

**INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION (ILO)**

**INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMME FOR  
ELIMINATION OF CHILD LABOUR (IPEC)**

**SKILLS TRAINING STRATEGIES  
TO COMBAT WORST FORMS OF CHILD LABOUR  
IN THE URBAN INFORMAL SECTOR**

**KENYA COUNTRY STUDY**

**BY: JOHN W. BUNDE OWIGAR**

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**John W. Bunde Owigar**  
**Nairobi, Kenya**  
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## **ACRONYMS**

|        |                                                             |
|--------|-------------------------------------------------------------|
| AGOA   | African Growth Opportunity Act                              |
| AIDS   | Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome                         |
| BEAC   | Business Education Artisan Certificate                      |
| BEC    | Business Education Certificate/Courses                      |
| BSCs   | Business Service Centres                                    |
| BASE   | British Assistance to Small Enterprise Programme            |
| BDS    | Business Development Services                               |
| CHE    | Commission for Higher Education                             |
| CHAP   | Chapter                                                     |
| CRC    | Convention on the Rights of the Child                       |
| CNSP   | Children in Need of Special Protection                      |
| CBS    | Central Bureau of Statistics                                |
| CEFE   | Competency Economic Formation Enterprises                   |
| DIT    | Directorate of Industrial Training                          |
| DFID   | Department For International Development                    |
| DANIDA | Danish International Development Agency                     |
| EFA    | Education For All                                           |
| ECE    | Early Childhood Education                                   |
| EPZ    | Export Promotion Zones                                      |
| EARC   | Educational Assessment Resource Centres                     |
| EARS   | Education Assessment Resource Service                       |
| EACE   | East African Certificate of Education                       |
| FKE    | Federation of Kenya Employers                               |
| GOK    | Government of Kenya                                         |
| GER    | Gross Enrolment Ratio                                       |
| GLMS   | Graduate Labour Market Study                                |
| GDP    | Gross Domestic Product                                      |
| GTZ    | German Technical Development Agency                         |
| HIV    | Human Immuno Deficiency                                     |
| ICDC   | Industrial and Commercial Development Corporation           |
| ISIC   | International Standard Industrial Classifications           |
| ILO    | International Labour Organization                           |
| IPEC   | International Programme for Elimination of Child Labour     |
| ILFS   | Intergrated Labour Force Survey                             |
| ICEG   | International Centre for Economic Growth                    |
| ITC    | Industrial Training Council                                 |
| IYB    | Improve Your Business                                       |
| ITLF   | Industrial Training Levy Fund                               |
| KIRDI  | Kenya Industrial Research and Development Institute         |
| JKA    | Jua Kali Association                                        |
| KIE    | Kenya Institute of Education                                |
| KETCA  | Kenya Entrepreneurship Trainers and Consultants Association |

|                   |                                                                           |
|-------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| KCB               | Kenya Commercial Bank                                                     |
| KIM               | Kenya Institute of Management                                             |
| KSh.              | Kenya Shillings                                                           |
| K-MAP             | Kenya Management Assistance Programme                                     |
| KNEC              | Kenya National Examinations Council                                       |
| KCCT              | Kenya College of Communications and Technology                            |
| JLBS              | Joint Loan Board Scheme                                                   |
| KCSE              | Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education                                  |
| KNFJKA            | Kenya National Federation of Jua Kali Associations                        |
| KCPE              | Kenya Certificate of Primary Education                                    |
| MRTT <sup>†</sup> | Ministry of Research Technical Training and Technology                    |
| MRTTAT            | Ministry of Research Technical Training and Applied Technology            |
| MSMEs             | Micro Small and Medium Enterprises                                        |
| MFI               | Micro Finance Institutions                                                |
| MOEST             | Ministry of Education Science and Technology                              |
| MSE               | Micro and Small Enterprises                                               |
| MICRO. PED        | British Micro Private Enterprise Development Project                      |
| MSETTP            | Micro and Small Enterprises Technical Training Project                    |
| NGO               | Non Governmental Organization                                             |
| NPEP              | National Poverty Eradication Plan                                         |
| NFE               | Non - Formal Education                                                    |
| NATTET            | National Association for Technology Transfer And Entrepreneurial Training |
| NITD              | Native Industrial Training Depot                                          |
| NYS               | National Youth Service                                                    |
| NICs              | Newly Industrialized Countries                                            |
| NITC              | National Industrial Training Centre                                       |
| NIVTC             | National Industrial Vocational Training Centres                           |
| NTS               | National Training Strategy                                                |
| PUAs              | Participatory Urban Appraisals                                            |
| REME              | Research, Monitoring and Evaluation                                       |
| PRSP              | Poverty Reduction Strategy Programme                                      |
| R&D               | Research and Development                                                  |
| SMAM              | Singulate Mean Age of Marriage                                            |
| SSJKE             | Small Scale and Jua Kali Enterprise                                       |
| SEFCO             | Small Enterprise Finance Company                                          |
| SEAS              | Small Enterprise Awards Schemes                                           |
| SBC               | Small Business Centres                                                    |
| BOSS              | Business One Stop Shop                                                    |
| TEC               | Technical Education Certificate                                           |
| TPC               | Technical Planning and Monitoring Committee                               |
| TPS               | Training Providers                                                        |
| TEPC              | Technical Education Proficiency Certificate                               |

|        |                                                    |
|--------|----------------------------------------------------|
| TSP    | Training Service Providers                         |
| TSC    | Teachers Service Commission                        |
| UPE    | Universal Primary Education                        |
| UNIDO  | United Nations Industrial Development Organization |
| UK     | United Kingdom                                     |
| UNDP   | United Nations Development Programme               |
| USAID  | United States Agency for International Development |
| UNICEF | United Nations Children's Fund                     |
| YMCA   | Young Men Christian Association                    |
| YWCA   | Young Women Christian Association                  |
| YPS    | Youth Polytechnics                                 |
| WB     | World Bank                                         |

# **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

## **1. Introduction**

This study is part of a sub-regional project covering 4 Anglophone African Countries i.e. Kenya, Tanzania, Ghana and Uganda. Similar studies are being carried out in the three other participating countries. The purpose of the studies is to prepare the information and acknowledge base for developing sub-regional projects that will develop and implement strategies to combat the worst forms of child labour in the urban informal sector through cost effective methods of skill training with special emphasis on traditional apprenticeship schemes.

Interventions will be included in the implementation of pilot projects, the development of more comprehensive integrated skill training strategies for each one of the four countries and the development of informal sector skill training policy for the sub-region based on common problems, policy contexts and opportunities.

This study, describing the dimensions, structure and dynamics of the informal sector and macro economy in Kenya. Analysis of issues relevant to the elimination of child labour are undertaken.

## **1. Informal Sector and the Macro Economy**

This paper starts with brief descriptions of the Kenyan population growth and distribution in all the eight provinces and the effect of urbanization. Although Kenya achieved much of its development targets in the first decades after independence the subsequent three decades recorded dismal performance.

The economy has persistently depended largely on agriculture and external resources, institutional weaknesses and poor monitoring and evaluation mechanisms, have also contributed to low implementation rates of developmental programmes and projects.

The vast majority of the poor live in the urban informal poorly drained settlements. Lack of employment implies lack of income necessary to meet basic needs such as food, shelter, clothing education for children and medical services for the households. The rural to urban migration continues unabated in search of non-existent jobs; increasing retrenchment in both public and private sectors jobs is making the situation very bad. The only hope left is to look at the informal sector to expand to create employment particularly for the unemployed and the school leavers.

Poverty has increased such that many poor households cannot afford to pay fees for their children in primary schools. "This situation is causing increasing number of out school children who are finding themselves in child labour to earn some money to supplement the family incomes.

## **2. The Urban Informal Sector**

The urban informal sector in Kenya is recognized as a viable and dynamic strategy for achieving the national goals in employment creation, poverty alleviation and balanced development between sectors and sub-sectors. The informal sector forms the foundation of strong national industrial base and domestic production structure that are central to the government's vision of achieving newly industrial country status by the year 2020.

The informal sector now tends to absorb large numbers of unemployed people and provides a skills training ground for the youth through traditional apprenticeships approaches. Given an enabling

policy environment and well-targeted technical assistance and support, the MSE sector can play a crucial role in providing opportunities likely to stimulate sustainable economic growth which will create wealth and employment for the people.

The results from the 1999 national MSE baseline survey in Kenya showed that the sector contributes at least 13.8 per cent of Kenya's gross domestic product. The survey found that there were about 1.3 million MES in Kenya employing 2.3 million people and as 2001 the employment opportunities had risen to 3 million. In 2001 the total country's labour force was over 10.9 million and it is expected to increase to 15 million by the year 2010, which means the country will have to produce more than 4.5 million more jobs in the decade.

With increasing retrenchment of working people both in public service and private sectors, one of the options open to Kenya is to support and improve the informal sector to create employment and poverty alleviation. Poverty has been recognized as one of the major causes of child labour in the country, because households without adequate income cannot afford to pay for the cost of education for their children. While fighting the child labour problems one of the strategy is to deal with the problem is to create employment opportunities for the poor households headed families and also train the out of school youth to earn better incomes to support themselves and their families. There is urgent need to streamline TVET training systems in the country to produce human resources with the desired knowledge, skills, values and attitudes for wealth and employment creation.

The informal sector enterprises entrepreneurs are having low level of education and technology know-how. Nevertheless the sector is providing a training ground for young apprentices which is very important because the larger the informal sector employment the more apprentices are trained to secure employment and combat poverty which drive the children to worst forms of child labour due to prevalent poverty situation of their parents. The Kenya Government and bilateral development partners have made efforts to combat poverty, through training of the youth to find self-employment in the urban informal sector. 34,778 young people had been trained to enter the self employment in the informal sector in the last 7 years through the World Bank MSETTP Project.

### **3. Child Labour Study**

Child labour has emerged as one of the most intolerable forms of child exploitation and abuse in most parts of the world. In Kenya the history of child labour dates back to pre-independence days when Africans in the periphery of white settlements sent their children to work on the farms and in the homes of settlers as a source of income for paying the poll tax imposed on them. To-date, information available indicates that child labour is widespread and there is escalating number of children being subjected to it in rural and urban areas which is a threat to the social and economic fabric of the country. The disturbing trend is closely linked to the increasing incidences of poverty and is exacerbated by the changing family structures and value systems emanating from economic pressures in families and in the government.

While it is acknowledged that past national statistical surveys undertaken by the CBS did not collect data on working children or child labour, a review of the literature shows that various organizations and researchers had undertaken many case studies covering working children in commercial agriculture, tourism, soapstone, mining, fishing and salt mining industries. The studies have also covered domestic workers and street children. These studies did not however, quantify the magnitude of child labour in Kenya.

Consequently, firm estimates on the number of working children in Kenya have been lacking. However researchers and various institutions have come up with an estimate of 3.5 million children aged 5-17 years engaged in child labour in Kenya, mainly in domestic, agriculture, fisheries, informal and tourism sectors of the economy. This estimate is misleading since it is based on the number of out of school or non schooling children , who may not necessarily be involved in child labour and may not even be working. Nevertheless, it is believed that the incidence of child labour in the country is high. ILO/IPEC and the Kenya Government through CBS conducted child labour study in 1998 /1999

### **Objective of the Survey**

Lack of information on the extent and magnitude of child labour had made it difficult for policy makers to highlight the nature and magnitude of child labour, as well as the causes, determinants and consequences. The overall purpose of the modular child labour survey was, therefore, to provide adequate information on the magnitude of the child labour problem and its characteristics with a view to formulating a coherent, holistic and orderly policy framework for its elimination.

Specifically the main objectives of the survey were to;

- (i) Produce regional and national estimates of the extent of child labour;
- (ii) Analyse the character, nature, size and reason for child labour in a country where a large proportion of the adult labour force is already unemployed;
- (iii) Present the results to the public by publishing and disseminating the report on the survey findings;
- (iv) Identify and quantify not only the different forms of hazards and risk the working children face but also the extent and nature of the injuries and diseases suffered while working;
- (v) Provide benchmarks, knowledge and experience in processing, analyzing and using the data for formulating and implementing appropriate action programmes to combat the worst forms of the child labour phenomenon at the regional and national levels; and
- (vi) Establish a databank for organizations and individuals involved in labour statistics and child labour programmes in particular

From the above objectives, it is evident that the information gathered and analysed was expected to contribute not only to a greater understanding of the nature and dimensions of the child labour problem, but also to enhancing efforts by the government and development partners in the campaign against child labour.

The Government has developed various policy instruments to address the problem of child labour in recognition of the phenomenon as being particularly harmful to the country's long term development. These include national development plans, sessional papers articulating measures meant to protect all children and the recently enacted Children's Act 2001. The Act provides for free and compulsory universal primary education for all children of school going age.

Children are also protected by various instruments which specify interventions to which Kenya is a signatory such as those of the United Nations General Assembly and the International Labour Organisation. Various government agencies and institutions are also part of the existing institutional framework for implementing legal protection of children.

The measures being taken by the government are intended to prevent the children from being involved in worst forms of child labour which is harmful to their health, safety or morals. In the process of enforcing the rules of the Factories and Other Places of Work Act Chapter 514 of the Laws of Kenya, the officials of the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development have found that there are many Kenyan children working in hazardous situations characterized by:-

- Harsh environment in sisal, coffee and tea estates, horticultural farms where they are exposed to toxic substances, fishing grounds where they are exposed to water borne diseases.
- Lack of protective clothing in sisal estates, manufacturing and service industries, mining and quarrying activities.
- Children being a source of cheap labour in all the sectors they inspected.
- Children being used to carry loads in sand harvesting, stone quarrying, salt industries and horticultural farms.
- The result of this child labour survey in Kenya showed that a population 10.9 million aged 5-17 years were involved in child labour and that this number accounts for 35.3 percent of the total Kenyans population of 28.7 million. The survey further revealed that 3.0 million of 10.9 million of working children were from female –headed households and that 32.7 percent of the children from female headed households were out of school system with majority being girls (52.6 percent), 48.0 percent of the working children came from households with low monthly income of less than Kshs. 5,000.00. This is a clear indication that unemployment and poverty play important part in creating child labour problem in the country. Poor parents who are unemployed cannot afford to feed, cloth and shelter their children. They also cannot support or afford the high cost of children’s education so that the children end up on the streets or being exposed to child labour problems.

#### **4. Primary Education System**

Kenya. Primary education has an enrolment of about 8,000,000 children aged from 6 to 15 years. Education system is one of the main players of combating child labour in the country. With a total population of about 10,000 of primary school going aged children. If 8,000,000 are in primary school, then 2,000,000 are out of school and some of this number is likely to be involved in worst forms of child labour in the informal sector and other formal sectors, working places.

The chapter further looks at the efficiency and inefficiency of the primary education system. Although Kenya government had enacted the Children’s Act of 2001 and declaring that every child has a right to education there are still many children who are out of the formal school system. Information available from Nairobi City Council say that there are 450 NFE Centres with an estimate of the number of children in these Non-formal Primary school’s in the city slums at 400,000.

It is assumed that out of the 2,000,000 children out of primary school, over 600,000 are in the Non-formal education primary schools in the whole country. Youth polytechnics or post primary skills training centres are said to have 40,000 primary school leavers in their enrolment. The remaining children out of the 2,000,000 are likely to be at home or are in child labour. Expansion and efficiency of primary education is very important in combating child labour in the country. The paper looks at the efforts being made by the government in increasing enrolment and expanding non-formal

education institutions and rehabilitation centres for the disabled children. The youth polytechnics which were established from 1968 to absorb the primary school leavers who do not get places in secondary schools have not expanded much, currently there are 600 Youth Polytechnics with only 40,000 trainees many primary school leavers are still out in the cold. Some studies conducted show that there are many children apprentices in the informal sector. The study puts the number at 53,000 apprentices being trained through the traditional apprentice programmes in the informal sector.

## **5. TVET System**

The chapter puts 'TVET' study into three parts. Literature review of training programmes documented, public sector, private sector, employer training through formal apprenticeships and traditional apprenticeships. The study discusses the benefits and weakness of these training programmes. TVET training programmes are some of the programmes, which help to combat child labour by providing the trainees with employable technical and business skills which should enable the child or the youth to obtain a decent work for a better life. The study shows that there are over 1000 TVET training institutions in Kenya enrolling a total of over 117,749 post secondary school graduates in Kenya. The secondary education has an enrolment of about 200,000 students, out of these about 120,000 find training opportunities in TVET institutions about 20,000 join universities education, leaving about 60,000 of them to join either paid or self employment in the informal sector.

The primary school drop-outs and those who have completed 8 years of education as well as secondary school leavers drop outs are left out and they are likely to be involved in child labour. There are training institutions such as Youth Polytechnics, NFE centres, NGO's and Religious institutions which absorb some of these drop-outs. Every year 500,000 children complete primary education and only 200,000 join secondary schools. 300,000 are left out of secondary education. TVET institutions have a major role to combat worst forms of child labour by absorbing or reducing the number of children who are not in school or are in child labour market and retaining them there until they are old enough to join employment after attaining the age of 18 years and above.

This study reveals that a total of about 1,990,000 children are available to enter unemployment sector every year. Owing to wide spread of poverty in the country. These youths are likely to be involved in the worst forms of child labour in Kenya. The Kenya government has decided to reform TVET Institutions in the country with a view to improving their enrolment, governance, retrain the teachers, improve the teaching equipment and introduce modular competency based curricular. This restructuring process will improve efficiency and quality of training required for the creation of wealth and employment to the citizens including the parents of the out of school children.

## **6. Recommendations**

This chapter gives a summary of recommendations and the strategies or the way forward to combat child labour in Kenya's urban informal sector. Some of the issues suggested if addressed adequately should enable the urban informal sector to grow and expand to absorb more of the present youth who have left educational and TVET training institutions with insufficient employable skills for earning decent living. Particularly children in the streets, commercial sex workers and those likely to be involved in worst forms of child labour.

This study is an attempt to present the situation analysis of the current economic status of the country, the poverty caused by unemployment and economic constraints and the efforts being made

by the government to reduce poverty, create employment through creating wealth. The study shows the role being played by the education and TVET training institutions to provide knowledge and vocational skills in the efforts of improving the standards of living of the majority of the youth. Expansion of enrolment in the education and training sector will reduce the number of out of school children who may end up in the worst forms of child labour employment.

The study has made several strategies which are necessary to be put in place to deal with the child labour problem in the country. Recommendations include research agenda, and proposed pilot projects which need further re-tooling and implementation as skills strategies for combating worst forms of child labour in Kenya. The report has highlighted the role of traditional apprenticeship as one of the approaches which may be considered along with others to provide relevant vocational skills for children out of school in Kenya.

# **CHAPTER 1 - STUDY METHODOLOGY**

## **1.1 Introduction**

Kenya with an area of 582, 646 sq. km had a total population of 28.7 million in 1999, notable demographic changes have taken place. The population growth has declined from 3.8 percent during 1969 – 1979 to 2.9 percent during 1989 –1999. The number of employed persons aged 15-64 years stood at 10.5 million in 1999. The unemployed persons of the ages of 15 –64 stood at 1.8 million in the same period. The migration of persons from rural areas to urban centres was 13.2 percent.

Despite concerted global and domestic efforts aimed at combating child labour practices, 1.9 million children were reported in 1989 /99 child labour survey as having worked at one time or another within 12 months. The proportion of working children to the total population of children aged 5-17 years was significantly higher in the rural 19.7 percent and urban centres 9.0 percent. About 8.0 percent of 7.4 million schooling children worked during the study year 1998 /1999, while 37.4 percent of the 3.0 million of the out of school children reported to have worked.

## **1.2 The Purpose of the Study**

- (a) To collect the information necessary to develop coherent country – specific approach to skills training in the informal sector as a strategy to fight worst forms of child labour in this sector, linked with strategies to prevent child labour through the extension of universal primary education, building on opportunities arising from the policy context of Kenya.
- (b) To develop a general comprehensive policy outline based on the country report responding to common problems and opportunities.
- (c) To identify options for immediate action through the implementation of the pilot project in this country.

## **1.3 Organization of the Report**

The principal aim is to undertake in depth situation analysis of the topics given for this study and organize the presentation of the report in thematic chapters. Undertake literature review on study Child Labour, Informal Sector (MSES) of existing relevant study reports of Primary School education, including both formal and non-formal primary education. In depth reports on Technical Education and Training Programmes (TVET) and Formal Apprenticeship Training in Kenya. The objective of this study is to describe or evaluate the situation of education and skill training programmes which are helping in combating worst forms of child labour in Kenya.

## **1.4 Study Methodology**

- (a) Carrying out relevant literature reviews with a view to analyse the dimensions and dynamics of child labour in the informal sector in Kenya and other relevant information.
- (b) Conducting relevant literature reviews on Technical Education and Training programmes (TVET) offered in private and public training institutions and vocational apprenticeship training programmes in the country.

- (c) Carrying out literature reviews and interviews regarding the development of the informal sector in Kenya, child labour situation and skills training relevant for the elimination of child labour problem.
- (d) Conducted face to face interviews with government officers, private sector, entrepreneurs, employers, informal sector apprentices, looking at issues impacting on the development of the informal sector and the training of informal sector apprenticeships programmes in the urban informal sector in the major towns in Kenya.
- (e) A number of study visits were undertaken to the informal sector working places to see conditions of training and environment in which children of the ages of 5 –17 years work, particularly interest was on the ages of apprentices found in the sector and the environment in which they were working.

## **1.5 Sampling Design**

Areas of visits and interviews were sampled to give a general representation of the situation in Kenya. Area around Nairobi and other town centres were visited.

## **1.6 Analysis of Data and Report Writing**

After reviewing relevant literature, collecting all the relevant information, the and data, were analysed and the final report was prepared for submission.

## **CHAPTER 2 - THE INFORMAL SECTOR AND MACRO ECONOMY**

### **2.1: Introduction:**

This chapter begins with an overview the Kenya's macro-economic situation, namely the population, urbanisation, economic growth, employment, unemployment and urban poverty.

### **2.2: An Overview of Macro Economy**

#### **(a) Geography**

Kenya lies across the equator in the East African region. The country is bordered by the Republic of Somalia and the Indian Ocean in the East and South-East, Ethiopia in the North, West, Uganda in the West and the United Republic of Tanzania in the South. The landscape rises from sea level in the East to the peak of Mount Kenya, which is about 5,200 meters above sea level. It slopes and rises westwards gently through the Great Rift Valley to the Lake Victoria Basin.

The country covers an area of approximately 582,366 square kilometres, ranging from high humid and economic potential land on the slopes of Mount Kenya, Mount Elgon and the Aberdares to the Savannah driven grasslands. Three quarters of the country lies in the Arid Lands and Wastelands in the North and North Eastern regions. The arid and semi arid regions experience frequent prolonged drought.

#### **(b) Population**

Analysis of population composition by gender indicates that slightly over 50 per cent of the total population is made up of women. Women also enjoyed a higher life expectancy (57 years) than their male counterparts (54 years). Female children had better chances of survival than male children. While under – 5 mortality for female children was 113 per 1000 live births, that of male children was 119, giving a gap of 6 deaths per 1000 live births. Females appeared to get married earlier than males across all regions of the country. The singulate mean age of marriage (SMAM) was 22 years for women and 26 years for males. This gap was as high as 19 years in parts of Coast Province, but as low as 3 years in parts of Eastern and Central Provinces. There were also inequalities in school attendance, the majority (62 per cent) of those who never attended school at all being women. Although the disparities in school attendance were smaller at primary school level, they were quite significant at secondary and higher levels. Nevertheless, in some districts in Central, Eastern, Western and Rift Valley Provinces, there was a tendency towards gender parity in enrolment at primary level. Ambo and Meru Central districts in Eastern Province had higher enrolment for girls than boys at secondary school and higher levels of education (including university). In terms of economic activity, there were more economically active males (52 per cent) than females (48 per cent).

**(c) Distribution of Population by Province**

The Table 1 below presents the distribution of the population by province in absolute numbers. It provides insights into changes that have taken place with regards to each provincial share of the total population.

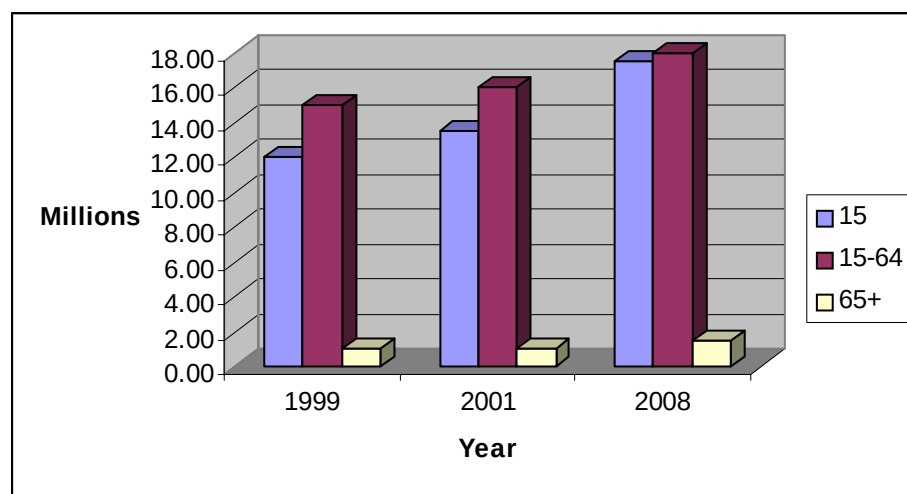
**Table 1: Distribution of Population by Province (1969 – 1999)**

| Province    | 1969       | 1979       | 1989       | 1999       |
|-------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Nairobi     | 509,286    | 827,775    | 1,324,570  | 2,143,254  |
| Central     | 1,675,647  | 2,345,833  | 3,111,255  | 3,724,159  |
| Coast       | 944,082    | 1,342,794  | 1,825,761  | 2,487,264  |
| Eastern     | 1,907,301  | 2,719,851  | 3,768,689  | 4,631,779  |
| N/Eastern   | 245,757    | 373,787    | 371,391    | 962,143    |
| Nyanza      | 2,122,045  | 2,643,956  | 3,507,160  | 4,392,196  |
| Rift-Valley | 2,210,298  | 3,240,402  | 4,917,551  | 6,987,036  |
| Western     | 1,328,298  | 1,832,663  | 2,622,397  | 3,358,776  |
| Kenya       | 10,942,705 | 15,327,061 | 21,448,774 | 28,686,607 |

The 1999 Census collected information from all persons aged 5 years and over relating to those who were at school, left school and never attended school. Analysis of these data was done following the Ministry of Education's classifications, that is, Pre-primary (3 – 5 years), Primary (6 – 13 years), Secondary (14 – 17 years).

Results indicated that 35 per cent were attending school, 47 per cent had left school, while 18% had never attended school. Central Province had the highest percentage (91 per cent) of its population aged 6 – 13 years attending school followed by Nyanza province with 90 per cent. North Eastern province reported the lowest percentage (20 per cent), while it also had the highest percentage (78 per cent) of the population aged 18 – 24 years who had never attended school. Female dropout rates were higher than those for males in all the provinces except in Central and Eastern. In terms of school attainment, 58 per cent of the population had completed primary level of education, 17 per cent had attained secondary level and less than 1.0 per cent had completed tertiary and university level of education. The percentage of the primary school – age population that had dropped out of school increased from 1 per cent in 1979, through 5.0 per cent in 1989 to 8.0 per cent in 1999. Fig.1 shows the population structure between 1999 and estimated population growth up to the year 2008.

**Figure 1: Population Size and Structure**



Source *Kenya Population and Housing Census 1999 Vol 1 (CBS)*

#### (d) Urbanisation

Throughout all its censuses, Kenya has adopted the United Nations criterion of classifying, as urban all centres with a population of at least 2,000. This has provided easy comparison of urbanization levels, pattern and trends in the country. The proportion of urban population is still small, changing from 8.0 per cent in 1990 to 3.2 per cent for the 1989 –99. Nairobi registered the highest rate of urbanisation (4.5 per cent), followed by Coast (4.2 per cent) and Western (3.7 per cent).

The 1999 data are analyzed by core urban and local authority boundaries and appropriate adjustments made to cater for the numerous changes in administrative and municipal boundaries since 1989. Table 2 below shows the distribution of urban centres

**Table 2: Distributions of Urban Centers**

| Size of Centre | 1962 |      | 1969 |      | 1979 |      | 1989 |      | 1999 |      |     |      |
|----------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|------|
|                | No.  | %    | No.  | %    | No.  | %    | No.  | %    | No.  | %    | No. | %    |
| 10000+         | 2    | 5.9  | 2    | 4.3  | 3    | 3.3  | 6    | 4.3  | 5    | 2.8  | 19  | 9.6  |
| 20000-99999    | 2    | 5.9  | 2    | 4.3  | 13   | 14.3 | 21   | 15.1 | 33   | 18.4 | 84  | 41.8 |
| 1000-19999     | 3    | 8.8  | 7    | 14.9 | 11   | 12.1 | 19   | 13.7 | 34   | 19.0 | 17  | 8.5  |
| 5000-9999      | 11   | 32.4 | 11   | 23.4 | 12   | 24.2 | 32   | 23.0 | 33   | 18.4 | 30  | 14.9 |
| 2000-4999      | 16   | 47   | 25   | 53.1 | 42   | 46.1 | 61   | 43.9 | 74   | 41.3 | 51  | 25.4 |
| Total          | 34   | 100  | 47   | 100  | 91   | 139  | 100  | 179  | 100  | 201  | 100 |      |

Source: *Republic of Kenya (forthcoming) 1999 Population and Housing Census Analytical Report Volume 111 Population Dynamics of Kenya*

Similarly, the categorization of the local authorities showed that the urban centres with a population of 20,000 – 99,999 were the largest (41.8 per cent), followed by centres with a population of 2,000 – 4,999 (25.4 per cent), while centres with population of 10,000 – 19,999 had the least share.

### **(e) Reducing the Rural – Urban Migration**

It was noted that the population of the major towns in Kenya was increasing rapidly due to higher population growth rate in the country and rapid rural-urban migration. The rapid rural-urban migration is untenable and efforts have to been made to reduce it. The development of rural centres, it was felt, could make them attractive for the migration population and therefore curb the migration.

## **2.3 Economic Growth**

Kenya's economic growth has been rather disappointing in terms real per capita; GDP has only marginally improved. Key factors behind the poor economic performance and precarious recovery are the slow response of private investment to stabilization and the realignment of prices, poor infrastructure and poor governance. This scenario has been worsened by high domestic interest rates and a shift into trading in securities.

Kenya's strategic approach to a stable and growing economy remains effective management and implementation of prudent macro-economic policies. Since independence, poverty, ignorance and disease have been major development challenges in the country. The desire to alleviate poverty has been a priority, as clearly spelt in various policy documents, including the National Poverty Eradication Plan (NPEP) and the Sessional Paper No 10 of 1965 on African Socialism and Its Application to Planning in Kenya. The NPEP aims at reducing absolute poverty to half of the level of 56 percent this time by 2015.

Although Kenya achieved much of its development targets in the first decade after Independence, the subsequent three decades recorded dismissal performance, culminating in the negative 0.3 percent growth in GDP in 2000. Real per capita incomes have consistently fluctuated. Increased incidences of poverty and unemployment have eroded welfare gains made in the early stages of the Kenyan economy. Management of gains in the economy has been lackluster; hence the need to pursue the theme of effective management for sustainable growth and poverty reduction as the country policy.

The economy has persistently depended largely on external resources. However, these resources have not been well targeted and managed, hence low levels of growth. High dependency on external resources had been justified on Kenya's levels of domestic savings considered inadequate to generate meaningful economic growth. Exogenous shocks relating to weather, international trade and regional security have not been systematically factored into the planning process, resulting in significant deviation of development goals from set targets. High dependency on rain fed agricultural production periodically exposed the economy to extreme vulnerability when ever these shocks occur. Institutional weaknesses and poor monitoring and evaluation mechanisms have also significantly contributed to low implementation rates of development programmes and projects.

The economy faces the twin challenges of creating adequate and gainful employment opportunities for a rapidly growing labour force, and especially within the context of industrialization strategies. The already expanding but not fully utilised labour force is a greater opportunity that needs to be exploited in stimulating economic growth, given preference for labour intensive production technologies in our current stage of technological development.

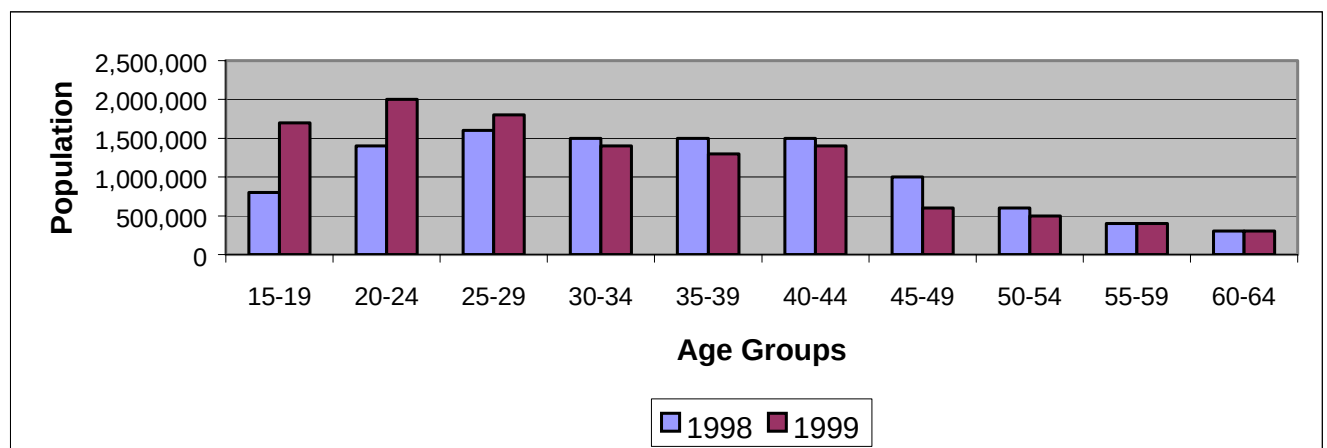
Rising poverty levels and the poor performance of agricultural sector have worsened the food security situation in the country. The welfare-based surveys conducted indicate that food poverty is an issue of concern particularly in rural areas. According to the findings of various studies, conversion of a proportion of domestic debt into long-term stocks of 10 to 20 years attracting a favourable interest rates, supported by pursuit of appropriate inflation targets that supports the increased monetary base,

will remove fiscal pressure from domestic debt management; the distortion on interest and exchange rates, while allowing a moderate inflation rate in the medium term that would support growth.

## 2.4 Employment

Employment in Kenya is predominantly rural and the majority of people employed are engaged in small scale or subsistence farming and pastoral activities. However, the employment data analyzed in this chapter, excludes employment in these typically rural activities. The poor performance of the Kenyan economy in the recent past has adversely affected employment creation. Total number of persons employed in both the modern and informal sectors in 2002 was 6,851.6 thousand, with the informal sector accounting for 74.2 per cent. Annual inflation rate maintained its single digit level but improved from 5.8 per cent in 2001 to 2.0 percent in 2002. Nominal average earnings in the modern sector per person increased from Kshs 198,841.7 per annum in 2001 to Kshs 228,540.4 per annum in 2002. Real average earnings in the modern sector rose by 12.7 per cent to Kshs. 171,114.4 per annum in 2002.

**Figure 2: Distribution of employed population aged 15 – 64 years 1998/99 ILFS and 1999 census**



Source Kenya Population and Census Vol. 1 1999 (CBS0)

## 2.5 Public Sector Employment

There has been a continued reduction in the public sector employment mainly due to the ongoing public sector reform programme. Consequently, public sector wage employment has consistently declined from 711.2 thousand persons in 1998 to 658.8 thousand persons in 2002. The growth of 0.1 percent in employment between 2001 and 2002 is mainly in the teaching, community, social and personal services, which is attributed largely due to increase in the teaching service in 2002.

## 2.6 Employment in the Informal Sector

The informal sector generally referred to as “Jua Kali” included all small scale activities that are semi-organised and unregulated and use simple labour - intensive technology. These activities are largely undertaken by self-employed persons; own account workers or working employers of small number of workers largely undertake these activities. Informal sector activities are mainly undertaken by artisans, traders and other operators in work-sites such as open yards, market stalls, undeveloped plots, residential houses and street pavements. These businesses are not registered with registrar of companies and they may or may not have licences from Local Authorities. Due to the dynamic nature of the informal sector activities, methodology is being developed to delineate boundary cases between the modern sector and informal activities.

The sector has become a major source of employment creation in the country and given its potentiality, the government has continued to promote it in various ways such as creating an enabling environment for informal sector operators in terms of financing, licensing and marketing of their products. Other studies have shown that there is shift from the subsistence farming and pastoralists activities to the informal sector activities.

## **2.7 Unemployment**

Unemployed persons are defined as persons of working ages 15 – 64 who are not working because they are looking for work. Table 14 shows that most of the unemployed persons are the youth aged 15 – 19 years (15 percent), 20 – 24 years (29.9 percent) and 25 – 39 years (16.2 percent). However, there is notable gender disparity, where unemployed females are almost double the males, giving unemployment sex ratio of boys to girls of 0.49. Urban areas absorbed 57.1 percent of the unemployed, most of whom are young females.

## **2.8 Underemployment**

People who are working involuntarily or less hours than full work can be considered as underemployed. Other people may be working long hours are earning less than subsistence status due to the seasonal nature of certain activities, such as agriculture, where work is concentrated into a few months as well as those people who work on part-time basis.

## **2.9 Youth Unemployment**

Unemployment among young people is a large and growing problem in many countries. In developing countries such as Kenya, unemployment is growing rapidly with urbanization, while underemployment is widespread and deep-seated. Unemployment involves wasted resources the loss is not just economic but also individuals problem.

Youth is a period of transition from childhood to adulthood when an individual has the energy and willingness to learn and serve, with work, this energy can be directed towards a common benefit without work, it is dissipated or even channelled into anti-social behaviours. Youth as new comers to the labour market, both young men and women have difficulties, getting established in work. At present it is not possible to get or quantify youth in employment, and under employment accurately, because of lack of statistics available. Youth unemployment in the country is likely to be higher among the less educated and skilled persons than those with better education and vocational training skills. The adult unemployment can mean poverty for the whole family. Youth unemployment impairs the transition being made from childhood to adulthood, from being dependent to independent. It is now being recognized that the informal sector can become a powerful agent for labour absorption, particularly the unemployed and underemployed youth.

## **2.10 Alleviation of Employment Problems**

It was noted that Kenya's employment problem is getting worse and that the provision of employment was becoming a major pre-occupation of Government planners. The development of the informal sector, it was felt, could alleviate space of the employment problems. Credit services geared to rural sector be introduced to speed up this process.

## **2.11 Educational Attainment of the Labour Force**

Study of the educational achievement or skills of the Labour force is essential so as to facilitate the matching of supply and demand of human resources in the labour market. The absence of data on

occupations and vocational training in the census, the analysis is based only on the highest level of formal education completed. As shown in Table 2.5, the proportion of economically active population without formal education was 16.9 per cent according to the census results compared to 16.0 per cent in the ILFS. Majority of the economically active population aged 15 – 64 were primary school leavers, their proportion being over 50 per cent in both cases. The proportion of the economically active population that had completed secondary education was 26.2 per cent in the census and 31.3 per cent in ILFS. Less than 2.0 percent had university education in both cases. The Table 3 below shows the distribution of the labour force by educational attainment.

**Table 3: Distribution of the Labour Force (15-64 years) by Educational Attainment, 1998/99 ILFS**

| Highest Education Attainment | 1998/99 ILFS      |          | 1999 Census       |          |
|------------------------------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------|
|                              | Number            | % Share  | Number            | % Share  |
| None                         | 1,973,166         | 16.0     | 2,088,888         | 16.9     |
| Pre-Primary                  | 50,594            | 0.4      | 30,541            | 0.2      |
| Primary                      | 6,207,006         | 50.4     | 6,864,944         | 55.4     |
| Secondary                    | 3,861,661         | 31.3     | 3,248,669         | 26.2     |
| University                   | 222,256           | 1.8      | 162,552           | 1.3      |
| Not Stated                   | 8,146             | 0.1      | 9                 | -        |
| <b>Total</b>                 | <b>12,326,232</b> | <b>-</b> | <b>12,395,603</b> | <b>-</b> |

- *negligible*

## 2.12 Urban Poverty Profile

### (a) Poverty Situation in Kenya

Poverty is multi-dimensional, it includes inadequacy of income and deprivation of basic needs and rights and lack of access to productive assets as well as to social infrastructure and markets. The quantitative approach of measuring poverty defines the poor as those who cannot afford basic food and non-food items. The 1997 welfare monitoring survey estimated the absolute poverty line at Kenya Shillings 1,239.00 per person per month and Kenya shillings 2,648.00 respectively for rural and urban areas.

One of the major causes of poverty is unemployment and low wages both in urban and rural areas. Many young people fail to secure meaningful employment after leaving school due to lack of opportunities and skills for gainful employment and lack of crucial resources for starting their own businesses in the informal sector. Lack of employment implies lack of income necessary for meeting basic needs such as food, shelter, clothing, education and medical services.

Recent reforms including liberalization of the economy and retrenchment in the public service sector have been necessary but in the short term have worsened the problem of unemployment. Increased market competition combined with poor management has led to the collapse of sugar factories, cotton ginneries, coffee, tea and sisal factories and livestock processing industries.

### (b) The impact of Urban Poverty

Participatory Urban Appraisals (PUAs) carried out in Mombasa and Kisumu indicate the contextual and dynamic character of poverty as poor urban residents perceived their circumstances. In their eyes. Poverty is characterized by low incomes, lack of access to health care and education and poor environmental conditions. Poor residents distinguished between: **the not so poor** (regular employment or income, eat three meals a day, children attend school); **the poor** (Casual workers, lack

of capital to start micro-enterprise eat only one meal a day, a many children do not attend school, mostly large families, usually tenants); and **the very poor** (rely on begging or occasional work, eat only once a day , unable to buy medicine or send children to school). The vast majority of the urban poor live in informal, poorly drained and inadequately serviced settlements, although not all residents of informal settlements are poor. They are poorly integrated into the administrative and service support desired for a socially inclusive nation.

# CHAPTER 3 - THE URBAN INFORMAL SECTOR IN KENYA

## 3.1 Introduction

This chapter analyses the Urban Informal Sector situation in Kenya. It gives details of the problems of the sector and efforts being made by the government to improve it to be a source of employment and wealth creation.

The concept of Informal sector is embedded in theories of Economic Development that came into fashion after the Second World War. These ranged from the theories of dual economies to many elaborate theories that had roots in neoclassical economics or Marxist economics. All of them tried to grapple with stubborn existence of a sector that was both outside the modern sector as well as the traditional sector.

## 3.2 The Urban Informal Sector Activities

The Informal Sector Activities are Characterized by the following attributes:-

Ease Of Entry

Reliance Of Indigenous Resources

Family Ownership Of Enterprises

Small Scale Of Operations.

Labour Intensive And Use of Adoptive Technology.

Skills Are Acquired Outside The Formal School System

Unregulated And Competitive Markets.

These attributes in no way resolved the definitional problems, they still exist. It is still hard today to distinguish, informal sector business from those operating in the formal sector. The dividing line keeps shifting when examined critically if not closely. If the concept of the sector is hard to define, then the characteristics of the sector pose an even bigger problem. The sector is heterogeneous with as wide as possible characteristics. It has been, however, associated with the

Impoverished

Economically disadvantaged people who operate at the “fringe” of the economy.

The first category is extremely mobile and also disorganized and there is a source of cheap intensive labour in the sector.

The latter group is made of an entrepreneurial cadre undertaking small-scale operations. It is the latter that a lot of faith is being put on as having great potential for development of third world countries. Most of the informal sector operations are not formally registered and are temporally undertaken in an extremely difficult manner. The lack of proper facilities and lack of recognition constitute a serious burden to the sector.

All in all, it thrives and grows, a fact that received official recognition in the Sessional Paper No. 1 on Economic Management for Renewed Economic Growth 1986. It does this under the severe constraints such as lack of access to credit and extensive harassment from the local authorities.

### **3.3 Informal Sector Policy Institutional and Regulatory Frame Work**

The significance of Kenya's Micro and Small Enterprise (MSE) activity has continued to grow since the sector was first brought into the limelight in 1972, in a report by the International Labour Organization (ILO) on "Employment, Income and Equity in Kenya". The report underscored the sector's critical role in promoting growth in income and employment. The evolution and historical circumstances responsible for the emergence of the informal sector in Kenya can be traced back, to the early 1960s when the newly independent government introduced trade licenses, work permits and state owned monopoly organizations, as well as permission to allow civil servants to operate businesses, all as part of a broader strategy for the indigenisation programme, for the newly independent country.

Due to the economic space and opportunities created by these set of legislations and policies and then the subsequent slowdown in economic activities, specially beginning in the mid 1970s, the number of Micro and Small Enterprises, often operating informally, continued to grow. The trend continued into the 1980s and early 1990s.

### **3.4 Development and Official Recognition of the Sector**

In the latter period, the MSE sector has witnessed a bustling of activities and a dramatic renewed interest by both external agencies and national government in informal sector activities, with a desire to intervene directly in this sector, in contrast with the more or less benign neglect that characterized the early years. In November 1985, Kenya President Daniel Arap Moi visited one of the more famous Jua Kali Sector in industrial clusters located in Kamukunji, Nairobi. Symbolically, this visit marked an important milestone in the evolution of the MSE sector in Kenya because it initiated a crucial process of political recognition of the sector at the highest level. Within a period of three months and four visits, the President touched on the following issues of policy, which were later to constitute the key areas of policy focus for the MSE sector:

#### **3.1.4: Publication of Government Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1986**

- a) The provision of sheds
- b) The possibility of security of tenure – sheds were to be provided free and title deeds would be issued to the allottees
- c) Sector organization and formation of groups, e.g. Jua Kali Associations formation
- d) The possibility of getting subcontracts, including from the Government – Government vehicles would be repaired in the informal workshops of Gikomba, and other places
- e) The incorporation of the sector into national industrial policy and planning.

In 1986, a policy scenario focused on MSEs came into being with the publication of Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1986, On Economic Management for Renewed Growth.

By the time it was released, the rather casual term "informal" sector had been given a new positive dimension and was being substituted with the term Jua Kali Sector.

The Sectional Paper highlighted the potential of the MSE sector, as well as helped change its image from employer of last resort to vibrant wellspring of technological capacity and aggressive entrepreneurship. The Sessional Paper, which had been prepared against a background of decline of

economic growth and severe fiscal constraints, introduced radical changes and outlined a development strategy that put great emphasis on the rural economy and the development of the informal sector.

The Paper also recognized that 80 percent of the population resides in the rural areas where they are involved in off-farm income –generating activities. It proposed the establishment of a special task force to review local authority by-laws and other regulations governing informal sector activities, to create a healthy legal and regulatory climate for informal sector activities. The Paper noted that direct assistance was to be provided to individuals and small-scale businesses. Consequently the “Centre Project” was born within the Ministry of Planning and National Development to address the key issues of the Informal sector. The centre is now in the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development)

In 1989, the Government of Kenya published a document entitled “A Strategy for Small Enterprises Development in Kenya, towards the Year 2000”, which focused on the constraints the sector was experiencing. These were broadly classified as follows;

- (a) The enabling environment
- (b) investment and finance
- (c) promotional programmes
- (d) enterprise culture.

These subsequently formed a basis for designing fairly focused policies on the sector.

### **3.4 Publication of Government Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1992**

By 1992, the policy focus had been refined, and was published as Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1992. On Small Enterprises and Jua Kali Development in Kenya. This paper has served as the basis of all other programmes for the development of the sector. An agenda for action was defined covering a period of 12 – 24 months in those areas considered crucial for the promotion of the MSE sector. This period expired in February 1994.

Early in 1994, a thorough assessment of policies, strategies and programmes under the Agenda for Early Action was carried out and the obstacles inhibiting growth in the sector were identified and analyzed. The following issues emerged.

- a) There was a multitude of actors involved at various levels of implementation of the policy and strategy framework. However, due to weak or nonexistent coordination mechanisms, much of the effort had been misspent, resulting in minimal impact. Furthermore the capacity in Government to play its facilitative and coordination role effectively was weak and required strengthening.
- b) Although the policy environment towards the MSE sector was considered positive, the regulatory environment remained largely hostile to many small business operators. Most of the disabling laws and regulations that inhibit the operations of the sector had been reviewed in 1988, but the outcome was not adequately disseminated to appropriate users for action. Consequently, other task forces were set up later to review some of the same laws and regulations. In effect, it was observed that little implementation of the recommendations on possible amendments had not been achieved.

In order to address these key issues, the MSE unit (centre) in the Ministry of Planning and National Development was upgraded to a division with two distinct sections. The first section, **the Policy**

**Unit**, was given the mandate to develop policy, monitor implementation, coordinate and disseminate information to target users, and assess impact on the beneficiaries. The second section, **the Deregulation Unit**, was mandated to facilitate creation of an enabling environment for promoting MSEs by addressing the existing constraints, specifically those laws and regulations that have proved punitive to MSE development. During the same period, a number of donor agencies, including the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the British Department for International Development (DFID), and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), German Technical Development Agency (GTZ) and the European Union, simultaneously designed a series of support programmes to promote the growth and development of Micro and Small Enterprises in Kenya. Such external interventions are increasingly becoming part of the wider development agenda of the sector.

Notwithstanding the significant efforts made by the Government, donor agencies and other private sector organizations supported the efforts to promote the development of the MSE sector in Kenya, a number of policy constraints continue to inhibit the sector's realization of its full potential. Thus, in the effort to make further progress, USAID signed a cooperative agreement with the International Centre for Economic Growth (ICEG) in July 1996 under which ICEG was to implement a micro enterprise policy support programmes consisting of a series of research projects, stakeholders policy forums, brainstorming meetings etc. to disseminate information on the sector.

### **3.5 Developing both the Formal and Informal Sectors**

One of the greatest challenges facing Kenya is the creation of productive employment opportunities for its rapid increasing work force. This challenge is the major imperative for industrialization. The scale of the problem demands that all resources and means are utilized to create jobs, enhance incomes and livelihoods. Thus, industrialization must encompass a wider concept than modern, formal sector manufacturing alone. All non-farm enterprises must be included in the effort to transform the Kenyan economy. Thus, within the formal sector, trade, commerce and service industries which are already major sources of employment and will play a vital role in economic development and expanding Kenya's exports. Similarly, the informal small scale enterprises and Jua Kali sector must be fostered to continue to expand and grow, for it is expected that more jobs will be created in this sector than any other sector, in the country.

While it is accepted that Kenyan entrepreneurs must master large-scale modern manufacturing techniques in order to induce long-term productivity, export and economic growth, the needs of the service sector must not be ignored. Within this sector lies industries such as tourism, banking, insurance, the media advertising, all of which are either vital to the manufacturing sector or earn foreign exchange. The micro-economic environment and stability will be equally beneficial to service industries, but through their own organizations, the service sector should make known to Government any particular constraints or practices that impede its expansion and prosperity.

Recent years have demonstrated the dynamism of Small and Jua Kali Enterprises (SSJKE) in creating employment and providing attractively priced products, furthermore, the sector provides and essential cheap products and is also an essential training ground for developing the entrepreneurial skills that are essential to Kenya's industrialization. The Government has long recognized the role and potential of the SSJKE sector and, while appreciating that the sector thrives outside state interventions, the government has formulated policies to assist the sector.

### 3.6 National Policy Framework on Informal Sector

Sessional Paper No. 2 1992 on Small Enterprises and Jua Kali Development in Kenya sets out a comprehensive policy framework, which will enhance:

- a) Direct assistance to individual entrepreneurs and small scale enterprises
- b) The transition of Micro and Small Scale Enterprises into Medium Size Enterprises
- c) Access to credit for the informal sector enterprises
- d) Access to information, and
- e) An enabling policy environment through redressing licensing, tax, security of works and other regulatory restrictions on informal sector activities.

Furthermore, that Sessional Paper stressed the need to provide the enabling policy environment, which entails promotional of role of private sector enterprises and initiatives, with the Government playing mainly a facilitative role. **It underlines the need for adequate access to credit for sector, provision of management and technical training, and other non-financial promotional support programmes which include business counselling, marketing and extension services.** The cumulative effect of these strategies is expected to be the creation of an entrepreneurship culture in Kenya. The Government will give priority to University and Polytechnic graduates when allocating resources to the informal sector entrepreneurs.

Despite Government efforts, aided by a large number of donor agencies and NGOs, there remain four major constraints that restrain the expansion of the SSJKE sector.

These are; **access to credit; access to land and infrastructure; access to training and technical support; and, access to technology and information.** Attention to overcoming the constraints facing the sector is a prerequisite to both expansions in the number of enterprises enabling the transformation to larger scale concerns. While the sector as a whole must continue to expand to provide future employment, it is equally important that individual enterprises consolidate and expand to become small and medium scale formal sector enterprises.

### 3.7 Access to Training and Technical Support

Particular efforts are being made to ensure that the SSJKE operators gain access to the training programmes. The development of both technical and managerial skills is essential if the transition to larger –scale, more formal enterprises is to be made. **The role of technical training institutions is central to achieving training objectives. The creation of effective extension and on –the – job training is equally important.** The role of the government will be to enhance and provide effective training coordination and innovation.

Between 60 and 100 Youth Polytechnics have been established with Primary interests in SSJKE development. Most of the NGOs are working at the local community levels. Their coordination and collaboration among NGOs working in SSJKE Sector is lacking. There is need for rationalization and targeting of training and technical support, which could then be linked to the provision of other services, such as credit provision. The NGO's and Religious TVET training centres are training children outside school to gain employment in the local informal sector.

### 3.8 Access to Technology and Information

Even with access to credits, the business potential of small-scale informal sector entrepreneurs is limited by the paucity of new technologies, essential inputs, managerial skills, product diversity and

favourable product markets. A well defined means of transferring technology and information to the entrepreneurs should be put in place.

Extension services of the Research and Development institutions like Kenya Industrial Research and Development Institute and the local Institutions should be supported. The Technology Development grants system as elaborated in the Micro and Small Enterprise Training and Technology Project (MSETTP) should be developed to link research and technology institutions with the Jua Kali Enterprises. Meanwhile sub - contracting initiatives from UNDP, UNIDO and K-Map should be supported.

**The SSJKE sector has proven to be a “seedbed” for both managerial and product development.** Further , the Government will ensure that their products are given priority in Government purchase schemes, to Central Supply Board and other procurement agencies, will be instructed to give SSJKE products and service priority when awarding tenders. The licensing and other regulations that have been identified as being impediments to SSJKE development will be amended or removed. The Federation of Kenya Employers has been fostering SSJKEs through the development of management training, counselling, etc. This initiative should be extended and the assistance of individual firms sought. Cooperation and inter-linkages can be promoted through the organization of “seller –meets – buyer” initiatives.

One problem has been that SSJKE operators have lacked well organised Associations or cooperatives to take advantage of economies of scale to procure inputs, increase specialisation, integrate production and exploit potential markets. Similarly, umbrella associations are needed to ensure the sector has effective representation to interact with local and Central Government and other business organizations. While the nature of the Jua Kali sector militates against more formal organization, the provision of land and well-organized extension services necessitates an opportunity for the creation of group activities.

The SSJKE sector has the potential to form one the main pillars of industrialization in Kenya and be a major source of employment opportunities. Experience from certain East Asians countries, notably Taiwan, has demonstrated that small-scale enterprises can make a significant contribution to exports. Given an appropriate environment the Kenyan SSJKE sector can do likewise. For these reasons, Government will provide all necessary assistance to the sector while keeping in mind that an overly interventionist policy can threaten the very strengths that creates full dialogue between Government and the private sector, thus fully include the SSJKE sector so that a positive balance between positive support and negative intrusion can be established.

### **3.9 Other Policy Interventions**

In order to promote MSEs, there is need to speed up reviewing some of the following legal constraints:

- ◆ Streamline Trade Licensing by the Central Government and Local Authorities or Licensing by – Laws.
- ◆ Decentralize Business Registration.
- ◆ Ensure access to work place and security
- ◆ Facilitate the operations of the registration of the sector.
- ◆ Address the needs of Agricultural and Horticultural Sectors.
- ◆ Review the Science and Technology Act.
- ◆ Review restrictions on export and import regulations.
- ◆ Review manufacturing and product regulations

- ◆ Open up the construction and building industry
- ◆ Ease Constraints on Investment to local investor as well.
- ◆ Restructure and make Transport Sector efficient, economical and safe.
- ◆ Remove statutory gender disparities.
- ◆ Review Industrial Estate Schemes.
- ◆ Develop effective Information management and Dissemination mechanisms.
- ◆ Enact specific MSES Legislation
- ◆ Review and repeal out dated Laws and By – Laws.
- ◆ Clarify the role of Government and Local Authorities in the sector activities.
- ◆ Involve Private Sector, NGO's and Donors in the Policy formulations process.

The Deregulation section in the Ministry of Economic Planning and National Development has submitted proposals to the Kenya Government to review some of the proposals indicated above for a thorough consultation and review process.

It is important to indicate here that various proposals for specific legal changes have been undertaken by the Government to create a liberalized and market economy. The work on the reviews and enactment of new laws and regulations to promote the informal sector is still on course.

### **3.10 Main Features of the Informal Sector in Kenya**

In 1999, the International Centre for Economic Growth in collaboration with K-Rep Holding and the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS), organized a National Baseline Survey of Micro and Small Enterprises in Kenya. The primary objective of the survey of Micro and Small Scale Enterprises was to update and expand the information generated in the 1993 and 1995 Baseline Surveys, and improve the reliability of the estimates on the MSE sector's contributions to the Kenya economy in terms of employment, incomes and gross domestic products, alleviation of poverty in the urban sector. The government of Kenya through account from the United Nations Development Programmes, the British (DFID), the United States Agency for International Development funded the survey. This paper is trying to highlight some of the major results of the survey, and foreshadows issues with policy implications.

### **3.11 Size and Structure of the MSE Sector**

The 1999 MSE baseline survey found that there are some 1.3 million Micro and Small Enterprises in Kenya out of which 65.6% are located in the rural areas, 15.8% in Nairobi and Mombasa, 12.2% in other major towns, while the rural towns with populations of between 2,000 – 10,000 have 6.4% enterprises.

In terms of the sectoral distributions of enterprises, close to two-thirds (64.1%) of all enterprises are engaged in the trade sector (i.e. buying and selling of commodities to generate income). Retail is the most dominant activity in the trade sector, accounting for 62% of total trade. Manufacturing and services sectors account about 13% and 15% of total enterprises respectively. Table 3.1 below provides the distribution of MSEs according to the two-digit International Standards of Industrial Classification (ISIC) Table 4 below shows that close to two thirds of MSEs (64.1%) are in the trade sector in rural and urban areas.

**Table 4: Sectoral and Urban-Rural Distribution of MSEs**

It also shows that the distribution of the MSEs manufacturing and services account for about 13% and 15% respectively.

| Sector                      | Urban   |       |      | Rural   |       |      | Total     |       |
|-----------------------------|---------|-------|------|---------|-------|------|-----------|-------|
|                             | No.     | Col%  | Row% | No.     | Col%  | Row% | No        | %     |
| Manufacturing               | 45,019  | 10.2  | 26.1 | 127,745 | 15.1  | 73.9 | 172,764   | 13.4  |
| Trade                       | 273,738 | 61.5  | 33.1 | 552,410 | 65.0  | 66.9 | 826,149   | 64.1  |
| Bars /Hotels<br>Restaurants | 24,888  | 5.9   | 32.5 | 51,789  | 6.5   | 67.5 | 76,677    | 6.0   |
| Service                     | 92,937  | 21.0  | 48.6 | 98,398  | 11.6  | 51.4 | 191,335   | 14.8  |
| Construction                | 6,551   | 1.5   | 48.6 | 15,537  | 1.8   | 70.3 | 22,087    | 1.7   |
| Total                       | 443,133 | 100.0 | 34.4 | 845,879 | 100.0 | 65.6 | 1,289,012 | 100.0 |

Source: National MSE Baseline Survey 1999 (CBS, K-Rep, and ICEG)

Thus, at a more disaggregated level of presentation, the prominence of rural based enterprises is still evident, dominating in at least 11 of the 16. Urban enterprises dominate in only 5 activities, notably real estate agencies, public transport services, repair and other services, paper and paper products. Table 5 below shows the distribution of the MSEs according to rural and urban centres. The breaks down the higher groupings of the MSEs distribution according to the two digit International Standards of Industrial Classification.

**Table 5: Total Number of MSEs and Their Employment**

| Stratum             | % of nat'l<br>pop. | MSEs      |       | Workers   |       | Mean |
|---------------------|--------------------|-----------|-------|-----------|-------|------|
|                     |                    | Number    | %     | Number    | %     |      |
| Nairobi and Mombasa | 9.7                | 204,280   | 15.8  | 394,838   | 16.9  | 2.0  |
| Other major towns   | 6.2                | 157,533   | 12.2  | 279,133   | 11.8  | 1.8  |
| Rural towns         | 2.1                | 81,320    | 6.3   | 135,349   | 5.6   | 1.6  |
| Rural areas         | 82.0               | 845,879   | 65.6  | 1,551,930 | 65.7  | 1.8  |
| Total               | 100.0              | 1,289,012 | 100.0 | 2,361,250 | 100.0 | 1.8  |

Source: National MSE Baseline Survey 1999 (CBS, K-Rep, and ICEG)

**Table 6: Employment Distribution in the MSEs**

| ISIC Grouping                 | MSEs             | Total<br>Employees | %            | %urban      | % Rural     |
|-------------------------------|------------------|--------------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|
| Food & Beverage Manufacturing | 35,653           | 80,795             | 3.4          | 8.9         | 71.1        |
| Textile and leather           | 63,215           | 87,597             | 3.7          | 40.8        | 59.2        |
| Wood based manufacturing      | 43,450           | 96,431             | 4.1          | 16.7        | 83.3        |
| Paper and paper products      | 579              | 11,255             | 0.5          | 100.0       | -           |
| Earthenware manufacturing     | 0,922            | 28,785             | 1.2          | 2.0         | 98.0        |
| Hardware manufacturing        | 10,096           | 25,268             | 1.1          | 38.5        | 61.5        |
| Other manufacturing           | 10,039           | 13,783             | 0.6          | 12.2        | 87.8        |
| Construction                  | 17,227           | 34,657             | 1.5          | 46.8        | 53.2        |
| Wholesale trade               | 40,587           | 65,594             | 2.8          | 44.7        | 55.3        |
| Retail                        | 845,010          | 1,471,298          | 62.3         | 27.3        | 72.7        |
| Hotels/Restaurants            | 85,851           | 185,252            | 7.8          | 44.0        | 56.0        |
| Passage car service           | 17,265           | 32,1369            | 1.4          | 73.1        | 26.9        |
| Real estate                   | 18,605           | 34,764             | 1.5          | 75.1        | 24.9        |
| Professional services         | 12,332           | 36,434             | 1.5          | 66.8        | 33.2        |
| Entertainment                 | 3,414            | 9,613              | 0.4          | 82.0        | 18.0        |
| Repair other services         | 74,766           | 147,584            | 6.3          | 68.2        | 31.8        |
| <b>Total</b>                  | <b>1,289,012</b> | <b>2,361,250</b>   | <b>100.0</b> | <b>34.3</b> | <b>65.7</b> |

Source: National MSE Baseline Survey 1999, (CBS, K-rep, and ICEG)

### 3.12 Employment Distribution in MSEs

The 1999 baseline survey found that micro and small enterprises in Kenya employ close to 2.4 million people, or approximately 17% of the total labour force of these, 1.7 million (70%) are working proprietors, 10% are family members, 12% are regular hired workers, **while apprentices, part-time, and casual workers form about 8%.** Thus 80% of the total MSE employment involves owners and their family members. See table 3.3 above.

The regular hired group of workers is of special interests to policymakers as they are workers with wages. About 60% of these hired workers are found in urban areas, with Nairobi and Mombasa accounting for 40% of them.

Their numbers and an analysis of the sectors where they occur may have significant implications for what is needed to create such paid jobs. ***From the point of view of training future skilled MSE workers and possibly future entrepreneurs, another important group is the apprentices, being trained in the sector with respect to the size distribution of workers,*** the survey found that 99% of MSEs in Kenya belong to the micro enterprises group, i.e. employing between 1 – 10 workers, of which 70% are sole proprietor managed, 18% involve two workers, 8.7 employ between 2 and 2.6% employ 6 – 10 workers. In other words, about 1% of the enterprises surveyed employ between 11-50 workers.

### 3.13 Gender Issues in MSEs

Regarding the distribution between male and female workers, 52.65 of total MSE workers are men while women comprise of 47.4 % thus there is no significant difference in the share of men and women workers, especially across the different strata. Further analysis seems to suggest a tendency for sex segregation by type of activity, hence male workers tend to work for male MSE owners and their female counterparts tend towards female – owned enterprises.

Turning to sectoral distribution of enterprises, the survey found that due to the small size of employment per enterprise the average size of 1.8 regular workers, the percentage of employment contributed by any one location or sector corresponds very closely to the number of enterprises found there. Hence trade accounts for 62.4% of total MSE employment, followed by manufacturing professional/artisan services and bars, hotels, restaurants, which account for 14.4%, and 7.8 respectively.

### 3.14 Problems and Constrains of MSEs

What are the major problems and constraints faced by MSEs in Kenya? In order to provide answers to these questions, the survey asked entrepreneurs to rank these according to perceived severity. It should be noted that these problems are the perceptions of the MSE operators interviewed, and may not necessarily reflect the actual underlying problems.

Access to markets for MSE products as well as problems involving access to finance was found to constitute the most dominant and severe problems facing most MSEs surveyed in 1999. More than one third (34.1% of the entrepreneur's surveyed cited difficulties arising from market saturation or low demand for products. Further analysis shows that market -related problems are most severe in urban settings, (61.55) while 38.5% of rural MSEs cited it as the problem.

The second most severe constraint reported in the survey relates to difficulties in accessing credit due to lack of collateral; 18.4% of all surveyed MSEs cited access to credit as a key constraint. Of these

56.3 were located in the urban areas and 43.7% in the rural areas. Further analysis of the results showed that roughly 7% of all enterprises had received credit from sources other than own-savings.

Beside markets and credit, other problems of significance include transport (7.2%) inadequate raw materials/stocks (68%), and interference from local authorities (6.0%), poor security (3.1%), and lack of worksites (2.55). Local Authority by laws appears to be a major factor determining the nature of problems facing MSEs. For instance, problems associated with markets, competitions, interference from local authorities, lack of worksites and poor security are predominantly urban, while problems related to accessing infrastructure facilities such as water, road, telephone, e.g. impose severe constraints for rural –based MSEs.

With respect to constrains grouped together under residual category “other: 9.1% percent of the enterprises cited this as a constraint. The most important issues relate to accidents, bad weather, (prevalent in especially agriculture –dependent MSEs), technology constraints and issues of training and skills, most MSEs, operate in ways that are closely linked with the household, thus any crises in the household becomes a challenge to the very survival of the enterprises – thus household responsibilities were cited as a significant constraint under the residual category “other”.

Again, the 1999 MSE baseline survey found that problems facing MSEs also vary by sector. While access to market opportunities is the most severe problem affecting all sectors, it is most severely experienced in the trade, manufacturing and construction sectors. While inaccessibility to electricity and poor access to water supply are severe problems for the manufacturing sub-sector, they are cited less frequently by the other sub-sectors.

Interference from local authorities, insecurity and lack of space appears to be trade sub-sector problems. Construction enterprises did not report any problems related to access to electricity and water and lack of space. The service sector faces constraints linked to capital and interference from local authorities.

### 3.15 Issues Arising From the Study

Form the facts extracted on the 1999 national MSE baseline survey,/it should be noted that:

- ◆ The majority MSEs is found in the rural areas. The implication here is that business support agencies need to increasingly shift their focus//concentration away from urban areas and supply services to rural – based MSEs.
- ◆ Demand for individual enterprise products or services are the most serious problem. This means that attempts should be made to improve product quality in order to effectively compete both in and outside the country. Possible support interventions include selective extension services.
- ◆ Due to complaints about local authorities and insecurity, it would seem that there is need for further sensitization to emphasize the importance of MSEs to the local economy and their contribution to national GDP and hence the need to create business relationships that would facilitate MSE growth.

Above all, there is no doubt that macroeconomic concerns and agricultural performance impact enormously on the MSE sector. ***The potential of MSEs to generate employment opportunities and incomes can best be realized once policy makers resolve key macroeconomic issues, which are instrumental to creating a stable business environment as well as in minimizing***

*investment risks of the Micro and Small Entrepreneurs.* Furthermore, the adoption of a rural development strategy focusing on well-developed physical and institutional infrastructure that would support agricultural and non-agricultural production in the rural areas to generate opportunities in which micro and small enterprises participate actively is an important pre-condition.

### 3.16 Technology Development in MSEs

The degree to which Micro and Small Enterprises (MSEs) in Kenya will be able to grow and transform into efficient and competitive entities that can be relied upon to constitute an industrialisation engine in the economy depends on the extent to which they are able to acquire better technology. **One of the debates on the MSE sector concerns whether it constitutes part of a survival economy from which long-term development objectives can be achieved, and the debate revolves around the question of technology.** There is general consensus that the only way the sector can contribute to industrialization is through technological acquisition, adaptation, or utilization and transformation of production and distribution processes.

There is growing concern and general recognition that the welfare of most Kenyans has been getting worse. In rural areas, for instance, it is estimated that the number of people living below the absolute poverty line increased from 40.2 percent in 1982 to 46.4 percent in 1992. Mid-1999 it was estimated that 47 percent of Kenyan's population live under conditions of absolute poverty. Employment growth rates have declined from 3.6 percent per year in the 1964 – 1973 period to a mere 1.9 percent in the 1990s. Over 3 million Kenyans are openly unemployed and a similar number is estimated to be under employment.

Something must be done to renew hope for meaningful improvement in the new millennium. Keen observers on the various options available to Kenya, agree that the only feasible way that can be achieved is for the country to industrialise. **There are no shot-cuts, though short-term measures may be necessary, the only way that large numbers people can be employed and large-scale poverty eradication is through industrialization.** This is recognized in various government publications, among them “Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1996 on Industrial Transformation to the Year 2020 and the National Development Plan 1997 – 2001. Whereas this requires a large mix of strategies – political economic, social and others, **there is a general consensus that Micro and Small Enterprises must constitute one of the main pillars in this rendezvous.** Indeed, this is recognized in Sectional Paper No 2 of 1996, promoting Micro Small and Medium Scale Industries. Micro and Small firms are expected to serve as the breeding ground or seedbed from which large firms will emerge.

While this assessment stands true, an equally true conclusion is that all this will not adopt better production and distributive technologies that enable it to increase efficiencies, improve quality and diversify products. **Without improving higher technological skills and relevant technology in production and delivery of related services.** Despite the policy action put in place to date and the fair amount of success registered in various areas, the widespread use of fairly rudimentary technologies, poor product quality and narrow manufacturing sub-sector all indicate that there still remains a technology question. TVET institutions have a big role to provide the required relevant skills training for the sector.

### 3.17 Technology Issues in MSEs

There are four main areas of concern as regards technological development of the MSE sector in Kenya. These comprise low productivity, poor quality of products, low products development and diversification capacity, and magnitude of the manufacturing sub sector.

Using net returns per worker as a measure for enterprise productivity, estimates from the 1995 GEMINI study indicate that about two-thirds of MSEs in Kenya have very low levels of productivity generating net incomes per worker of less than the minimum wage. This is not surprising given that expenditure on performance enhancement (e.g. purchase of equipment) is only 3.0 percent of all investment in the sector and only a quarter of enterprises have trained workers. These combine to make the production processes of most enterprises largely rudimentary with an excessive reliance on manual labour. This makes it difficult for most MSEs to achieve the high quality of production which is sufficient to make their products competitive in global markets or locally.

Only about a quarter of the MSEs in Kenya are in manufacturing. This becomes a technology issue because a major reason why there are so few manufacturing enterprises is because of lack of technological knowledge and adaptation impediments inhibiting entry into the sector. Given the technological choices available, it is much easier for potential entrepreneurs to start trading or service enterprises. The key to getting more entrants into manufacturing lies in the expansion of the technological base choices available, which has bearing to the type TVET training curriculum in use.

### **3.18 Technical capacity in MSEs**

An assessment of the MSE sector in Kenya indicates that there are three major constraints that continue to lower technological development. These include capacity of MSEs to use available technologies; and weaknesses in the co-ordination of efforts made by various players.

In the area of technical capacity, there are low levels of education and training of operators, lack of supportive infrastructure, particularly electricity. Trends in technological advancement in the world today demand a certain basic level of literacy and training. A look at the MSE sector in Kenya indicates that over three-quarters of operators have primary level or no education. A similar fact applies to training (GEMINI, 1995). With these levels of education and training, the range of technologies available for adoption becomes quite limited. Substantial advances in technological transformation of production and distributive process will be possible only when significant numbers of highly educated and trained individuals with capacity join the sector and quickly adopt and innovate new technologies. This also calls for efforts to increase the skill levels of those already in and those entering the sector, through improved or strengthened TVET training programmes.

Most MSEs lack the financial resources to acquire available technologies. Low productivity limits the amount of funds available for reinvestment. There is low accessibility to finances even when available, funds are largely restricted to working capital, and there is the high cost of technologies. Infrastructure, on the other hand, limits the capacity of MSEs to adopt certain types of technology that require utilities and power, the new technologies including production equipment and production process would improve the quality of MSEs products and services which can be competitive in the market place.

### **3.19 Business Development Services in MSEs**

A number of policies have been devoted to understanding dynamics of the MSEs and to the identification of the constraints that need to be addressed in order to exploit the potential of the sector in attaining the key economic objectives set out by the government. One key area that has been identified as critical for the development of the MSE sector is the provision of business development services.

Research findings from studies conducted by ICEG show that although the government has undertaken important measures towards the development of MSEs, the existing policy framework

needs to be reviewed in order to ensure efficient delivery of Business Development Services (BDS). This need calls for the establishment of a more comprehensive, demand – driven, and inclusive BDS programmes catering for every potential entrepreneur, including women.

Coordination of all training institutions is necessary to avoid duplication of activities and sub-optimal utilization of resources. In order to ensure sustainability, there is need to minimize dependency on donors by promoting market-driven programmes in which beneficiaries pay direct costs of the services offered. Other important measures that need to be implemented are adoption of innovative and successful models, an incentive structure for promoting business linkages between MSEs and large firms, measures to enhance information and experience sharing; and innovative methods for MSE access to appropriate technologies information, and technology transfer issues. TVET institutional training must respond to these demands by strengthening entrepreneurship education.

Following the publication of: Sectional Paper No. 2 of 1992 on Small Enterprise and Jua Kali Development in Kenya”, the government implemented policies and programmes aimed at the development of entrepreneurial culture and the efficient delivery of business development services. Despite the government’s efforts to provide entrepreneurship training and business development services, substantial challenges still remain that prevent the full exploitation of the MSE potential.

The research findings point out that in order to develop entrepreneurship and business development services in Kenya, it is necessary to remove the constraints to the development of enterprise culture in the economy and the provision of efficient business development services. (BDS)

### **3.20 Business Development Services Programmes**

Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1992 recognized that a competent entrepreneur is one of the most important requirements for the success of Micro Enterprises in Kenya. An entrepreneur requires a variety of auxiliary business development services in order to promote and improve business performance, and these include training, counselling, advocacy, advice, consultancy, information, networks, and sub-contracting. In the provision of BDS, the focus is on three types of constraints faced by Micro and Small Entrepreneurs.

**These are:**

- (i) Internal constraints such as low levels of business management skills.
- (ii) External constraints such as unfavourable operating policy environment.
- (iii) Constraints relating to access such as inadequate or lack of access to markets, credits, technology, and information.

The needs of entrepreneurs vary depending on the stage of entrepreneurial activity – i.e. at pre-startup, survival and growth stages.

There are over 500 BDS providers in Kenya, and the majority of them target existing MSEs. These have been established through projects sponsored by the government in partnership with donors and NGOs. The key programs include: -

- a) Small Business Centres (SBC)s established at some of the technical training institutions by the Ministry of Research Technical Training and Technology (MRTT & T)

- b) Business Service Centres (BSCs) under the Micro PED project sponsored by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID).
- c) Business One Stop Shops (BOSS) supported by the British Department for International Development (DFID).
- d) The World Bank – funded Micro and Small Enterprise Training and Technology project (MSETTP) under the Ministry of Research Technical Training and Technology and later the Ministry of Labour Human Resources Development.

These programs offer a wide range of services, including teaching of entrepreneurship for business start-ups, training, counselling, consultancy and networking.

The impact of these initiatives has been quite encouraging as indicated by the growing number of graduates from the various training institutions who start their own business upon graduation. Also, substantial trainers have been produced who provide essential training and other services to potential and starting entrepreneurs. However, there are challenges that remain.

A key weakness has been poor coordination of training institutions resulting in duplication of services, sub-optimal utilization of scarce resources, and limited outreach. Also, the scope for institutional sustainability of the training programmes is limited due to lack of physical facilities, equipment, and trained personnel. An ill-defined management policies has undermined the ability to source funding.

Moreover, the existing programmes have neglected the informal sector and despite the increasing number of players involved in the provision of skills training, these are not guided by a coherent training policy. This is particularly so with respect to the Small Business Centres (SBSs). These were established to promote entrepreneurship in the urban and rural areas through linkages to institutions offering training, research, and product development, as well as the accompanying training in technical and managerial skills.

In order to enhance entrepreneurship development in Kenya, there is need for a collaborative effort by key partners to formulate a more comprehensive entrepreneurship programmes catering for the needs of all potential entrepreneurs, including pupils in schools, school leavers, and those in women's groups in the rural areas.

The government needs to take a lead role in coordinating training in order to minimize waste of resources. Moreover, efforts to promote enterprise culture should take into account varying cultural backgrounds of communities by utilizing the business opportunity profiles developed at the district level for this purpose.

The challenge for expanding entrepreneurial development in Kenya calls for a more enhanced participation by the private sector through focal incentives and the design of more demand –driven programmes that encourage cost sharing and sustainability. A key factor in this endeavour will be an enabling and conducive environment that provides incentives to potential entrepreneurs to start new businesses, a policy and regulatory regime that enables individuals to start businesses on a level playing field.

### 3.21 Business Skills Training

Kenya has achieved substantial progress in developing business skills programmes for MSE entrepreneurs. There are over 500 registered training providers utilizing variety of products and methods.

- ◆ Improve your business (IYB), pioneered by the ILO through locally registered NGOs.
- ◆ Growth programmes, originally developed in the UK and locally adopted by Kenya Management Assistance Program (K-Map).
- ◆ Competency – Based Economies through the Formation of Enterprise (CEFE) developed through the assistance of GTZ and locally adopted by the Kenya Institute of Management (KIM).
- ◆ The World Bank – funded MSETTP the goal of which is to enhance entrepreneurial, development in the private sector and reduce constraints to employment promotion and income generation in the MSE sectors.

The majority of training providers such as the KIM, Federation of Kenya Employers (FKE) and K-MAP offer integrated training programmes.

An important feature of these training providers is that they focus mainly on the needs at start-up and survival stages of MSEs. Thus they provide opportunities for learning by doing in real situations that arise from solving problems and encountering challenges. Although this approach enables providers to offer both formal courses/workshops and individualized study using special methods such as counselling, action learning, and self study, this opportunity had not been fully exploited. As a result, training has been less focused and has not fully taken into account the needs and learning pace of neither individuals nor the needs related to specific business ideas and projects. Moreover, most people do not have sufficient time and financial resources to benefit from such training. Also, heavy dependence on donor financing threatens the long-term sustainability of such training modules.

Given the critical importance of business skills training, it is necessary to ensure that the courses are tailor-made to address the specific needs of individuals and business sectors. This should entail need-based training that reinforces entrepreneurial motivation, basic business techniques and systems as well as managerial capacity. Such focused training would enhance opportunities for increasing sustainability. Moreover, they should provide new or enhanced capacities in marketing, product development and quality. This calls for an aggressive campaign to disseminate information about available training programmes to reach entrepreneurs throughout the country and match particular MSEs with specific training opportunities.

### 3.22 MSEs Sectoral Associations

The Ministry of labour and Human Resource Development has facilitated the formation of over 26,000 sectoral associations with membership reaching 1.3 million persons located in both urban and rural towns. These associations operate under the Kenya National Federation of Jua Kali Associations (KNFJKA), an umbrella organization that aims to assist in:

- a) Recognitions/identification of bona fide Jua Kali Associations.
- b) Processing of applications for Jua Kali Artisans to be members.
- c) Allocation of resources and benefits to genuine Jua Kali Artisans
- d) Lobbying for improved operating environment of members.

Other sub sector associations have been formed, including the Kenya Association of Metalworkers and Fabricators, Food Processors Association of Kenya Textile Workers, and Kenya Entrepreneurship Trainers and Consultants Association (KETCA) National Association for Technology Transfer and Entrepreneurial Training (NATTET) which has trained over 34,778 Micro and small Enterprises employees and beginners in the World Bank MSETTP Project

An analysis of the operations of these sectoral associations shows that their effectiveness is constrained by lack of finance and management skills, resulting into conflict of interests and politicization of their activities. Also, there is no clearly defined institutional framework under which they are to operate. In order to strengthen sectoral associations, there may be need to assist them to address these problems. It is recommended that in order to strengthen these associations and enhance the effectiveness of their service, the government should guide them in defining the institutional framework in which they should operate.

### **3.23 Characteristics of Micro and Small Enterprises**

The National Micro and Small Enterprise Baseline Survey 1999, defined the Micro and Small Enterprises in Kenya as business employing up to 50 workers who are either paid or not. There are about 1.3 Million Micro and Small Enterprises in the country employing some 2.4 million people.

Work activities considered in this paper covers economic activities for a profit or family gain employing between 1 – 9 persons (Small Scale Enterprises) the total investment is up to Kshs. 5 million. Annual turnover is up to 3 million and the workers are using low to medium level technology in manufacturing or production and services delivery.

According to the records of the Ministry of Labour and Human Resources Development 26,000 Jua Kali Associations have been registered in 2002 and a large number of applicants are in the process of being registered.

The major economic activities found in the Kenya Jua Kali Sector or Micro and Small Enterprises are described below and include

a) **Technology:**

Engineering, manufacturing, production and provision of technology services, wood technology, agro-processing, chemical and bio-chemical processing, textiles, information technology, water recycling, energy, pulp and paper processing, electrical and electronics works, food, processing, traditional handicrafts and transportation services.

b) **Business services include:**

Distribution and retailing, whole sale, finance and counting, secretarial services, cyber cafes, documentation preparations, telephone fax services and management consultancies etc.

### 3.24 MSEs Activities in Kenya

Table 7: Jua Kali (MSE) Activities

| Sector /Trade                                  | PRODUCTION , SERVICES AND SELLING                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                               |
|------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Food Processing</b>                         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cereals</li> <li>• Legumes</li> <li>• Fruits and vegetables</li> <li>• Animal feeds</li> <li>• Roots and tuber crops</li> <li>• Meat and poultry products</li> <li>• Dairy products</li> <li>• Fish and fish products</li> <li>• Edible oils</li> <li>• Beverages</li> <li>• Confectionery</li> <li>• Food packaging</li> <li>• Pharmaceuticals and herbal medicines</li> <li>• Perfumery products</li> <li>• Preservatives</li> </ul> |
| <b>Non-Food Agro – processing Technologies</b> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bio-pesticides</li> <li>• Plant extracts (resins, oils etc)</li> <li>• Packaging</li> <li>• Joinery</li> <li>• Water purification and bottling</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              |
| <b>Wood Products</b>                           | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tooling equipment</li> <li>• Waste use and minimization</li> <li>• Ply-Board /Veneer manufacturing</li> <li>• Block /Chip board manufacturing</li> <li>• Panel door/Flush doors</li> <li>• Wood crafts (utilities only)</li> <li>• Wood treatment and preservation</li> <li>• Packaging</li> <li>• Carpentry and joinery</li> </ul>                                                                                                    |
| <b>Textiles and Leather Work</b>               | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Spinning (threads)</li> <li>• Dying (cloth and yarn)</li> <li>• Toy manufacturing</li> <li>• Screen printing</li> <li>• Weaving</li> <li>• Garment manufacturing and finishing</li> <li>• Leather processing and products</li> <li>• Handicrafts</li> <li>• Shoes making and shoe shining</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                   |
| <b>Chemical Processing and Process</b>         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Personal care products, soaps, detergents and shampoos</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      |

| Sector /Trade                     | PRODUCTION , SERVICES AND SELLING                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                     |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                                   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Manufacture of paints</li> <li>• Manufacture of adhesive</li> <li>• Disinfectants and air conditioners</li> <li>• Pesticides</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      |
| <b>Automotive Works</b>           | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Automotive parts and assembly</li> <li>• Advanced systems maintenance</li> <li>• Electronic integrated systems</li> <li>• Body building and structures</li> <li>• Hydraulic and pneumatic systems</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 |
| <b>Building and Construction</b>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Building materials</li> <li>• Construction buildings</li> <li>• Wood tiles</li> <li>• Ceramics tiles</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              |
| <b>Information</b>                | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Soft – ware development</li> <li>• Telecommunication technology</li> <li>• Cyber cafes secretarial bureaus</li> <li>• Paper binding</li> <li>• Document binding</li> <li>• Fax/Telephone bureauseauros</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                            |
| <b>Pulp and Paper Processing</b>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pulp from non-wood sources e.g. reeds, sisal, etc.</li> <li>• Paper board manufacturing</li> <li>• Paper making</li> <li>• Packaging technologies</li> <li>• Recycling paper</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      |
| <b>Energy</b>                     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Solar energy (thermal and PV)</li> <li>• Fuel technologies</li> <li>• Wind energy</li> <li>• Hydro power technologies and generators</li> <li>• Battery manufacturing</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                             |
| <b>Electrical and Electronics</b> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Design and fabrication of power equipment</li> <li>• Printed circuits</li> <li>• Motor rewinding and manufacturing</li> <li>• Manufacture of charging regulators</li> <li>• Manufacture of switchgears.</li> <li>• Manufacture of user alarms</li> <li>• Manufacture of school science lab equipment</li> <li>• Fabrication of D.C Lambs</li> <li>• Manufacture of audio amplifiers and speaker systems</li> <li>• CKD Kits and Assembly products</li> </ul> |
| <b>Forging and Foundry Works</b>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Design and fabrication of low cost machines</li> <li>• Foundry processes</li> <li>• Machining welding</li> <li>• Tools and dies</li> <li>• Jigs and fixture</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       |

| Sector /Trade                                | PRODUCTION , SERVICES AND SELLING                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       |
|----------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                                              | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fasteners manufacturing</li> <li>• Metal rolling</li> <li>• Mould making</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                            |
| <b>Plastics</b>                              | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Casting works</li> <li>• Extruding</li> <li>• Blowing</li> <li>• Dyes manufacturing</li> <li>• Fiber glass technology</li> <li>• Molding making</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                     |
| <b>Waste Recycling, Use and Minimization</b> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ferrous and non-ferrous metals</li> <li>• Plastics</li> <li>• Wood</li> <li>• Oil</li> <li>• Agriculture waste</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      |
| <b>Business Development Services</b>         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Technology management</li> <li>• Human resource management</li> <li>• Marketing and selling strategies</li> <li>• Business planning</li> <li>• Business management</li> <li>• Time management</li> <li>• Product packaging</li> <li>• Product design and development</li> <li>• Product design and development</li> <li>• Product pricing</li> <li>• Export /Import trade</li> <li>• Value adding in production and services</li> <li>• Production planning</li> <li>• Computer application in business</li> <li>• Taxation</li> <li>• Auditing of accounting books</li> </ul> |
| <b>Building</b>                              | Production and selling <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Plumbing works</li> <li>• Quarry and stone dressing work</li> <li>• Bricklaying</li> <li>• Masonry works/plastering</li> <li>• Roof making and repairs</li> <li>• Manufacturing of roof materials</li> <li>• Carpentry and joinery work</li> <li>• Cabinet making</li> <li>• Cushion making</li> <li>• Upholstery making</li> <li>• Painting and decoration</li> <li>• Hardware operation</li> <li>• Wood machinery work</li> </ul>                                                                                                                     |

| Sector /Trade                       | PRODUCTION , SERVICES AND SELLING                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                    |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Agro Food Processing</b>         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Snacks preparations</li> <li>• Retailing of soft drinks</li> <li>• Retailing of juices</li> <li>• Hotel canteen – services</li> <li>• Bottle water sales</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                         |
| <b>Wood works and wood products</b> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Door making</li> <li>• Household products</li> <li>• Furniture making</li> <li>• Roofing</li> <li>• Office furniture</li> <li>• Wall partitioning</li> <li>• Timber selling</li> <li>• Windows</li> <li>• Door window locks and handles making</li> <li>• Boat making</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                            |
| <b>Metal Fabrication</b>            | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pots and pans making</li> <li>• Door locks and hinges</li> <li>• Metal fasteners</li> <li>• Sheet metal works</li> <li>• Roofing materials</li> <li>• Hand tools</li> <li>• Steel windows</li> <li>• Steel doors</li> <li>• Harmer mill (posho mill)</li> <li>• Farm tools</li> <li>• ARC welding</li> <li>• Oxy acetylene welding</li> <li>• Brassing and Soldering</li> <li>• Grass cutters</li> <li>• Steel boxes</li> <li>• Household containers</li> <li>• Black and insinuating.</li> <li>• Wheel barrow</li> <li>• Hand carts</li> <li>• Cooking stoves</li> <li>• Chicken feed equipment</li> </ul> |

| Sector /Trade                        | PRODUCTION , SERVICES AND SELLING                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                           |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Basketry</b>                      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Kiondo hand bags</li> <li>• Door mats</li> <li>• Sleeping mats</li> <li>• Traditional baskets</li> <li>• Bedside mats</li> <li>• Laundry mats</li> <li>• Food containing materials</li> <li>• Sisal carpets</li> </ul>                                                                                                             |
| <b>Handicrafts manufacture</b>       | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Wood carving</li> <li>• Soap stones carving</li> <li>• Jewellery</li> <li>• Ceramic beads</li> <li>• Pot and plates making</li> <li>• Bangles</li> <li>• Finger rings</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                   |
| <b>Transportation</b>                | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Motor vehicle driving schools</li> <li>• Small /Transit vehicle passenger operations (matatu)</li> <li>• Taxi driving operations</li> <li>• Commercial vehicle goods transport (Sand, stones e.t.c.)</li> <li>• Canoe passenger and goods transport</li> <li>• Air transport operations</li> <li>• Ticketing operations</li> </ul> |
| <b>Electrical Installation works</b> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Electrical installation work in building</li> <li>• Heavy current equipment repair</li> <li>• Retailing electrical products</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                             |
| <b>Electronic works</b>              | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Radio repair</li> <li>• T.V repair</li> <li>• Light current equipment service</li> <li>• Mechanical electronic equipment installation</li> <li>• Telephone and fax equipment</li> <li>• Electronic equipment installations</li> </ul>                                                                                              |

### 3.25 The Level of MSEs Technology

For this study technology can be defined as all elements of knowledge and skills or required for translating industrial inputs into goods and services, and in the generation of new productive knowledge for economic development. Human technological capacity formation is achieved mainly through education, training and practical exposure.

The higher intellectual or cognitive skills acquired by the workers, the greater the chance that these workers can acquire more or high-level technological/vocational skills, which may improve their work productivity. Education and training lead to the development of technological work competencies.

The MSE/JUA KALI Sector in Kenya is characterized by low level of technological skills possession owing to low level of educational and training attainments. Most of the workers skill acquisitions are mainly through **on the job work experience in formal and informal industries, low level vocational training or vocational apprenticeships from both public, private, and community training institutions.**

### 3.26 The Quality of MSEs Production Technology

These MSEs are involved in the production of cheap and poor quality household goods, cheap and poor quality products and services owing to the following factors.

- ◆ Reliance on the technology which is highly labour intensive in production
- ◆ Lack innovative morale owing to unequal competition from medium and large-scale enterprises
- ◆ Low level science and technology skills attainment
- ◆ Inadequate business management skills
- ◆ Lack of suitable technological skills
- ◆ Lack of suitable working machinery, equipment and tools
- ◆ Lack of product innovation or improvements
- ◆ Lack of suitable work places and environment (working sites/workshops)
- ◆ Limited sub-contracting linkages with large industries
- ◆ Lack of adequate technological information
- ◆ Lack of electricity supply in some work sites
- ◆ Lack of product market knowledge and information
- ◆ Inadequate and secure storage places for their finished products

Most of these enterprises tend to pursue low-level technology, reverse reserves engineering and waste product recycling and improvisation.

### 3.27 Level of Education of MSEs Entrepreneurs

Table 8 shows that the MSE an entrepreneur is today more literate and educated than the MSE entrepreneur of 1995. This could be attributed to the rising levels of unemployment among secondary school and university graduates who eventually end up in the sector as an action of last resort. However, the pattern of distribution of the levels of entrepreneur's education in the two periods is still quite similar, with a concentration at the primary school level followed by secondary school levels. Shimooka (1996) obtained similar levels of distribution with 47% primary, 59.0% secondary, and 1.9% with no education at all. However, the sample was based on urban areas where K-Rep had lending programmes, which perhaps explains the higher education levels recorded in the results.

**Table 8: Levels of Education Attained by MSEs Entrepreneurs (%)**

| Education | 1995 | 1999 |
|-----------|------|------|
| None      | 20.4 | 10.6 |
| Primary   | 55.3 | 54.4 |
| Secondary | 23.2 | 33.1 |
| Higher    | 1.2  | 1.8  |

*Source: National MSE Baseline Survey 19999 (CBS, K-REP, and ICEG)*

### **3.28 The Characteristics of Urban Informal Sector**

The traditional view of the urban informal sector in the economics development literature is of a sort of staging place for mainly under employed workers, often migrants from rural areas, awaiting entry into modern sector employment (Todaro 1969; Harris and Todaro 1970). That view is now seen to be an inadequate description of the positive role played by the informal sector in many developing countries. Particularly since the publication of the International Labour Organization's path-breaking report on Kenya (ILO 1972), which popularized the concept of the informal sector, numerous empirical studies have now painted a broad picture of the main characteristics of this sector, problems of definition notwithstanding (see Charmes 1990, Fields 1990).

Unlike modern sector firms, which are subject to well-established labour relations codes, factory regulations, wage legislation, and unionization, the informal sector is largely unregulated. Although government regulatory and economic policy may restrict competition in the modern sector, the informal sector is much less affected and thus usually operates in a much more competitive fashion.

A second key distinguishing characteristic is the ease of entry into informal sector employment compared with the formal modern sector, where jobs are often scarce and those that are available are protected by high educational and training requirements. It is this ease of entry that has enabled the informal sector to absorb much of the excess labour in many developing countries.

### **3.29 The Role of the Urban Informal Sector in Combating Worst Forms of Child Labour**

This study had identified poverty as one of the major causes of child labour in Kenya. Poverty in the urban areas is caused by unemployed and low wages. Lack of employment implies lack of income necessary for meeting basic needs such as food, shelter, clothing, medical services and cost of education and/or training.

The 1999 baseline survey on the informal sector in Kenya employed 2.4 million people; the available studies show that by 2002, the informal sector had created 6.0 million jobs out of the total employment of 9.5 million for all the sectors in the country. A part from creating employment, the sector is also an instrument of creating stable business culture and fertile training ground for apprentices.

For the country to be able to absorb large number of the increasing labour force is to industrialize its economy. The growth of employment in the formal sector is slow compared with the growth in the informal sector. Therefore the government thinking now is that micro and small enterprises sector must constitute one of the main pillars in poverty reduction process. Well developed and improved informal sector will certainly combat child labour, through increase employment opportunities, for the youth aged 5 – 18 years

# **CHAPTER 4 - 1998/1999 CHILD LABOUR SURVEY IN KENYA REPORT**

## **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents a summary of the child labour survey report. This study was carried by the Kenya Government and ILO and it is very detailed. This study borrows from the report.

Child labour has emerged as one of the most intolerable forms of child exploitation and abuse in most parts of the world. In Kenya, the history of child labour dates back to pre-independence days when Africans in the periphery of white settlements sent their children to work on the farms and in homes of settlers as a source of income for paying the poll tax imposed on them. To-date, information available indicates that child labour is widespread and the escalating number of children subjected to it in rural and urban areas is a threat to the social and economic fabric of the country. This disturbing trend is closely linked to the increasing incidence of poverty and is exacerbated by the changing family structures and value systems emanating from economic pressures in families and in the government.

While it is acknowledged that past national statistical surveys undertaken by the Central Bureau of Statistics(CBS) did not collect data on working children or on child labour, a review of the literature shows that various organizations and researchers have undertaken many case studies covering working children in commercial agriculture, tourism, soapstone mining, fishing and salt mining industries. The studies have also covered domestic workers and street children. These studies did not, however, quantify the magnitude of child labour in Kenya. Consequently, firm estimates on the number of working children in Kenya have been lacking. However, researchers and various institutions have come up with an estimate of 3.5 million children aged 5-17 years engaged in child labour in Kenya, mainly in domestic, agriculture, fisheries, informal and tourism sectors of the economy. This estimate is misleading since it is based on the number of out-of school or non-schooling children, who may not necessarily be involved in child labour and may not even be working. Nevertheless, it is believed that the incidence of child labour in the country is high.

## **4.2 ILO Convention on the Worst Forms of Child Labour**

The 87<sup>th</sup> annual ILO conference adopted the worst forms of Child Labour convention of 1999. The new convention applies to all persons under the age of 18 years. The new convention defines worst forms of Child Labour as:-

- (i) All forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage, serfdom and forced or compulsory labour
- (ii) Forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in the armed conflict
- (iii) Use of a child for prostitution, production of pornographic performances
- (iv) Use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs and
- (v) Work which is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children.

The same convention defines hazardous work as work which exposes children to physical, psychological or sexual abuse. Work underground, under water, at dangerous heights or in confined spaces, work with dangerous machinery or tools or work which involves heavy loads, work in unhealthy environment, which may expose children to hazardous substances, temperatures, noise or

vibrations and work under particularly difficult conditions such as long working hours, work during the night or where a child is confined to the premises of the employer.

In Kenya the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development, prevents and controls worst forms of Child Labour by enforcing subsidiary legislation under Section 55 (1998) of the Factories and Other Places of Work Act chapter 514 of the Laws of Kenya. In the process of enforcing these rules, inspections officials from the ministry have found some children working in hazardous situations, characterized by:-

- ◆ Harsh environments in sisal, coffee and tea estates, horticultural farms, where they were exposed to toxic substances, fishing grounds where they were exposed to malaria and other water borne diseases
- ◆ Lack of protective clothing in sisal estates, manufacturing, mining and quarrying activities within informal or Jua Kali sector and in salt mining firms
- ◆ Carriage of heavy loads in sisal estates, sand harvesting, stone cutting, salt harvesting and horticultural farms.

### 4.3 Characteristics of the Child Labour Survey Population

#### (a) Distribution of children

The results of the survey of 1998/99 indicates that the population of children aged between 5 and 17 years was 10.9 million as shown in table 9 below.

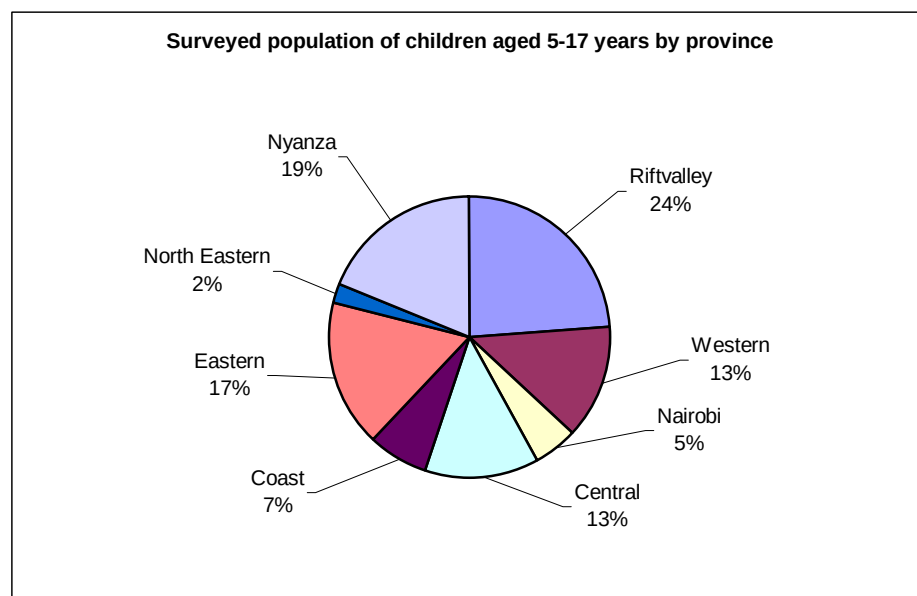
The table shows the distribution of children aged 5 – 17 years by province and sex for both the surveyed population and the census results. The survey data indicates that the distribution varies from province to province. Rift Valley Province had the highest population with 2.6 million children while North eastern Province accounted for the lowest population of children, with about 0.3 million.

**Table 9: Distribution of children aged between 5 and 17 years by province and sex**

| Province      | 1998/99 Child Labour Survey |                |                 | Population Census |                |                 |
|---------------|-----------------------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------------|----------------|-----------------|
|               | Boys                        | Girls          | Total           | Boys              | Girls          | Total           |
| Nairobi       | 302.9                       | 242.7          | 545.6           | 226.1             | 257.5          | 483.6           |
| Central       | 708.9                       | 713.4          | 1,422.3         | 629.7             | 620.9          | 1,250.7         |
| Coast         | 433.4                       | 369.7          | 803.1           | 401.1             | 405.4          | 815.5           |
| Eastern       | 954.6                       | 865.8          | 1,820.4         | 862.7             | 845.7          | 1,708.4         |
| North Eastern | 143.5                       | 119.8          | 263.3           | 215.4             | 182.0          | 397.4           |
| Nyanza        | 1,033.9                     | 1,003.9        | 2,037.8         | 832.6             | 822.3          | 1,654.9         |
| Rift Valley   | 1,312.6                     | 1,271.3        | 2,583.9         | 1,281.1           | 1,260.3        | 2,541.4         |
| Western       | 715.8                       | 694.0          | 1,409.8         | 637.6             | 638.9          | 1,276.5         |
| <b>TOTAL</b>  | <b>5,605.6</b>              | <b>5,280.6</b> | <b>10,886.2</b> | <b>5,095.4</b>    | <b>5,033.0</b> | <b>10,128.4</b> |

Survey results in all the provinces except Central Province show that the number of boys exceeded that of girls. The percentage distribution of the surveyed population is further illustrated in Figure 3

**Figure 3: Surveyed population of children aged 5-17 years by province**



Source: Child Labour Survey report 1998/99

## (b) Age-Sex Structure

Results of the survey are presented in Table 10 below they indicate that 8.6 million or 78.8 percent of children aged 5 – 17 years lived in rural areas with the remaining 2.3 million (or 21.2 percent) residing in urban areas. Whereas in rural areas girls out-numbered boys and accounted for 52.2 percent of the total child population, in urban areas girls out-numbered boys and accounted for 51.3 percent of the total child population in this age bracket. Overall, age-specific sex ratios were 109 boys per 100 girls in rural areas and 95 boys per 100 girls in urban areas.

The table also categorizes child population into three broad age groups namely: -5 – 9 years, 10 – 14 years and 15 – 17 years. Considering the sex ratio, in rural areas boys outnumbered girls in all the age groups compared to urban areas where boys outnumbered girls only in the year age group.

## (c) Distribution of Children by Area, Age Group and Sex

**Table 10: Distribution of Children**

*Numbers in thousands*

| Age Group | Rural   |         |           |         | Urban   |         |           |         | Grand Total |
|-----------|---------|---------|-----------|---------|---------|---------|-----------|---------|-------------|
|           | Boys    | Girls   | Sex Ratio | Total   | Boys    | Girls   | Sex Ratio | Total   |             |
| 5-9       | 1,755.1 | 1,604.5 | 109.4     | 3,359.6 | 538.8   | 388.1   | 138.8     | 926.9   | 4,286.5     |
| 10-14     | 1,833.1 | 1,704.8 | 107.5     | 3,537.9 | 358.8   | 548.3   | 65.4      | 907.1   | 4,445.0     |
| 15-17     | 895.0   | 787.6   | 113.6     | 1,682.6 | 224.8   | 247.3   | 90.9      | 472.1   | 2,154.7     |
| Total     | 4,483.2 | 4,096.9 | 109.4     | 8,580.1 | 1,122.4 | 1,183.7 | 94.8      | 2,306.1 | 10,886.2    |

## (d) Distribution of Children by Schooling and work status

Table 11 gives an analysis of school attendance and work status by sex of residence, province and age group. From the survey population of 10.9 million children, it was reported that about 7.4 million or 67.9 percent were in school, while 3.5 million or 32.1 percent were out of school. Out of the schooling children, about 673,200 (8.0 percent) were working. Data in the same table also indicate

that 67.9 percent of the children aged 5-17 years were attending school in both rural and urban areas; they also show that 65.8 percent of the children aged 5-17 years living in rural areas were attending school compared to 76.0 percent of their counterparts attending school in urban areas. A regional analysis indicates that Central Province had the highest proportion of children attending school (74.5 percent). Coast and North Eastern Province had the lowest proportion of schooling children in the 5-17 years age bracket, with 56.0 percent and 56.6 percent, respectively. In terms of gender participation, the survey shows that 68.3 percent of all boys aged 5-17 years were attending schooling compared to a lower proportion (67.5 percent) for girls.

**Table 11: Distribution of children by schooling and work status**

|              | Schooling    |                |              |                | Out – of – school |                |             |                 |
|--------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|-------------------|----------------|-------------|-----------------|
|              | Worked       | Did not Work   | Not Stated   | Total          | Worked            | Did not Work   | Not stated  | Total           |
| <b>Sex</b>   |              |                |              |                |                   |                |             |                 |
| Boys         | 311.0        | 3308.4         | 208.7        | 3,829.1        | 673.2             | 1,071.2        | 32.1        | 5,605.6         |
| Girls        | 277.4        | 3,137.2        | 149.7        | 3,564.3        | 632.              | 1,053.8        | 30.3        | 5,280.6         |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>588.4</b> | <b>6,446.6</b> | <b>358.4</b> | <b>7,393.4</b> | <b>1,305.4</b>    | <b>2,125.0</b> | <b>62.4</b> | <b>10,886.2</b> |
| <b>Area</b>  |              |                |              |                |                   |                |             |                 |
| Rural        | 557.7        | 4,862.1        | 222.1        | 5,641.9        | 1,129.7           | 1,770.0        | 38.5        | 2,938.2         |
| Urban        | 30.7         | 1,584.5        | 136.3        | 1,751.5        | 175.7             | 355.0          | 23.9        | 554.6           |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>588.4</b> | <b>6,446.6</b> | <b>358.4</b> | <b>7,393.4</b> | <b>1,305.4</b>    | <b>2,125.0</b> | <b>62.4</b> | <b>3,492.8</b>  |

#### (d) Age-Sex composition of working children in 2000

Children, defined as persons below 18 years, constitute 55% of the total population. This represents a very large number for which the Government has the obligation to provide basic needs such as education, health, food shelter and protection. Also the emerging problems arising from disruptive social change and poverty have led to an increase in the number of children living under difficult circumstances. These include: street, abandoned and neglected children; abused and exploited children; and adolescent mothers. There are about 1.9 million children aged 5 to 17 years working for pay or family gain. This represents 17.4% of the children population and 14.4% of the estimated workforce. See table 12 and table 13 below showing Age, Sex composition of working children and percentage of out of school working children.

**Table 12: Age – Sex Composition of Working Children in 2000**

| Age Group    | Schooling |         | Out of School |         | Total   |         |
|--------------|-----------|---------|---------------|---------|---------|---------|
|              | Boys      | Girls   | Boys          | Girls   | Boys    | Girls   |
| <b>5-9</b>   | 89,542    | 69,801  | 197,160       | 42,157  | 286,702 | 211,958 |
| <b>10-14</b> | 150,963   | 141,560 | 269,911       | 262,528 | 420,874 | 404,088 |
| <b>15-17</b> | 70,450    | 66,080  | 206,142       | 227,470 | 276,592 | 293,550 |
| <b>Total</b> | 310,955   | 277,441 | 673,213       | 532,155 | 984,168 | 909,596 |

### (e) Percentage of Children Out of School Working in Provinces.

**Table 13:** shows the number of children out of school during the survey period

| Province     | Schooling    |                |              |                | Out- of – School |                |             |                | GRAND           |
|--------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|-------------|----------------|-----------------|
|              | Worked       | Did Not Work   | Not Stated   | TOTAL          | Worked           | Did not Work   | Not Stated  | TOTAL          | TOTAL           |
| Nairobi      | 2.5          | 347.9          | 14.3         | 364.7          | 59.7             | 117.6          | 3.6         | 180.9          | 545.6           |
| Central      | 79.9         | 888.1          | 92.2         | 1,060.2        | 164.6            | 196.1          | 1.3         | 362.0          | 1,422.2         |
| Coast        | 55.4         | 393.5          | 1.0          | 449.9          | 97.6             | 254.8          | 1.0         | 353.4          | 803.3           |
| Eastern      | 104.8        | 1,091.0        | 70.9         | 1,266.7        | 242.4            | 299.4          | 11.9        | 553.7          | 1,820.4         |
| North        | 0.0          | 115.5          | 33.5         | 149.0          | 24.0             | 83.5           | 6.7         | 114.2          | 263.2           |
| Eastern      |              |                |              |                |                  |                |             |                |                 |
| Nyanza       | 70.5         | 1,353.2        | 37.6         | 1,461.3        | 204.1            | 370.1          | 2.3         | 576.5          | 2,037.8         |
| Rift valley  | 138.3        | 1,508.0        | 53.6         | 1,699.9        | 370.4            | 486.1          | 27.5        | 884.0          | 2,583.9         |
| Western      | 137.0        | 749.4          | 55.3         | 941.7          | 142.6            | 317.4          | 8.1         | 468.1          | 1,409.8         |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>588.4</b> | <b>6,446.6</b> | <b>358.4</b> | <b>7,393.4</b> | <b>1,305.4</b>   | <b>2,125.0</b> | <b>62.4</b> | <b>3,492.8</b> | <b>10,886.2</b> |
| Age          |              |                |              |                |                  |                |             |                |                 |
| 5-9          | 159.3        | 2,522.5        | 164.0        | 2,845.8        | 339.3            | 1,051.2        | 50.2        | 1,440.7        | 4,286.5         |
| 10-14        | 292.6        | 2,873.2        | 134.1        | 3,299.9        | 532.5            | 604.6          | 8.0         | 1,145.1        | 4,445.0         |
| 15-17        | 136.5        | 1,050.9        | 60.3         | 1,247.7        | 433.6            | 469.2          | 4.2         | 907.0          | 2,154.7         |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>588.4</b> | <b>6,446.6</b> | <b>358.4</b> | <b>7,393.4</b> | <b>1,305.4</b>   | <b>2,125.0</b> | <b>62.4</b> | <b>3,492.8</b> | <b>10,886.2</b> |

The reasons behind child labour are augmenting household income (27,5%) helping on the farm and family business (30.1%), self –reliance (4.8%) while other reasons accounted for 37.6%.

The Convention on the Rights of the child (CRC) contains a comprehensive set of international legal norms for the protection and well being of children. However there has been little implementation of CRC including monitoring and evaluation. On the other hand, there are Children in Need of Special Protection (CNSP) but have no access to the same over the Plan period.

## 4.4 Household size and Child Labour

Table 14 below indicates that overall, 13.8 percent of the children living in households with two or fewer members that are working compared to 17.0 percent of children living in households with nine or more working people. The trend also holds for children that were out of school where 29.8 percent of the children living in households with two or fewer working members were working, compared to 38.2 percent of children living in households with nine or more people. These data favour the hypothesis that children living in large households were more likely to be working than those living in smaller households.

**Table 14: Distribution of Children by Household Size**

| Households Size | Schooling    |                |              |                | Out – of – school |                |              |              | Total           |
|-----------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|-------------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|-----------------|
|                 | Worked       | Did not Work   | Not Stated   | Total          | Worked            | Did not Work   | Not stated   | Total        |                 |
| 1 – 2           | 3.6          | 102.2          | 7.8          | 113.6          | 22.5              | 51.9           | 1.2          | 75.6         | 189.2           |
| 3 – 4           | 67.4         | 1,042.6        | 61.2         | 1,171.2        | 223.3             | 406.6          | 10.1         | 640.0        | 1,811.2         |
| 5 – 6           | 153.7        | 2,099.7        | 128.4        | 2,381.8        | 450.3             | 709.1          | 17.4         | 1,176.8      | 3,558.6         |
| 7 – 9           | 186.3        | 1,905.4        | 1118.5       | 2,210.2        | 345.7             | 552.1          | 12.6         | 910.4        | 3,120.6         |
| 9+              | 177.4        | 1,296.7        | 42.5         | 1,516.6        | 263.6             | 405.3          | 21.1         | 690.0        | 2,206.6         |
| <b>Total</b>    | <b>588.4</b> | <b>6,446.6</b> | <b>358.4</b> | <b>7,393.4</b> | <b>1,305.4</b>    | <b>2,125.0</b> | <b>62,43</b> | <b>492.8</b> | <b>10,886.2</b> |

*Numbers in thousands*

## 4.5 Household Expenditures

Table 15 below shows the distribution of children aged 5-17 years who reported their work status by broad household monthly expenditure. As expenditure data reflect living standards of households, the results indicate that the proportion of working children diminishes with improved households' expenditure.

For example, 48.1 percent of the working children came from households with monthly expenditure of less than Kshs. 5,000 per month (about US\$ 63) whereas only a small proportion of 5.0 percent of working children came from middle class households spending between Kshs. 17,000 and KShs. 22,000 per month.

An analysis by schooling status depicts a similar trend where the proportion of children who were out of school declined with an increase in household expenditure. In general, therefore, the majority of working children come from poor households, that is, persons with Kshs. 1,239 and Khss. 2,648 per capita monthly expenditure in rural and urban areas.

**Table 15: Number of children by monthly expenditures**

| Income Kshs.  | Schooling      |                  |                  | Out – of – school |                  |                  | Total             |
|---------------|----------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|
|               | Worked         | Did not Work     | Total            | Worked            | Did not Work     | Total            |                   |
| Under 2,000   | 98,451         | 1,497,718        | 1,5961,169       | 244,896           | 614,034          | 858,930          | 2,455,099         |
| 2000 – 4,999  | 168,612        | 2,060,344        | 2,228,956        | 397,889           | 712,189          | 1,110,07         | 3,339,034         |
| 5,000-7999    | 141,122        | 1,008,193        | 1,149,315        | 240,504           | 308,650          | 549,154          | 1,698,469         |
| 8000-11,999   | 87,744         | 714,056          | 801,830          | 178,516           | 187,992          | 366,508          | 1,168,338         |
| 12,000-16,999 | 41,729         | 447,840          | 489,569          | 74,929            | 11,454           | 186,383          | 675,952           |
| 17,000-21,999 | 16,911         | 240,655          | 257,566          | 78,140            | 70,569           | 148,709          | 406,275           |
| Not stated    | 33,796         | 477,768          | 511,564          | 89,861            | 120,081          | 209,942          | 721,506           |
| 22,000+       | -              | -                | -                | 632               | -                | -                | -                 |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>588,395</b> | <b>6,446,574</b> | <b>7,034,969</b> | <b>1,305,367</b>  | <b>2,124,969</b> | <b>3,430,336</b> | <b>10,465,305</b> |

## 4.6 Working Children

Results from the survey, summarized in table 16 below shows that about 1.9 million children aged 5-17 years were working for pay, profit or family gain. These were classified as working children. However, not all work undertaken by the 1.9 million working children amounted to child labour, which was defined in general terms as work undertaken by children aged 5-17 years and which prevents them from attending school, is exploitative and hazardous or inappropriate for their age. The generalized definition includes the worst forms of child labour which include child slavery and debt bondage, recruitment of children for use in armed conflict, use of children in commercial immoral activities for prostitution, production of pornography or pornographic performance, and hazardous work as defined by the 1999 ILO Convention. The table 4.8 below shows the distribution of children in female headed households.

**Table 16: Distribution of Children in Female Headed House holds by schooling and work Status**

|               | Schooling    |                |             |                | Out of School |              |             |              | Total           |
|---------------|--------------|----------------|-------------|----------------|---------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|-----------------|
|               | Worked       | Did not Work   | Not Stated  | Total          | Worked        | Did not Work | Not Stated  |              |                 |
| Sex           |              |                |             |                |               |              |             |              |                 |
| Male          | 84.8         | 872.7          | 42.0        | 999.5          | 176.7         | 284.1        | 6.6         | 467.4        | 1,466.9         |
| Girls         | 84.5         | 910.2          | 34.1        | 1,028.8        | 171.8         | 335.0        | 10.9        | 517.7        | 1,546.5         |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>169.3</b> | <b>1,782.9</b> | <b>76.1</b> | <b>2,028.3</b> | <b>348.5</b>  | <b>619.1</b> | <b>17.5</b> | <b>985.1</b> | <b>3,3013.4</b> |
| Area          |              |                |             |                |               |              |             |              |                 |
| Rural         | 156.4        | 1,371.0        | 53.0        | 1,580.4        | 319.6         | 532.2        | 3.1         | 854.9        | 2,435.3         |
| Urban         | 12.9         | 411.0          | 23.1        | 447.9          | 28.9          | 86.9         | 14.4        | 130.2        | 578.1           |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>169.3</b> | <b>1,782.9</b> | <b>76.1</b> | <b>2,028.3</b> | <b>348.5</b>  | <b>619.1</b> | <b>17.5</b> | <b>985.1</b> | <b>3,3013.4</b> |
| Province      |              |                |             |                |               |              |             |              |                 |
| Nairobi       | -            | 45.7           | 3.6         | 49.3           | -             | 7.6          | -           | 7.6          | 56.9            |
| Central       | 6.5          | 344.3          | 28.4        | 379.2          | 46.8          | 65.7         | 0.8         | 113.3        | 492.5           |
| Coast         | 19.4         | 81.8           | 1.0         | 102.2          | 22.8          | 71.5         |             | 94.3         | 196.5           |
| Eastern       | 31.4         | 334.6          | 9.2         | 375.2          | 71.0          | 111.0        | 3.5         | 185.5        | 560.7           |
| North Eastern | -            | 23.5           | -           | 23.5           | 4.7           | 25.3         | 6.7         | 36.7         | 60.2            |
| Nyanza        | 27.6         | 388.3          | 4.3         | 420.2          | 78.5          | 113.6        |             | 192.1        | 612.7           |
| Rift Valley   | 32.0         | 350.6          | 15.4        | 15.4           | 81.5          | 129.1        | 4.1         | 214.7        | 612.7           |
| Western       | 52.4         | 214.1          | 14.2        | 14.2           | 43.2          | 95.3         | 2.4         | 140.9        | 421.6           |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>169.3</b> | <b>1,782.9</b> | <b>76.1</b> | <b>2,028.3</b> | <b>348.5</b>  | <b>619.1</b> | <b>17.5</b> | <b>985.1</b> | <b>3,013.4</b>  |
| Age           |              |                |             |                |               |              |             |              |                 |
| 5-9           | 42.8         | 646.2          | 31.4        | 720.4          | 85.9          | 276.7        | 12.0        | 374.6        | 1,095.0         |
| 10-14         | 87.7         | 826.7          | 32.4        | 946.8          | 136.9         | 194.8        | 3.5         | 335.2        | 1,282.0         |
| 15-17         | 38.8         | 310.0          | 12.3        | 361.1          | 125.7         | 147.6        | 2.0         | 275.3        | 636.4           |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>169.3</b> | <b>1,782.9</b> | <b>76.1</b> | <b>2,028.3</b> | <b>348.5</b>  | <b>619.1</b> | <b>17.5</b> | <b>985.1</b> | <b>3,013.4</b>  |

*(--) Indicate there were no reported cases*

## 4.7 Demographic Characteristics of Working Children

The results of the same survey indicates that of the 13.2 million persons who worked either in the last week or any other time within the 12 months proceeding the survey, 1.9 million of the employed persons were children aged 5-17 years. The working children constituted 17.4 percent of all children aged 5-17 years and 14.4percent of the total working population.

The working children were composed of 985,168 boys and 909,596 girls. Table 17 shows that most of the working children (43.6 percent) were working boys. Working girls were more in the age group 15-17 years, but disproportionately fewer in the age group 5-9 years.

**Table 17: Geographical Distributions of Working Children**

| Area Province | All Children aged 15-17 years | Working Children Aged 5-17 Years | Proportion working |
|---------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------|
| Rural         | 8,580,048                     | 1,687,341                        | 19.7               |
| Urban         | 2,306,105                     | 206,422                          | 9.0                |
| <b>TOTAL</b>  | <b>10,886,153</b>             | <b>1,893,763</b>                 | <b>17.4</b>        |

| Area Province   | All Children aged<br>15-17 years | Working Children<br>Aged 5-17 Years | Proportion working |
|-----------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------|
| <b>Province</b> |                                  |                                     |                    |
| Nairobi         | 545,591                          | 62,181                              | 11.4               |
| Central         | 1,422,339                        | 244,544                             | 17.2               |
| Coast           | 803,139                          | 152,950                             | 19.0               |
| Eastern         | 1,820,358                        | 347,223                             | 19.1               |
| North Eastern   | 263,268                          | 24,043                              | 9.1                |
| Nyanza          | 2,037,847                        | 274,586                             | 13.5               |
| Rift Valley     | 2,583,835                        | 508,684                             | 19.7               |
| Western         | 1,409,776                        | 279,552                             | 19.8               |
| <b>TOTAL</b>    | <b>10,886,153</b>                | <b>1,893,763</b>                    | <b>17.4</b>        |

## 4.8 Geographical Distribution of Working Children

Approximately 65.2 percent of the population of Kenya lives in rural areas. Reflecting this rural bias, about 8.6 million children aged 5-17 years were enumerated in rural areas, representing 78.8 percent of the child population in the country. See table 3.1 shows that the proportion of working children to the total population of children aged 5-17 years was higher in the rural areas (19.7 percent) than the corresponding proportion of children in urban areas (9.0 percent). By province,

Rift Valley, the most populous province, had the largest share of the 5-17 year old children in Kenya (23.7 percent) and the largest share of working children (26.9 percent) North Eastern Province, which is sparsely populated, had the smallest share (2.4 percent) of the 5-17 year old children and the smallest proportion of working children (1.3 percent) it should, however, be clarified that the survey covered only urban areas in that Province. Nairobi, an entire urban area which accounted for 5.0 percent of the total 5-17 years olds in the country, had only 3.3 percent of the total working children in the country. The highest proportion of working children to the total population aged 5-17 years was in the coast, Eastern, Rift Valley and Western provinces (all above 19.0 percent) The lowest incidence was observed in the North Eastern Province (9.1 percent), Nairobi 11.4 percent) and Nyanza (13.4 percent). Table 4.9 above shows the geographical distribution of working children per province.

## 4.9 Educational Status of Working Children

Out of the surveyed 10.9 million children aged 5-17 years, about 7.4 million were reported to be in school, representing 67.0 percent enrolment rate for that age group, while 3.5 million were out of school. Of the 7.4 million schooling children, only 588,396 (8 percent) worked either during the past week or at any other time within the last 12 months. Among the children out of school aged 5-7 years, 1.3 million (37.4 percent) reported to have worked during the same period, while the rest (2.2 million) reported not to have done any work. An analysis by educational achievement given in Table 18 below shows that majority (76.8 percent) of working children had attained primary school education, while only 3.2 percent had attained secondary school education. About 12.7 percent had never attended any formal education, see table 4.10 on the next page

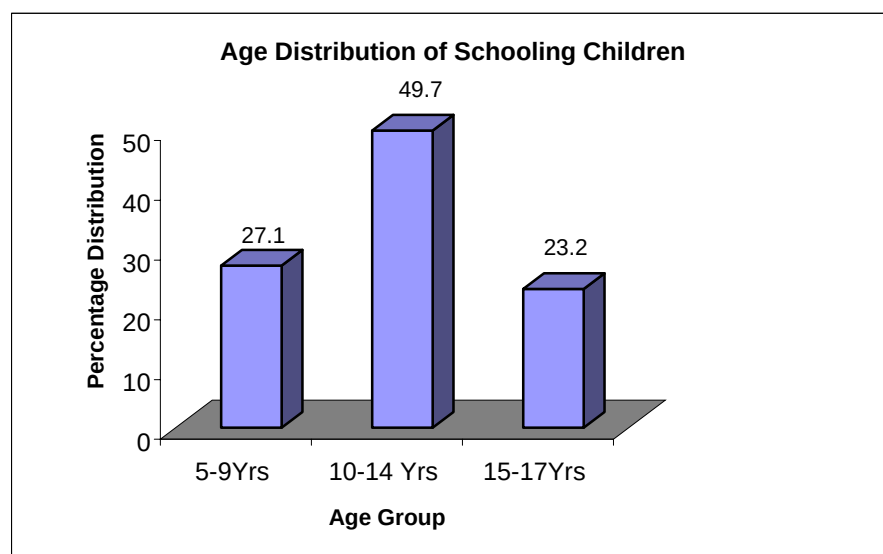
**Table 18: Highest educational level attained by working children**

| Highest level  | At School      | Out of School    | Total            |
|----------------|----------------|------------------|------------------|
| None           | -              | 240,769          | 240,769          |
| Nursery        | 48,948         | 79,254           | 115,376          |
| Primary        | 511,277        | 942,720          | 1,453,997        |
| Secondary      | 23,113         | 36,915           | 60,028           |
| Post Secondary | -              | 668              | 668              |
| Not Stated     | 5,057          | 5,042            | 10,100           |
| <b>TOTAL</b>   | <b>588,395</b> | <b>1,305,368</b> | <b>1,893,763</b> |

*(-) Indicates that there were no reported cases*

#### 4.10 Age Distribution of School Children

A large proportion of the schooling children who were working (49.7 percent) were aged 10-14 years, while those aged 5-9 years constituted about 27.1 percent. About 23.2 percent of these children were aged 15-17 years. See Fig. 4 below.

**Figure 4: Age Distribution of School Children**

*Figure 4 above presents age distribution of the schooling children who worked during the last 12 months*

#### 4.11 Status of Children in Employment

The status in employment was considered only for persons who reported to have worked in the last week. Table 19 below shows that the majority (78.7 percent) of the children worked as unpaid workers in family farms or businesses. About 18.5 percent reported to have worked for pay, while only 1.6 percent was running their own businesses.

**Table 19: Number of children by employment status and actual hours worked in the last survey**

| Employment Status    |                |                |                |                |                |                 |                |                | Total          |
|----------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
|                      | Under 25 Hours | 25-42 Hours    | Over 41 Hours  | Total          | Under 25 Hours | 25-41 Hours     | Over 41 Hours  | Total          |                |
| Paid Employee        | 628            | 757            | 2,972          | 4,357          | 11,559         | 23,171          | 133,126        | 167,856        | 167,856        |
| Self Employed        | 820            | 825            | 543            | 2,188          | 4,415          | 1,064           | 7,319          | 12,798         | 14,986         |
| Unpaid Family Worker | 154,562        | 102,978        | 109,637        | 367,177        | 158,704        | 106,290         | 99,045         | 364,039        | 731,216        |
| Apprentice           | -              | -              | 616            | 616            | 847            | 180             | 1,839          | 2,866          | 3,482          |
| Other                | 737            | -              | -              | 737            | 3,056          | 1,510           | 1,682          | 6,249          | 6,986          |
| <b>TOTAL</b>         | <b>156,747</b> | <b>104,560</b> | <b>113,768</b> | <b>375,075</b> | <b>178,581</b> | <b>1323,215</b> | <b>243,012</b> | <b>553,808</b> | <b>928,883</b> |

(-) Indicates that there were no reported cases

## 4.12 Occupation and Type of Work

About 99.8 percent of children who worked during the last week prior to the survey reported the type of work they were performing. As indicated in Table 3.14 below shows that most of the children were engaged in elementary occupations with 34.0 percent engaged as workers in commercial agriculture, fishery and related areas, 23.6 percent as subsistence agricultural and fishery workers and 17.9 percent engaged as domestic and related helpers, cleaners and launderers. Specialized occupations such as finishing, buildings and related activities and those working as mining operators were the least common occupations for working children.

More girls than boys worked as domestic and related helpers mainly as house girls, personal care and related service workers, and hairdressers. Only older girls aged 15-17 year were engaged as handicrafts workers and food processors. Also, only older boys were working as shop and sale persons, forestry and related workers, building finishers and related workers, transport labourers and freight handlers.

## 4.13 Contributions Children Earnings to Household Income

Table 20 presents the proportion of children's contribution to household income. The figures are derived as the amount of earnings from paid and self-employment passed on to parents by children and the reported household income. A large number of working children did not state the contribution made to their households.

From those who stated their contribution, however, 53.0 percent of the schooling children and 47.0 percent of the children out of school reported to have contributed more than 50 percent of household income. Despite the low response for this question, the substantial contributions given to the parents by the working children (relative to their low earnings) particularly the schooling children, supports the survey finding that most children work to augment household incomes.

**Table 20: Contributions of children's earning to household income**

| % of household income | Schooling | Not schooling | Number of children |
|-----------------------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
|                       |           |               | Total              |
| Under 20              | 1,462     | 48,064        | 49,526             |
| 20-49                 | 2,047     | 46,314        | 48,361             |
| 50-79                 | 288       | 40,271        | 40,559             |
| 80+                   | 3,599     | 43,520        | 47,119             |
| TOTAL                 | 7,396     | 178,169       | 185,565            |
| Not stated            | 367,677   | 377,084       | 744,761            |

#### 4.14 Working Children by Industrial Classification

Looking at the distribution of working children by industrial classification of economic activities. Most of the children who worked in the previous week to the survey were engaged in agricultural activities, whereas 56.8 percent were engaged in mixed crop and livestock farming, and 14.6 percent were growing crop market gardening and engaged in horticulture. Domestic services activity accounted for 10.9 percent of children who were working in private households. Girls constituted over three-quarters of the child workers in other service activities and private households.

On the other hand, boys were the majority in the activities that are traditionally male dominate, such as a fishing and fishing services and logging, quarrying of stones and clay, and building activities. Age, as a factor tended to determine the distribution of working children by economic activities. Whereas employment in the agricultural activities was fairly represented in all the age brackets, older children dominated employment in the more demanding activities. For instance, boys aged 15-17 years wholly dominated employment in forestry, fishing, manufacturing of structural metal product and road transport services. Similarly, among the girls, those aged 15-17 years dominated employment in manufacturing activities and in the hotel accommodation services.

#### 4.15 Hours of Work

The number of working children by actual hours worked during the survey. An estimated 38.5 percent of the working children worked for more than 41 hours in a week while 25.6 percent worked for between 25 and 41 hours in a week. On the other extreme, 36.0 percent worked for less than 25 hours in a week (less than 4 hours in a day), mainly in unpaid work in family farms. Actual hours worked also varied by employment, schooling and industry status. Majority of the children (84.0 percent) worked for more than 41 hours in a week in the private household domestic services. Most of those engaged in fishing and fishing services, mining of stones and clay, and in road transport, worked, for more than 41 hours in a week. By sex, a larger proportion of girls (40.1 percent) compared to boys (36.9 percent) worked for more than 41 hours.

#### 4.16 Working Conditions and Environment

##### (a) Type of work:

The analysis of the number of hours worked by children has shown that children work for long hours. It was also indicated above that a notable proportion of working children were engaged in fishing, mining and quarrying, building and road transport activities. Although these activities absorbed a small proportion of the total number of working children, they stood out as particularly risky occupations for young persons.

**(b) Problems with current jobs:**

Working children reported three major complaints with their current jobs, namely low pay (79.2 percent) tiring or hard work (124.6 percent), and long working hours (2.9 percent).

Table 21 below supports the complaint against long working hours and the complaint against low pay. Thus children are exploited by being both overworked and underpaid in addition to performing work that it physically not meant to be undertaken by young persons. The situation is detrimental to the health and normal growth of children. By any standard, such exploitation constitutes child abuse. As noted below, it is associated with serious risks for children.

**Table 21: Number of working children by type of problem with current job**

| Main Type of Problem     | Schooling      | Out of school  | Total          |
|--------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Low pay                  | 129,631        | 103, 250       | 232,881        |
| Low earnings             | -              | 2,039          | 2,039          |
| Delayed salaries         | -              | 3,082          | 3,082          |
| Poor working environment | 672            | -              | 672            |
| Tiring /hard work        | 20,417         | 22,575         | 42,992         |
| Long Hours               | 5,570          | 3,026          | 8,596          |
| Physical / verbal abuse  | -              | 450            | 450            |
| Too far                  | -              | 553            | 533            |
| Other                    | 698            | 1,930          | 2,628          |
| <b>Total</b>             | <b>156,988</b> | <b>136,905</b> | <b>293,893</b> |

*(-) Indicates that there were no reported cases.*

**(c) Risks and Damages at Work**

Another indicator of working conditions is the kinds of injuries and illness suffered by them in their places of work and the remedial actions taken. Table 22 and table 23 below shows that about 18.9 percent of children who worked during the last week of the survey either fell sick or got injured in their places of work during the 12 months prior to the survey. The main types of ailments were limb injuries and breathing problems. There were however, a large number of other injuries and diseases (74.2 percent) that cannot be individually identified since they were lumped together in the questionnaire. Analysis by occupations show that the greatest number of children who reported injuries or illness were agricultural and fishery workers. It is however hard to tell from the survey results whether all reported illness were entirely work-related.

As shown in Table 4.14 below, employers took 80.6 percent of the sick or injured children to a medical facility either for in-patient or out patient treatment. Nonetheless, there were some instant cases where parents took the injured and the sick children to health facilities (12.8 percent) and few cases where no action was taken for the injured children (1.0 percent).

**Table 22: Number Of Working Children by type of Injuries/Illness and Occupation**

| Occupation (ISO 88)                              | Limb Injury   | Eye/Ear Infection | Skin infection | Back Problem | Breathing Problem | Other          | Not Stated    | Total          |
|--------------------------------------------------|---------------|-------------------|----------------|--------------|-------------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|
| Housekeeping & restaurant service                | -             | -                 | 1,448          | -            | 318               | 2,078          | -             | 3,844          |
| Personal Care & related Services                 | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | -              | -             | -              |
| Other personal services workers                  | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | 930            | 932           | 1,862          |
| Shop & Sales persons & demonstrators             | -             | -                 | -              | -            | 318               | 338            | -             | 656            |
| Stall and market sales persons                   | -             | -                 | -              | -            | 318               | 669            | -             | 987            |
| Market gardeners & Crop growers                  | 474           | -                 | 661            | -            | 597               | 2,088          | -             | 3,820          |
| Market-oriented livestock                        | -             | 338               | -              | -            | 786               | -              | -             | 1,124          |
| Market –oriented crop & livestock growers        | 1,266         | -                 | -              | -            | 4,834             | -              | -             | 6,100          |
| Forestry and related workers                     | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | -              | -             | -              |
| Fishery workers , hunters & trappers.            | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | 1,068          | -             | 1,068          |
| Subsistence agricultural & fishery workers       | 564           | -                 | -              | -            | 553               | 18,561         | 2,102         | 21,780         |
| Building fishers and related workers             | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | -              | -             | -              |
| Miners and stone cutters                         | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | 1,216          | -             | 1,216          |
| Metal moulders, welders etc.                     | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | -              | -             | -              |
| Handcraft workers in wood, textile Leather, etc. | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | 3,821          | -             | 3,821          |
| Food processing & related traders                | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | -              | -             | -              |
| Wood treater, cabinet makers etc.                | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | -              | -             | -              |
| Textile, garments and related workers            | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | -              | -             | -              |
| Mining plant operators                           | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | -              | -             | -              |
| Street Vendor & related workers                  | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | 348            | -             | 348            |
| Shoe cleaning & other street service             | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | 258            | -             | 258            |
| Domestic & related helpers, cleaner & launderers | -             | 426               | 330            | 1,134        | 8,404             | 17,874         | -             | 28,168         |
| Building caretakers, window and related cleaners | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | 1,087          | -             | 1,087          |
| Messenger, potter, doorkeeper et.c.              | -             | -                 | -              | -            | -                 | 321            | -             | 321            |
| Agriculture, fishery and related workers         | 26,963        | -                 | -              | 1,134        | 73,687            | 15,281         | -             | 117,255        |
| Not stated                                       | -             | -                 | -              | -            | 614               | -              | -             | 614            |
| <b>TOTAL</b>                                     | <b>29,267</b> | <b>764</b>        | <b>2,439</b>   | <b>1,134</b> | <b>11,832</b>     | <b>130,578</b> | <b>18,315</b> | <b>194,329</b> |

(-) indicates that there were no reported cases

**Table 23: Number of working children by type of injuries/illness & action taken**

| Type of injury              |              | Action Taken                        |                 |                                      |                  |                  |              | TOTAL   |
|-----------------------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------|--------------------------------------|------------------|------------------|--------------|---------|
|                             | No<br>action | Taken for impatient<br>Treatment by |                 | Taken for outpatient<br>Treatment by |                  |                  |              |         |
|                             |              | Employer                            | Parent<br>/self | Employer                             | Parent<br>/ self | Other<br>actions | No<br>action |         |
| Limb injury                 | 1,251        | -                                   | 1,266           | 26,385                               | 365              | -                | -            | 29,267  |
| Eye /ear infection          | -            | 426                                 | -               | -                                    | 338              | -                | -            | 764     |
| Skin infection              | -            | 1,448                               | -               | -                                    | -                | 991              | -            | 2,439   |
| Back problem                | -            | 909                                 | -               | 225                                  | -                | -                | -            | 1,134   |
| Breathing problem           | -            | 267                                 | -               | 1,222                                | 9,148            | 1,194            | -            | 11,831  |
| Other injuries<br>/diseases | -            | 5,681                               | -               | 104,435                              | 10,236           | 8,530            | -            | 148,894 |
| TOTAL                       | 1,804        | 8,731                               | 2,410           | 13322,267                            | 20,087           | 10,715           | 18,315       | 194,329 |

#### (d) Wages and other benefits from employment

Overall, children were poorly paid, since in most cases their wages fell below the statutory minimum wage of Kshs. 998 per month set for unskilled employees aged below 18 years working in the agricultural sector, under Regulations of Wages Order 1998. The regulations provide for a monthly

minimum wage of Kshs. 1,259 for unskilled agricultural workers aged 18 years and over. As indicated in Table 24 majority of working children (109, 508 pr 63.6 percent were earning less than Kshs. 900 per month.

**Table 24: Distribution of working children by monthly pay**

| Domain       | Monthly pay in Kenya Shillings |               |               |               | Total          |
|--------------|--------------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|
|              | 0-899                          | 900-1499      | 1500-1999     | 2000+         | Total          |
| Boys         | 41,200                         | 18,184        | 5,582         | 5,907         | 70,873         |
| Girls        | 68,308                         | 21,595        | 6,980         | 4,456         | 101,336        |
| Total        | 109,508                        | 39,779        | 12,562        | 10,363        | 172,212        |
| Rural        | 53,745                         | 22,209        | 9,443         | 7,610         | 93,007         |
| Urban        | 55,763                         | 17,570        | 3,119         | 2,753         | 79,205         |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>109,508</b>                 | <b>39,779</b> | <b>12,562</b> | <b>10,363</b> | <b>172,212</b> |

*(-) indicates that there were no reported cases*

#### **4.15 Number of Working Children Provided with Selected Facilities**

Table 25 presents information on facilities provided to working children by their employer. It shows that the most frequently provided/subsidized facilities were meals, accommodation and medical facilities in that order. Training had the lowest frequency of about 2.5 percent of the total facilities provided for non-schooling working children and 2.8 percent for schooling children.

**Table 25: Number of working children provided with selected facilities**

| Facility            | Schooling      | Out-of school    | Total            |
|---------------------|----------------|------------------|------------------|
| Medical             | 185,298        | 329,696          | 514,994          |
| Transport           | 81,151         | 88,569           | 169,720          |
| Accommodation       | 198,943        | 383,685          | 582,628          |
| Meals               | 279,175        | 466,797          | 745,972          |
| Protective Clothing | 41,325         | 147,243          | 188,568          |
| Training            | 24,274         | 38,267           | 62,541           |
| Other               | 71,739         | 49,548           | 121,287          |
| <b>TOTAL</b>        | <b>881,905</b> | <b>1,503,805</b> | <b>2,285,710</b> |

*(-) indicates that there were no reported cases*

#### **4.16 Reasons for Working**

The survey attempted to establish why children work by analyzing responses from parents and working children and also by analyzing income levels of households with working children. About 30.1 percent of the parents with working children reported that they released their schooling children to work in order to help in either the family business or farm. Similarly, 27.5 percent indicated that earnings from their children's work augmented the household income. Only a very small proportion 0.3 percent of the parents reported that they released their children for work because they thought their education or training environment was not suitable, implying that the child schooling in each case was not considered relevant.

Children also gave their reasons for working. The most common reasons given by non-schooling children were the augmentation of household income followed by self-support. More than a third of the schooling children worked in order to help in housekeeping chores. Analysis of reasons for working by hours of work shows that schooling children who worked for less than 25 hours during the reference week were helping in household chores, while out-of school children who worked

longest (for more than 41 hours during that week ) were working to support themselves, see table 26 below.

**Table 26: Number of children giving main reasons for working and actual hours worked in the last week before the survey**

| Main reason<br>For working | Schooling      |                |                |                | Not Schooling  |                |                |                | Total          |
|----------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
|                            | Under 25       | 25-41          | Over 41        | Total          | Under 25       | 25-41          | Over 41        | Total          |                |
| Augment h/hold income      | 33,006         | 17,997         | 10,579         | 61,582         | 53,288         | 43,114         | 54,371         | 150,774        | 212,356        |
| Assist in family           |                |                |                |                |                |                |                |                |                |
| Enterprises                | 7,211          | 3,878          | 5,331          | 16,419         | 14,828         | 6,508          | 18,481         | 39,817         | 56,236         |
| Help in house              |                |                |                |                |                |                |                |                |                |
| Keeping chores             | 52,952         | 25,788         | 47,720         | 126,460        | 35,337         | 29,558         | 37,752         | 102,646        | 229,106        |
| Suggestion from parents    | 4,000          | 10,052         | 25,286         | 39,338         | 22,922         | 8,807          | 54,671         | 86,399         | 125,737        |
| Support self               | 37,667         | 21,363         | 11,880         | 70,911         | 36,913         | 33,542         | 65,060         | 135,514        | 206,425        |
| Copying age mates          | -              | -              | -              | -              | 2,479          | -              | 701            | 3,180          | 3,180          |
| Other                      | 21,314         | 24,180         | 1,326          | 46,821         | 11,844         | 9,588          | 8,355          | 29,787         | 76,608         |
| Not stated                 | 595            | 1,301          | 11,646         | 13,542         | 971            | 1,098          | 3,622          | 5,690          | 19,232         |
| <b>TOTAL</b>               | <b>156,746</b> | <b>104,559</b> | <b>113,768</b> | <b>375,073</b> | <b>178,581</b> | <b>132,215</b> | <b>243,011</b> | <b>553,808</b> | <b>928,881</b> |

#### 4.17 Distribution of Working Children by Monthly Household Income

Table 27 below presents the number of working children whose parents reported their monthly household incomes. Although the sample was very small, the results generally indicate the household income level had a bearing on child labour since the majority of the working children (57.9 percent) came from families with low incomes, i.e. household with monthly incomes below Kshs. 6,001. This was true of working children who were schooling (56.7 percent) and out-of-school working children (58.4 percent). This implies that poverty was a major cause of child labour. Overall, 21.3 percent of the working children were from very poor households, each with a monthly income of less than Kshs. 2,001.

**Table 27: Working Children whose parents reported their monthly household incomes**

| Income (Kshs.) | Schooling  | Out- of – school | Total        |
|----------------|------------|------------------|--------------|
| 0 - 2000       | 112        | 292              | 404          |
| 2001 - 4000    | 116        | 263              | 379          |
| 4001 - 6000    | 106        | 207              | 313          |
| 6001 - 8000    | 85         | 145              | 230          |
| 8001 - 10000   | 49         | 107              | 156          |
| 10001 - 15000  | 66         | 102              | 168          |
| 15001 - 20000  | 17         | 79               | 96           |
| 20001 - 25000  | 15         | 48               | 63           |
| 25001 - 30000  | 2          | 18               | 20           |
| 30001 - 35000  | 6          | 12               | 18           |
| 35001 - 40000  | 1          | 7                | 8            |
| 40001 - 45000  | 0          | 5                | 5            |
| 45001 - 50000  | 4          | 5                | 9            |
| 50001 +        | 10         | 15               | 25           |
| <b>TOTAL</b>   | <b>589</b> | <b>1,305</b>     | <b>1,894</b> |

## 4.18 Worst Forms of Child Labour

The 87<sup>th</sup> Annual ILO Conference adopted the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention of 1999. The new Convention applies to all persons under the age of 18. This age limit is pegged to the ILO's Minimum Age Convention of 1973 (No. 138) that remains the bedrock of National and International Action for the eventual total abolition of child labour, and which had been ratified by 74 states as of 1999. It is yet to be ratified by many member states, a process, which involves the translation of the Convention into national law and practice.

The new Convention defines worst forms of Child labour as: all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery such as sale and trafficking of children for use in armed conflict; Use of child for prostitution, production of pornographic or pornographic performances;

Use, procuring or offering of child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs; and work which is likely to harm the health safety or morals of children.

An accompanying recommendation of the convention defines hazardous that as work which exposes children to physical, psychological or sexual abuse; work underground, underwater, at dangerous heights, or in conflict spaces; work with dangerous machinery or tools, or which involves heavy loads; work in an unhealthy environment which may expose children to hazardous substances, temperature, noise or vibration and work under particularly difficult conditions such as long working hours, during the night, or where a child is confined to the premises of the employer. In Kenya, the Ministry of labour and Human Resource Development prevents and controls worst forms of child labour by enforcing subsidiary legislation under section 55 (1998) of the Factories and other places of Work Act (Chap. 514 of the Laws of Kenya). In particular the rules prohibit hazardous child labour /work by stating that:

**“No child shall enter into a contract of employment, hired or voluntary work in occupations which present hazard(s) or are detrimental to the child’s safety, health or morals.**

The regulations also require an employer to compensate the working child for any work related diseases as specified in schedule 8 of the rules. They make it mandatory for the employer to provide suitable protective devices, including clothing, shields, etc provide for the immediate removal of a child found to be engaged in a hazardous occupation, where the hazards therein pose eminent danger, and impose penalties to employers who fail to comply.

In enforcing these rules, inspection officials from the ministry have found some children working in hazardous situations characterized by:

- ◆ Harsh environments in sisal, coffee and tea estates, horticulture farms where they were exposed to toxic substances; fishing grounds where they are exposed to malaria and waterborne diseases
- ◆ Lack of protective clothing in sisal estates, manufacturing and mining quarrying activities within the informal (or jua Kali )sector; and in the salt mining firms
- ◆ Children being a source of cheap labour in all sectors they were found, and
- ◆ Carriage of heavy loads in sisal estates, sand harvesting, stone cutting, salt harvesting and horticulture.

## 4.19 Child Labour Intervention Programmes in Kenya

The Government of Kenya has put in place several legal provisions governing the employment of children. In addition it has put in place a draft Sessional Paper on Child Labour in Kenya which addresses various perspectives of this problem and need to mainstream concrete intervention programmes

At the same time, there are other development partners that are involved in Child Labour intervention programmes including advocacy, awareness creation, capacity building, education, training, income generating activities, welfare services and protection of children from abuse among others.

These programmes are supported by ILO/IPEC programmes in Kenya since inception IPEC programmes in 1992, since then 67 action programmes and several mini-programmes have been implemented by 22 organizations with IPEC support. These programmes started with a focus on Child Labour in commercial, agricultural, domestic services, cross-border trade, the urban informal sector (Street children) quarries and mines, fishing, construction, hotel and tourism industries and commercial sex exploitation of children, child domestic workers and commercial agriculture.

The ILO/IPEC programmes in conjunction with the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development, have demonstrated excellence in the process of formulating policies on the Child Labour problem in Kenya. The activities of the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource development, ILO/IPEC, NGOs and other stakeholders in the country, have improved the knowledge and awareness of the Child Labour problem.

ILO/IPEC programme in Kenya is already supporting some of the following activities with a view to eliminating worst forms of Child Labour.

- ◆ Capacity building and improvement of data collection in the children service department in the Ministry of Home Affairs, Heritage and Culture.
- ◆ Undugu Society of Kenya (TVET) Training Institution
- ◆ African Network for the Prevention and Protection Against Child Abuse and Neglect (ANPPCAN)
- ◆ Sinaga Women and Child Labour Centre has involved girls centre employers of domestic child workers, with the to protect child domestic workers by establishing contacts with their employers
- ◆ Child Welfare Society of Kenya (CWK) – Peace House for girls who have ran away from their homes
- ◆ Pandpieri Street Children Programme in Kisumu (NFE TVET Centre) and Solidary with Women in Distress (SOLWODI) in Mombasa
- ◆ Laws relating to children have been reviewed and children's Act promulgated
- ◆ A Task force in the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development has been established to review labour laws that affect children.

Kenya ratified the convention of the Rights of the child in 1990 and the ILO convention of 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour in June 2001

Kenya has also ratified the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child.

The National Policy Paper on Child Labour is awaiting presentation to the cabinet. The ministry of Labour has established Child Labour unit to facilitate the process of mainstreaming Child Labour into

government programmes and operations. IPEC has also supported Central Bureau of Statistics to collect data on Child Labour in the country.

It is hoped that ILO/IPEC will accept to support TVET skills training strategies to combat worst forms of child labour, as a project proposal arising out of this study.

# CHAPTER 5 - PRIMARY SCHOOL EDUCATION

## 5.1 Introduction

In 1985 Kenya implemented a new education system with 8 years of Primary education, 4 years of Secondary Education and 4 years of general university education. The 8 years of primary education were planned to be terminal for the majority of school leavers.

The provision of educational opportunities to all Kenyans has been a standing objective of the Government since independence in 1963. Education is considered by different stakeholders in the country as an important vehicle for self-development, Socio- economic and political development. It has also become clear that when educational opportunities are opened to girls and women, such benefits are even greater.

From this perspective, Kenya has a fundamental goal for her education. That goal is to prepare and equip the youth to be happy and useful members of Kenyan society. To be happy they must actively work towards the maintenance and development of this society.

Education has therefore been seen as a fundamental strategy for human capital development and a crucial vehicle for enhancing the quality of life. Government, households, communities, donors, and private investors have striven to enhance such investments in line with the philosophy spelt out in Sessional Paper No: 10 on African Socialism and its Application to Planning in Kenya (GOK, 1965).

The participation of Kenya in the UNESCO Jomtien World Conference of Education For All in 1990 and its subsequent endorsements, re-enforced the commitment of the Government has to the provision of education to all citizens.

Although there has been considerable investment and expansion of educational opportunities in the country, the following issues have emerged as major challenges to the achievement of quality education for all children of school going age:-

- a) The rising cost of education to the poor and how to finance the sector so as to expand educational opportunities to all eligible children
- b) Mismatch between formal education learning and job opportunities in the labour market
- c) Inefficiency in the school system, including high wastage, due to high drop-outs of children, repetition and decline in the quality of education
- d) Impact of increased poverty on the education sector
- e) Impact of HIV/AIDS on education sector, and
- f) How to make education cope with liberalization, globalization in general and technological advancement in particular

## 5.2 School Enrolment and Educational Attainment

On school enrolment and educational attainment, table 5.1 presents data on school enrolment by level and sex. The table below shows that there were about 8.1 million students in institutions of formal learning in 1999. Out of this student population, 6.3 million and 0.9 million were in primary and secondary schools, respectively. At the same time 768,000 children were in nursery schools while 47,000 students were in the Universities. Gross enrolment ratio for primary school level was 30.7 percent. The sex ratio was computed by use of primary and secondary school enrolments as proportion of the populations expected to be attending the respective school level. In addition, analysis of students sex ration shows that the girl child is disadvantaged in accessing formal education,

where the ratio of males to females increases with level of education from 1.08 in primary school to 1.20 in secondary schools and 1.42 for university students.

**Table 28: School Enrolment by levels and Sex**

| <b>Educational Level</b> | <b>Male</b>      | <b>Female</b>    | <b>Total</b>     |
|--------------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Nursery                  | 406,757          | 381,194          | 787,951          |
| Primary                  | 3,276,566        | 3,029,410        | 6,305,976        |
| Population (6-13)*       | 3,671,528        | 3,403,607        | 7,075,135        |
| Enrolment Ratio (%)      | 89.2             | 89.0             | 89.1             |
| Secondary                | 517,474          | 429,937          | 947,411          |
| Population (14-17)*      | 1,561,397        | 1,523,344        | 3,084,741        |
| Enrolment Ratio (%)      | 33.1             | 28.2             | 30.7             |
| University               | 27,552           | 19,413           | 26,965           |
| Level Not Stated         | 26,219           | 48,181           | 74,400           |
| <b>Total</b>             | <b>4,254,568</b> | <b>3,9-8,135</b> | <b>8,162,703</b> |

*Source GOK Economics Survey 1999*

### 5.3 Primary School Education

Table 29 shows gross enrolment of Primary schools gross enrolment rates between 1998 and 2000. The gross enrolment was dropping in both Primary and Secondary schools.

#### a) Gross Enrolment in Primary Schools

**Table 29: Gross Enrolment in Primary Schools**

|              | <b>1998</b>  | <b>1999</b>  | <b>2000</b>  |
|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| <b>Boys</b>  | 89.3%        | 88.2%        | 88.1%        |
| <b>Girls</b> | 88.2%        | 85.6%        | 87.1%        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>88.8%</b> | <b>86.9%</b> | <b>87.6%</b> |

#### (b) Secondary Schools Gross Enrolment Rates

Table 30 below shows gross enrolment in secondary schools rates, which tended to remain constant despite continued increase in population rates.

**Table 30: Gross Enrolment in Primary Schools**

|               | <b>1998</b>  | <b>1999</b>  | <b>2000</b>  |
|---------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| <b>Male</b>   | 24.6%        | 22.5%        | 23.5%        |
| <b>Female</b> | 21.7%        | 20.5%        | 20.9%        |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>23.2%</b> | <b>21.5%</b> | <b>22.2%</b> |

## 5.4 School Gross Admission Completion Drop Out and Transition Rates

### (a) Primary Schools Gross Admission Rates

Table 31: Primary Schools Gross Admission Rates

|              | 1998   | 1999   | 2000   |
|--------------|--------|--------|--------|
| <b>Boys</b>  | 115.9% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| <b>Girls</b> | 110.4% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| <b>Total</b> | 113.2% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

### (b) Primary Schools Completion Rates

Table 32: Primary Schools Completion Rates

|              | 1998  | 1999  | 2000  |
|--------------|-------|-------|-------|
| <b>Boys</b>  | 46.4% | 47.7% | 48.3% |
| <b>Girls</b> | 48.1% | 47.8% | 49.5% |
| <b>Total</b> | 47.2% | 47.7% | 48.9% |

### (c) Secondary Schools Completion Rates

Table 33: Secondary Schools Completion Rates

|               | 1998  | 1999  |
|---------------|-------|-------|
| <b>Male</b>   | 80.0% | 80.9% |
| <b>Female</b> | 77.7% | 76.8% |
| <b>Total</b>  | 79.0% | 79.0% |

### (d) Primary Schools Drop-out Rates

Table 34: Primary Schools Drop-out Rates

|              | 1998 | 1999 |
|--------------|------|------|
| <b>Boys</b>  | 5.5% | 5.0% |
| <b>Girls</b> | 5.3% | 4.8% |
| <b>Total</b> | 5.4% | 4.9% |

### (e) Secondary School Drop Out Rates

Table 35: Secondary School Drop Out Rates

|              | 1998 | 1999 |
|--------------|------|------|
| <b>Boys</b>  | 3.3% | 4.6% |
| <b>Girls</b> | 3.5% | 5.1% |
| <b>Total</b> | 3.4% | 4.8% |

**(f) Primary School Transition to Secondary School Rates**

**Table 36: Primary School Transition to Secondary School Rates**

|       | 1998  | 1999  | 1999  |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Boys  | 40.5% | 45.6% | 40.9% |
| Girls | 39.1% | 44.3% | 39.2% |
| Total | 39.9% | 45.0% | 40.1% |

**g) Transition rate from Secondary to University**

**Table 37: Transition rate from Secondary to University**

| 1998 | 1999 | 2000 |
|------|------|------|
| 7%   | 7%   | 7%   |

## **5.5 Free Universal Primary Education in Kenya**

The government of Kenya is a signatory to the recommendations of the Jomtien World Conference on Education for all (1990) and the World Forum in Dakar (2000) towards achievement of Universal Primary Education.

The children (Act 2001) also recognized that education is a basic human right that every Child must enjoy and therefore has to be protected. To this end the government has from January 2003 abolished levies and extra tuition met by parents and implemented a free universal primary education programme in public schools in order to guarantee increased access to education services countrywide. During the current financial year, therefore, the government at a cost of Kshs 3.6 billion and DFID at a cost of 1.2 billion have planned to meet the basic cost of teaching and learning materials, wages of critical non-teaching staff and co- curriculum activities at a cost of Kshs 647 for each pupil.

Each Child with disabilities in Special Schools is allocated Kshs. 2000. Also World Bank has committed to disburse grants during the year 2003, totalling Kshs 3.8billion in support of the teaching and learning materials in public primary schools. Parents and communities, on the other hand are expected to meet the cost of the pupils clothing, food and health care.

The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology has also provided guidelines on the participatory roles in primary development for government, parents teachers, communities, political leaders, private sector and the development partners.

Successful implementation of Free Universal Primary Education (FUPE) calls for total commitment of all stakeholder i.e. Government officials, teachers, students, school committees, NGOs, development partners and well wishers. The programme aims at providing teaching/learning materials to all public primary schools in rural, urban and ASAL areas. The statistics on primary education in Kenya as at the end of the year 2002 were as follows:

|                                    |   |             |
|------------------------------------|---|-------------|
| Pupil enrolment                    | - | 5,874,255   |
| Public primary schools             | - | 17,754      |
| Classes                            | - | 196,935     |
| Total no of children out of school | - | 1.5 million |
| Number of teachers                 | - | 172,406     |

*Source: Moest 2003*

Following the pronouncement of Free Primary Education there has been increased enrolment of children into public primary schools to 7.2 million. There is therefore need for additional teaching/ learning materials to facilitate implementation of Free Primary Education.

## **5.6 The Impact of HIV/AIDS on School Children**

By 2001, it was estimated that between 100,000 to 200,000 children under the age 5 years were infected with the HIV/AIDS. Also, over 1.2 million children had already been orphaned by the HIV/AIDS.

Recent estimates also indicate that the numbers of infected and affected children were growing rapidly both in rural and urban Kenya. Problems of the affected children include lack of basic needs like food, shelter and clothing, lack of medical care, social discrimination and lack of parental care because in most cases, their parents have died.

## **5.7 The Primary School Curriculum**

The existing school curriculum was launched in 1985. The introduction of many practical and pre-vocational subjects was meant to prepare students for the world of work. Though well intended the broad curriculum provided was less effective because of the many subjects, textbooks and levies involved. Most schools lacked basic requirements such as teaching and learning materials, tuition equipment and physical facilities. Teachers especially for the practical and pre-vocational subjects were also inadequate, in addition, there was evidence that the wider curriculum provided did not allow for the master of the content. Psychomotor skills were given less emphasis as teachers concentrated on examinable subjects only. The formative evaluation carried out in 1990 revealed that; the curriculum was very broad, there was an unnecessary overlap across subjects and levels, the programme was overburdening parents in the provision of facilities, equipment and materials needed for its implementation. Teachers were not adequately prepared to handle practical subjects.

## **5.8 The Children's Act 2001**

The Government passed childrens' Act in 2001 which says;-

- a) Every child shall be entitled to education, the provision of which shall be the responsibility of the government and the parents.
- b) Every child shall be entitled to free basic education, which shall be compulsory in accordance with Article 28 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.

## **5.9 Quality Assurance and Control**

To avoid compromising quality as a result of the influx of pupils under Free Primary Education, special measures are being taken to ensure quality assurance. The measures will be taken at all levels,

including schools, teachers' advisory centres, audit department, inspectorate and educational management services.

## 5.10 Access to Primary School Education

Education should inculcate in the children, youth and adults, the skills necessary for life, high moral values and a sense of national belonging. It is therefore imperative that every effort is made to increase access at all levels. The major issues and challenges constraining access revolve around low enrolment, retention, transition, completion, drop-out, repetition, and non enrolment of many children at every level of the education system.

## 5.11 Issues and Challenges of the Education Sector

### (a) Low Enrolment in the School System.

The GER declined over the last 10 years, from 35.4% to 33.4% at pre-primary; 101.8% to 87.1% at primary; and 29.4% to 21.7% at secondary. To illustrate the severity of the problem of low enrolment of, out of a population of 10.0 million children between ages 6-13, only 8 million were enrolled in primary schools in 1999. This implies that 2.0 million eligible children were out of school.

Table 5.11 below gives the GER trends at pre-school, primary and secondary education from 1990 to 1999.

### 5.11: Gross Enrolment Rates at Pre-Primary, Primary and Secondary Level

**Table 38: Gross Enrolment Rates at Pre-Primary, Primary and Secondary Level**

| Year | Pre-Primary |      |       | Primary |       |       | Secondary |      |       |
|------|-------------|------|-------|---------|-------|-------|-----------|------|-------|
|      | Girls       | Boys | Total | Girls   | Boys  | Total | Girls     | Boys | Total |
| 1990 | 35.0        | 35.8 | 35.4  | 99.6    | 104.0 | 101.8 | 25.2      | 33.6 | 29.4  |
| 1991 | 34.7        | 35.3 | 35.0  | 89.5    | 93.4  | 91.4  | 23.2      | 29.9 | 26.6  |
| 1992 | 33.4        | 34.0 | 33.7  | 90.0    | 92.0  | 91.5  | 22.6      | 28.9 | 25.8  |
| 1993 | 34.5        | 35.5 | 35.2  | 86.7    | 88.9  | 87.8  | 18.4      | 22.9 | 20.6  |
| 1994 | 34.8        | 35.4 | 35.1  | 87.8    | 89.1  | 88.5  | 21.0      | 24.8 | 22.9  |
| 1995 | 34.8        | 35.8 | 35.3  | 86.3    | 87.4  | 86.8  | 20.5      | 24.0 | 22.2  |
| 1996 | 35.3        | 36.1 | 35.7  | 85.5    | 87.3  | 86.4  | 21.1      | 24.2 | 22.7  |
| 1997 | 35.5        | 35.7 | 35.6  | 86.6    | 88.7  | 87.7  | 21.9      | 24.5 | 23.2  |
| 1998 | 34.3        | 35.4 | 34.9  | 88.2    | 89.3  | 88.8  | 21.7      | 24.6 | 23.2  |
| 1999 | 33.1        | 33.7 | 33.4  | 85.6    | 88.2  | 87.1  | 21.6      | 21.8 | 21.7  |

*Source: MOES & T Education Statistics. 2002*

### (b) Poor Completion and Retention Rates in the Schools

Completion rates at primary school level have ranged between 44.1% and 47.7% over the last decade.

Retention at primary school level has been less than 50% over the years; and internal wastages could even be higher if repetitions are considered.

Completion rates at secondary level have fluctuated between 86.4% in 1990 to 76.6% in 1999, reaching a peak of 95.4% in 1996. Nevertheless, the high retention rates reflected at this level are concealing the actual wastage inherent in the system

### (c) Low Transitional Rates

Transition rates from primary to secondary have been below 50% ranging from 38.4% to 46% over the last decade.

The capacity of secondary schools has remained quite low, for example in 1999, only 173,909 students were admitted in form one, out of 454, 000 candidates.

- ◆ Transition rates from secondary to tertiary institutions have remained at 12%.
- ◆ Transition rates from secondary to university have been 7% on average.
- ◆ Low participation rates in adult education (4%).
- ◆ There is a declining enrolment growth rate of 27.4% in Adult Literacy over the last 10 years.

Table 5.12 below illustrates the extent of wastage or school drop-outs by a cohort of primary pupils followed from 1987 up to the time of graduating out of the system, in 2000.

Very few of them continue with their education up to university level. The rest drop at different levels and join employment sector

### (d) Survival Levels of Pupils by Cohort from Primary School to University Level (wastages in School drop-outs)

**Table 39: wastages in School drop-outs**

| Level                                                            | Boys    | Girls   | Total   | % Girls |
|------------------------------------------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Enrolment in STD 1, 1987                                         | 476,000 | 442,300 | 918,300 | 48.2    |
| Enrolment in STD 8, 1994                                         | 212,500 | 190,300 | 402,800 | 47.2    |
| Enrolment in Form 1, 1995                                        | 96,400  | 83,600  | 180,000 | 46.4    |
| Enrolment in Form 4, 1998                                        | 82,600  | 69,500  | 152,100 | 45.7    |
| Expected Enrolment in 1 <sup>st</sup> Year-University, 1999-2000 | 7,453   | 3,194   | 10,647  | 30.0    |
| Survival (completion) rate from STD 1 to STD 8                   | 44.6    | 43.0    | 43.9    | -       |
| Survival (Transition) rate from STD 8 to Form 1                  | 45.4    | 43.9    | 44.7    | -       |
| Survival rate from STD 1 to secondary STD Level (Form 1)         | 20.3    | 18.9    | 19.6    | -       |
| Survival (Completion) rate from Form 1 to Form 4                 | 85.7    | 83.1    | 84.5    | -       |
| Survival rate from STD 1 to Form 4                               | 17.4    | 15.7    | 16.6    | -       |
| Survival rate from STD 1 to University Level.                    | 1.6     | 0.7     | 1.2     | -       |

*Source: MOES & T Statistics*

School going age is 3-5 for Pre-primary; 6-13 for Primary and 14-17 for Secondary children in Kenya

## **5.12 Push-out Factors for Child Dropouts Leading to Child Labour**

### **(a) Rigidity of the Curriculum in School System**

- ◆ Rigidity of the system and a curriculum that discourages access
- ◆ Curriculum not adequately adaptable to the demands and requirements of the local social –cultural and economic environment.
- ◆ Unclear policy on credit transfer and equivalences at tertiary and university levels.
- ◆ Inadequate institutional mechanism for effective review and evaluation of curriculum.
- ◆ Unclear policy on equivalences and re-entry between formal and non formal education
- ◆ No planned progression of the gifted child.

### **(b) Effects of Poverty on Education System**

- ◆ Poor child health and nutrition status.
- ◆ Lack of adequate school feeding programmes.
- ◆ Infected and affected HIV/AIDS children
- ◆ Inadequate nutritional intake
- ◆ Malnourished and sick children from poor households
- ◆ Parasitic infestation in children
- ◆ Drug/substance abuse in schools.

### **(c) Unfriendly Learning Environment**

- ◆ A Learning Environment that is not congenial
- ◆ Unhealthy and un conducive institutional environment.
- ◆ Lack of sanitation and health practices impact's negatively on the girl child.
- ◆ Gender insensitivity of teachers and the system
- ◆ Teacher attitudes and discipline to some children
- ◆ Unfriendly, unhygienic, congested and crime-prone insecure environment around some schools.

### **(d) Parents Who Do Not Value Education**

- ◆ Illiteracy and lack of awareness among parents to the value of education
- ◆ Inadequate adult education teachers to utilize existing facilities, to provide adult literacy education

## **5.13 Government Policies to Improve Children's is Education**

- ◆ Provision of Early Childhood Education (ECE) to achieve a GER of 50% by 2005.
- ◆ Attain Universal Primary Education (UPE) for ages 6-13 by 2005 by making education free and compulsory through appropriate legislation.
- ◆ Ensure Education for all (EFA) policy by providing basic education including functional literacy, innumeracy, and survival/ life skills to all children, youth and adults by 2015

- ◆ Ensure a transition rate of 70% from primary to secondary by 2010 and to 100% by 2020
- ◆ Attain a transition rate from secondary to tertiary and university education and training of 35% by 2010, and to 50% by 2020
- ◆ Attain adult literacy rate of 80% by 2010

#### **5.14 Strategies for Improvement of the School System**

- ◆ To reduce costs of providing education services;
- ◆ Review and rationalize the curriculum at all levels to reduce the load and the amount of education materials required
- ◆ To review and institute measures to reduce the cost of education materials
- ◆ To review and rationalize burdensome charges and levies to households.
- ◆ To review curriculum to facilitate a continuum between basic adult education and all other levels.

#### **5.15 Improvement of Efficiency in Education to Maximize the Use of Existing Education Facilities and Services**

- ◆ To encourage day education at all levels.
- ◆ To provide incentives for private education developers to invest more education and encourage individuals and industry to invest in education.
- ◆ To initiate and strengthen nutritional and health programs for learners.
- ◆ To adopt flexible and multiple delivery programs
- ◆ To introduce flexibility in program entry, duration and certification.
- ◆ To provide broad skill based programmes.
- ◆ To enhance affirmative action for all disadvantaged groups.

#### **5.16 Priority Interventions**

##### **(a) Primary Education**

- ◆ Supply of textbooks and educational materials
- ◆ Target provision of extra/ specialized facilities
- ◆ Invest double shift, multi-grade and use of facilities other than classroom (churches, temples, synagogues, social halls etc.)
- ◆ Provide bursaries for destitute children and orphans
- ◆ Improve school environment to attract and retain children in schools

##### **(b) Secondary Education.**

- ◆ Establish day secondary schools by de-emphasizing boarding facilities except in special areas.
- ◆ Expand existing secondary schools by adding streams up to a minimum of three streams per school.
- ◆ Improve the quality of school facilities.

### **(c) Tertiary and University Education and Training (TVET)**

- ◆ Improve facilities and equipment, including information Technology.
- ◆ De- emphasize boarding and expand day education facilities.
- ◆ Provide scholarships/loans/bursaries to the needy children
- ◆ Invest in open learning distance education and virtual education programmes

### **5.17 Non- Formal Primary Education and Training (NFE Centres)**

- ◆ Provide teachers and learning materials
- ◆ Train existing teachers
- ◆ Provide financial support

### **5.18 Equity in Primary Education**

The overall goal is to ensure equitability in education facilities and resources across the country. In this regard, appropriate strategies should be adopted and employed to address regional and national disparities where they exist.

### **5.19 Quality and Relevance of Primary Education**

Among the key variables that impart on quality of education are the type of the instructional materials and equipment, physical facilities, the teaching force, assessment, the content to be covered, teaching strategies and the order of instruction, that is, when various subjects are presented. All these comprise a good curriculum and examinations. The overall objective is therefore to improve on all the above variables at all levels.

### **5.20 Issues and Challenges of the Education Systems**

The following issues explain the deterioration of quality in the Kenyan education system.

#### **a) School Curriculum**

The primary, secondary and teacher education curriculum is wide and reduces the time for core subjects and the development of core skills and competencies. Tertiary and university education and training curriculum does not adequately respond to national human resource needs and demands in a changing world. Adult Education curriculum and materials do not respond to needs of participants.

#### **(b) Teacher Development and Utilization**

Some of the teacher trainees lack commitment and appropriate entry qualifications; and have low level subject mastery and inadequate subject content exposure. Some of the teacher trainers may not always have the pedagogical training skills.

There is inadequate in-servicing of teachers. In a sample survey carried out in 1998, only 39% and 38% of lower primary school and upper primary teachers had attended an in-service course of some kind. Unavailability of teachers in schools in certain periods, instructional leadership and/management of teachers at school level is inadequate. Adult education teachers inadequately trained in adult education methodology.

### **(c) School Environment**

Unhealthy and un-conducive institutional environment, including lack of sanitation and health practices impact negatively on the quality of education.

- ◆ Quality control and assurance is lacking
- ◆ Inadequate mechanisms for quality control and assurance, monitoring
- ◆ Constrained performance of inspectorate functions.

### **5.21 Causes for Deterioration of Education System**

The following factors lead to the deterioration in education quality:-

- ◆ Inadequate preparation, development, supervision and support of teachers to cope with changes in education, training and information Technology.
- ◆ Un-availability of adequate teaching/learning resources.
- ◆ Inadequate mechanisms for assessing learning achievement and feedback.
- ◆ Limited professional commitment to quality teaching by some teachers and trainers.
- ◆ Inadequate qualified teachers in Sciences, Mathematics and Information Technology.
- ◆ Limited number of public libraries.
- ◆ Low teacher morale and motivation.

Issues of the relevance of education in Kenya relate to how education addresses national objectives, responds to the national philosophy, and the world of work (attitudes, morals, ethics, values and skills), and environment others include:-

- ◆ Mismatch between knowledge and skills acquired with the requirements for survival and the place of work (either self employment or formal employment).
- ◆ Limited surveys and research to determine relevance and application of skills acquired by employers.
- ◆ Not addressing national policy objectives and aspirations for technological and industrial take-off.
- ◆ Does not emphasize areas of comparative advantage.
- ◆ Limited holistic approach to child development.
- ◆ Emphasis on cognitive domain/certification at the expense of affective domain in child development.
- ◆ Inadequate facilities, equipment and technology to cope with contemporary demands.
- ◆ Inability of the curriculum to adequately respond to shifting socio-cultural and economic environment, global trends and areas of comparative advantage.
- ◆ Non-existence of a national skills inventory and manpower requirements.

### **5.22 Education for the Disabled Children**

A number of special education institutions have been established in Kenya for the mentally, visually and physically handicapped and hearing-impaired children, including primary and secondary schools and Post-School Vocational Rehabilitation Centres (Table 50). The integration of handicapped children within regular schools has also increased their educational opportunities.

The Government has reintegrated its commitment to special education by:

- ◆ Articulating its policy on education of the disabled is early as 1968;
- ◆ Establishing Vocational Rehabilitation Training Centres in the early 1970s under the Ministry of Culture and Social Services;
- ◆ Creating a special Education Unit within the Schools Inspectorate of the Ministry of Education in 1977;
- ◆ Creating a Special Education Curriculum Division within the Kenya Institute of Education in 1997;
- ◆ Establishing an Educational Assessment Resource Centre (EARC) in the Ministry of Education, in 1984 with the assistance of DANIDA; and
- ◆ Establishing the Kenya Institute of Special Education to train teachers for special education institutions in 1986.

### 5.1.22: Enrolment in Vocational Rehabilitation Centres for Disabled Children

The table 5.13 above shows the enrolment of the disabled children in special schools and vocational rehabilitation centres in the ministry of culture and social services.

**Table 40: Enrolment in Rehabilitation Centres.**

|                                         | No.       | Enrolment    | Teachers Trained | Untrained Teachers |
|-----------------------------------------|-----------|--------------|------------------|--------------------|
| <b>Mentally Handicapped</b>             |           |              |                  |                    |
| a) Special schools                      | 31        | 2071         | -                | 124                |
| b) Units (classes within normal school) | 231       | 2,727        | -                | 186                |
| c) Integrated programmes                | 43        | 290          | -                | -                  |
| d) Small homes                          | 8         | 116          | -                | -                  |
| <b>Physical Handicapped</b>             |           |              |                  |                    |
| a) Special schools                      | 13        | 1,221        | -                | 81                 |
| b) Special units                        | 9         | 88           | -                | 3                  |
| c) Integrated programmes                | 57        | 833          | -                | -                  |
| d) Small homes                          | 64        | 1,325        | -                | -                  |
| e)                                      |           |              |                  |                    |
| <b>Visually Impaired</b>                |           |              |                  |                    |
| a) Special schools                      | 11        | 1,345        | 77               | 107                |
| b) Special units                        | -         | -            | -                | -                  |
| c) Integrated programmes                | 63        | 439*25       | 25               | -                  |
| d) Small homes                          | 4         | 40           | -                | -                  |
| <b>Hearing Impaired</b>                 |           |              |                  |                    |
| a) Special schools                      | 225       | 2,231        | -                | 107                |
| b) Special units                        | 20        | 179          | -                | -                  |
| c) Small homes 2(mixed)                 | 6         | 365          | -                | -                  |
| <b>Totals (Gross)</b>                   | <b>88</b> | <b>2,966</b> | <b>223</b>       | <b>128</b>         |

*Source: MOE, 1997*

Despite these enabling steps, however, there are challenges still impeding the participation of disabled in education. There is an urgent need for relevant teaching materials, specialized equipment and qualified personnel. A recent study estimated that the rate of enrolment in special schools programmes is only 6 per cent of the total eligible school-going population (Karuga et.al. 1996). Disabled children in need of special education as spelt out in CRC Article 23.3 to date, a total of 90,000 children have been identified through assessment as needing special education services. In

addition to the present number of Assessment Centres, there are six EARC workshops located at the provincial headquarters for producing teaching and training materials.

## 5.24 Non – Formal Primary Education (NFE) Education System in Kenya

Education in Kenya has expanded rapidly since independence. In spite of this, the goal of Universal Literacy has not been achieved because of poverty, cost –sharing bottlenecks and a rapid population growth rate which has outstripped that of educational facilities and resources. These factors have either militated against total enrolment in primary schools or have contributed to high early drop out rates. For instance, between 1991-1993 the gross enrolment rate in primary education was 95% but declined to 79.2% by 1996. In 1997, the completion rate for primary education had been pegged at 47%. This is a clear manifestation for an increasing population of out of school children, which has amplified the country's problem of unemployment and child labour issues.

## 5.25 Reasons for Children Dropping out of Schools Causing Child Labour

The table 41 below shows tabulated push out factors which lead to children dropping out of school and eventually enter in to child labour problem in the country.

**Table 41: Reasons given for Children Dropping Out of School**

|                                                                                                                                |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| • The cost of education (Including cost sharing, school uniforms and exercise and text books).                                 |
| • Bad company/peer pressure (including drug and alcohol abuse).                                                                |
| • Pregnancy, or fear of pregnancy, in girls                                                                                    |
| • Early /forced marriages                                                                                                      |
| • Labour – Outside the home.                                                                                                   |
| • Child– assisting with household chores.                                                                                      |
| • Parents do not understand the value of education and do not give sufficient encouragement.                                   |
| • Poor performance / failing examinations in schools                                                                           |
| • The fear of no employment after school                                                                                       |
| • Terminal diseases (including HIV/Aids) and the increasing incidence of orphans.                                              |
| • Culture (principally nomadic lifestyle and circumcision)                                                                     |
| • Lack of food, meaning the child cannot concentrate in class when he is hungry.                                               |
| • Distance from home to school                                                                                                 |
| • Severe punishment by teachers                                                                                                |
| • Late enrolment in school                                                                                                     |
| • Poor attitude of teachers                                                                                                    |
| • Lack of support from the Government in terms of school construction and continuation of the supplementary feeding programme. |

## **5.26 Definition of Non-Formal Education (NFE) System**

Non-Formal Education has been defined as any organized, systematic learning activity outside the formal school system. It provides selected types of learning to particular sub-groups in the population, adults and children for example, agricultural and farmer trainer programmes, adult literacy, occupational skills training outside the formal system, family planning and co-operatives etc.

Various government departments, NGO's, Religious organisations and donor agencies are involved in the provision of NFE to out –of –school children.

## **5.27 Management NFE Centres**

The NFE providers have been operating independently; hence the type and quality of education they offer varies. The government, in an attempt to ensure provision of quality education in the NFE centres set up an NFE desk at the Ministry of Education Headquarters (1994) to co-ordinate NFE. In the same year (1994) the NFE project, within the GOK/UNICEF Programme of Co-operation, was started as an intervention through which ways would be devised of addressing the educational need of out –of school children.

In view of this development, a Technical Planning and Monitoring Committee (TPC) was formed in the Ministry of Education to steer the implementation of the project. The TPC comprised of representatives from the Ministry of Education, Department of Adult Education, Kenya Institute of Education, Undugu Society of Kenya, Action Aid – Kenya, Nairobi City Council and the Ministry of Home Affairs (Children's Department).

The TPC conducted a Need Assessment Survey on 12<sup>th</sup> –24<sup>th</sup> September, 1994 in nine focus districts namely:- Kisumu Rural, Kisumu Municipality, Baringo, Garissa, Kwale, Mombasa, Nairobi City, Wajir and Mandera in order to gather information pertaining to the current situation in view of the initiatives that had been taken by various communities to provide education to children outside the formal school system. It was the report arising from this survey that was disseminated at the seminar held at the Kenya College of Communication Technology (KCCT), Mbagathi from 6<sup>th</sup> –9<sup>th</sup> October 1997. At the seminar, policy guidelines on Non-Formal Education were formulated.

## **5.28 Policy Guidelines for Non-Formal Education (NFE)**

### **(a) Recognition of Non-Formal Education (NFE) System in Kenya**

The Government recognizes the need to develop NFE as a complementary strategy to achieve Education for all. This will meet the learning needs of out of school children and youth with limited or no access to formal education.

The Government recognizes the initiatives of various organizations and the private sector, in the provision of Non-Formal Education and will continue to provide an enabling environment for them to create and provide more opportunities of access to basic education.

### **(b) Co-ordination**

Currently, NFE is provided by various agencies hence the need for co-ordination by the now established NFE unit in the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education and Human Resource Development shall register all NFE centres offering education to out of school children.

Collaboration between the Government and other NFE providers were to be encouraged and strengthened.

An Intersectoral Committee made up of members from Ministries of Education and Human Resource Development, Home Affairs, National Heritage Culture and Social Services, Local Authorities, Research, Training and Technology, the Office of the President, NGO's and Religious Organizations shall be set up to facilitate implementation and enhance co-ordination. The Committee shall be under the Chairmanship of the Director of Education and Human Resources Development.

### **(c) Capacity Building for NFE**

Implementers of NFE are to be trained on relevant aspects in educational management to build their capacity for the responsibility. NFE teachers are to be holders of a minimum of KCPE or its equivalent. NFE teachers will be given appropriate training to equip them with basic teaching skills.

NFE teachers are to be encouraged to improve the learning facilities in the centres to ensure the provision of quality education. Target Communities are to be sensitized and trained on the skills they require for their active involvement in the provision of NFE management, development in terms of planning and monitoring.

### **(d) Curriculum and Assessment in NFE Learners**

NFE Curricula will be diversified and based on learning needs and socio-economic environments. This will recognize the following categories of NFE.

- ◆ Functional literacy for adults and youth centres
- ◆ Non-formal basic education centres
- ◆ Vocational skills training centres
- ◆ Chuos, Duksis and Madrassas, integrating secular aspects of basic education into Koranic Education.

The curricular to be developed will take into consideration of the functional needs of NFE learners and help them acquire basic employment and life skills and provide opportunities for further education and training.

In consideration of the above provision, a system of equivalences between formal and non-formal education shall be established to allow for vertical and horizontal linkages a National Criteria for Assessing Proficiency in literacy and in numeracy and other basic vocational skills shall be developed. A certification test system nationally recognized will be established as an equivalent of the KCPE examinations, for NFE Centres providing basic education.

Candidates who do well shall be considered for selection into secondary schools to continue their basic or secondary education. Those children who are not interested to continue with the academic education will advance their vocational skills, training in the existing post primary vocational training institutions and take government Trade test examinations and the end of their vocational skills training.

### **(e) Access Ability to NFE Centres**

NFE shall be provided to those who do not join or drop out of the formal system. Special efforts will be made to encourage the participation of out –of school girls and boys especially those in difficult circumstances and in need of special protection to join NFE Programmes.

NFE shall be made as flexible and as informal as possible and learners can join, leave and re-enter as may be dictated by various circumstances.

NFE Providers will be encouraged to develop and improve the facilities in the centres to improve access and quality of education.

Admission to NFE centres shall be carefully controlled to ensure that only those from poor families with related problems are enrolled.

### **(f) Cost, Financing and Sustainability of NFE**

Communities and other providers of NFE will be encouraged to keep the cost of NFE to a minimum. Locally available resources within the communities will be tapped as much as possible.

NFE schools will be encouraged to include income generating activities as part of their learning and training strategies to sustain the programme.

While bearing in mind the huge percentage of the total budget that goes to education, internal adjustments shall be made within the MOE budget to set aside some funds for Non-Formal Education.

### **(g) Management of NFE Centres**

The communities shall be actively involved in the administration and management of NFE Centres to improve governance and to ensure greater participation and efficiency.

NFE Centres shall be provided with professional support services such as inspection, evaluation, training and counselling of teachers in order to maintain educational and skills training standards, through the Ministry of Education and Science Technology.

## **5.29 Cost of Education on Households**

Cost of education especially in primary schools is a huge burden on many households. The many schools requirements as a result of cost sharing of education such as the purchase of text books, uniforms, school development fund, additional hiring of teachers by parents and other frequent unplanned levies have all acted to deplete the meagre households incomes. For many parents who cannot afford the high cost of education, their children drop out of school and look for employment to supplement households incomes. This aggravated the problem of child labour in the country. Those children dropping out of primary school if they are employed, are usually exploited and made do worst forms of labour. High cost of education has driven many children from poor households in to child labour.

The situation is worse in the case of female-headed households in particular where the girl child becomes a first victim to drop out school due to the boy child preference in the situation of reduced resources. This forces the girl child to look for employment as domestic worker or commercial sex worker.

According to the report of the 1998 /99 child labour survey 3.0 million children were out of school, of 10.9 million children aged 5-17 years, thus 32 percent drop out of school for reasons caused by poverty. The survey further revealed that declining enrolments and increasing drop out rates in both primary and secondary schools reflect increase in number of working children. In 1998 alone there were 1.9 million children working.

The survey further confirmed that out of 10.9 million children aged between 5-17 years about 28 percent were from female-headed households thus the household income has a bearing on child labour thus 56.7 percent of working children were coming from very poor family households pushed out of the school system by unaffordable educational costs, due to cost sharing policy.

If all children of school going age, can be in school, then child labour issue could not arise. At present there are over 3.0 million children out of school for one reason or another. This means expansion or increased enrolment and retention of children in school could easily combat child labour considerably, particularly the cases of worst forms of child labour.

# CHAPTER 6 - TECHNICAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING (TVET)

## 6.1 Introduction

Individuals acquire vocational and technical skills in many ways, one of them is through institutions publicly supported training before employment, is only one path to acquiring skilled job, and, for workers who begin their careers this way, it is usually only an initial step. In the modern sector, most skills are acquired through initial and in-service training provided by public and private employers, and many informal sector entrepreneurs have acquired their skills in wage employment.

## 6.2 Public Sector Training

Most publicly financed or provided training occurs before employment. Publicly supported institutions suffer from rigid planning and management, weak linkages to employers, inappropriate objectives, and inadequate financing which hamper their responsiveness and efficiency. These constraints are especially frustrating when institutions are called upon to provide rapid retraining for workers.

Planning for skills supply is often driven by manpower requirements or forecasts that do not take market forces into account and thus yield inaccurate predictions of skills needs. At the same time, public institutions are shielded from private competition, and accountability for employment outcomes. And when public institutions try to enter training markets, they are often discouraged by regulations that restrict their ability to retain earned income, which reduces incentives for entrepreneurial activities. Centrally determined and rigidly administered curricula prevent institutions from responding to lower costs.

In occupations such as health technicians and agricultural extensions workers in which demand is mainly determined by demographic factors and public employment policy, it is possible to estimate the volume of training needs in the medium term. But skills projections that are based on estimates of future growth in most sub-sectors of the economy have proved inaccurate. There are four reasons to this. First, in open economies skills needs are based on projections of output, a difficult task in uncertain conditions. Second, the model assumes that only a given combination of skill levels will generate the target output and that employers will replicate this combination. In fact employers are sensitive to the price of labour with different skills and will reorganize production to reduce the skills content if it can lower production costs.

Third, the model assumes that a specified type and level of education is needed for a particular job. In reality individuals with different levels and types of education and training perform the same jobs at varying levels of productivity. Finally, there has often been an uncritical assumption that public training should meet projected skill gaps, regardless of cost and the existence of alternative, often private, options for acquiring skills.

In the modern sector, public training institutions have few incentives to working with employers. Employers find little reason to cooperate with vocational schools and training centres that are unable to respond to their needs with good quality services. Although the skills imparted by modern sector institutions can be broadly useful in rural and informal sector self-employment, the curricula are weak in preparing individuals for the market and product opportunities for employment. Successful entry into self-employment and the establishments of small businesses require much more than vocational

skills; access to capital and markets and business management competence are also needed. But training can be useful if it is based on knowledge of local market conditions and skill requirements. However, managers and instructors in institutions that train for wage employment often lack this information and the training provided is poorly linked to the realities of self-employment.

Post-primary technical education and training has often simply been expanded beyond the capacity of the economy to provide jobs in efforts to achieve inappropriate objectives, much of this expansion has been directed at problems of large-scale youth unemployment. Under conditions of excess labour supply, however, vocational skills confer little advantage on new entrants to the labour market. Most entry-level jobs require few specific skills, and when they do, employers very often prefer to hire and train broadly and generally educate workers, who often have lower wage expectations.

Expanding vocational training to create a reserve of skilled workers to attract new investment is an unnecessarily risky investment for governments. Most of the vocational skills needed to operate a new enterprise can be developed quickly and more efficiently after the investment plans are complete and the required skills are identified. The exceptions are in higher technical skills because of the longer training period required. The creation of complex sets of training agencies and institutions that often provide the same services had been an unfortunate legacy of successive expansion phase in several countries. Coordination is difficult, given lack of institutional accountability; consolidation to improve efficiency is even more challenging.

Expansion of public support for vocational schooling has also been justified on social grounds. One objective has been to change the aspirations of youth for higher education and white collar employment. Where skilled jobs can be found, this policy can be effective; but the policy is costly and unproductive when youth cannot find jobs that use their skills.

### **6.3 Private Sector Employer Training Programmes**

The effect of employer training on productivity and equity can be limited by four factors. First, government intervention in labour markets can reduce the incentives to workers and employers to invest in skills development. This reduces the amount and quality of privately financed training, which increases the need for public financing to meet skills needs. Second, where management capacity is weak, training capacity is usually even weaker. This is a significant constraint on training by small firms. In developing countries more than a third of employment is in firms with less than 100 employees; in smaller countries this proportion rises to 60 to 80 percent. In addition small firms rely heavily on external training for new skills and thus are hostages to the often-low quality of public and private training institutions. Third, even large employers are reluctant to invest in higher technical education, partly because of the cost of long programmes and partly because the more general and transferable nature of higher technical skills increases the risk of losing both the employee and the training.

### **6.4 Individual Training Providers**

Individual training provider if allowed to compete freely can meet an important share of skills need without public financing. However, private training is often too tightly regulated. Ceilings on tuition constraints income, which prevents entry into occupational areas with high equipment and instructor costs. Regulations requiring private vocational schools to follow the public curriculum reduce flexibility. The net effect of tight regulation is to reduce the amount of training provided, especially in the more technical occupations with high training costs.

## 6.5 Traditional Apprenticeship Programmes

Traditional Apprenticeship in the unregulated enterprises of the rural and urban informal sectors is a highly efficient way to reproduce the skills of masters. However, it is weak in developing new skills, and access is often restricted by the availability of apprenticeship places and by social barriers that prevent women or minorities from entering certain trades.

In North and West Africa, and to a lesser extent in Latin America, traditional apprenticeship in small firms, often in the informal sector, is a major source of skill formation (Fluitman 1987; Hallak and Calloids 1981; Sethuraman 1981). Its strength in enabling an individual to acquire the broad range of technical and managerial skills necessary for self-employment are increasingly recognized. And in an era of scarce resources for education and training, the fact that apprentices finance their own training is increasingly appreciated. At the same time, the limited capacity of apprenticeship to raise the level of technology in informal sector production is acknowledged.

In many countries, traditional apprenticeships are the principal mode of training for traditional crafts such as blacksmithing, leather craft, and herbal medicine, as well as for more modern, technical trades such as automobile, and radio repair. These apprenticeships exist wherever a small business owner is willing, for a fee, to teach a skill or trade that is in demand. Entry is open to anyone who can pay the training fee and meet other qualifications, such as ethnic or clan identity. The training period varies in length, depending on the technical difficulty of the trade and how quickly apprentices master the body of skills. In some cases, a written contract, stating the master's obligation to train the apprentice in exchange for a fee and work by the apprentice, is drawn up for the apprentice's family. The apprenticeship usually ends either when the master or the apprentice decides that the apprentice is sufficiently competent. Typically, youths enter apprenticeships in their mid-teens, and the training period often lasts three to five years for a technical trade such as auto repair.

Apprentices receive their training almost exclusively by working on actual commercial assignments and contracts. They learn by observing the techniques of older, more experienced workers, asking questions, and participating in work routines to the extent that they are competent.

Among Nigerian entrepreneurs, the extent to which education and traditional apprenticeship either complement or substitute for each other depends on the nature of the skills required for success. In addition to high levels of manual skill, these trades require the ability to use conceptual knowledge to read and draw blueprints and diagrams. Ninety percent of entrepreneurs in these businesses have completed primary education, and more than 40 percent have some secondary education. Virtually all have completed Traditional Apprenticeship as well. Education and apprenticeship are also complementary in the tailoring trade.

Historically, in many parts of the world small enterprises sell training as well as products. Apprentices paid masters a fee, in cash or in labour, in return for instruction in a trade. When demand for their product was low, masters made training a major activity. The tradition continues in North and Western Africa and to a lesser extent in Latin America. Through traditional Apprenticeship individuals can acquire the broad range of practical skills necessary to enable the person to start up businesses in his /her trade to earn a living from his/her business. Rising levels of education among informal sector workers are contributing to improved productivity. Untouched by minimum wage legislation and labour codes, apprentices finance their own training, a fact that is gaining significance in an era of limited public resources.

Traditional Apprenticeship can have a positive effect on employment and earnings, poor and rural individual can benefit. However, masters mostly pass on their skills and knowledge to apprentices; they rarely create new knowledge. The absence of any informal instruction favours acquisition of practical skills vital to production, sales, and management but limits theoretical understanding. Apprentices learn enough for commercial survival but not enough to improve productivity significantly. The effect of apprenticeships on the economy is limited by the number of masters willing to take on apprentices and by the number of apprentices that masters are able to absorb effectively. Social customs can restrict access of women and minorities to certain, often more profitable, trades.

Great caution should be exercised in considering interventions into the traditional apprenticeship system. Left alone, the system meets the overwhelming share of training needs in the informal sector of many countries, at no cost to the government, rising levels of education suggest that governments can improve the theoretical knowledge of masters and apprentices through correspondence courses or perhaps by evening or weekends classes in public training institutes. Technical information service and vocational textbooks are further options. But these interventions must not upset the traditional master-apprentice relationship that is central to the effectiveness of the system.

## **6.6 Technical Education and Training (TVET) in Kenya**

Education and training has strong bearing on the nature of economic activities that existed in the country economy particular those of the formal sector and industrial set up. Post independence education expansion was followed by the problems of school leaver's unemployment. This was due to much slower rates of employment creation, than hither to anticipate.

Attempts to address these problems of school leavers saw the introduction of policies such as building of village polytechnics, now known as Youth Polytechnics for the primary school leavers who were not placed in the few secondary schools then in the country. Industrial Education, technical secondary schools were established.

These attempts did not solve the problems of the school leavers. The population of school leavers continued to increase both at the end of primary and secondary Education cycles. Another policy was to introduce vocational subjects in primary schools which had now risen to over 16,000 with total enrolments of 5 million Children and very low transition rate to secondary schools with the introduction of 8-4-4 system of education, attempts were made again to expand post – primary and post secondary education and training. These policies included restructuring of the youth polytechnics and other similar vocational centres strengthening, of post –secondary institutions such as the Harambee Institutions of Technology and converting the former Technical – secondary schools into post –secondary training institutions.

The Youth Polytechnics and other vocational Training Centres, Harambee Institutions of Technology, Technical Training institutions, National Polytechnics and various ministries training institutions were to be re-organised to admit self sponsored students from secondary schools. The Universities were required to increase their enrolments by not tying their enrolment to the numbers of beds available for boarding students. The number of private universities were opened to deal with the problem of secondary school leavers. All public universities were required to admit more students on self sponsored programmes, sometimes referred to as, parallel degree programmes in public universities) the total enrolment of all universities rose to 72,290 students in 2003.

All these attempts including the expansion and intensification of technical education and training at post primary and post secondary school levels were attempts to generate a wider scope for self-employment but within the confines of the formal sector.

### **Aims and Objectives of TVET in Kenya**

The aims of the technical education and training (TVET) at post primary and post secondary levels are to:-

- (i) Provide increased training opportunities for school leavers that will enable them to be self-supporting.
- (ii) Develop practical skills and attitudes, which will lead to income earning activities in the urban or rural areas through wage employment or self-employment.
- (iii) Provide technical knowledge and vocational skills necessary for the growth of agricultural, industrial and commercial development.
- (iv) Produce people who can apply scientific knowledge for the solution of environmental problems.

**To achieve these objectives the government planned to:-**

- (i) Harmonize and rationalize the curricula currently being offered and certificates being awarded by all training institutions in the country.
- (ii) Create linkages in the training programmes in the various institutions of training throughout the country.
- (iii) Converted and restructured the 15 government technical vocational secondary schools into post school technical training institutes.
- (iv) Introduced flexible attendance patterns in all the vocational courses offered in TVET.

## **6.7 Technical Education and Training Programmes**

The Technical Education TVET Curriculum and Training curricula were being revised in various courses for all levels of training institutions such as;

- a) Youths Polytechnics (formerly village polytechnics)
- b) Craft Vocational Training Centres
- c) Technical Training Institutes (formerly technical vocational secondary schools)
- d) Institutes of Technology
- e) National Polytechnics

## **6.8 Technical Education and Training Curriculum**

These curricula were revised in conformity with the objectives of the 8-4-4 system of education. Technical Training Programmes which were planned at five levels:-

- a) Vocational Proficiency
- b) Artisan Level
- c) Craft Level
- d) Technician (Diploma)
- e) Higher Diploma

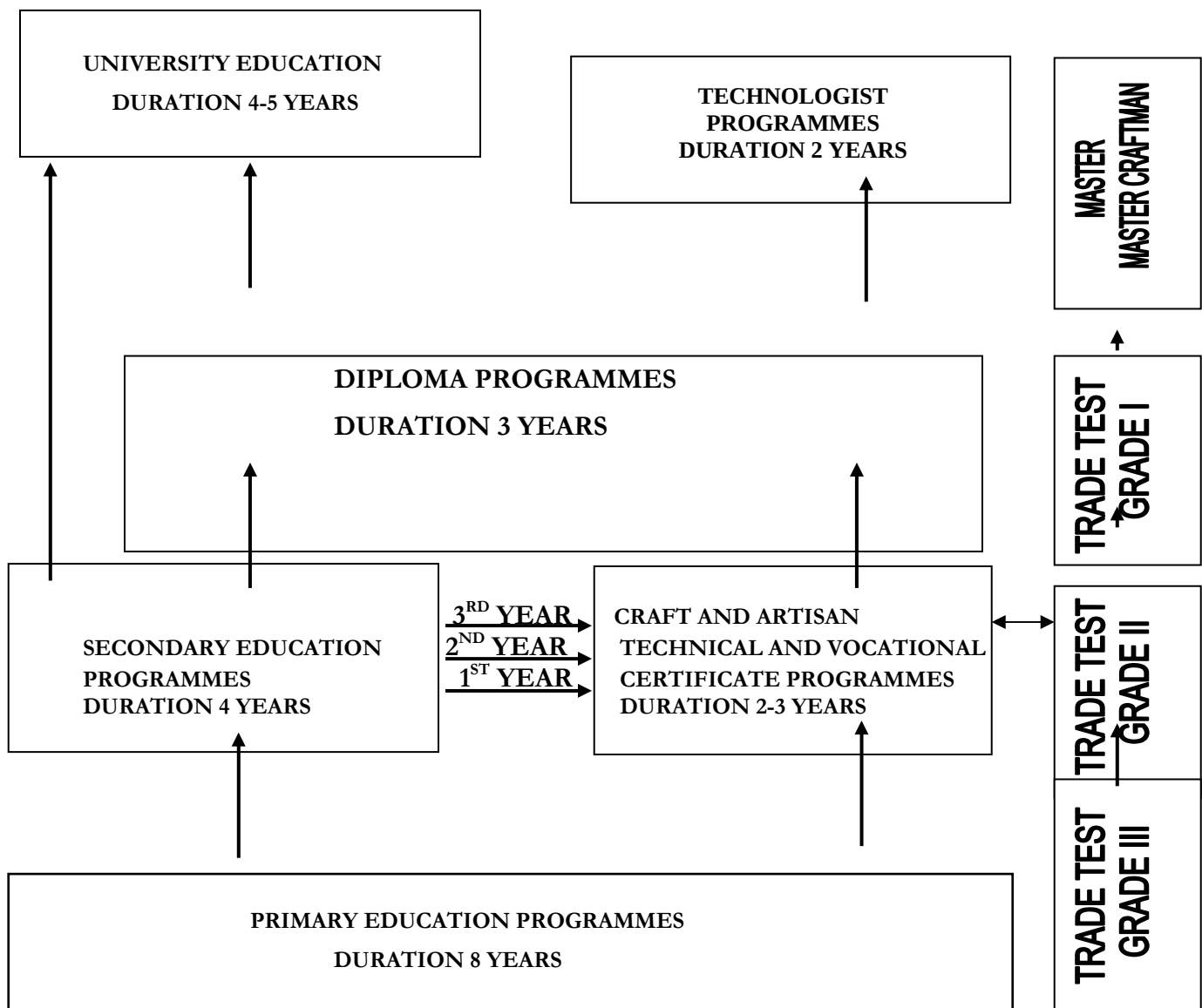
At each level, i.e. 8 years of primary education and 4 years secondary education there is outflows of students from the general education who require technical and vocational training in various trades and professions. As indicated above the new system was to provide opportunities for primary school leavers at the post primary training institutions (Artisan Programmes) short courses in different professions e.g. proficiency skills development, lasting for 3, 6 to 12 months.

Those students who had completed secondary education and obtained pass grades between D+ could join post –secondary training institutions offering craft courses or equivalent programmes. Craft courses 3 required years to complete. Secondary school dropouts and those who obtained D- and below could join Artisan programmes which last for 1-2 years.

The majority of all successful secondary school leavers join the Middle Colleges to study for 2-3 years diploma programmes while those who did not get the required entry qualifications for diploma courses were planed to join craft courses. At the end of these diploma programmes students who wish to continue with their training proceed to the higher diploma courses at national polytechnics or other colleges which can admit them for degrees courses in Technology which last for 3-4 years. This plan has not been implemented fully as many Diploma holders find admission to the Universities locally and overseas, while Higher Diploma Holders have not benefited in joining local universities for degree in the second or third year as originally planned. Many Universities make them join degree programmes as the case with Diploma Holders. Only overseas universities have been admitting Higher Diploma graduates for 2 years master course in their university. All curricula were to be restructured that linkages created so that students who have to transfer from one similar programme to another should be given credit for what they have done in the previous programmes. This arrangement has started to take root at the moment. Universities such as Maseno, Moi and Ergeton are now giving credits to students from technical education and training institutions.

## 6.9 Technical Education and Training Curriculum

### The Structure of 8-4-4 System of Education and Training (Chart)



The above chart shows how the 8-4-4 System of Education was planned. The trade Tests Programmes are under the management of the Directorate of Industrial Training now in the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development.

## **6.10 Linkages between Trade Test Grades and Technical Education and Training Examinations**

The craft and artisan training programmes in technical education and training institutions are designed to allow transfers or entry into National Industrial Vocational Centres Trade Test Examinations. It also allows holders of Trade Test Grade I Certificate to join craft training programmes in technical education and training institutions.

According to the flow chart on 8-4-4 system, the training opportunities are expanded to meet the demands of those students who terminate their schooling either at the end of Primary or secondary education system, a number of training programmes are planned at proficiency, Artisan, Craft, Diploma and Higher diploma levels. Higher Diploma Programmes curricula were designed to be equivalent in subject contents to the level of a university degree in Technology i.e. (B. Tech).

The aims of the Technical Education and Training in 8-4-4 system is to increase training opportunities and impart the necessary skills and abilities as equipment for the individuals, survival and the production of:-

- a) Semi-skilled operators (Proficiency Skills)
- b) Skilled operators (Artisans)
- c) Craftsmen who are highly skilled operators
- d) Technicians i.e. Technician Engineers
- e) Technologists i.e. Engineers

For the country's agricultural, industrial, commercial, social and economic development. The certificates are awarded in various professions e.g. Technical Education Certificate (T.E.C.), Business Education Certificate (B.E.C.)

## **6.11 Proficiency Skill Certificates Programmes**

These are short skill development courses which are intended to prepare the youth for employment in the informal sector. They are more of transitional courses for the youth for self-employment in the Jua Kali Sector. There are short courses designed to last for either 3, 6 or 12 months, to provide primary school leavers with proficient skills, in some specific and identified types of occupations. The curriculum for these proficiency-training programmes are tailor made to suit the demands of particular students in their community. This training is mostly practical work, with students spending more than 90% of their time learning practical skills, which will enable them to perform practical tasks without necessarily understanding the theories behind this technology.

These practical training skills should enable the students to enter into income-earning activities, through self-employment or employment in the environment around them with confidence. These Proficiency Programmes are offered in Youth Polytechnics (Craft Training Schools) Farmers Training Centres, Christian Industrial Training Centres, National Youth Service, Rural Community Training Centres etc and there are very many vocational training institutions in the country offering short skill development programmes for school leavers to enter employment.

The trainees take both written and practical examinations at the end of 6 months or 12 months course and students are be awarded Technical Education Proficiency Certificate (T.E.P.C.).

## 6.12 Students Enrolments in technical Training Institutions

Tables 42 below indicates the number of trainees in all TVET institution in the MRTT which was 52,694. The other table is showing total number of post-school training institutions in the Ministry of Education including teacher education

The table 42 below shows students enrolments TVET institutions under the Ministry of Research and Technical Training in 1990 - 94

**Table 42: Students Enrolments in technical Training Institutions**

| Institution                   | 1990          | 1991          | 1992          | 1993          | 1994          |
|-------------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| National Polytechnics         | 6,078         | 8,843         | 9,029         | 9,038         | 8,310         |
| Institutes of Technology      | 5,469         | 6,013         | 5,633         | 5,281         | 5,683         |
| Technical Training Institutes | 5,025         | 6,850         | 7,651         | 7,891         | 7,502         |
| Youth Polytechnics            | 22,300        | 25,600        | 29,000        | 31,000        | 31,000        |
| <b>Total</b>                  | <b>40,862</b> | <b>49,297</b> | <b>51,314</b> | <b>53,211</b> | <b>52,694</b> |

*Source: Ministry of Research Technical Training and Technology 1990-1994*

**Table 43: Number and Enrolment of students in MOE and MRTT 1995 –1996**

The table 43 below shows number TVET institutions in the two Ministries MOE and MRTT in 1995 - 96

| Type of institution           | Institution | Enrolment      |
|-------------------------------|-------------|----------------|
| Youth polytechnics            | 600         | 31,000         |
| Institutes of Technology      | 17          | 6,244          |
| Technical Training Institutes | 20          | 7,945          |
| National Polytechnics         | 3           | 7,927          |
| Technical Teachers College    | 1           | 510            |
| MOE Primary Teachers Colleges | 25          | 16,878         |
| Diploma Teachers Colleges     | 3           | 1,362          |
| Public Universities           | 5           | 43,038         |
| Private Universities          | 12          | 4,845          |
| <b>Total</b>                  | <b>686</b>  | <b>117,749</b> |

*Source: MOE & MRTTT Statistics; Economic Survey 1995, 1996*

## **6.13 Technical Education and Training (TVET) Key Issues**

Key issues affecting links between vocational education, training and employment. Employment and training issues are of course closely related. In fact, training as an instrument of development would be irrelevant if it were not explicitly oriented towards the world of work. Training is expected in the first place to ease the transition from school to work and thereby minimize imbalances between skills needed in the economy and skills available.

Secondly, in service training should help to improve the performance of the people who work, in particular the poor and unproductive. Thirdly, training should be an important element in efforts aimed at eradicating inequity and inequality among the people of Kenya. The present training system is not up to this task. In examining the TVET system one identifies the following Key issues; weak and/or inappropriate organizations and management, low quality or inadequate training inputs and lack of serious focus on outputs.

### **(a) Management of Institutions**

As indicated above, the TVET system is fragmented. Many different types of institutions provide training in same occupations and different ministries, department s agencies manage different parts of the system. Whereas this may not be a bad thing in itself, fragmentation, however is accompanied by duplication and inevitable waste of resources, the system needs horizontal co-ordination among its parts. The system also needs to have clear vertical division of labour between all the training providers. While inter –ministerial rivalry was minimized since the creation of MRTTAT there is a constant rivalry between the departments and between the boards of institutions and their trustees. Effectiveness of the system is undetermined by among other factors lack of market orientation.

Most of the programmes with the exception to Directorate of Industrial Training DIT programmes are supply oriented and targeted to the needs of modern sectors in an era where public sector and private sector jobs are on the decline. The government is in the process of phase of the retrenchment and the private sector employment has declined under structural adjustment programmes.

### **(b) Accountability for Results**

Public training institutions tend to be accountable only to parent ministries for routine administrative requirements on how the input was spent and not the results achieved. Tracer studies are virtually non-existent except where donor agencies have initiated them as a part of their project appraisals. It is difficult to get information on how set training objectives were met in terms of quality and quantity.

### **(c) Training Policies**

At the macro-level, training policies are well formulated, coherent and covering all levels of skill needs in the economy. There is a gap however between what seems to be good policy intentions and their implementations which extremely impedes the achievement of quality, efficiency and effectiveness of training programmes and weakness in the achievement of quality, efficiency and effectiveness of training including resource use.

### **(d) Funding of Programmes**

Constrained funding is another major issue as most of the programmes suffer from inadequate finance. Most of the funds allocated barely cover the salaries of instructors as is witnessed at the

Youth Polytechnics, equipment in most training institutions are in dire need of repair or replacement yet funds are not available nor is there awareness among trainers of the need for routine maintenance of equipment.

### **(e) Learning Materials**

Training textbooks in most institutions are out dated and in some cases not available. Apart from institutions still under donor support, training inputs are very low and poor. It must be realized that inadequate budgets lead to inadequate outcomes. There seems to be lack of realization that TVET is more expensive than general education, a fact which came to bear too late for those who were involved in the creation and establishment of harambee institutions of technology and similar institutions. A training system cannot be efficient and cost effective if any of its budget components falls below the threshold amount required to make it operational.

### **(e) Staffing**

Chief among input requirements is staff with adequate, practical experience, training content knowledge (formal qualifications) pedagogy and teaching experience. Majority of staff do not possess these requirements. Although the Kenya Technical Teacher College is very well planned to provide staff development for in-service training, it is undermined by lack of adequate funds.

### **(f) Curriculum**

Lack of focus and flexible content is another serious weakness. The training programmes are not adequately adapted to the labour market needs. The training programmes are not based on occupational analysis of cluster of occupations. DIT has done a commendable job by sub-contracting the Federation of Kenya Employers to carry out sectoral training needs assessment. This study covered a limited number of industries, the exercise should be continued to cover the remaining industries. Due to lack of installed capacity within the DIT to carry out the activity, it had to be sub-contracted to outsiders, which is expensive. There is a need to introduce modular competency based training programmes which will address the needs of the learner and job requirements. The Commission for Higher Education conducted Graduate Labour Market Study (GLMS) in 1995 whose objective was to emphasize professional courses and research rather than purely academic programmes as well as to foster closer collaboration between training institutions. This initiatives needs to build on with a view to establish sustainable collaborative arrangement among concerned parties.

### **(g) Lack of Serious Focus on Outputs**

A national skill standard and certification system, is a useful tool for productivity enhancement in any country. The benefits derived from certification is that it assures certain standards of competency which in turn lead to greater efficiency in terms of better utilization of manpower, facilities, time and materials. It provides the worker with a yardstick by which he /she can measure progress in an occupational area and provide pride and status in community by formal recognition of his /her achievement. More equitable wage structures may evolve from the system and also provide statistics in respect of the number of qualified and therefore registered persons in each occupation and thereby facilitate national manpower planning. It may also enhance individual labour mobility nationally or internationally.

Trade testing and certification system in Kenya is conducted by DIT. The test standards have not been revised for a long time and are not a result of systematic occupational and task analysis. On the other hand, the Kenyan National Examinations Council (KNEC) conducts examinations and tests for students for technical examinations such as Artisans, Craft, Technicians Diploma, Higher Diploma and Business Examinations. While DIT carries out trade tests and proficiency testing which are more work oriented, the KNEC exams are more theoretical. There is a need to harmonise these tests so that employers and other consumers of skilled labour would know the quality and standards of graduates of the system. The employers have difficulty equating these two certification systems.

Lack of labour market information is another serious setback in the system. While a number of trainees cannot be absorbed in wage employment due to lack of vacancies, there are other sectors, which are not served by the training institutions, as most of the training programmes are restricted to traditional occupations.

A number of employers have to do retraining on-the-job in order to get the skills needed by them. Feedback information about labour market outcomes is an important step towards orienting the training system to output rather than input. The provision of labour market information to trainees not only influences occupational choices but also directing them to employment opportunities. There is no effective labour market information system in the country. The programmes are based on fixed and predetermined training programmes, which at times have no bearing on the labour market realities.

Placements of trainees are very weak apart from the in plant training attachments administered by DIT under its craft and technician apprenticeship and indentured learners schemes. The scheme attempts to bridge the gap between theory and practice, to make the theoretical education in the higher institutions more responsive to the needs of employers of labour.

The Industrial Training Council (ITC) could expand the existing areas covered under the Industrial Training Levy Fund (ITLF), to cover the attachment, this could be done on a cost sharing basis between the ITC, Technical Education and Training colleges in the country.

Career guidance and trace studies at national and institutional levels are very weak. Most training institutions are not concerned about what happens to their trainees. Career guidance and counselling officials are often ill informed about the labour market realities and rarely make field visits due to lack of funds. Almost all government Ministries have their own Technical Education and Training institutions in the country.

Nearly all their training Curriculum are developed by Kenya Institute of Education and these courses offered are Artisan craft, Technician Diploma and Higher Diploma which examined by Kenya National Examinations. Only trade test examinations are offered by DIT in the Ministry of Labour and Human Resources Development. There are also very many Technical Education and Training colleges offering the KIE and KNEC Programmes. Some of the Universities have Started offering Diploma Curricula prepared by KIE which are being examined by KNEC.

TVET plays an important part in economic growth of nations. As the economy change as the case in Kenya today, so too must TVET. In an atmosphere of economic restructuring and constrained funding. TVET should be evaluated in terms of benefits from the perspective of the individual, of the enterprise and that of society.

In identifying and qualifying the benefit, whatever the point of view of the analysis the starting assumption is that aim of TVET as an instrument of economic policy is to promote an increase

labour productivity and incomes of individual, of the enterprise and of the society. Other objectives may include those pertaining to income redistribution and or social justice and mobility. However, whatever factors considered, the increase in employment and productivity is considered to be the main result. It is doubtful whether the current TVET system is up to the task.

The task is enormous and cannot be tackled by the government alone. Therefore, there is a urgent need to create public /private sector partnership in training.

## **6.14 Public /Private Sector Partnership in Training**

As indicated above globalisation coupled with accelerating technological and organizational change, is having a profound effect on the demands made on workers in all sectors. Workers have to be kept up to date with new skills, new knowledge and new behaviour attitudes if enterprises want to maintain or enhance their competitiveness. The nature of the future workforce and emphasis on management and worker competence and flexibility has important implications for all systems of education and training – not only in their context and delivery, but also in their organization and administration. Training systems should improve quality of the life of the worker and become more sensitive and responsive. To achieve this, the providing institutions and their staff will need to be more adaptable and accountable.

## **6.15 The Role of TVET Institutions in Combating Child Labour Problem**

Research studies undertaken in Kenya show that in 1998/99 there were 1.8 million unemployed persons aged 15 – 64 years giving employment rate of 14.6 percent. The urban unemployment had risen to 25.1 percent from 1989 to 1999, while unemployment in the rural sector was only 9.4 percent during the same period. Most of the unemployed population were youth.

Urban poverty is characterised by low incomes, lack of access to health care, education and ability to live normally. One of the major causes of poverty is unemployment and low wages in urban and rural sectors employment. The unemployed youth lack income necessary for meeting their basic needs such as food, shelter, clothing, education, medical services.

Out of school children who have a chance to secure vocational skills training have greater chances of securing a good job in the informal or formal sectors. Vocational skills training adds value to the youths work outputs, hence a better income for better living. Vocational skills training is one way of making the youth, useful to himself and the society in general.

In some countries e.g. Germany, children remain in schools and vocational training centres until they reach the age of 18 years, ready for employment. If Kenya can change its laws to keep children in schools and TVET institutions to keep children in schools and TVET institutions up to the age of 18 years, this action would eliminate child labour in Kenya. At present the TVET institutions are playing very important role of Keeping some of the youth in TVET colleges undertaking training until they reach 18 years and above, it is important to increase the number of TVET institutions and increased enrolment is currently reducing the number of children who would otherwise be involved in worst forms of child Labour in the country.

# **CHAPTER 7 - FORMAL APPRENTICESHIP TRAINING PROGRAMMES IN KENYA**

## **7.1. Introduction**

The history of industrial training in Kenya dates back to pre-independence days when the colonial government established the Native Industrial Training Depots (N.I.T.D.) to train Africans in industrial skills.

The Industrial Training Act was enacted in 1960 to regulate the training of people engaged in industry.

Recent studies show that Kenya's training needs have been changing over the years. The 1960s required sustained supply of skilled manpower in the middle and top-level cadres to replace the Europeans and Asians who were leaving the country in large numbers at the dawn of independence. In the 1970s, the focus was on vocational skills training, in order to address the increasing numbers of primary school leavers, by offering artisan training for formal and self-employment.

The main objective in the 1980s was to provide school leavers with vocational and entrepreneurship skills necessary for self-reliance. Throughout this period, industry has adopted new technologies, but the training institutions have not kept pace with the changing technologies because of lack of appropriate and up-to-date training equipment. In effect, the training programmes suffered, and the graduates produced lacked sufficient practical training and orientation.

## **7.2 National Industrial Training Schemes**

### **a) An Apprentice**

According to Kenya's Industrial Training Act, an apprentice is a person who is bound by a written contract to serve an employer for a determined period of not less than four years or such lesser period as the council shall determine under subsection (2) of section 20, with a view to acquiring knowledge, including theory and practice, of a trade in which the employer is reciprocally bound to instruct that person.

### **b) Indentured Learner**

An indentured learner is a person other than an apprentice, who is "bound by written contract to serve an employer for a determined period of less than four years with a view to acquiring knowledge of the trade in which the employer is reciprocally bound to instruct that person."

## **7.3 Types of Apprentice Schemes**

- a) Craft Apprenticeship
- b) Technician Apprenticeship

## **7.4 Apprentice Training Programmes**

Apprenticeship training programmes are divided into three parts: -

- a) Basic or pre-apprenticeship training, which is usually undertaken in a vocational or technical college or school.
- b) Practical training on the job, which is usually undertaken with the employer under supervision by government training officers.
- c) Supplementary craft course training, which includes practical training and theoretical instructions, related to the trade, which is conducted at a training centre or at any, other approved training establishment.

The apprenticeship courses are offered at the National Industrial Vocational Training Centres in Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu, under the Ministry of Labour and Human Resources Development.

Apprenticeship training is a systematic long-term training for a recognized occupation, which takes place within an undertaking governed by a written contract of apprenticeship and subject to established standards.

## **7.5 Recruitment of Apprentices**

### **a) Craft Apprentice**

To become a Craft Apprentice, one must fulfil the following conditions: -

- ◆ Be not less than 15 years old
- ◆ Be physically fit
- ◆ Posses a minimum education qualification of Form II of a Secondary vocational/technical school or equivalent.
- ◆ Pass an interview and/or written test and an aptitude test as may be prescribed from time to time.
- ◆ The candidate must also have the aptitude for technical work and sufficient interests in learning the trade.

### **b) Technician Apprentice**

A Technician Apprentice must fulfil the following conditions: -

- ◆ Obtain a minimum educational qualification for entry to technician apprenticeship EACE/KCSE with credits in Mathematics, English and an appropriate Science subject or equivalent.
- ◆ Suitably qualified Craft Apprentices who have made outstanding progress may be considered for transfer to a Technician Apprenticeship on completion of their first year of Craft Apprenticeship.

## **7.6 The Apprentices Course Structure**

### **a) Craft Apprentices**

During the first year comprises two (2) full-time courses of 12 and 6 weeks duration respectively are offered to the apprentice. During the remaining period of apprenticeship full-time courses of six (6) weeks duration are offered once every year.

### **b) Technician Apprentices**

The first (12) Twelve months of apprenticeship training shall have a strong craft bias comprising in-plant training during the first six (6) months followed by craft orientation course in the occupational area concerned for three (3) months followed by a further in-plant training during the last three (3) months.

The normal period of apprenticeship is four (4) years. The apprentice shall attend technician courses at approved training institution.

All Craft and Technician Apprentices are issued with a log-book to keep record of their in-plant training.

### **c) Award of Proficiency Certificates**

Two certificates of proficiency are awarded to successful apprentices. The certificates are preliminary and intermediate proficiency certificates which are awarded on successful passing of proficiency test examinations and on fulfilling other conditions as laid down in the scheme. The passing of proficiency test at the final level will be endorsed in the Certificate of Apprenticeship, being awarded on completion of training.

## **7.7 Formal Apprenticeship Training Challenges**

Kenya's economy, though in the past enjoyed periods of great advances, has suffered disheartening downturns. We continue to be surrounded by poverty, unemployment, meagre foreign exchange earnings from exports of our primary products mainly agricultural produce, leading to unfavourable balance of payments and low per capita income. One of the challenges facing the nation towards industrialization is the increasing pressure to create employment opportunities to absorb a larger labour force.

With the major objective of industrialization being to create employment opportunities for the rapidly growing labour force, there exists additional demand on training institutions to supply labour that is trained in both technical and entrepreneurship skills. This would then create employment opportunities mostly in the informal sector, which is significantly more labour intensive and less expensive to create than the formal sector employment. Industrialization is not an end in itself but a means to accelerate the country's economic development towards alleviating poverty, protecting vulnerable groups and providing rising standards of living for our people.

## **7.8 Training Needs in the Industry**

In the 1990s, there was a particular need for training that is demand-driven and adaptable to the changing needs of the economy. There was also increasing pressure for the country to create employment opportunities to absorb larger labour force. One of the strategies was to increase employment opportunities mostly in the informal sector. This imposes additional demand on training institutions to supply labour that is trained in both technical and entrepreneurship skills.

A recent study on training needs of the country, with particular reference to technical skills, revealed that employers demand technical personnel in the following order:

- ◆ Artisans
- ◆ Craftsman

- ◆ Technicians And
- ◆ Technologists

However, the study noted that the majority of training institutions have not kept pace with the changing technology in industry. Firstly, the training institutions lack proper equipment or if available, it is outdated. Consequently, the technical training institutions which are supposed to produce graduates with practical orientation has eventually produced Kenyans with theoretical knowledge and poor attitude towards work.

Training Programmes, which have been considered adequate, are being rendered obsolete by the changing demands of the whole spectrum of industry and commerce. Many jobs have been replaced by automation, and more efficient methods of production have emerged.

New industries and jobs are emerging in response to expanding consumer requirements and new product designs. It is expected that many people will change their jobs several times during their working lifetime. They will be required to be adaptable and flexible in the skills they possess in order to respond to new methods of production and materials used in the industry.

The training programmes are now offering entrepreneurship skills needed for the promotion of self-employment. However, a number of enterprises noted that the performance levels of new technical graduates were lower than expected due to lack of hands on experience, poor attitude to work, unwillingness to adapt to the working environment and lack of experience in existing and new technology.

This has forced industry to favour in-service training and skills upgrading of its staff instead of recruiting fresh technical graduates. The study also revealed that there is little coordination between industry and training institutions on industrial attachment for graduates, hence many industrial attachments are unplanned and poorly supervised.

## **7.9 National Industrial Training Council**

Representatives of Kenya's industry participate in the National Industrial Council, (DIT) Industrial Training Committees and Boards of Governors of Polytechnics, Technical and Vocational Training Institutions, in the country.

Industrial Training in Kenya falls within the purview of the Industrial Training Act, chapter 237 which is an Act of parliament to make provision for the regulation of the training of persons engaged in industry.

The Act is administered by the Director of Industrial Training in the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development under the general guidance of the National Industrial Training Council. This is a tripartite body which consists of six members each representing employers and workers and not less than six members chosen to represent the Government and other interests.

The Council has wide responsibilities to secure the greatest possible improvement in the quality and efficiency of the training of personnel engaged in industry; to secure an adequate supply of training manpower at all levels in industry; to share the cost of all industrial training undertaken in pursuance of this Act as evenly as possible between employers; and to establish training committees which exercise functions of the Council in relation to training in a specified industry, amongst other functions. The Directorate of Industrial Training acts as a Secretariat to the council and controls the registration of apprenticeship programmes in Kenya.

- a) Thirty years experience in Kenya has proved that tripartite arrangement is the best mode to enhance Apprenticeship Training Programmes.
- b) Trade test has served the industry well because it is a measure of competence and employable skills.
- c) Industries interest is not on paper certificate but what a person can actually deliver.
- d) Proper management of Industrial Training Levy Fund is a key parameter to win the confidence of the contributors, who are the apprentices' employers.
- e) It is possible to share the cost of training between employers who contribute the levy.
- f) DIT Training Centres have competencies in specific skills which have not been utilized by TIVET institutions.
- g) An appropriate Industrial Training Scheme should promote and support both technical and managerial skills.

The traditional system of vocational education and training are not able to respond to the rapidly changing needs of the work-force. A growing number of countries in the world are now moving towards competency-based training and qualification systems as an alternative to the traditional vocational education and training. Under the competency approach a trainee is trained to achieve certain defined competencies to pre-determine performance standards, and is assessed on the basis of the demonstrated ability to perform in a given work-force or employment situation rather than on a specific training course undertaken. Competency-based training and qualification systems facilitate achieving flexibility in acquiring a qualification and allowing a trainee to continuously improve his skills thereby, meeting an individual's needs for either training, up-grading, retraining or portability of his skills as well as providing him with an opportunity for multi-skilling.

Competency training is based on the ILO's modules of employable skills. The modules of employable skills approach is a method of organizing vocational training which is based on the principle of taking into account the actual demands for skills in the labour market and real training needs of an individual and which facilitates the acquisition by a trainee of practical and social skills related and the knowledge needed for him to perform at the required standards in a given employment or self-employment situation. The technique involves:-

- ◆ Carrying out a training needs assessment.
- ◆ Identification of jobs.
- ◆ Carrying out a job analysis and job specification, based on identified competency needed by a person to be employed in a given employable situation.
- ◆ Module of employable skills training programme is made up of modular units or tasks. Each modular unit corresponds normally to one unit of competency.
- ◆ The modular units are further divided into steps of work, each corresponding normally to one element of competency.
- ◆ Each step of work is analyzed to determine the skills and knowledge needed by a person to perform in a workplace to the required standard to meet the required performance criteria.
- ◆ To learn the identified skills, an MES-specific instructional manual-learning element is developed and arranged into learning/training packages for the trainees.

## **7.10 Trainees Undertaking Trade Test Examinations in DIT Centres**

Table 44 below shows the number of candidates who have taken Government trade Test examinations in the last 5 years.

**Table 44: Trade Test Examinations Candidates**

| Grade        | 1999          | 2000          | 2001          | 2002          | 2003          | Totals         |
|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|
| I            | 429           | 394           | 410           | 627           | 706           | 2,566          |
| II           | 1,144         | 1,977         | 1,375         | 1,731         | 2,017         | 8,244          |
| III          | 26,677        | 28,667        | 28,919        | 30,770        | 34,251        | 149,284        |
| <b>TOTAL</b> | <b>28,250</b> | <b>31,038</b> | <b>30,704</b> | <b>33,128</b> | <b>36,974</b> | <b>160,094</b> |

*Source: DIT Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development*

Management, Table 45 below shows the number of trainees approved for supervisory, overseas: i.e training, craft and technicians. The number of trainees approved for various levels of training in the past five years is shown in Table 45 below:-

**Table 45: Trainees approved for Management Training**

| Scheme                   | 1999         | 2000         | 2001         | 2002         | Totals        |
|--------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|
| Management & Supervisory | 3,802        | 3,855        | 3,802        | 3,851        | 15,310        |
| Overseas Training        | 58           | 27           | 23           | 51           | 159           |
| Craft                    | 402          | 631          | 454          | 351          | 1,838         |
| Technician <sup>82</sup> | 85           | 23           | 37           | 227          |               |
| <b>Totals</b>            | <b>4,344</b> | <b>4,598</b> | <b>4,300</b> | <b>4,290</b> | <b>17,534</b> |

*Source: DIT Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development*

## **CHAPTER 8 - TECHNICAL EDUCATION AND TRIANING (TVET) REFORM PROPOSALS**

### **8.1 Introduction**

Kenya government set up a TVET Rapid Appraisal Study to study and recommend the necessary reforms required to improve TVET Education and Training Programmes in the country.

### **8.2 Management and Co-ordination of TVET System in Kenya**

In spite of the enormous gains made in the development of technical and vocation education and training especially in terms of infrastructure in the 1960's to the 1970s, the growth has been rather haphazard due to lack of unified policy and vision. The image of technical education and training suffered serious decline in the late 1980s when most of these institutions began to experience financial limitations aggravated by the World Bank induced structural adjustment programmes (SAPs). These were closely followed by the fall out with many donors who had been funding the expansion of technical education and training. This marked the beginning of serious expansion of technical education and training because TVET institutions could not attract any additional funding from the government, which was reeling under acute recession.

Although an attempt was made to bolster the image of TVET through the creation of the Technical Training and Technology Ministry with the Directorate of Technical Training (DTT) in 1988, there was no policy organ to support it to grow. It remained weak and under-established but was further weakened by the creation of the Directorate of Applied Technology (DAT) as a separate department in 1993 as some of the staff of DTT were transferred to the new Directorate. Significant funding from GOK to TVET institutions in the ministry steadily declined between 1991 –1994 and more or less ceased in 1995 except salaries for teachers.

Thus the main technical education and training institutions which were formerly Technical and Vocational Secondary school that were upgraded to colleges (TTIS) to level offer higher level courses under the TVET curriculum had no hope for getting new equipment to meet the challenges of their new status. The Institute of Technology (ITS) which were formerly Harambee Institutes of Technology which almost entirely depended on donors funding for training equipment, were equally affected. The challenges of staff development were more than what any singular institutions could deal with. Under the circumstances many training institutions not only embarked on various income generating activities especially part –time courses, but also revised their fees upwards to raise adequate funds for operational expenses. The rise in fees affected enrolment for most courses. The cost of training materials kept on rising leading to the much talked about mismatch in relevance and supply of skills by training institutions and the demand for skills by industry.

Technical, vocational education and training was planned to play a strategic role in providing high quality skilled personnel for both formal and informal sectors of the economy, through sustainable flexible and equitable delivery systems.

### 8.3 Major Critical Issues for TVET Reform

#### Causes of Rapid Unplanned Expansions in the years 1975 –1990

- ◆ 600 Youth Polytechnics established.
- ◆ Poor quality infrastructure in all TVET institutions.
- ◆ Incompetent trainers for the subject they are teaching.
- ◆ Lack of budgetary allocation from the government
- ◆ Cannot be sustained to provide quality training
- ◆ No quality assurance for training activities going on.
- ◆ Poor Image - for failures, Public attitudes is negative
- ◆ No legal framework to harmonized management and co-ordination.
- ◆ Lack of relevant vocational skills for competitiveness.
- ◆ Mismatch of skills taught and skills demanded by industries.
- ◆ Obsolete equipment are being used to train students.
- ◆ Poor technology transfer, owing to obsolete equipment, unqualified teacher
- ◆ Irrelevant courses students choose any course without regards to employment opportunities in the industry.
- ◆ Uncoordinated industrial attachments.
- ◆ Poor quality graduates;
- ◆ No hands –on experience
- ◆ Poor attitude towards work
- ◆ Undisciplined behaviours

TVET system in the country has not been adaptable enough to mirror and accommodate rapid changes of social economic or technological nature taking place within the public and private sector. This state of affairs can be attributed to many unresolved obstacles hindering the development of an effective TVET system.

#### (a) Some of these obstacles Include:-

- ◆ In adequate and obsolete training equipment and machinery.
- ◆ Poor image and lack of positive publicity.
- ◆ The extent to which this type of education and training is seen to be fit only for failures and school dropouts.
- ◆ Limited presence of TVET experts in top policy making organs of government responsible for TVET programmes.
- ◆ Low budgetary allocation for TVET programmes.
- ◆ Poor remuneration of technically skilled TVET personnel at all levels.
- ◆ High staff turnover in TVET institutions.
- ◆ Poor job prospects for TVET grandaunts.
- ◆ Poor prospects for academic and professional advancement for TVET personnel.
- ◆ Lack of coordination in selection, recruitment, placement programmes for TVET students.
- ◆ Mismatch between supply and demand for skilled manpower at different levels.
- ◆ Poor linkages between training institutions and industry.

## **8.4 The Current Situation of Management of TVET Institutions in the Country**

### **(a) Ministry of Education Science and Technology**

There are 44 post – secondary TVET institutions with a total student enrolment of 25,945. These institutions offer curriculum developed by Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) and Examined by Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC) All students attending the TVET Institutions pay fees or sponsored by their employers.

### **(b) Ministry of Labour And Human Resource Development**

The Ministry is incharge of 10 TVET colleges providing different TVET Programmes some of the colleges follow KIE curriculum and are examined by KNEC while NIVTC vocational training centres under the Directorate of industrial Training (DIT) follow DIT developed curriculum and are examined by DIT through Trade Tests and Proficiency Certificate Examinations. In addition to the 10 TVET institutions Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development (MLHRD) runs 600 Youth polytechnics and Training Centres.

Youth Polytechnics have an estimated students enrolment of 40,000 trainees following TVET programmes such as craft and artisan curriculum developed by KIE and are examined by KNEC. In addition to that some offer short term courses. Some follow DIT Trade Tests curriculum and are examined by DIT. DIT apprentices are sponsored by their employers. Their curriculum includes Trade Tests Proficiency courses and short term skill upgrading programmes. The 610 TVET Institutions in MLHRD have a total enrolment of about 50,000 students.

### **(c) Ministry of Culture and Social Services**

This Ministry has a number of TVET institutions offering TVET programmes for both primary and secondary school leavers who are disabled. They are popularly known as vocational rehabilitation centres. Some of these TVET institutions offer KIE and DIT, (Trade Test) Curriculum, they have and estimated enrolment of about 5,000 students.

### **(d) Other Government Ministries / Departments TVET Institutions**

There about over 15 Ministries /Departments having TVET Institutions with students enrolment of about 50,000. These institutions enrol ministries trainees and private fees paying students or self sponsored students. All these institutions are admitting only secondary school leavers to follow the curriculum developed by KIE and are examined by KNEC. Some trainees or apprentices attending DIT programmes are awarded DIT proficiency Certificates upon passing written examinations.

### **(e) Private Companies Training Schools**

Various companies have their own training institutions where they train their employees and a few private fee paying or self – sponsored students. Most of these institutions follow KIE and DIT Curriculum.

**(f) NGO'S and Religious Institutions**

There are a number of NGO's and Religious TVET Institutions offering both KIE and DIT Programmes. The NGO's and Religious TVET institutions admit both primary and secondary school leavers for TVET programmes.

**(g) Ministry of Local Government and Municipalities / Cities:**

These local authority institutions: offer courses for children in difficult circumstances (CNSP) i.e. street and orphaned children, they offer TVET programmes in NFE offered in centres and most of them cater for both primary school leavers and secondary school leavers. They offer KIE and DIT (Trade Tests) curriculum and examinations most of their programmes are of short duration. All of the trainees in these centres are children who are out of school system due to too many factors including poverty. Nairobi city alone has 450 NFE centres for out of school children, particularly located in urban slums.

**(h) Traditional Apprenticeship Training Programmes in the Informal Sector**

Traditional apprenticeship is considered as training on the job whereby WHERE a trainee is attached to a master craftsman or a skilled artisan, they work together and in the process of doing work under the supervision of the skilled person the trainee learns the job. In some cases the trainee pays the skilled person to teach her /him the skills of the trade.

This arrangement of providing training has some advantage and disadvantages. Its main advantage is that the learners acquire job skills and experience quickly and he/she can easily stand on his/her own in self-employment. One of the disadvantages is that the trainee does not acquire basic science and technological skills in the trade, which limits further expansion of the trade technology. This is a widespread training programme in the informal sector. It was estimated that there were 53,000 traditional apprentices trainees in the informal sector in Kenya in 1999. It is playing an important role in preparing the youth for self-employment.

**(i) Pre-Vocational Education Programmes in the School System**

**(a) Primary School**

There are some prevocation orientation subjects included in primary school curriculum.

**(b) Secondary School Education**

As the case in Primary school education some pre-vocational education programmes are included in secondary school curriculum.

The main objective of these prevocational subjects in the school curriculum is to provide career orientation in the school system.

**(j) Non-Formal Primary Education (NFE) Centres**

There are a number of NGO's, Religious organizations and Private individuals who have established Non-formal Primary schools (NFE) or centres which cater for out of school children. At present there are about 3 million children out of school, some of them are attending Non-formal education centres in the urban informal settlements. A number of children from poor households who cannot afford the cost of education usually find a place

in NFE centres where the fees are low, and they are day centres and no uniforms is required. A number of International NGO's such as UNICEF and others generally provide some support to these NFE centres.

These NFE Centres offer both basic education (Some follow KIE Primary School curriculum) and TVET programmes. TVET programmes in these centres are planned for those students who are not likely to proceed to secondary education cycle. They acquire some vocational skills, which they can use in self-employment.

The Ministry of Education, science and Technology has established an NFE Unit to plan and coordinate NFE Education and training programmes. UNICEF in conjunction with the government of Kenya has funded the development of NFE curriculum through KIE which is now due to be officially launched and implemented in NFE centres. UNICEF has been supporting some of these NFE centres in the country through training of teachers, provision of learning materials and creating awareness or advocacy programmes on the importance of NFE centres in supplementing formal primary education provision in the country. UNICEF Programmes has also identified child labour as a serious problem to children out of school. NFE centres were being supported to combat child labour, problem. UNICEF Curriculum has yet to be implemented in NFE centres. The main strategy of these NFE Centres is to absorb the children who are out of school and give them some basic literacy and vocational training for self-employment in the informal sector.

#### **(k) Individual TVET Programmes Providers**

Currently there are about 1000 individuals TVET training providers, including Jua Kali (MES) Associations in the country. These individual training providers who charge school leavers fees for short time training courses, which comprise both theory and practical training. Most of these courses last for about 2 weeks. Many of them sprang up during the implementation of World Bank and other bilateral partners support for MES training programmes in the country. Some are still training school leaver after the World Bank project came to an end in 2002.

### **8.5 TVET Policy Reform Recommendations**

The following recommendations were made during TVET Reform Symposium held in November 2003:

- (i) An autonomous skill training authority should be established and legally mandated to be responsible for standards, curriculum development, examinations and certification and to facilitate coordination and development of TVET in Kenya.
- (ii) Legislation should be put in place to promote linkages between training institutions and industry, especially in identification of relevant training skills and facilitation of student's attachment in the industries as well as attachment of TVET trainers in industries.
- (iii) Establish national skills inventory, backed by efficient labour market information system on the correct demands for of the wage employment and promotion of self employment
- (iv) Various legislations covering TVET programmes in the country should be reviewed and harmonized to provide collaboration with industry.

- (v) Strengthening of private TVET trainers by creating a favourable policy environment and remuneration or rewards.
- (vi) Strengthening employer training and reducing the regulations on private training programmes.
- (vii) Using training as a complementary input in programme designed to improve the incomes of the poor.
- (viii) Encouraging TVET trainers to respond to employment markets for skills development in informal sector, where many poor people are employed to reduce poverty.
- (ix) Necessary emphasis should be put on providing basic education and moving towards universal compulsory primary education.
- (x) Priority should be assigned to training in the informal sector.
- (xi) Need to improve effectiveness and efficiency of public training.
- (xii) Defining Government's role in the provision and financing of skills development should be part policy of framework.
- (xiii) Need for economic analysis of training markets demands and supply sides is needed for making informed policy in 'TVET' , programme developments.
- (xiv) Establishing modern skills upgrading programmes based on best practices within the relevant TVET institutions.
- (xv) Providing industrial / holiday attachments programmes for TVET instructors.
- (xvi) Developing an integrated programme for making the traditional apprenticeship training programmes more effective.
- (xvii) Developing skills upgrading programmes for the master crafts workers within the TVET providers.
- (xviii) Undertaking Training Needs Assessment, in the TVET and the training of TVET trainers.
- (xix) Strengthening the capacity of the public and private TVET providers Associations and linking such Associations with other international ones.
- (xx) Provide incentives for large enterprises to train employees from small and medium enterprises, this will improve inter-enterprise cooperation.
- (xxi) Establish linkages between formal enterprises and TVET providers through industrial levy schemes in order to improve off the job sponsorships for trainers.
- (xxii) Develop entrepreneurship programmes in TVET institutions.
- (xxiii) Strengthening the capacities of Business Associations to deliver technical services to their members, in the informal sector.
- (xxiv) Strengthening the formal apprenticeship programmes which are inexistence.

- (xxv) Establish National Qualification Framework (NQF).
- (xxvi) Establish guidelines on minimum learning and teaching facilities required for TVET programmes, in all training institutions.
- (xxvii) Provide standardized minimum qualifications for TVET instructors or trainers at different levels of TVET Programmes.
- (xxviii) Provide adequate level of both quality and number of the TVET teaching staff.
- (xxix) Collaborate with industry and stakeholders in TVET curriculum development.
- (xxx) Establish modular and competency based curriculum development for TVET programmes.

The above recommendations have a bearing on the quality of TVET Programmes being provided at all levels ranging from short courses to higher level ones, in the country.

TVET Training institutions play an important role of combating worst forms of child labour by keeping the children ages 5-17 on training institution removing them from child labour and giving them good TVET qualifications to enable them to compete effectively in the employment market.

# **CHAPTER 9 - SKILLS TRAINING STRATEGIES FOR ELIMINATING WORST FORMS OF CHILD LABOUR IN KENYA**

## **9.1 Introduction**

The 1998/99 child labour survey carried, found that the following were the worst forms of child labour in Kenya.

- ◆ Harsh environment in sisal, coffee and tea estates, horticultural farms, where they are exposed to toxic substances, fishing grounds where they were exposed to malaria and other water borne diseases.
- ◆ Lack of protective clothing in sisal estates, manufacturing, mining and quarrying activities within informal or Jua kali sector and in salt mining firms.
- ◆ Carriage of heavy loads in sisal estates, sand harvesting, stone cutting, salt harvesting and horticultural farms.

## **9.2 Strategies for Combating Worst Forms of Child Labour in Kenya**

Kenya Government has put in place a number of key policy issues for combating worst forms of Child Labour problem in the country such as;

### **(a) Poverty Reduction Paper**

In June 2000, the Government adopted the Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (IPRSP). The IPRSP outlined measures aimed at revamping economic growth and poverty reduction by focussing on:

- a) Facilitating sustained and rapid economic growth,
- b) Improving governance and security
- c) Increasing the ability of the poor to raise their income levels
- d) Improving the quality of life of the poor and
- e) Improving equality and participation.

The Government has made specific measures to monitor progress and implementation of IPRSP. These include macro-economic management, sectoral and governance measures and consultations to develop a full PRSP through a participatory process.

### **(b) Child Labour Policy**

- a) The Ministry of Home Affairs, Heritage and Sport, have been mandated to ensure that the recently enacted Children's Act chapter, 2001 is implemented. The Ministry, through its Department of Children Services is a member of the National Steering Committee on Child Labour.
- b) The Department of Children Services in the Ministry of Home Affairs, has developed a training manual on Child Labour.
- c) It has also developed a data Bank of all organisations dealing with Children in Need of Special Protection (CNSP).

- d) The Ministry is in the process of constituting National Children's Council.
- e) The Ministry is also in charge of TVET institutions (borstals) for children.
- f) The Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development in conjunction with ILO/IPEC Programme, are in the process of formulating Child Labour Policy and mainstreaming Child Labour issues within the Ministry's activities.
- g) The Ministry has also established a Child Labour unit.
- h) It has started to review the minimum employment age of 15 years for children to possibly 18 years or there about.
- i) The Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development has the task to; ensure that working children of ages 5-17 years are not exposed to risky and dangerous occupations through ensuring occupational safety and health regulations for the work places.

### **(c) Advocacy or Awareness Raising**

A number of intervention activities have been put in place in the country to combat worst forms of Child labour problem. These include:-

- a) Kenya Broadcasting Corporation intervention, programmes
- b) Association of Media Women in Kenya, intervention
- c) ANPPCANS intervention, activities
- d) Sinaga Girls Centre intervention programmes.

### **(d) Ministry of Education, Science and Technology**

The Ministry is charged with the following:-

- a) Implementation of Education For All Policy
- b) Declaration of Universal Primary Education in the country for all children.
- c) Establishment of Non-Formal Education Unit in the Ministry to coordinate the development, management and regulating Non-formal Education Primary Schools.
- d) The children's Act 2001 says that every child shall be entitled to education, it is the responsibility of the government through the ministry to ensure that every child is entitled to free basic education in accordance with Article 28 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.

## **9.13 Further Strategies For Eliminating Worst Forms Of Child Labour through Education System and Training System**

It is the responsibility of the government through the ministry of Education to:

- a) Reduce the number of children dropping out of school between the ages 5- 17 years.
- b) Strengthen primary and secondary education, in the country.
- c) Enrol or admit more children in schools through improving equitable access to education
- d) Improving equitable access to TVET skill training opportunities
- e) Improving efficiency and effectiveness of education and training
- f) Enhance a friendly and conducive learning environment for children
- g) Improve children's participation rates in schools
- h) Provide child labours support services such school feeding programmes, school health services in urban informal sector where the poor live.
- i) Provide support to the poor communities to educate their children by awarding them with bursaries etc
- j) Sensitize communities to educate their child through media campaigns
- k) Support girl-child education programmes in the country
- l) Discourage early marriages for girls below 18 years
- m) Strengthen financial support to Primary and Secondary Education.
- n) Strengthen TVET training institutions management to provide access to skills training.
- o) Improve training strategies for the youth in the urban informal sectors.
- p) Strengthen and support non-formal education and training centres

#### **9.14 Skills Training Strategies for Eliminating Worst Forms of Child Labour**

- a) Train employers and workers on the dangers of worst forms of Child Labour.
- b) Develop training manuals on the dangers of worst forms of Child Labour for use in schools and for entrepreneurs in the urban informal sector.
- c) Develop advocacy / campaign materials against worst forms of Child Labour for use in urban informal sector and learning institutions in the country.
- d) Create awareness about exposing children to worst forms of Child Labour in the urban informal sector.
- e) Strengthen traditional apprenticeship training programmes in the urban informal sector.
- f) Strengthen the level of education of informal sector apprentices.
- g) Improve the quality of traditional apprenticeship training in the Informal Sector.
- h) Support the master crafts persons in the urban informal sector to take and train more apprentices through traditional apprenticeship programmes.
- i) Strengthen the capacity of TVET institutions to enrol more apprentices for the urban informal sector, particularly the NFE centres for IPEC programmes
- j) Support some NFE centres in the urban centres to recruit more out of school children for skills training, provide learning and teaching materials.
- k) Develop training programmes (curricula) for the NFE/TVET institutions to provide employable skills for the out of school children.
- l) Train instructors and managers of NFE/TVET centres about the dangers of worst forms of Child Labour.
- m) TVET institutions such as Technical Training Institutes (TTIs), Institutes of Technology (ITS) and Vocational Training Centres under the Ministry of Labour can be supported and strengthened to enrol more children to be provided with relevant short courses on vocational skills as a strategy of combating worst forms of Child Labour in Kenya.

#### **9.15 Proposed Research Projects**

Below are recommendations for proposed ILO/IPEC Pilot Project, which could be implemented or considered for implementation as a strategy for combating worst forms of Child Labour in Kenya.

**(a) The following research projects could be undertaken when funds are available:**

Situation Analysis of children ages 5-17 years who are out of school. The study could collect data on the level of education, employment aspirations, children family incomes status and the reasons for not sending them to school or training.

- a) Study of the existing Non-Formal Education Centres, in urban areas, their management, status of their financing, enrolment capacity, basic education being offered and their relevance to employment opportunities in the country.
- b) Undertake Training Needs Assessment of Traditional Apprentices in the urban informal sectors, the mode of their training, access, charges and treatment, the level of business and technology skills relevant for their future work.
- c) Study the role that can be played by Traditional Apprenticeship Training Programmes in combating worst forms of Child Labour in the urban informal sector.
- d) Undertake detailed study on the current situation of Youth Polytechnics with a view to strengthen them to enrol and train more children who have completed primary education
- e) There are a number of TVET institutions such as NIVTC vocational Training centres, Technical Training Institutes, Institutes of technology which could play important role in developing short term training courses for the children out of school.
- f) Investigations of the current private training providers to determine their capacity to provide relevant skills to combat worst forms of Child Labour.
- g) To undertake detailed study of the urban informal sector, to determine their role, capacity to absorb more out of school children and provide them with vocational skills.
- h) To undertake study on enterprises or occupations in the urban informal sector which need careful attention because there are prone to haphazard working situations which may cause danger to the safety and Health of working children.

**(b) Proposed ILO/IPEC Pilot Projects**

- a) Training of the informal sector apprentices through traditional apprenticeship programmes in Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu cities.
- b) Training of the TVET NFE Institutions who are providing vocational skills to the out of school children.
- c) Provide support to TVET NFE Centres in the urban informal sector with the aim to increase the enrolment of out of school children.
- d) Provide support to other TVET training institutions which are willing to provide short term skills training for out of school children in urban centres.
- e) Develop Vocational Skills learning materials or training manuals for traditional apprentices in the informal sector.
- f) Support the informal sector enterprises to recruit and train more apprentices through traditional apprenticeship approaches and training
- g) Improve the level of basic educational of the informal sector entrepreneurs on entrepreneurship education skills
- h) Provide support and strengthen youth polytechnic centres to enrol more out of school children for vocational skills training.

## **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

Kenya's economic growth over the post independence era has transited from high to low growth, declining from 5.2 percent over 1974 to below 1.0 percent in 2001/2002. This decline in economic performance has reduced the growth potential, of the country.

The unemployment in the formal sector has largely failed to meet the demands of the country's manpower supply. Formal sector employment growth averaged 1.8 percent while labour force grew by an average of 3.5 percent between 1995-1999.

Employment offers a crucial link between economic growth and poverty reduction. Strategies aimed at income generation, poverty alleviation will have a payoff if they increase labour force absorption.

The country has been experiencing increasing poverty among its population. A review of poverty situation indicates that large numbers of Kenyans lack adequate access to basic needs of living such as food, healthcare and shelter.

Various surveys carried out in the country about poverty, have categorized the poor as absolute poor, the hardcore poor and the food poor. The absolute poor are those who cannot meet the universally recommended minimum basic requirements for human survival; the hardcore poor are those who could not afford the minimum recommended food energy requirements even if they devoted their entire incomes to food and the food poor are those whose expenditures on food are insufficient to meet the FAO/WHO recommended daily allowance of 2,250 calories per adult.

According to the Welfare Monitoring Surveys, the proportion of Kenyans both in the rural and urban centres living below the poverty line was 52.6 percent in 1997 (about 13.4 million people) while overall poverty levels stood at 40.1 percent (about 10.6 million). In the efforts to address the poverty situation in the country, the Government has formulated the long term development goals to eradicate poverty as specified in the National Poverty Eradication Plan of 1999-2015.

Owing to the declining capacity of the agricultural sector to absorb the large labour force, the shrinking public sector as well the slow down in economic activities, the Micro and Small Enterprise Sector is the only hope left for the Kenya Government to improve, so as to create wealth and employment in the country. Information available says that in 2002/2003 the formal sector created only 89,000 new jobs and the MSEs created almost 500,000 jobs in one calendar year.

This confirms the belief that MSEs sector provides the most opportunities for the absorption of this increasing labour force in order to combat poverty. The Government statistics show that the country's labour force is expected to increase from 9.5 million in 2001 to 14 million by the year 2010, which means that the economy will have to provide 4.5 million new jobs in this decade. This study has analyzed in detail the role of the MSEs in view of their potential employment creation. Out of the current 9.5 million jobs, 6.0 million are in the MSEs Sector. The support to improve MSEs will help to create more employment and wealth for the country.

The 1998/1999 Child Labour Survey in Kenya has shown that 3.0 million children are out of school due to many factors, chief one of them was poverty and lack of employment in the household. Other studies show that poverty is the cause of child labour (Report of the Labour force Survey 1998/99) as 21.3 percent of working children were from very poor households with monthly income of Kshs 2,001, while 57.9 percent came from households with monthly income of Ksh. 6,001. This situation was supported by reasons given for working, where parents reported that they released their children

to work so to augment household income. About 1.9 million children out of the 10.9 million children aged 5-17 years were reported to have worked during the Survey period

The report analyzed the role of education as a strategy of combating child labour. Education is widely recognized as a process of empowering people to improve their well being and to participate actively in nation building. Education strengthens people's abilities to meet their needs and those of their families by increasing their productivity and potential to achieve higher standards of living and thereby improve their quality of life. Past studies have shown that there is a relationship between poverty levels and education of the household head (Second Report on Poverty in Kenya Vol. II, Poverty and Social Indicators).

Cost of education especially in primary schools is a huge burden on many households. The many schools requirements as a result of cost sharing of education such as the purchase of text books, uniforms, school development funds, additional hiring of teachers by parents and other frequent unplanned levies have all acted to deplete the meagre households incomes. For many parents who cannot afford the high cost of education, their children drop out of school and look for employment to supplement household incomes. This aggravated the problem of child labour in the country. Those children dropping out of primary school if they are employed, they are usually exploited and made do worst forms of labour. High cost of education has driven many children from poor households in to child labour.

The situation is worst in the case of female-headed households with low incomes, many children don't attend schools owing to lack of school fees in particular where the girl child becomes a first victim to drop out of school due to the boy child preference in the situation of reduced resources. This forces the girl child to look for employment as domestic worker or commercial sex worker in the Child Labour Sector.

According to the report of the 1998/99 child labour survey, 3.0 million children were out of school, of 10.9 million children aged 5-17 years, thus 32 percent drop out of school for reasons caused by poverty. The survey further reveals that declining enrolments and increasing drop out rates in both primary and secondary schools reflect increase in number of working children. In 1998 alone, there were 1.9 million children working.

The Survey further confirmed that out of 10.9 million children aged between 5-17 years about 28 percent were from female-headed households thus the households income has a bearing on child labour thus 56.7 percent of working children were coming from very poor family households pushed out by unaffordable educational costs, due to cost sharing policy.

If all children of school going age can be in school, then child labour issue cannot arise. At present, there are over 3 million out of school for one reason or another. This means expansion or increased enrolments and retention of children in school could easily combat child labour considerably particularly the cases of children going to worst forms of child labour.

It is Kenya Government priority to improve access to basic education including special education for the disabled children and further to ensure affordable and equitable access to education through strengthening the implementation of Free Universal Primary Education already in place as a strategy of reducing the number of children out of school and who are in child labour. With the declaration of the Universal Primary Education in 2003, an additional 1.3 million children were enrolled in school reducing the number of those children out of school from 3.0 million to 2.0 million.

Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) programmes have a strong bearing on the nature of economic activities that exist in a country both in the formal and the informal sectors. Since independence in 1963, the country has made a number of policy plans such as the building of Youth Polytechnics, Introduction of Pre-vocational subjects in the school curriculum, conversion of the former vocational secondary schools into post-school TVET training institutions, the building of the former Harambee Institutes of Technology now known as Institute of Technology, the building of National Polytechnics, building of Technical Teacher Training College and establishment of Industrial Training Council and their National Vocational Training Centres, and other many more TVET training colleges in various ministries, and more TVET programmes being run by NGOS, Religious Organizations and Private Individuals with a view to increase access for students and to provide relevant vocational skills for the formal and informal sectors in the effort to create employment and wealth creation for the nation.

The purpose for establishing these many TVET training institutions was to make them play a strategic role in providing high quality skilled personnel for both formal and informal sectors of the economy through sustainable, flexible and equitable delivery system. The other purpose was to absorb a large number of school leavers and give them relevant skills to enable them find suitable wage and self employment.

Certainly TVET institutions play a crucial role in combating Child Labour by retaining the children in the institutions between the ages of 5-18 years. Although there has been huge expansion of TVET Institutions in the country for the past 40 years, not much progress has been achieved to spur industrial growth and employment creation. The TVET system has been found not adaptable enough to meet the challenges of rapid changes of social, economic or technological developments. This state of affairs may be attributed to the many unresolved issues that impact against the development of an effective TVET system. Some of the obvious issues include: Mismatch of skills taught and skills demanded by industry, lack of dynamic and demand driven curriculum, inadequate funding, inadequate teachers and professional in vocational competencies, obsolete learning and teaching facilities and equipment among others.

In order to overcome some of these problems, the Government has initiated TVET reform process, which is expected to provide demand driven skills, lifelong learning, mobility and high quality training. TVET Institution Programmes are some of the strategies which are likely to help in the effort to combat worst forms of Child Labour in Kenya.

Finally, this study has identified that the improvement of MSEs access and retention of children in education system up to the ages of 18 years and the provision of high quality of TVET programmes would reduce considerably the child labour problem in the country. These strategies should go along away to support other programmes already initiated by ILO/IPEC in Kenya such as Policy Development, Advocacy and Awareness Creations and the danger of worst forms of Child Labour in Kenya.

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