of Government policy interventions

Responses from teachers were sought for in order to check on the level of the adequacy of the Government policy interventions towards enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children.

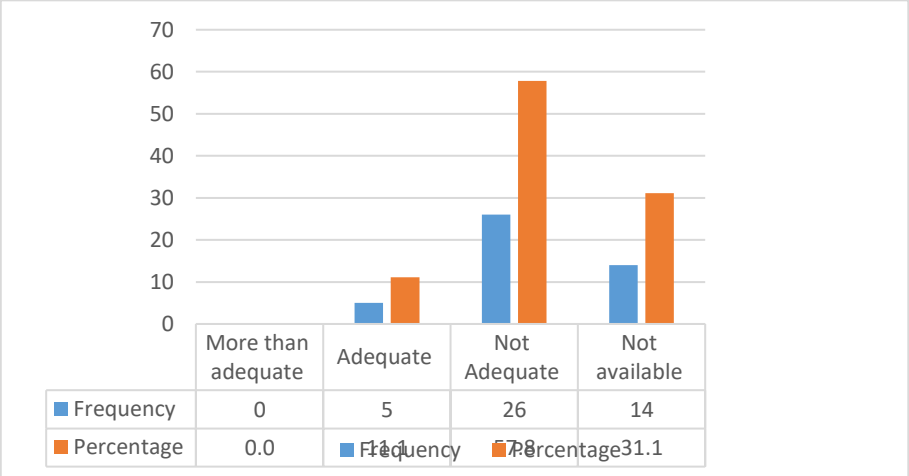


Figure 4.15: Adequacy of Government policy interventions *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.17 is a representation of the head teachers and teachers' responses in relation to the adequacy of the policy interventions for enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by the street children. 26 (57.8 %) indicated that the policy

interventions were not adequate, 14 (31.1 %) indicated that the policy interventions were not available and 5 (11.1 %) indicated that the policy interventions were adequate.

4.6.2.2 Changes Suggested to the Policy Interventions

The respondents proposed a number of suggestions to improve on effectiveness of the implementation of the Government policy interventions towards enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children. The suggestions included establishment of specialized department for handling issues of street children's access to education. The issues should be dedicated purposely to address enrolment, retention, completion and transition by street children. There was a suggestion that the Government needed to establish specialized training centers for street children since they are always uncomfortable with formal education set ups. There was also a suggestion that street children should be taught technical skills since majority of them are over age and feel ashamed being enrolled in lower classes with junior pupils. The specialized training centers should also be well equipped and with trained personnel to train, teach and counsel the street children. The centers should have adequate accommodation facilities to accommodate them all since majority of them are homeless.

There was also a suggestion that Government should conduct awareness and sensitization campaigns in the community so as to make people be aware of the policies and share responsibilities in a collective manner so as to ensure that the street children access education.

The research revealed that the Government had put in place many policies that needed to be enacted fully with the intention of protecting the street children from violence that could cause stereotypes among them. This in essence should make the learning environment conducive for all learners attending school.

4.6.3 Responses from Other Key Informants

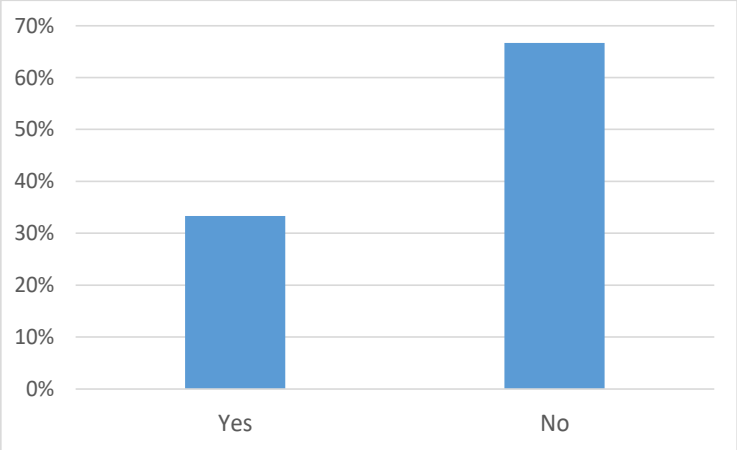


Figure 4.16: Adequacy of Government policy interventions *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.18 shows that majority 4 (67 %) of the other key respondents working with NGOs, CBOs and religious organizations indicated that Government had not put in place adequate policy interventions towards ensuring that street children access pre-primary and primary education whereas 2 (33 %) of the respondents said that the Government had put up adequate policies.

4.6.3.2 Officers implementing Government policy interventions

Responses on the adequacy of the number of officers tasked with the implementation of policy interventions on access of pre-primary and primary education by street children were sought and the responses were as indicated in figure 4.19 below.

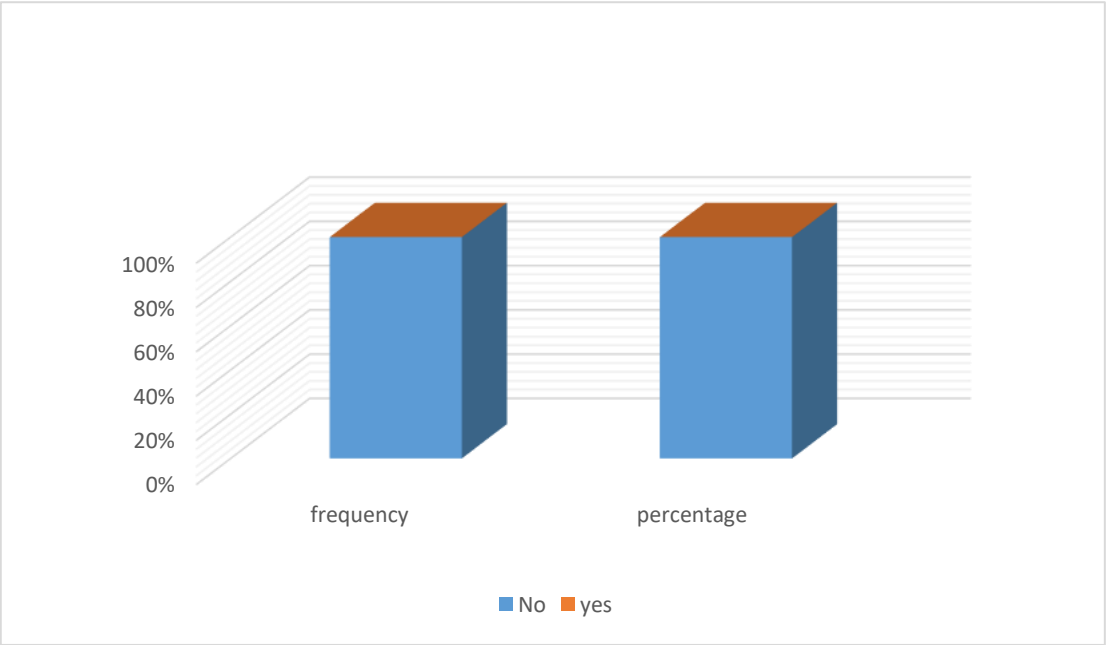


Figure 4.17: Adequacy of the staff deployed *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.19 is a representation of the views of the CDE, QASO and county officers in children's department about the levels of staffing in the implementation of the policy interventions. All of the respondents 9 (100 %) indicated that the officers deployed by the Government to implement policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children were not adequate.

4.6.3.3 Familiarity with the policy interventions

The respondents were asked to give their views on how Government policy implementers were conversant with the policies on access to pre-primary and primary education by street children.

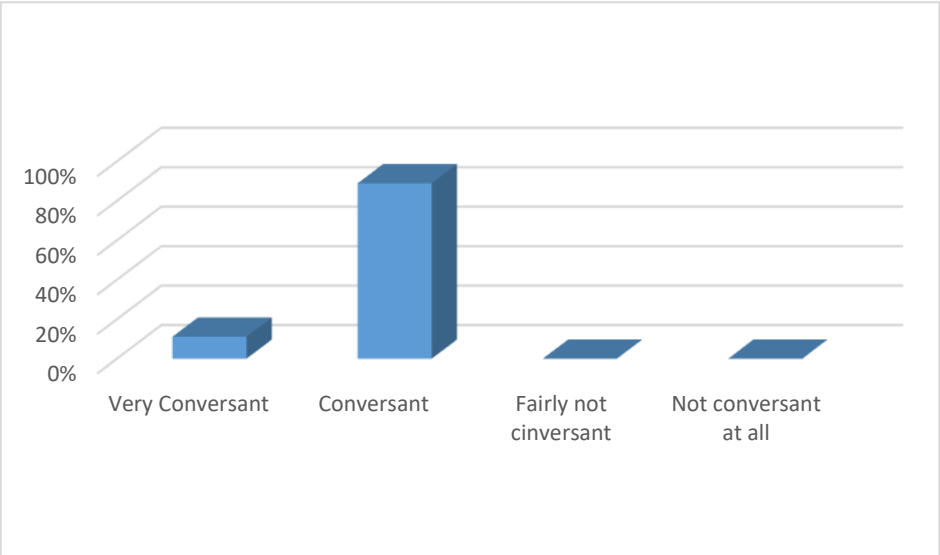


Figure 4.18: Familiarity with the policy interventions *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.20 is a representation of respondents' views on how conversant the policy implementers were with the policy interventions. 8 (89 %) indicated that the officers were conversant, 1 (11 %) indicated that they were very conversant. It was however observed that neither of the respondents recorded 'not conversant' at all nor 'fairly not conversant'.

4.6.3.4 Induction of Government officers

Respondents were asked on the adequacy of the trainings and inductions given to the implementers of Government policy interventions and the responses were as give in figure 4.21 below:

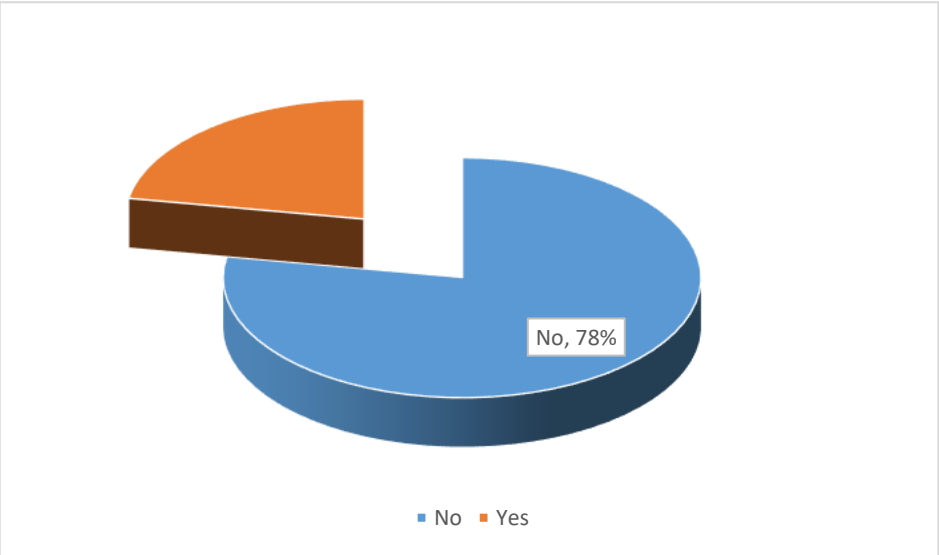


Figure 4.19: Adequacy of Training or Induction *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.21 indicates that 7 (78 %) of the respondents indicated that the policy implementers had not been adequately trained or inducted in preparation for implementing the policy interventions whereas 2 (22 %) indicated that the implementers appeared to have had adequate trainings.

4.7 Inferential statistical analysis of the findings

Statistical analysis that included Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Correlation and Chi-square were performed and the results were as outlined in the tables below:

4.7.1 Analysis of Variances (ANOVA)

4.7.1.1 ANOVA on mean difference

Table 4.10: ANOVA on mean difference between policy interventions and enrolment

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.007	1	.007	.083	.773
Within Groups	20.798	239	.087		
Total	**20.805**	**240**			

(Source: Research 2023)

The calculated p value = 0.773 was found to be greater than 0.05 (i.e. p > 0.05) and therefore there was no statistically significant in the mean difference between Government policy interventions and enrolment by street children in primary education.

4.7.1.2 ANOVA on level of contribution

Table 4.11: ANOVA on level of contribution of free primary education policy

	Sum of Squares	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Between Groups	1.726	3	.575	3.897	.015
Within Groups	6.052	41	.148		
Total	**7.778**	**44**			

(Source: Research 2023)

The p value of 0.015 was less than 0.05 hence there was statistically significant difference between the means of level of contribution of free primary education policy and access to primary education the p = 0.015 < 0.05 hence significant. The findings therefore implied that the free primary education policy played a vital role in access to primary education by the street children.

4.7.2 Correlation

Table 4.12: Correlations

		National pre-primary education policy	Retention	Completion	Transition
Completion	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000**	.000	.000*
	N	45	45	45	45
Transition	Pearson Correlation	.797	.909	.779	.947
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000**	.000	.000	.000
	N	45	45	45	45
Contribution of National pre-primary education policy	Pearson Correlation	1	.863	.815	.793
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000**
	N	45	45	45	45
Retention	Pearson Correlation	.863	1	.875	.941
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000*		.000**	.000
	N	45	45	45	45
Completion	Pearson Correlation	.815	.875	1	.790
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	45	45	45	45
Transition	Pearson Correlation	.793	.941	.790	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000**	.000	.000	
	N	45	45	45	45
Contribution of inclusive education policy	Pearson Correlation	.711	.862	.821	.788
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	45	45	45	45
Completion	Pearson Correlation	.514	.616	.529	.631

	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	45	45	45	45
Transition	Pearson Correlation	.807	.822	.910	.734
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	45	45	45	45
Retention	Pearson Correlation	.620	.793	.643	.823

(Source: Research 2023)

The level of contribution of National pre-primary education policy in access to education was positively correlated in comparison to enrolment, completion, transition and retention of the street children in pre-primary and primary education.

4.7.3 Pearson Coefficient Correlation

Table 4.13: Pearson Coefficient Correlation

		Inclusive education policy	Completion	Transition
Completion	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000**	.000
	N	45	45	45
	Pearson Correlation	.789	.643	.773
Transition	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000**	.000	.000
	N	45	45	45
	Pearson Correlation	.711	.514	.807
Contribution of National pre-primary education policy	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	45	45	45
	Pearson Correlation	.862	.616	.822
Retention	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000*	.000	.000**
	N	45	45	45
Completion	Pearson Correlation	.821	.529	.910
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000**
	N	45	45	45
	Pearson Correlation	.788	.631	.734
Transition	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000**	.000	.000
	N	45	45	45
	Pearson Correlation	1	.789	.843
Contribution of inclusive education policy	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	45	45	45
	Pearson Correlation	.789	1	.627
Completion	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	45	45	45
	Pearson Correlation	.843	.627	1
Transition	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	45	45	45
Retention	Pearson Correlation	.898	.838	.714

(Source: Research 2023)

The Pearson correlation coefficient of the level of contribution of inclusive education policy towards enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education was strongly positively correlated having a correlation coefficient of 1.0

The level of contribution of National pre-primary education policy towards access to pre-primary and primary education was positively correlated having a Pearson correlation lemma of 0.711.

The completion, transition and retention were also positively correlated in reference to the contribution of inclusive education policy towards access to pre-primary and primary education for street children.

4.7.4 Chi-square test

To determine the relationship between enrolment and retention of street children for the product and also on how the retention of the street children in school was affected by the challenges faced, a chi-square test was conducted at a 0.05 significance level and the results were as outlined in *tables 4.15 and 4.16 below;*

Table 4.15 Relationship between attending school by street children and challenges faced

Challenges face by street children	No	Yes
Attending school currently		
No	126	93
Yes	6	1
Chi-square statistic:	1.209054466	
P-value:	0.271519463	
Degrees of freedom:	1	
Expected frequencies:	[127.91150442 91.08849558]	
	[4.08849558 2.91150442]]	

(Source: Research 2023)

From the analysis in table 4.15, Chi-square test of p-value 0.271 was obtained when the test of the two variables was run. A p-value of 0.271 means there is a 27.1% chance of observing the data we have (or something more extreme) if there truly is no correlation between Kenyan street children's access to pre-primary and primary education and the country's special needs education policies.

Since the p-value (0.271) is greater than the significance level (alpha = 0.05), we fail to reject the null hypothesis. This indicates that there isn't enough evidence to support the alternative hypothesis, meaning we cannot conclude that there's a statistically significant correlation between the two variables.

The results suggest that there was no statistically significant correlation between Kenyan street children's access to pre-primary and primary education and the country's special needs education policy based on data. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies was not large enough to indicate a meaningful association.

Table 4,16: Case Processing Summary

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
level of contribution of National pre-primary education policy in acces to education * retentioni	10	16.1%	52	83.9%	62	100.0%

enrolment*retention crosstab

			retentioni				
			Agree	Disagree	Neutral	retention	Total
level of contribution of National pre-primary education policy in acces to education	Agree	Count	2	0	1	0	3
		Expected Count	.6	.9	1.2	.3	3.0
	Disagree	Count	0	3	1	0	4
		Expected Count	.8	1.2	1.6	.4	4.0
	Enrolment	Count	0	0	0	1	1
		Expected Count	.2	.3	.4	.1	1.0
	Neutral	Count	0	0	2	0	2
		Expected Count	.4	.6	.8	.2	2.0
Total		Count	2	3	4	1	10
		Expected Count	2.0	3.0	4.0	1.0	10.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.625[a]	9	.014
Likelihood Ratio	17.279	9	.045
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.550	1	.060
N of Valid Cases	10		

a. 16 cells (100.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .10.

(Source: Research 2023)

From the results on *table 4.16* chi-square P-value of 0.014 was less than 0.05 significant level hence the null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that there was significant relationship between the national pre-primary education policy and enrolment in school by street children. This was also true for the relationship between the national pre-primary policy and the retention in school for street children. It was

also concluded that enrolment of the street children affected their retention in pre-primary and primary education and vice versa.

4.8 Challenges faced in the Implementation -Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis, following Braun and Clarke's (2006) approach, was used to identify key patterns in the participants' perceptions of challenges faced in the implementation of policy interventions to access to education by street children. Initial coding was conducted manually and focused on recurring challenges to access to education by street children and codes grouped into broader themes.

The analysis identified nine main challenges; poor funding by government, lack of specialized training, uncoordinated implementation framework, lack of parental support, stigmatization, peer influence, domestic violence, constant migration and unfavourable education system that interact to limit educational access for street children. These themes formed the basis for the discussion on the challenges faced the implementation of policy interventions. While there were Government policy interventions in place and designated ministry staff to supervise their implementation, these challenges hindered attainment of the goals. They ultimately compromised their effectiveness in terms of the expected outcomes. For optimal outcomes therefore, these challenges needed to be addressed by the relevant stakeholders.

4.8.1 Challenges faced by Government officers as given by teachers

Respondents were asked questions relating to the challenges faced by the implementers of policy interventions towards enhancing access to pre-primary and

primary education by street children and the responses received were as analysed in the following section.

The education officers tasked with roles and responsibilities of implementing Government policy interventions towards enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children were faced with a number of challenges that affected their work.

Theme 1: ***Poor funding***

The Government's failure to allocate adequate funds was indicated as one of the major challenges which made it difficult for the education officers to reach out to the street children and other stakeholders to implement the intervention measures. Poor funding caused under-staffing. The research revealed that there was low priority given towards education for street children by the education officers hence support for programs targeting enhanced access to education was missing.

Theme 2: ***Lack of specialized training***

Inadequate facilitation for attending specialized trainings resulted to difficulty in the implementers to reach out to all the street children.

Theme 3: ***Uncoordinated implementation of policy interventions***

It was found out that majority of the stakeholders were not aware of the policy interventions hence collaboration was difficult. Education officers therefore found it difficult to involve the community stakeholders during the implementation.

4.8.2 Main challenges faced by policy implementers

The respondents were asked on the major challenges faced by policy implementers during their process of implementation;

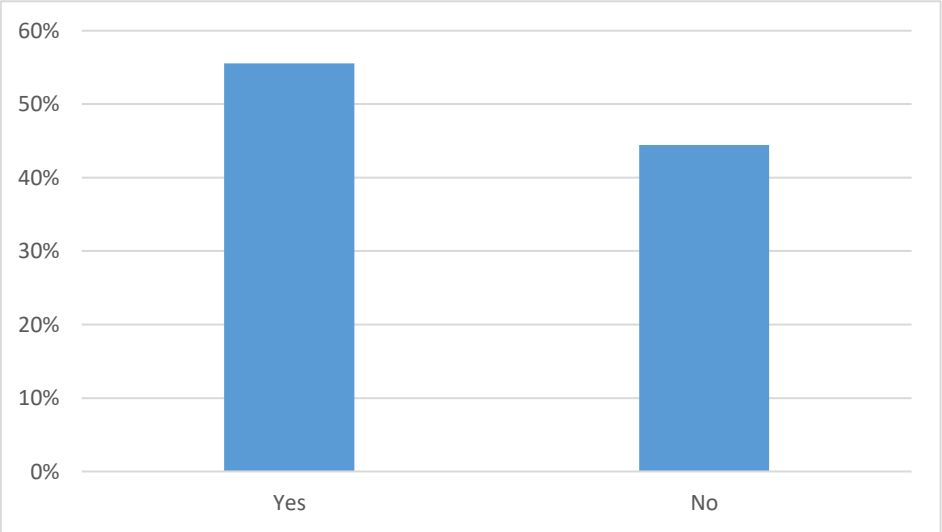


Figure 4.20: Major challenges faced by policy implementers (Source: Research 2023)

Figure 4.22 indicates the respondent's views on the major policy related challenges faced by the policy implementers where many of them 5 (56 %) indicated that there were policy related challenges and 4 (44 %) indicated that there were no policy related challenges faced. Of those who indicated that there were policy related challenges 3 (60 %) of them indicated that the policy related challenges affected the implementation of intervention policies very much whereas 2 (40 %) indicated that the policy related challenges moderately affected the implementation process.

4.8.3 Challenges that policy implementers face; Implementers' perspective

A number of policy related challenges were discussed from the implementers' perspectives and the following were the major challenges that reported;

Theme 1: ***Poor funding***

Respondents emphasized the importance of funding towards the implementation process. It was discussed that the officers in charge of implementation process were allocated little funding which made it difficult to fully implement the policies It was also discussed that the available policies were partially implemented because the Government did not fully commit funds towards the same.

Theme 2: ***Lack of specialized training and periodical inductions***

This was discussed as a major policy challenge. Education for street children require a specialized mode of handling which was not provided in the formal professional trainings hence there was need for the Government to allocate adequate funds and commit the same towards holding induction trainings for the policy implementation process.

Among other challenges that were discussed were; poor stakeholders engagement, negligence of duties by the other stakeholders, minimal community engagement and lack of parental engagement.

4.9 Main challenges faced by street children

4.9.1 Responses from street children

4.9.1.1 What made the street children leave school

From the findings it was evident that the majority of the street children were not attending school at the time of study despite the high enrolment ration that had been registered previously. The study found out that majority of street children who previously had been enrolled in school dropped out of school and preferred to live in the streets. A number of factors were found to have contributed to the respondents leaving school for street life. The common factors among many respondents included;

Theme 1: Death of parents or guardians and high levels of poverty

It was found out that 181 (75%) of the respondents left school immediately their parents or guardians passed on. They could not afford any more to raise the funds to pay for their school fees, purchase school materials or purchase food and other basic needs. Despite the free primary education policy, schools charged some money for pupils to be allowed to attend school. Their efforts to seek for financial aid from well-wishers were not responded to positively. The children who had depended on their parents to access basic needs found their life suddenly changing to the worse as poverty hit them hard and hence, could not sustain either to be in school or stay at home. They rather chose to stay in the streets. There were quite a number of heartbreaking stories given by the respondents.

One street child commented*:*

> "My parents died when I was very young and no body among my relatives picked me up to stay with them, my constant pleading for food became irritating to the neighbours until they started chasing me away from their

> homes, I needed food to survive which made me to make a decision of leaving home for street life".

Another added,

> "When my parents died, we went to live with our grandmother who also died shortly after we had moved in. It remained my duty to look for food and clothing for my siblings which made me leave school to work for people to raise money. Those who used to give me domestic works started to call me a thief until I moved to the street with my young brothers to beg for food where we have lived for the past three years."

Theme 2: Domestic violence/ Abandonment by parents and relatives

The study revealed that about 37 (15%) of the respondents had attended school until the time they were abandoned by the guardians. Upon the death of parents some children decided to move and live with their relatives. The animosity of some of the relatives resulted to their secondary problems since they were mistreated and even denied access to basic needs. The unending family conflict in some families made parents to be separated and none was willing to take the responsibility of taking care of the children which forced them to look for a new family in the streets.

One of the children commented;

> "I was raised by my mother who was a single parent and who fell ill and died. This forced me to move in and live with my uncle who was a drunkard. One day he came home very drunk and he started beating me up and wanted to rape me which forced me to go and live with my aunt who later conspired with my uncle until she chased me out of her house".

Another respondent further added that

> "My mother abandoned me to enable her move in with her newly found husband and no one took care of me. I decided to seek for means of survival and ultimately I found myself in the streets begging for food and money".

Theme 3: Peer influence and drug abuse

The study found out that roughly 17 (7%) of the respondents were forced to leave school by friends who introduced them to the use of drugs. The drug abuse did not let

them live at home since they were scared about their parents. Some were sent away by their parents who could not sustain to live with them after discovering that they had abused drugs. They sought for 'freedom' so as to continue abusing the drugs and hence forced them to drop out of school and ultimately joined other children living in the streets.

Theme 4: Brutal punishments at home and school

The study reported that 6 (3%) of the respondents had been forced to drop out of school due to the brutal beatings at school and/or at home. Some girls reported that they were punished brutally by the parents and teachers for becoming pregnant while at school hence they could neither remain in school nor home and therefore moved into the street life out of fear and frustrations. Brutal punishment in school and by some parents instilled fear in them until they were forced to run away from their homes.

4.9.1.2 Other policy related challenges

A number of policy related challenges that hindered the street children from accessing pre-primary and primary education were discussed. Some of the policy related challenges that emerged were; constant migration, financial limitations, unfavourable education system, discrimination and stigmatization, lack of parental care and other relevant support, lack of access to Government aid and brutal punishment.

Theme 5: Constant migration

The constant eviction of street children from the streets by government authorities had subjected them to a state of constant migration from one town to another which made it difficult to enrol in school. Their temporal living status hindered them from settling in one town and enrol to school. During the data collection it was noted that

the majority of the street children in one of the streets in one town were immigrants from the other neighbouring towns. With the prevailing education policy which required clearance from the previous school, it became difficult for run-away street children to transfer from one school to another. It therefore became difficult for the street children to transfer from a school in one town to continue with their education in the next town. One of the respondents from Kitale town for example, who had an ambition to become a teacher alluded how difficult it was for him to enrol in school due to the constant migration,

He reported

> "It has been difficult for me to be in school because I am not assured of a long term stay in one town. Initially I was in Eldoret town but after two weeks I was forced to run for my safety due to brutality from the police in the name of performing security operations due to an incidence where thieves broke into a supermarket. Now I am living in Kitale after another brutal eviction from Kapsabet town which forced me to run for safety after being suspected of stealing in a shop. I really wished that I could have had an opportunity to access education to enable me to become a teacher."

Theme 6: Financial limitations

Despite of the Governments guarantee of free primary education, most of the citizens have not enjoyed full access of free education. Financial costs like examination fees, holiday tuition fees, preparation and remedial fees, Parent teachers' association (PTA) fees, purchase of school stationeries, purchase of school uniforms and lunch made it difficult for street children to access pre-primary and primary education because of their vulnerability status. Reality could not be diverted from the fact that street children lived by chance and access to basic needs was a great challenge.

One street child stated that;

> "If I had money or financial support I could have enrolled for tailoring course to enable me acquire skills that will enable me become self-employed, now I am a survivor of town who just live by begging for food which is not an assurance to get in many days. If I cannot manage to buy food how can I get money to enrol for a course in school?".

The constant sending away of the street children from the schools due to non-compliance to pay the required fees demoralized them from constantly attending school hence dropping out. Financial limitation stood out to be the top policy related challenge since it did not only affect enrolment, but also retention, completion and transition to the next levels of education. Financial limitation was found to be the influencing factor towards other policy related challenges like, lack of food, clothing and decent housing conditions.

Theme 7: Unfavourable education system

The study found out that street children were not comfortable with the formal education system. The formal education system did not equip the street children with technical skills which could enable them to become self-reliant and independently improve their living standards through entrepreneurship ventures. The formal education system required them to fully commit their time in school yet they needed to do some work to support their families and themselves in terms food, clothing and medical support.

The formal education system conditionally placed junior pupils in the same class with the older street children who due to their vulnerabilities, were not able to be enrolled in school at the right time.

> "I ever attempted to attend school but I was enrolled in class one where I was the biggest in the class until teachers and students were making fun of me whenever I came to school barefooted and in casual clothes. I can only go back

> to school to take a technical course which can enable me start my own business as I learn", said one of the respondents".

The formal education system was much involving with a lot of theoretical coverage which needed the student to have many books both for reading and writing of which the street children could not afford.

Theme 8: Discrimination and Stigmatization

Street children were often excluded and avoided when they tried to interact with other children. They were always separated from other pupils since the teachers had the perception that they could influence the other pupils into drug abuse and other bad behaviours. The stereotypes and perception towards the street children by the other pupils made it difficult for them to socialize and make friends in school.

According to one of the street children, he confessed that he was beaten up in school by the teachers because one of the teachers had lost a pen in class and the teacher by default said that he is the one who stole it. Another confessed that he was forced to snatch food from the kitchen since the teachers had barred him from being served by other children instead, they commanded him to take throw-away foodstuffs from the bin since in the street they were used to eating such leftovers. Such behaviours indeed drove majority of the street children out of school even if they wanted to access education.

Theme 9: Lack of parental support

Street children lacked parental, psychological and mental support. When they were in problem, they had no one to talk to or depend on to solve their problems. The street children were found to lack guidance and counselling hence most of them were victims of drug addiction, early pregnancies, unprotected sex and violence. Some of

them reported that some people in the community took advantage of their vulnerability and used them to commit crimes like breaking in to shops and even some girls were victims of rape from the same people. The worrying thing was that when they reported the incidences to the authority no action was taken. They felt frustrated by all these issues that were never given due attention by the relevant authorities.

Theme 10: Lack of Government support

Unlike the other pupils who were issued with bursaries, street children did not enjoy such opportunities. Government aid such as Constituency Development Fund (CDF) bursaries, county Government bursaries and all the other forms of bursaries did not reach them since they were considered not entitled to residency from areas where bursaries were allocated from. Lack of access to Government aid made the street children to remain with the option of giving up and dropping out of school.

4.9.2 Teachers' responses on challenges

4.9.2.1 Need for other policy interventions

Respondents were asked if in their opinion, they thought that there was need for other policy interventions other than the one that existed and the responses were as given in figure 4.23 below:

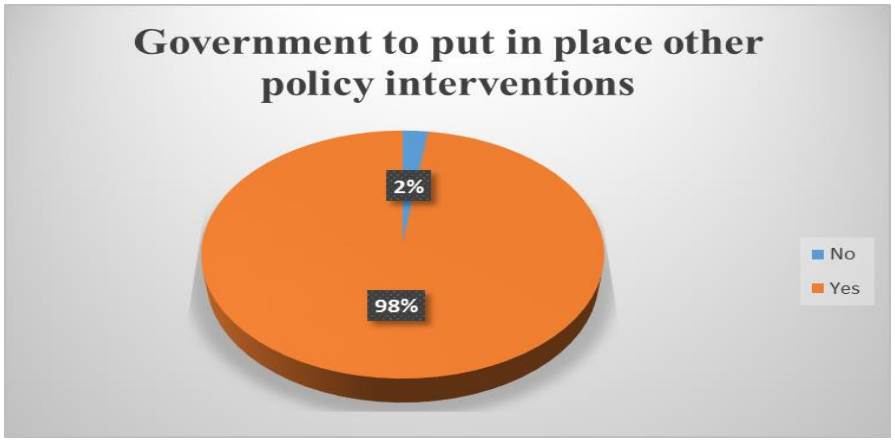


Figure 4.21: Need for other policy interventions *(Source: Research 2023)*

Figure 4.23 indicates that majority of the teachers 44 (98 %) indicated that the Government needed to put in place other policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children whereas negligible number of them 1 (2 %) responded on the contrary.

4.9.2.2 What else need to be introduced

A number of suggestions were raised on what the Government needed to put in place in the school set up to make the street children more comfortable in attending school. Among the suggestions that were discussed were; provision of free food and shelter in the schools especially for the street children, establishment of special training centers for technical skills acquisition, establishment and facilitation of guidance and counselling unit in schools that will be responsible in giving moral and psychological support to the street children and establishment of Government funds to support access to education by street children.

Provision of free food and shelter in schools: Street children were considered to be vulnerable group who did not have formal housing and they found it difficult to achieve the basic needs like food and shelter. If policies could be developed to allow schools establish free accommodation facilities specifically for street children, it

would motivate them to attend school. The street children mentality would possibly change if they could be guaranteed food and shelter. This would then guarantee the street children security and an environment to call home hence concentrate in school.

Establishment of special training centres: Special training centers could make the street children actively engaged and acquire technical skills. Specialized technical training centers would rebuild trust on the street children since age would not be a factor that limit them from enrolling to school. Technical skills would prepare the street children for entrepreneurship venture and thereafter to become self-reliant. It was observed by the respondents that specialized training centers would protect the street children from stigmatization and discrimination which was brought about by other pupils. Teachers trained in such specialized courses needed to be deployed to schools that enrolled pupils from the streets so as to handle them with dignity and utmost respect. It was also observed that specialized centers should be equipped with the guidance and counselling unit with personnel who would instil moral support to such pupils.

Establishment of Government fund for street children education: Government should establish a special kitty for the street children education funds. The funds would be used to purchase uniforms and other school materials for street children who enrol in school. The fund should also be utilized to facilitate the street children who had completed their technical trainings to start up micro-enterprises.

4.9.3 Responses from other Key Respondents on policy related challenges

4.9.3.1 Challenges faced by street children

The study asked the respondents to give the main policy related challenges faced by street children in accessing pre-primary and primary education. The respondents

indicated that most of the street children were barred by both social and economic factors which hindered them from accessing pre-primary and primary education. Lack of funds to specifically target educations for street children was one of the major challenges that was highlighted by the respondents. The vulnerable living conditions of street children made them to struggle to access food and other basic necessities. Despite of the free primary education policy, the street children did not afford the little finances that were needed in schools and even money to purchase the school materials like school uniforms, school stationary and their travel expenses to and from the schools since the schools were not close to their places of stay.

Stigmatization also emerged as one of the main challenges that the street children grappled with as they tried to access pre-primary and primary education. The street children were viewed as criminals hence other students and teachers despised them. The stereotypes against the street children did not provide an accommodating environment for the street children since they were abandoned and denied the opportunities that they deserved.

The economic vulnerability status of the street children required the street children to be equipped with technical skills to enable them become self-reliant hence need for specialized technical training centers for their training. Lack of the special training facilities emerged out to be amongst the major challenges.

All these challenges given by the respondents ultimately required deliberate policy interventions towards addressing issues relating to access to pre-primary and primary by street children.

4.9.3.2 How challenges affected implementation process

The study sought to inquire on how much the major policy related challenges affected the policy implementation process.

Table 4.17: How challenges affect implementation process

	Frequency	**Percentage**	**Cumulative percentage**
Very much	3	60 %	60 %
Moderately	2	40 %	100 %
Not at all	0	0	
Total	**5**	**100%**	

(Source: Research 2023)

For those who indicated that there were policy related challenges, 3 (60%) of them indicated that policy related challenges affected the process of implementation of policy interventions very much whereas 2 (40%) indicated that the policy related challenges moderately affected the policy implementation process.

4.10 Findings from the observation schedule

Observation schedule aimed at capturing specific behaviours portrayed by street children as they responded to questions on their access to education. The tool was tailored to record general information on their concentration, comfortability with statements about school environment, willingness to attend school, self esteem and individual enthusiasm to school related comments. Observations were carried out throughout the period of study, focusing attendance patterns, personal engagement, and peer interactions with other street children.

Concentration span of street children: The observation revealed inconsistent concentration span among street children, often marked by late arrivals or early departures. This irregularity appeared to stem from economic pressures, as some children were observed leaving early to engage in street vending or other informal work. Despite these challenges, many children displayed a desire to participate when present, suggesting an underlying motivation to learn something new in life. Their level of expectation was high but at some point looked discouraged by many questions.

Social inclusion and peer relations: The social environment was mixed with some street children moved by discussions not related with school. In some instances, street children formed friendships with peers and were found to integrate with group activities. However, observations also noted instances of social exclusion, teasing, or avoidance by other street children. This suggests that peer dynamics significantly influence the experience of street children.

Infrastructure and Support Systems: While many street children showed willingness to attend school, some were not confortable questions relating to schools and would generally avoid engaging with the researcher and start doing other things. They would be seen doing other things not related to school more enthusiastically.

These findings highlighted the tension between the promise of education and the lived realities of street children. While schools offer potential stability, the broader socio-economic conditions—combined with institutional limitations—undermined sustained engagement. The sporadic attendance and passive participation reflect structural barriers rather than a lack of interest or ability among the children.

To better serve street children, schools must adopt inclusive policies and provide additional support, such as flexible schedules, psychosocial counseling, and community outreach. Teacher training on handling diverse classrooms and building trust with marginalized learners is also critical. Broader policy interventions, such as intersectoral collaboration between department of education, child protection, and social services are essential in addressing the complex needs of street-connected children.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Overview

The chapter presents the summary, conclusion and recommendations of the study findings in line with the research objectives; examine Government policy interventions aimed at enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children, evaluate the extent to which Government policy interventions have enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children and to analyse challenges faced during the implementation of the interventions. The summary includes both quantitative and qualitative findings. The chapter also includes a section on conclusion made from the study, recommendations and suggested areas for further research that arose from the analysis of the findings.

5.2 Demographic analysis of the respondents

Street children were the key respondents in this study. Other respondents included teachers, Quality Assurance and Standards Officers from both County Governments and the Ministry of Education, Officers from the children's department, Non-Governmental Organizations, Religious organization and Community Based Organizations that work with street children. Questions relating to access to pre-primary and primary education were posed to the sample group which was a representative of the population. Based on the demographic analysis of the sample under study, varied observations were made.

With respect to the age and gender of street children, it was found out that many of the street children were aged between 10 and 15 years. The study also revealed that majority of street children were males. The study revealed that negligible number of

street children attended school whereas majority were out of school. The study revealed that a big number of street children who had attended school previously had dropped out of school between grade 1 and grade 5.

Teachers were considered as key respondents in the study because they are the first implementers of the Government policy interventions towards enhanced access to education. The study intended to get responses from teachers with varied teaching experience and levels of interactions with street children and matters education for the same group of children. The study revealed that there were many female teachers who responded to the questionnaires compared to male teachers. The study also revealed that majority of the teachers were aged above 35 years and that most of them had a work experience of more than 20 years. On the highest level of academic qualifications, the study indicated that majority of teachers had either Degree or Diploma as their highest level of academic qualification, whereas a small number had certificate as their highest level of academic qualification. The findings indicated that majority of teachers either strongly disagreed or disagreed that government policy interventions enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children.

Majority of the respondents that included the County Directors of Education, Quality Assurance and Standards Officers, officers from children's department and the other targeted groups agreed with the teachers that government policy interventions had not enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children. They returned strong disagreement or disagreement percentages on whether the policies had enhanced access to education.

5.3 Government Policy Interventions enhancing access to education

This research evaluated the extent to which the four Government policy interventions; Pre-primary education policy, Free primary education policy, inclusive education policy and special needs education policy had enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children by looking at their contributions towards enrolment, retention, transition and completion rates.

Teachers were asked to give their rating on the adequacy of the Government policy interventions towards enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children. The responses indicated that majority of the teachers agreed that Government Policy Interventions were not adequate. None of the respondents held the view that Policy interventions were more than adequate. From the aforementioned, it is therefore clear that the said Government Policy interventions had not adequately addressed their intended purposes. On the implementation of the same policy interventions, most of the respondents indicated that they were rarely visited by the Government officers tasked with the supervision of the implementation and even when they visited, their visits did not influence enrolment, retention, transition or completion.

The other respondents were also asked to give their opinions on the level of adequacy of the Government policy interventions and majority of them indicated that Government policy interventions were adequate. What needed to be looked at and improved is the supervision of the implementation process. On the contrary, majority of teachers and the other key respondents from the NGOs and CBOs felt that the Government policy interventions were not adequate in terms of the scope of the areas that they addressed.

The findings indicated that Kenya had implemented a range of policy interventions to improve access to basic education by all children including street children that aimed at achieving universal education and promoting equity. The interventions are legislative, financial and structural reforms in nature. Impact on access to education by street children was registered in the national pre-primary education policy, free primary education policy, special needs education policy and inclusive education policy.

5.4 Effectiveness of Government policy interventions

Respondents were asked to rate the effectiveness of specific Government policy interventions in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in terms of enrolment, retention, transition and completion. The policy interventions analysed included the National pre-primary Education policy, free primary education policy, Inclusive Education policy and Special Needs Education policy. From the analysis, majority of teachers generally agreed that the said Government policy interventions had not adequately enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in terms of enrolment, retention, completion and transition rates. However, in comparison, more respondents agreed that inclusive education policy had contributed more than the rest of the policy interventions in enhancing access while the national pre-primary education policy contributed the least in enabling transition of the learners. Responses from the religious groups, CBOs and the NGOs agreed that compared to other Government policy interventions, special needs education policy had enhanced more access to pre-primary and primary education by street children. Subsequently, free primary education policy contributed more in enhancing retention compared to the other policy interventions. It was also

established that among the policy interventions, special needs education policy contributed little towards completion rates by street children compared to the other policy interventions.

The other key respondents that included the County Directors of Education, Quality Assurance and Standards Officers (QASO), Non-Governmental Organizations, Community Based Organizations and Religious Organizations returned responses agreeing that the Government policy interventions had not adequately enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children.

ANOVA test on the mean difference between Government Policy interventions and access to pre-primary and primary education by street children gave a p value of 0.773. The p-value is greater than 0.05 and therefore there was no statistically significant mean difference between Government policy interventions and access by street children to pre-primary and primary education by street children.

The ANOVA test on the level of contribution of free primary Education policy in access to pre-primary and primary education by street children showed that there was significant relationship between the means of level of contribution of free primary education policy towards access to pre-primary and primary education. It gave a p value of 0.015 which was less than 0.05 hence significant. The findings therefore implied that free primary education policy contributed to access to pre-primary and primary education by the street children.

The level of contribution of National pre-primary education policy towards access to education was positively correlated in terms of retention, completion, transition and retention of the street children in pre-primary and primary education.

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient of inclusive education policy in access to pre-primary and primary education was positively correlated having a correlation coefficient value of 1.0. The contribution of National pre-primary education policy in access to education by street children was positively correlated having a Pearson correlation lemma of 0.711.

The completion, transition and retention were also positively correlated and hence there was a significant relationship between all the variables in relation to contribution by inclusive education policy intervention towards access to pre-primary and primary education by street children.

The Chi-square test was carried out on the level of contribution of national pre-primary education policy on access to pre-primary and primary education by street children. It was found out that there was significant relationship between enrolment and retention of the street children in pre-primary and primary education. It was also significantly concluded that enrolment of the street children to school affected the retention of the children in pre-primary and primary school and vice versa.

The findings on the effectiveness of the policy interventions indicated that Kenya has made considerable progress towards attaining universal primary education and that there is recognition of street children as a vulnerable group in need of support towards their access to basic education. However, the lack of a coordinated, street-specific education policy frameworks undermines effectiveness of the policy interventions on access and integration of street children into the education system.

5.5 Challenges faced by street children of school-going age

On the reasons why street children were not attending school by the time of the study, most of them indicated lack of money to buy school materials and unattractive school environment. Negligible number indicated that they either worked at their homes to assist their parents and guardians or gave other reasons that prevents them from attending school. Most of those who had given other reasons reported that they had been born and raised in the street hence they had no idea about school life while some reported that they were over-aged hence they could not join classes with junior pupils. Some however, were trapped in early parenting responsibilities hence they had to be out of school to take care of their young siblings.

The study found out that majority of the street children had previously enrolled but dropped out of school because of various reasons. Majority of them indicated that they dropped out of school and preferred to live in the streets due to death of parents/guardians or high level of poverty. Many of them however cited domestic violence/abandonment and brutal punishments at home and in school and peer influence.

Respondents were also asked questions on challenges related to implementation of Government policy interventions by Government officers tasked with the implementation process. The results indicated that majority of the respondents believed that those tasked with the noble responsibility had done little in terms of visitations to the street children as a form of encouragement to them to attend school. Majority of street children indicated that they had not been visited by the Government officers for all the time they had spent in the streets whereas a small number indicated that Government officers from the Ministry of Education had visited them to talk to

them about attending school. However, most of the respondents indicated that despite of the Government officers' visitation to the street, the visits did not influence their interest to attend school. As indicated, the major challenges for the street children not to enrol in school was lack of money to buy school materials. The problem remained unsolved despite the visitation from the Government officers from the Ministry of Education.

The main policy-related challenges faced as given by the respondents included constant migration by street children which did not enable them to enrol in school, financial limitations, unfavourable education system to the street children, discrimination and stigmatization and lack of parental support among others. Consequently, on suggestions for improvement of school set-ups to accommodate street children, the respondents proposed provision of free school meals and shelter, establishment of special training centres for technical skills and establishment of Government funds for the street children's education programs.

The findings indicated that street children continue to face significant and multifaceted challenges towards accessing both pre-primary and primary education. These challenges are compounded by inflexible school systems, ineffective monitoring and evaluation programs, inadequate support services, and limited awareness among policymakers and educators about the unique needs of street-connected children. As a result, many of these children remain excluded from formal education, perpetuating cycle of marginalization. To address these challenges, a comprehensive and inclusive approach is essential. Governments and stakeholders should prioritize the development of flexible and alternative learning programs tailored to the realities of street children. Collaboration among government agencies,

NGOs, community organizations and other stakeholders is crucial to designing effective solutions. Ultimately, ensuring that street children have equal opportunities to learn is not just a policy obligation; it is a fundamental human right.

5.6 Conclusion

The tests and correlations carried out in the study which included ANOVA test and Pearson Correlation Coefficient indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship between Government Policy interventions and access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in North Rift region of Kenya hence rejection of the three null hypotheses**.** Similarly, there was a strong positive correlation between the implementation process of the Government Policy Interventions and access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in terms of the parameters studied. This therefore implied that there was a significant relationship between Government Policy implementation process and access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in North Rift region of Kenya. The study therefore concluded that working towards improving effectiveness of Government policy interventions and their implementation process coupled with informed support to vulnerable groups of the society to mitigate factors contributing to emergence of street families and street children positively would enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children.

The study confirms that while Government interventions have a measurable positive influence on access to education by street children, implementation bottlenecks and systemic failures limit their full effectiveness. This therefore implies that Government policies hold promise but fall short at the level of execution. There exists a disconnect

between policy design and implementation context. It is also clear that stakeholder roles and collaborative frameworks remain insufficiently harnessed in the implementation process. The persistence of streetism and educational exclusion reflects the need for a multi-sectoral approach.

The findings indicate that while several national policy interventions have shown promise, their overall impact remains uneven due to inconsistent implementation, lack of coordination among stakeholders, and limited resource allocation. Notably, some interventions demonstrated some level of success in improving enrolment, retention, completion and transition rates rates among street children.

The research underscores the critical need for a multi-sectoral approach that not only addresses educational challenges but also tackles the underlying socio-economic conditions that force children into the streets. Sustainable progress will require stronger institutional commitment, better monitoring and evaluation mechanisms, and meaningful collaboration between Government and all the other stakeholders and even street children themselves and their parents/guardians. As such, policy refinement and increased investment in inclusive, context-sensitive education models are essential steps toward ensuring that no child is left behind.

5.7 Recommendations

Based on the findings, the study recommends a collaborative framework between stakeholders in order to realize improvement on enrolment, retention, transition and completion rates by street children in pre-primary and primary education. Improvement on the said aspects would imply effectiveness of the policy interventions. Constant monitoring and evaluation of implementation process of the

policy interventions by the relevant officers from the ministry of education needs strengthening so as to realize their intentions. The study found out that as much as there were Government policy interventions in place, adherence to their requirements by all stakeholders was an area that needed to be enforced and closely monitored. The study also revealed that many education stake holders were not effectively playing their roles as expected in terms of supervising the implementation of the policy interventions towards access to pre-primary and primary education by street children. There was therefore need for Government through the Ministry of education to come up with mechanisms of sensitizing and mobilizing all stakeholders to appreciate and support the implementation of the interventions towards enhancing access to education by street children. There was also need for the Government to address and mitigate the challenges that contributed to children resorting to street life in cities and urban centres rather than attending school. As a way forward the study recommends;

i. Strengthening of Monitoring and Evaluation frameworks to track and assess the implementation progress of the interventions.

ii. Enhancing of inter-agency collaboration, particularly between government departments, NGOs, CBOs, religious organizations and community actors.

iii. Reinforcing enforcement mechanisms to ensure adherence to the educational policies targeting marginalized and vulnerable groups.

iv. Integrate psycho-social support services within educational access programs and establish reintegration programs tailored to the diverse needs of street children, including vocational and flexible learning pathways.

5.8 Suggestion for further Research

The study focused on the effectiveness of Government policy interventions towards enhanced access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the North Rift region of Kenya. From the findings, effectiveness of the said policy interventions was seen as factor of support and contributions from all stakeholders and hence there was need to narrow down to the specific inputs by each of the stakeholders. The contributions of the stakeholders include social support for the vulnerable families from both Government and support groups. Non-governmental organizations and religious organization seem to address the street children as a problem but failing to address the root cause of their existence. There is need for the various organs of government, NGOs, CBOs and religious groups to coordinate and synergize their activities towards enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education for street children in Kenya. Government on its part has tried to formulate policy interventions and but failed on the monitoring and support towards their implementation. Quality assurance officers and those in charge of policy implementation process have been engaged but their facilitation and accountability on the work appears not be tracked and appraised regularly. There seem to be no tangible remedies to alleviate problems of vulnerable families in the society who happen to be the key contributors of the street children menace. The fact that they are unable to provide for basic needs for their children provides an avenue for them to opt for street life. The Government therefore needs to find a workable formula to address and manage this problem at the level of the family or community. For this, the study recommended the following areas for further study;

i. Government's support towards mitigating social challenges to vulnerable families in the society to address problem of children opting for street life instead of attending school.

ii. Government's support to the vulnerable families living in the slums of Kenyan urban centres for the purposes of helping their children to access basic education

iii. Tapping on the collaborative synergies of Government with Non-Government Organizations and Civil Based Organizations' collaborate to effectively implement policy interventions towards access to basic education by street children.

iv. What roles can parents/guardians play towards supporting effective implementation of the Government policy interventions towards access to basic education by street children?

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Questionnaire for street children

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research. I am a post graduate (PhD) student from Moi University, faculty of Education. I am expected to carry out a research as part of my assessment. This questionnaire is therefore for this purpose. The information filled in this questionnaire will be treated with confidentiality. Kindly answer all questions as honestly as possible and to the best of your knowledge. Do not write your name on the questionnaire.

Section A: Demographic Information

1. Indicate your sex by putting a tick (√) in the appropriate bracket: Male ( )
   Female ( )

2. Indicate your age bracket by putting a tick (√) in the appropriate bracket
   - Between 15 and 18 years ( )
   - Between 10 and 15 years ( )
   - Between 5 and 10 years ( )
   - Below 5 years ( )

3. Where do you most frequently sleep?
   - Street corridors ( )
   - Dump site ( )
   - Home with parents ( )
   - Home of relatives ( )

4.How many years have you spent in the streets?
   - More than 10 years ( )
   - Between 6 and 10 years ( )
   - Between 1 and 5 years ( )
   - Less than 1 year ( )

Section B: Effectiveness of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children

5. Are you attending school currently? Yes ( ) No ( )

6. If yes, indicate the class or grade that you are in currently

Between Grade 6 and standard 8 ( )
Between Grade 4 and Grade 5 ( )
Between Grade 1 and Grade 3 ( )
Between PP1 and PP2 ( )

7. If No, have you attended school or any organized or early childhood education program, such as a private or kindergarten previously? Yes ( ) N0 ( )

8. If yes indicate the highest level of education that you ever reached?

Between Grade 6 and standard 8 ( )
Between Grade 4 and Grade 5 ( )
Between Grade 1 and Grade 3 ( )
Between PP1 and PP2 ( )

9. If you had attended school previously, what made you leave school for street life?

_____

10. What is it that attracts you more to attend school?

_____

11. Why have you not enrolled in school?

No money for school materials ( )
School is too far away / no school ( )
School environment not attractive ( )
Have to work to help my family ( )

Any other reason _____

12. In your opinion, do you think the Government has put in place adequate policies that makes it appealing for street children to attend school? Yes ( ) No ( )

Section C: Challenges faced by implementers of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children

13. Do Government officers from the ministry of education come around to talk to you about attending School? Yes ( ) No ( )

14. If yes, do their visits contributes to your interest to attend school? Yes ( ) No ( )

15. What policy-related challenges do these Government officers face in their work? -

_____

_____

_____

16. Do you have contacts with social workers or any other community volunteers talking to you about attending school? Yes ( ) No ( )

17. If yes, do they refer to any Government policy or policies requiring you to attend school? Yes ( ) No ( )

Section D: Challenges faced by street children that hinder their access to pre-primary and primary education

18. Do you think that there are policy related challenges that you face that hinder you from accessing pre-primary and primary education? Yes ( ) No ( )

19. If yes, what are some of the main policy related challenges that you face and which hinder your access to pre-primary and primary education?

_____

20. What new suggestions would you want to be put in place in school set up that you think would make street children more comfortable to attend school?

_____

Appendix II: Interview Schedule for County Director of Education (CDE)

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research. I am a post graduate (PhD) student from Moi University, faculty of Education. I am expected to carry out a research as part of my assessment. This questionnaire is therefore for this purpose. The information filled in this questionnaire will be treated with confidentiality. Kindly answer all questions as honestly as possible and to the best of your knowledge. Do not write your name on the questionnaire.

Section A: Demographic Information

1. Indicate your age bracket by putting (√) in the appropriate bracket:

   Below 40 years ( )

   Between 40 and 45 years ( )

   Between 45 and 50 years ( )

   Above 50 years ( )

2. Indicate your sex: Male ( ) Female ( )

3. Indicate your work experience working in the education sector

   Below 10 years ( )

   Between 10 and 20 years ( )

   Between 20 and 30 years ( )

   Above 30 years ( )

4. What is your highest professional qualification?

   Diploma ( )

   Bachelor's Degree ( )

   Master's Degree ( )

   PhD degree ( )

Section B: Effectiveness of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children

5. What laws, regulations or policy interventions do you use to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by "street children"?

_____

6. Do you think the number of officers tasked with the implementation of policy interventions to enhance access and retention of street children in primary education are adequate? Yes ( ) No ( )

7. How would you rate the relevance of the laws, regulations and policy interventions in terms of addressing issues related to access to pre-primary and primary education by street children?

Inadequate	( )
Neutral	( )
Adequate	( )

8. How do you rate the level of contribution of free primary education policy in enhancing access to primary education by street children in the following aspects;

9.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree

9.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

9.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

9.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10 How do you rate the level of contribution of the National pre-primary education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary education by street children in the following aspects;

10.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11 How do you rate the level of contribution of Inclusive education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

11.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12 How do you rate the level of contribution of Special needs education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

12.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

13 How do you rate the level of contribution of Inclusive education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

13.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

13.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

13.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

13.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

14 How do you rate the level of contribution of Non-formal education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

14.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

14.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

14.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

14.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

Section C: Challenges faced by implementers of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children

15 In your opinion, how conversant with the policy interventions are the officers tasked with their implementation? Very Conversant ( ) Conversant ( ) Fairly not conversant ( ) Not Conversant at all ( )

16 Do you think policy implementers have adequately been inducted or trained to implement policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by "street children"? Yes ( ) No ( )

17 In your opinion, do you think there are major policy related challenges faced by policy implementers towards access to pre-primary and primary education by "street children"? Yes ( ) No ( )

18 If yes, to what extent do you think this contributes to the hindrances of access to pre-primary and primary by street children? Very much ( ) Moderately ( ) Not at all ( )

19 In your opinion, what are the main policy related challenges that you face in the implementation process of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children

_____

Section D: Challenges faced by street children that hinder their access to pre-primary and primary education

20 In your opinion, do you think street children have major policy related challenges that hinder their access to pre-primary and primary education? Yes ( ) No ( )

21 In your opinion, to what extent do you think the said challenges have contributed to street children not accessing pre-primary and primary education? Very much ( ) more ( ) Moderately ( ) Not very much ( )

22 What do you consider the main policy related challenges faced by the street children that hinder their access to pre-primary and primary education?

_____

Appendix III: Interview Schedule for Quality Assurance and Standard Officers

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research. I am a post graduate (PhD) student from Moi University, faculty of Education. I am expected to carry out research as part of my assessment. This questionnaire is therefore for this purpose. The information filled in this questionnaire will be treated with confidentiality. Kindly answer all questions as honestly as possible and to the best of your knowledge. Do not write your name on the questionnaire.

Section A: Demographic Information

1. Indicate your age bracket by putting (√) in the appropriate bracket:

   Below 40 years ( )

   Between 40 and 45 years ( )

   Between 45 and 50 years ( )

   Above 50 years ( )

2. Indicate your sex: Male ( ) Female ( )
3. Indicate your work experience working in the education sector

   Below 10 years ( )

   Between 10 and 20 years ( )

   Between 20 and 30 years ( )

   Above 30 years ( )

4. What is your highest professional qualification?

   Diploma ( )

   Bachelor's Degree ( )

   Master's Degree ( )

   PhD degree ( )

Section B: Effectiveness of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children

5. Do you think the number of officers tasked with the implementation of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children are adequate? Yes ( ) No ( )

6. How would you rate the relevance of the laws, regulations and policy interventions in terms of addressing issues related to access to pre-primary and primary education by "street children"?

Inadequate	( )
Neutral	( )
Adequate	( )

7. How do you rate the level of contribution of free primary education policy in enhancing access to primary education by street children in the following aspects;

7.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree

7.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

7.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

7.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

8. How do you rate the level of contribution of the National pre-primary education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary education by street children in the following aspects;

8.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

8.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

8.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

8.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

9.How do you rate the level of contribution of Inclusive education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

9.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

9.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

9.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

9.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10. How do you rate the level of contribution of Special needs education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

10.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11. How do you rate the level of contribution of Inclusive education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

11.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12. How do you rate the level of contribution of Non-formal education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

12.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

Section C: Challenges faced by implementers of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children

13. In your opinion, how conversant with the policy interventions are the officers tasked with their implementation? Very Conversant ( ) Conversant ( ) Fairly not conversant ( ) Not Conversant at all ( )

14. Do you think policy implementers have adequately been inducted or trained to implement the said policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by "street children"? Yes ( ) No ( )

15. In your opinion, do you think there are major policy related challenges faced by policy implementers towards access to pre-primary and primary education by "street children"? Yes ( ) No ( )

16. If yes, to what extent do you think this contributes to the hindrances of access to pre-primary and primary by "street children"? Very much ( ) Moderately ( ) Not at all ( )

17. In your opinion, what are the main policy related challenges that you face in the implementation process of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children_____

Section D: Challenges faced by street children that hinder their access to pre-primary and primary education

18. In your opinion, do you think street children have major policy related challenges that hinder their access to pre-primary and primary education? Yes ( ) No ( )

19. In your opinion, to what extent do you think the said challenges have contributed to street children not accessing pre-primary and primary education? Very much ( ) Moderately ( ) Not very much ( )
20. What do you consider the main policy related challenges faced by the street children that hinder their access to pre-primary and primary education_____

Appendix IV: Interview Schedule for the County Children Officers

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research. I am a post graduate (PhD) student from Moi University, faculty of Education. I am expected to carry out a research as part of my assessment. This questionnaire is therefore for this purpose. The information filled in this questionnaire will be treated with confidentiality. Kindly answer all questions as honestly as possible and to the best of your knowledge. Do not write your name on the questionnaire.

Section A: Demographic Information

1. Indicate your position in the County Children's department:

County Children Officer ( ) Children's Officer ( ) Children Protection Officer ( )

2. Indicate your age bracket by putting (√) in the appropriate bracket:

Below 40 years ( )
Between 40 and 45 years ( )
Between 45 and 50 years ( )
Above 50 years ( )

3. Indicate your sex: Male ( ) Female ( )

4. Indicate your work experience working in the Children's Department

5 years and below ( )
Between 6 and 10 years ( )
Between 11 and 20 years ( )
Above 20 years ( )

5. What is your highest professional qualification?

Diploma ( )
Bachelor's Degree ( )
Master's Degree ( )

PhD degree ( )

Section B: Effectiveness of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by "street children"

6. What laws, regulations or policy interventions do you use to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children?_____

7. Do you think the number of officers tasked with the implementation of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children are adequate? Yes ( ) No ( )

8. How would you rate the relevance of these laws, regulations and policy interventions in terms of addressing issues related to access to pre-primary and primary education by "street children"?

   Inadequate ( )

   Neutral ( )

   Adequate ( )

9. How do you rate the level of contribution of free primary education policy in enhancing access to primary education by street children in the following aspects?

   9.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

   9.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

   9.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

   9.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10. How do you rate the level of contribution of the National pre-primary education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary education by street children in the following aspects?

    10.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

    10.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ()

10.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11. How do you rate the level of contribution of Inclusive education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects?

11.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12. How do you rate the level of contribution of Special needs education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

12.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

13. How do you rate the level of contribution of Inclusive education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects?

13.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

13.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

13.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

13.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

14. How do you rate the level of contribution of Non-formal education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects?

14.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

14.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

14.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

14.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

Section C: Challenges faced by implementers of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children

15. In your opinion, how conversant with the policy interventions are the officers tasked with their implementation? Very Conversant ( ) Conversant ( ) fairly not conversant ( ) Not Conversant at all ( )

16. Do you think policy implementers have adequately been inducted or trained to implement the said policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by "street children"? Yes ( ) No ( )

17. In your opinion, do you think there are major policy related challenges faced by policy implementers towards access to pre-primary and primary education by "street children"? Yes ( ) No ( )

18. If yes, to what extent do you think this contributes to the hindrances of access to pre-primary and primary by "street children"? Very much ( ) moderately ( ) Not at all ( )

19. In your opinion, what are the main policy related challenges that you face in the implementation process of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by "street children"_____
_____
_____

Section D: Challenges faced by street children that hinder their access to pre-primary and primary education

20. In your opinion, do you think street children have major policy related challenges that hinder their access to pre-primary and primary education? Yes ( ) No ( )

21. In your opinion, to what extent do you think the said challenges have contributed to street children not accessing pre-primary and primary education? Very much ( ) moderately ( ) Below average ( ) Not at all ( )

22. What do you consider the main policy related challenges faced by the street children that hinder their access to pre-primary and primary education?

_____

Appendix V: Interview Schedule for Teachers

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research. I am a post graduate (PhD) student from Moi University, faculty of Education. I am expected to carry out a research as part of my assessment. This interview schedule is therefore meant to be applied for this purpose. The information filled in this interview schedule will be treated with confidentiality. Kindly answer all questions as honestly as possible and to the best of your knowledge. Do not write your name on the questionnaire.

Section A: Demographic Information

1. Indicate your position in the school: Head teacher ( ) Teacher ( )
2. Indicate your age bracket by putting (√) in the appropriate bracket:

   Below 30 years ( )
   Between 30 and 35 years ( )
   Between 35 and 40 years ( )
   Above 40 years ( )

3. Indicate your sex: Male ( ) Female ( )
4. Indicate your work experience in the field of education

   Below 10 years ( )
   Between 10 and 20 years ( )
   Between 20 and 30 years ( )
   Above 30 years ( )

5. What is your highest professional qualification?

   Certificate ( )
   Diploma ( )
   Degree ( )
   Post Graduate ( )

Section B: Effectiveness of policy interventions in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children

6. In your opinion, how do you rate the adequacy of the policy interventions for enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by “street children”?

   More than adequate ( )
   Adequate ( )

Not Adequate ( )

Not available ( )

7. How do you rate the level of contribution of free primary education policy in enhancing access to primary education by street children in the following aspects?

8.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

8.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

8.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

8.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

8. How do you rate the level of contribution of the National pre-primary education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary education by street children in the following aspects?

9.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

9.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

9.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

9.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

9. How do you rate the level of contribution of Inclusive education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

10.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10. How do you rate the level of contribution of Special needs education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

10.5 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10.6 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10.7 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10.8 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11 How do you rate the level of contribution of Inclusive education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

11.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12 How do you rate the level of contribution of Non-formal education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

12.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

Section C: Challenges faced by implementers of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children

13. From your experience in matters education, what do you consider the main policy related challenges faced by education officers who implement Government policy interventions towards access to pre-primary and primary education by “street children”?

14. What changes do you suggest to Government policy interventions for effective management of issues on access to pre-primary and primary education by "street children"?

Section D: Challenges faced by street children that hinder their access to pre-primary and primary education

15. From your experience in matters education, what do you consider the main policy related challenges faced by street children in accessing pre-primary and primary education in your area of jurisdiction?

_____

_____

_____

16. For those children who have joined schools from the streets, what do you make of their integration with the rest of the children?

_____

17. In your opinion, do you think Government need to put in place other policy interventions to enhance access to education for "street children"? Yes ( ) No ( )

Appendix VI: Interview Schedule for NGOs, CBOs and Religious Organizations

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research. I am a post graduate (PhD) student from Moi University, faculty of Education. I am expected to carry out research as part of my assessment. This interview schedule is therefore meant to be applied for this purpose. The information filled in this interview schedule will be treated with confidentiality. Kindly answer all questions as honestly as possible and to the best of your knowledge. Do not write your name on the questionnaire.

Section A: Demographic Information

1. Indicate the category of your organization by ticking appropriately; NGO ( ) CBO ( ) Religious Group ( )

2. Indicate your age bracket by putting (√) in the appropriate bracket:
   - Below 30 years ( )
   - Between 30 and 35 years ( )
   - Between 35 and 40 years ( )
   - Above 40 years ( )

3. Indicate your sex: Male ( ) Female ( )

4. Indicate your work experience in the field of education
   - Below 10 years ( )
   - Between 10 and 20 years ( )
   - Between 20 and 30 years ( )
   - Above 30 years ( )

5. What is your highest professional qualification?
   - KCSE and Below ( )
   - Certificate ( )
   - Diploma ( )
   - Degree and above ( )

Section B: Effectiveness of policy interventions in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education to street children

7. Which policy documents do you have at your disposal that assist you in managing pre-primary and primary education matters to street children?

_____

8. How do you rate the level of contribution of free primary education policy in enhancing access to primary education by street children in the following aspects;

7.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

7.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

7.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

7.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

9. How do you rate the level of contribution of the National pre-primary education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary education by street children in the following aspects;

8.1 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

8.2 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

8.3 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

8.4 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10. How do you rate the level of contribution of Inclusive education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects?

8.5 Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

8.6 Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

8.7 Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

8.8 Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

10. How do you rate the level of contribution of Special needs education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

a. Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )
b. Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )
c. Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )
d. Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

11. How do you rate the level of contribution of Inclusive education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

a. Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )
b. Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )
c. Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )
d. Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

12. How do you rate the level of contribution of Non-formal education policy in enhancing access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in the following aspects;

a. Enrolment: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )
b. Retention: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )
c. Completion: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )
d. Transition: Strongly disagree ( ) Disagree ( ) Neutral ( ) Agree ( ) Strongly Agree ( )

Section C: Challenges faced during implementation of policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education by street children

13. From your experience in matters education for “street children”, what do you consider the main policy related challenges faced by street children in accessing pre-primary and primary education?

_____

14. In your opinion, do you think Government has put in place adequate necessary policy interventions to enhance access to pre-primary and primary education for “street children”? Yes ( ) No ( )

15. From your experience in matters education, what do you consider the main policy related challenges faced by street children in accessing pre-primary and primary education in your area of jurisdiction?

    _____

16. From your experience in matters education, what do you consider the main policy related challenges faced by education officers who implement Government policy interventions towards access to pre-primary and primary education by street children?_____

17. What changes do you suggest to Government policy interventions for effective management of issues on access to pre-primary and primary education by street children? _____

Appendix VII: Observation Schedule

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research. I am a post graduate (PhD) student from Moi University, faculty of Education. I am expected to carry out research as part of my assessment. This observation schedule is therefore meant to be applied for this purpose. The information filled in this observation schedule will be treated with confidentiality.

Date of birth:

Date of observation:

Time:

Area	**Characteristics/ Behaviours**	**Tick if applicable**
General Information	Comfortable with his environment Slow to process instructions Poor concentration skills Any other observable behaviours	
Concept of attending school	General understanding of school life Willingness to attend school Have an idea on benefits of attending school Not comfortable with questions relating to school Avoid, shun or resist issues relating to attending school Any other observable behaviours	
Attitude towards learning or school environment	Participates in other issues more enthusiastically than those relating to school Employ avoidance strategies Low self-esteem with regard to school environment Moved by some discussions not related to school Any other observable behaviours	

Appendix VIII: University Letter

MOI UNIVERSITY
Office of the Dean School of Education
Tel: (053) 43001-8
(053) 43555
Fax: (053) 43555
P.O. Box 3900
Eldoret, Kenya

REF: EDU/D.Phil.A/1002/18 **DATE:** 19th December, 2022

COMMISSION SECRETARY
National Cohesion and Integration Commission
Box 7055-00100
NAIROBI

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: RESEARCH IN RESPECT OF PAUL KIPRONO LAGAT – EDU/D.PHIL.A/1002/18

The above named is a 2nd year Postgraduate Higher Degree (PhD) student at Moi University, School of Education, Department of Educational Management & Policy Studies.

It is a requirement of his PhD Studies that he conducts research and produces a dissertation. His research is entitled:

"Government Policy Interventions' Effectiveness in Access to Pre-Primary and Primary Education by Street Children in Kenyan North Rift Counties."

Any assistance given to enable him conduct research successfully will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

MOI UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
19 DEC 2022
P.O. BOX ELDORET

PROF. ANNE S. KISILU
DEAN, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Appendix IX: NACOSTI Permit

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Ref No: 789331

Date of Issue: 22/December/2022

RESEARCH LICENSE

This is to Certify that Mr.. PAUL KIPRONO LAGAT of Moi University, has been licensed to conduct research as per the provision of the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 (Rev.2014) in Nandi, Transzoia, Uasin-Gishu on the topic: Government Policy Interventions' effectiveness in access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in Kenyan North Rift Counties for the period ending : 22/December/2023.

License No: NACOSTI/P/22/22813

789331

Applicant Identification Number

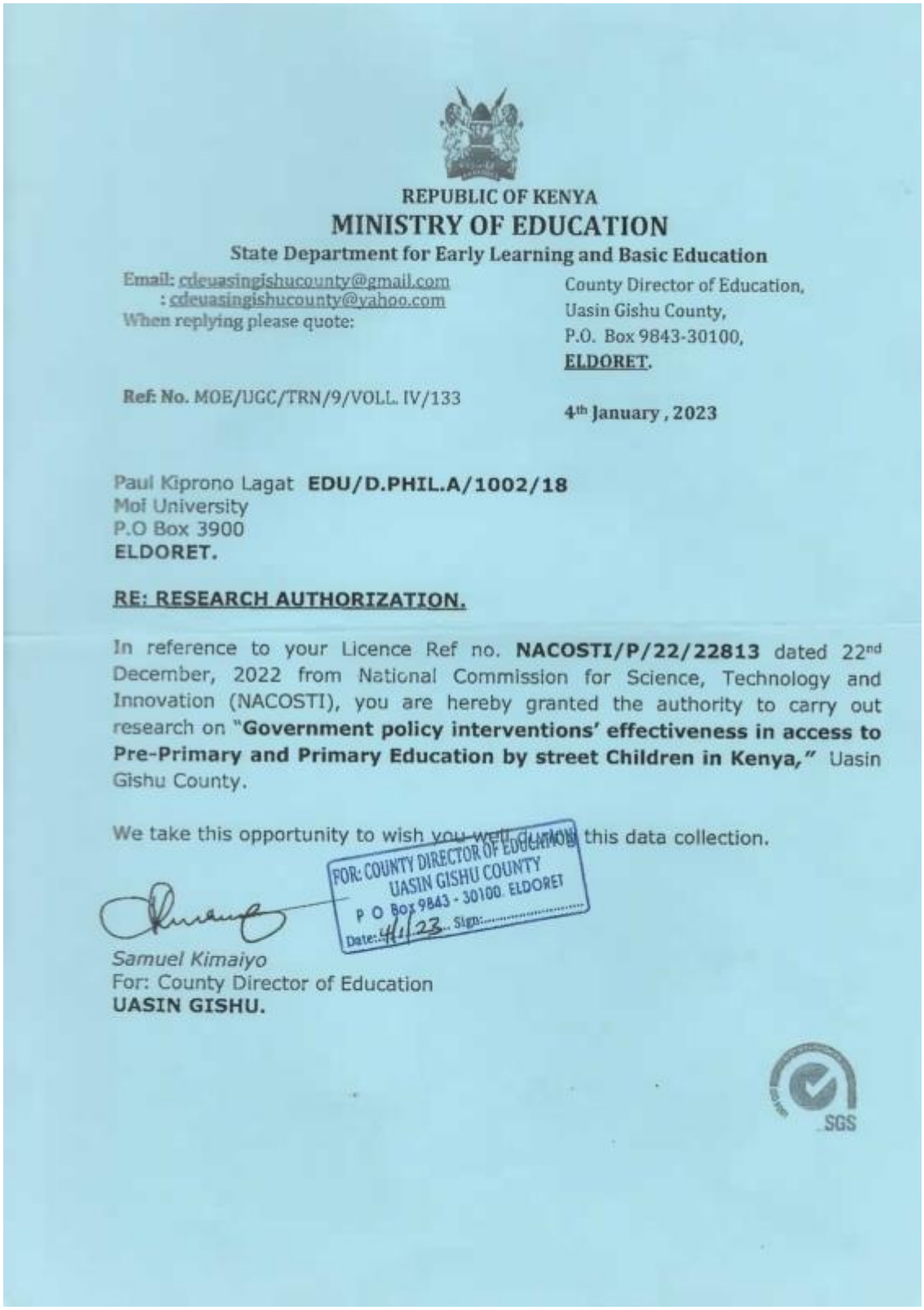
Director General
NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY &
INNOVATION

Verification QR Code

NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document, Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.

See overleaf for conditions

Appendix X: Clearance County Director of Education Uasin Gishu



REPUBLIC OF KENYA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

State Department for Early Learning and Basic Education

Email: cdeuasingishucounty@gmail.com
: cdeuasingishucounty@yahoo.com
When replying please quote:

County Director of Education,
Uasin Gishu County,
P.O. Box 9843-30100,
ELDORET.

Ref: No. MOE/UGC/TRN/9/VOLL. IV/133

4th January , 2023

Paul Kiprono Lagat **EDU/D.PHIL.A/1002/18**
Moi University
P.O Box 3900
ELDORET.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION.

In reference to your Licence Ref no. **NACOSTI/P/22/22813** dated 22nd December, 2022 from National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI), you are hereby granted the authority to carry out research on "**Government policy interventions' effectiveness in access to Pre-Primary and Primary Education by street Children in Kenya,"** Uasin Gishu County.

We take this opportunity to wish you well during this data collection.

FOR: COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
UASIN GISHU COUNTY
P O Box 9843 - 30100. ELDORET
Date: 4/1/23 Sign:

Samuel Kimaiyo
For: County Director of Education
UASIN GISHU.

SGS

Appendix XI: Clearance County Commissioner Uasin Gishu County

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Date of Issue: 22/December/2022

RESEARCH LICENSE

This is to Certify that Mr.. **PAUL KIPRONO LAGAT** of **Moi University**, has been licensed to conduct research as per the provision of the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 (Rev.2014) in **Nandi, Transnzoia, Uasin-Gishu** on the topic: **Government Policy Interventions' effectiveness in access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in Kenyan** North Rift Counties for the period ending : **22/December/2023.**

License No: **NACOSTI/P/22/22813**

789331

Applicant Identification Number

Director General
NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY &
INNOVATION

Verification QR Code

Approved
4TH JANUARY 2023
for COUNTY COMMISSIONER
UASIN GISHU COUNTY

NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document, Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.

See overleaf for conditions

Appendix XII: Clearance County Director of Education Nandi County

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

STATE DEPARTMENT FOR EARLY LEARNING AND BASIC EDUCATION

Email: cdenandicounty@yahoo.com
Telephone: 0773044624
When replying please quote

County Director of Education
NANDI COUNTY,
P. O. Box 36-30300,
KAPSABET.

Ref: NDI/CDE/RESEARCH/1/VOL.111/52

Date: 11th January, 2023

Mr. Paul Kiprono Lagat
Moi University
P.O Box 3900
ELDORET.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION.

Reference is made to the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation's letter Ref: No. NACOSTI/P/22/22813 dated 22nd December, 2022.

The above named person has been granted permission by the County Director of Education to carry out research on ***"Government Policy Interventions' effectiveness in Access to Pre – Primary and Primary Education by Street Children" in Nandi County, Kenya*** for the period ending **22nd December, 2023**

Kindly provide him the necessary assistance he requires.

For: County Director of Education
NANDI COUNTY

Mathew Sum
For: County Director of Education,
NANDI COUNTY.

Appendix XIII: Clearance County Commissioner Nandi County

OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT
MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND NATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Tel: 053 5252621. 5252003. Kapsabet
Fax No. 053 – 5252503
E-mail:
nandicountycommissioner@gmail.com
When replying, please quote

Ref: No. NC.ADU.4/3 VOL. 1/(177)

County Commissioner's Office,
Nandi County
P.O. Box 30,
KAPSABET.

11th January 2023

Mr. Paul Kiprono Lagat
Mci University,
P.O. Box 3900,
ELDORET.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

This is in reference to Research License No. NACOSTI/P/22/22813 dated 22nd December, 2022 from the Director General/CEO, National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation on the above subject matter.

You are hereby authorized to conduct a research on **"Government Policy Interventions' effectiveness in access to pre-primary and primary education by street children in Kenyan North Rift Counties for the period ending 22nd December, 2023.**

Wishing you all the best.

THE COUNTY COMMISSIONER NANDI.

ISAACK A. OCHIENG'
For: COUNTY COMMISSIONER,
NANDI.

ASANTE KWA KUDUMISHA AMANI: ENDELEA HIVYO NA MUNGU AKUBARIKI

Appendix XIV: Clearance County Director of Education Trans Nzoia County

REPUBLIC OF KENYA
Ministry of Education
State Department of Early Learning and Basic Education

Telegrams: .....
Telephone: Kitale 054-31653 – 30200
Fax: 054-31109
Email: transnzoiacde@gmail.com
When replying please quote:

County Director of Education
Trans Nzoia
P.O. Box 2024 – 30200
KITALE.

Ref. No. TNZ/CNT/CDE/R.GEN/1/VOL.II/178

Date: 24th January, 2023

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION – PAUL KIPRONO LAGAT

This office acknowledges receipt of a letter on the above subject Ref. No. **789331** dated 22nd December, 2022.

Paul Kiprono Lagat, of Moi University has been authorized to carry out research on **"Government Policy Interventions' Effectiveness in Access to Pre-Primary and Primary Education by Street Children in Kenyan North Rift Counties"** for a period ending 22nd December, 2023.

The purpose of the letter is to request you to accord him the necessary assistance.

COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
24 JAN 2023
TRANS-NZOIA COUNTY
P. O. Box 2024 - 30200, KITALE

LUKA C. KANGOGO
COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
TRANS-NZOIA COUNTY

Appendix XV: Clearance County Commissioner Trans Nzoia County

THE PRESIDENCY

MINISTRY OF INTERIOR
AND
NATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Telephone: 054 – 30020
Fax No: 054 – 30030
E-mail: cctransnzoiacounty@yahoo.com
When replying please quote:

COUNTY COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE
TRANS NZOIA COUNTY
P.O Box 11
KITALE

TNZC/CONF/ED/12/2/VOL.IV(189) **24th January, 2023**

ALL DEPUTY COUNTY COMMISSIONERS
TRANS NZOIA COUNTY

RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

This is to inform you that **Mr. Paul Kiprono Lagat** of **Moi University** has been authorized by **National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation** to carry out research on **"Government Policy Interventions' effectiveness in access to pre-primary and Primary education by education by street children in Kenyan North Rift Counties in Trans Nzoia County"** for the period ending **22nd December, 2023.**

Kindly accord them the necessary assistance that they may require.

COUNTY COMMISSIONER
TRANS-NZOIA COUNTY
P. O. Box 11 - 30200 KITALE

SARAH NAIBEI
FOR: COUNTY COMMISSIONER
TRANS NZOIA COUNTY

C.C

County Secretary
COUNTY GOVERNMENT OF TRANS NZOIA

County Director of Education
TRAN NZOIA COUNTY