Financing Adult Education: How Adequate are Current Sources in Facilitating Access and Participation in Centres in Murang’a South Sub-County, Murang’a County, Kenya?

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Abstract
The thrust of this study was to examine the level of adequacy of current sources in facilitating access and participation in adult education centres in Murang’a South Sub-County, Murang’a County, Kenya. The study adopted the descriptive survey design. Combinations of purposive and stratified random sampling techniques were used to select 82 subjects to participate in the study. The study established that most adult education centres in Murang’a South Sub-County received inadequate direct funding from the government in the last three financial years, hence making these centres unable to acquire adequate appropriate physical and instructional facilities. The funding conditions imposed by most financial institutions were prohibiting access and participation of prospective learners in these centres. It was recommended that the Government of Kenya and other public financing agencies should relax funding conditionality and increase their allocations to adult education in order to accelerate and sustain enrolment in the adult education centres (150 words).

Keywords: level of adequacy, current sources, financing, access, participation, adult education centres, Murang’a South Sub-County, Murang’a County, Kenya

Introduction

1.1 Background to the Study
A critical review of research studies in Kenya indicate that the education sector budget, which has generally been increasing over the years particularly after the introduction of Free Primary Education (FPE) in 2003 and Free Day Secondary Education (FDSE) in 2008, has had both positive and negative implications on strategies to develop education (Odhiambo, 2010; Republic of Kenya, 2012a, 2012b; Republic of Kenya/UNESCO, 2012; Orodho, 2014; Orodho, Waweru & Getange, 2014). The public spending in education sector was allocated colossal funding which increased from Ksh.92.2 billion (equivalent to US$ 1.08 billion) in 2005/2006 to Ksh.169 billion (US$1.88 billion) in 2009/2010 fiscal year to meet the new demands of the policies (Republic of Kenya, 2012a, 2012b). On average, the education sector accounted for 28 percent of the aggregate public expenditure in 2005/2006 and dropped marginally to 26 percent in the 2009/2010 fiscal years (Republic of Kenya, 2013). The country’s education expenditure as a percentage of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) has remained fairly constant ranging from 6.1 percent in 2005/2006 to 6.2 during the 2009/2010 financial year (Republic of Kenya, 2012a). These efforts to devote meaningful funding to education is justified against the backdrop that available evidence from literature review suggests a positive and significant correlation between indicators of quality education and financial allocation (Brookings Institution, 2013; Oketch & Ngware, 2012; UNESCO, 2012, 2013; World Bank, 2008, 2012). The foregoing notwithstanding, the development of other informal types of education such as the adult literacy education have been bewildered by multiplicity of challenges. According to World Bank (2006; 2012), literacy and other basic skills imparted to adults and out-of-school youths through non-formal programs not only directly improve family income generation, but also have strong positive impacts on family health status, children’s educational attainment and sustainable management of local natural resources. Effective Adult Literacy Programs contribute directly and powerfully to poverty reduction. By definition, they target the poor, especially women and girls. They deliver crucial basic literacy and numeracy skills that equip disadvantaged individuals to improve their livelihoods and quality of life. Adult basic education complements primary schooling, not because it gives a second chance to those who have missed primary schooling, but because parents who take adult basic education become more supportive of primary education for their children. Responding to demand for adult basic education in communities where parents are illiterate has been shown to improve the conditions for community involvement in formal schools (World Bank, 2006; 2012).

Behrstock (1991) notes that literacy of rural adults is receiving renewed attention nationally in USA with the level of concern over adult literacy in rural areas varying with economic, social and political changes.
witnessed in the country. Many policymakers believe high rates of adult literacy to be a condition of rural economic development. Their concern, therefore, logically addresses the literacy of citizens with the most visible need to improve their economic well-being of the poor. In United States, many poor citizens live in remote rural communities. Moreover, throughout the world, the rates of both poverty and of adult illiteracy are highest in rural areas (Behrstock, 1991).

According to the Republic of Kenya (2007), the Government of Kenya places Adult and Continuing Education (ACE) on its development agenda as part of the country’s general policy of bringing about accelerated and sustainable socio-economic development. It recognizes the important role played by ACE in maximizing the human resource potential. The Kenya National Adult Literacy Survey (KNALS) which was conducted between June and August 2006 by the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) in collaboration with UNESCO’s Department of Adult Education (Nairobi Office) and other key partners showed that the country had a national adult literacy rate of 61.5 % and a numeracy rate of 64.5 %, indicating that more people were knowledgeable in computation than reading. The critical finding was that on average, 38.5% (7.8 million) of the Kenyan adult population was illiterate, which is a major challenge, given the central role literacy plays in national development and the empowerment of individuals to lead a fulfilling life. Another critical finding was that the age cohort 15 to 19 years recorded a literacy rate of 69.1 %. This implies that within this age group 29.9 % are illiterate (Republic of Kenya, 2007). The regional disparities confirm the trend where areas that are economically well-off have a head start in terms of academic achievements compared to poor areas (Burnet, 2012; Republic of Kenya, 2007) as indicated on Figure 1.

Figure 1: Percentage of population reaching the minimum and desired mastery numeracy level by province


Financing education programmes presupposes that there are benefits that can be obtained either by the individual or by the community.

Thus, financing adult education programmes is based on certain considerations, as identified by Ubeku (1975), Akilaiya (1999) and Obanewa (2000). These include:

i.) Whether the money spent on educational programme is producing the results needed by the individuals and organizations.

ii.) What improvements can be made to the training/educational procedures in order to reduce the costs and improve efficiency?

iii.) Whether the type of training given or educational programme provided is necessary to improve individual and organizational effectiveness; whether the money, if spent on another activity, will lead to the attainment of individual and organizational goals.

Mechanisms for comparing costs of a function or programme with its outcomes have been described by a variety of terms, such as cost-benefit analysis, cost utility analysis operation research, operation analysis, cost quality analysis and cost effectiveness analysis (Hassan, 1994). The terms that appear to have achieved popularity and widest acceptance however, are cost-benefit analysis and cost effectiveness analysis. Meanwhile, cost-benefit analysis, according to Akilaiya (1999), implies a systematic comparison of the magnitude of the cost and benefits of some form of investment in order to assess its economic profitability; it is used in education because of its investment nature which yields returns. The uses of cost benefits analysis identified by this scholar include:

i.) To point the way for allocation of resources, especially financial and human resources available for education.

ii.) To provide the answer to the question as to who or which body should finance education.
iii.) To help find a way of increasing the cost of education so as to increase the rate of returns or decrease the cost and increase the rate of returns.

According to Carr-Hill (2001) California’s adult education system is financed through three major funding streams: state apportionment to adult schools, state apportionment to community colleges and federal WIA Title II funds to a variety of eligible providers including adult schools and community colleges. State apportionment funds are distributed to adult schools through average daily attendance (ADA) and to non-credit programs through full-time equivalent (FTE) formulas. CDE receives the federal funds and then distributes them to adult schools, community colleges, library/literacy providers, CBOs and state agencies for institutionalized adults through a competitive grant process. Historically, state funds for adult education programs have been distributed unevenly throughout the state. Revenue limits on adult schools were capped in 1979 following the voter passage of tax-cutting Proposition 13. As a result, the funding for California adult schools reflects California’s needs as they were more than 20 years ago. Today, we see areas of the state where demand may either exceed or fall well below these “caps” (Carr-Hill, 2001).

Voss (2007) who reported on the Danish government effort in boosting financing of adult education through enactment of an Act of Parliament in 2006 noted that more than 125 million Euros was set aside for adult education, especially job related aspects, between 2007 and 2012, in order to make Denmark more competitive and able to cope with the conditions of a globalized world. In other words, there was political will on the part of government to fund adult and non formal education. However, in a study by Ayinde (2009), the respondents were unanimous in their view on the presence of some other problems facing financing of adult and non-formal education in Nigeria. These include inadequate information on sharing of fund and funding by the individuals; double counting of grants by donors and non-governmental organizations and problems in identifying budget meant for adult and non-formal education. This finding is in line with what Woodhall (1989) found out in some developing countries.

In Kenya, adult learning and education is a shared responsibility, with different providers being responsible for financing their own operations. The providers include central and local governments, the private sector, NGOs, development partners and donors (such as German Technical Cooperation (GTZ), UNICEF, UNESCO, the Germany Adult Education Association (DVV-IIZ), communities and even individuals. It is therefore difficult to determine the actual level of resources that get invested in adult learning in any one year (Republic of Kenya, 2003). The government, through the Directorate of Adult and Continuing Education (DACE) in the Ministry of Education and the other line ministries and local authorities, is the main source of funding of ACE in Kenya. The average government spending on ACE over the last five years since Fifth International Conference on Adult Education held in Belem in 1997 are as indicated on Table 1 (Republic of Kenya, 2010). Table 1: Trends in Government Allocations for Development and Recurrent Expenditure to ACE and MOE between 2006 to 2010 in billions (Kshs)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE</th>
<th>2006/7</th>
<th>2007/8</th>
<th>2008/9</th>
<th>2009/10</th>
<th>2010/11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DACE MOE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recurrent</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Directorate of Adult and Continuing Education

Table 1 indicates that the funds the Directorate of Adult and Continuing Education receives on average are less than 1% of the total education sector budget. While it is unfair to compare a ministry with several sub-sectors and a department, it is worth noting that Adult and Continuing Education as a sub-sector of education is inadequately funded, taking into consideration the magnitude of adult illiteracy and the need to encourage adults to keep learning through post literacy and other continuing education programmes. The funds allocated to ACE are used for activities such as: development of learning materials, training of personnel and payment of salaries among others. This study, therefore, sought to establish the extent to which provision of these facilities influences participation rates in adult literacy centres in Murang’a South Sub- County, Murang’a County, Kenya.

1.2 Literature Review

ACE in Kenya is provided by various stakeholders under the auspices of the Board of Adult Education (BAE). The Board was established in 1966 through an Act of Parliament, Cap 223 of the Laws of Kenya, as the statutory body mandated to co-ordinate, advice and regulate promotion of Adult and Continuing Education (ACE) in Kenya. ACE is also catered for in the Education Act Cap 211 of the Laws of Kenya, which governs the overall provision of education in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2008). The core responsibility for ACE rests in the Ministry of Education. However, its provision is provided for within the legislative and policy framework which
guides the general education sector. Due to its heterogeneous and diverse nature, ACE is aligned to policies in other sectors beyond the mainstream education (Republic of Kenya, 2008; 2012a; 2012b).

According to Kenya Country Team (2008) since CONFINTEA V, the Government of Kenya has consistently recognized the important role played by ACE in bringing out the maximum potential of the human resource for individual, community and national development. Government recognition and commitment to promotion of adult learning is evident in policy statements and pronouncements made in the last ten years. Some of the important policy documents and initiatives which demonstrate Government commitment to promotion of adult learning include: Master Plan on Education and Training (MPET) 1997–2010 report which recommended strengthening and expansion of the Adult Basic Literacy Programme (ABLP) to cater for adults and out of school youth and links education with the national development goal of industrialization by the year 2020; The report on Totally Integrated Quality Education and Training (TIQET) of 1999 which recognized the heterogeneity and diverse nature of ACE provision in the country and recommended for strengthened partnerships between the Government and other stakeholders with a view to enlisting them into effective and expanded delivery of ACE programmes for adult learning (Republic of Kenya, 1999); Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) 2001-2003 report which recognizes that education for adults plays an important role in human resource development and is an important strategy for poverty reduction and economic recovery (Republic of Kenya, 2001); and Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 on A Policy Framework for Education, Training and Research which recognizes ACE as a vehicle for transformation and empowerment of individuals and the society. The paper calls for integration of adult and continuing education into a national qualifications framework (Republic of Kenya, 2005a; 205b; 2007a; 2007b).

According to Tsang (1993), the costs of adult literacy programmes refer to the economic value of the various inputs used in the production of adult literacy. The economic value or cost of an input is measured in terms of opportunity cost, that is, the value of the input in its best alternative use. The total cost of an adult literacy programmes is the sum of the costs of the inputs to the program. This definition of cost implies that the costs of adult literacy programmes include not only the actual expenditures on inputs by the provider of training, but also the opportunity costs associated with ‘free’ inputs (such as donated equipment or free facilities), as well as the participants’ time and expenditures related to the training.

Blomberg (1989) notes that no one standard scheme for classifying the costs of ACE exists across countries, because of the great diversities of ACE programs in terms of objectives, methods of financing, sponsorship, mode of training and method of delivery. For most applications in ACE, however, three cost classification schemes can be considered. The first one is a one-dimension classification scheme by input categories such as personnel inputs, supplies and materials inputs, equipment inputs, facilities inputs and other expenses. Each of these categories can be divided into sub-categories or items. For example, the personnel category includes instructors, administrators, other staff, participants/trainees, outside consultants etc. (Blomberg, 1989).

According to Levin (1983), the equipment category includes rental of equipment and maintenance of equipment. The other-expense category may include meals, travel and incidental costs for participants and for other personnel. These input-based cost categories may be rearranged in different ways. For example, input costs may be grouped according to the source of expenditures (institutional costs and private costs), or the length of service of inputs (recurrent costs and capital costs). This scheme provides basic information for costing and planning of ACE. The second scheme is a two-dimensional method in which a cost matrix classifies costs by both input categories and source of finance (Levin, 1983; 2008).

The common sources of finance include the government (or different levels of government), the sponsor, the employer-private sector (which may be different from the sponsor), the participants and the community. Compared to the first scheme, this scheme provides additional information which is useful for financial management of adult literacy programmes. The third scheme is also a two-dimensional method in which a cost matrix classifies costs by both input categories and function of inputs (Phillips, 1983). The functional categories may include needs assessment, development, delivery and the evaluation of the program. This scheme is useful for program evaluation purposes. The second and third schemes are obviously superior to the first scheme in terms of understanding the financing aspect and functional aspect of resources devoted to AET respectively. In practice, variations of the first scheme are more commonly adopted because of their less-stringent information requirements (Blomberg, 1989).

According to Tsang (1993), the total cost of adult literacy programme consists of institutional costs and private costs. Institutional costs are divided into recurrent costs and capital costs. Recurrent costs are measured in terms of the expenditure by providers on both personnel and non-personnel items. Capital costs are measured in terms of annualized expenditures on buildings. Private costs consist of direct private costs and indirect private costs. Direct private costs refer to participants’ own expenditures related to training (such as fees and spending on writing supplies, transportation, etc.). Indirect private costs refer to the opportunity costs of participants’ time (Tsang, 1993). The current study thus seeks to identify key priority areas of public funding of adult literacy.
programmes in Murang’a South Sub-County.

1.3 Statement of the Problem
Despite the emphasis by Otieno and Colclough (2007) as well as UNESCO (2012) that lifelong learning that includes adult literacy gives opportunities to those who have missed out on mainstream education, enrolment of adult learners in Kenya is generally low. The reason for the low enrolment and participation has been attributed to the low status of adult education, lack of teachers, poor provision of requisite services, lack of own facilities and resources amongst others. Although cumulatively, these factors could have led to little enthusiasm among learners in enrolling for adult education classes (Otieno & Colclough, 2007), the aspect of inadequate funding has not been critically addressed, especially in the context of the study locale of Murang’a South sub-County.

1.4 The Purpose and Objectives of the Study
This study sought to establish the extent to which public financing of adult education programmes has influenced access and participation rates in adult education centers in Murang’a South Sub-County. The objective of this study was to assess the adequacy of public financing of adult literacy programmes in enhancing participation rates in adult literacy programmes in Murang’a South Sub-County, Murang’a County, Kenya.

1.5 Theoretical Framework
This study identifies the theoretical framework for the wholesome adoption of education and development policies known as human capital theory. Based upon the work of Schultz (1971), Sakamota and Powers (1995), Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1997), human capital theory rests on the assumption that education is highly instrumental and even necessary to improve the production capacity of a population. In other words, the human capital theorists argue that an educated population is a productive population. Human capital theory emphasizes how education increases the productivity and efficiency of workers by increasing the level of cognitive stock of economically productive human capability which is a product of innate abilities and investment in human beings. The provision of adult education is thus seen as a productive investment in human capital, which the proponents of the theory have considered as equally or even more equally worthwhile than that of physical capital.

According to Fagerlind and Saha (1997), human capital theory provides a basic justification for large public expenditure on education both in developing and developed nations. The theory was consistent with the ideologies of democracy and liberal progression found in most Western societies. Its appeal was based upon the presumed economic return of investment in education both at the macro and micro levels. Efforts to promote investment in human capital were seen to result in rapid economic growth for society. For individuals, such investment was seen to provide returns in the form of individual economic success and achievement.

Most economists agree that it is human resources of a nation, not its capital nor its material resources that ultimately determine the character and pace of its economic and social development. Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1997) assert that Human resources constitute the ultimate basis of wealth of nations. Capital and natural resources are passive factors of production, human beings are the active agencies who accumulate capital, exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organizations and carry forward national development. This theory was relevant to this study as it provides a justification for public expenditure on adult education programmes by highlighting the benefits of the programme and therefore provides a basis on which participation in adult education programmes should be encouraged by all stakeholders.

2. Research Methodology

2.1 Research Design
The researcher employed descriptive survey design which is a process of collecting data from members of a population in order to determine the current status of the subject under study with respect to one or more variables (Brooks, 2013; Frankel and Wallen, 2000; Orodho, 2012).

2.2 Target Population and Sampling
The target population of this study consisted of one (1) District Adult Education Officer, sixty four (64) adult literacy teachers and six hundred and fifty (650) learners. This means that the target population of this study was seven hundred and fifteen (715). The study used 1 District Adult Education Officers serving in the district (Sub-County). The study then used simple random sampling technique to select thirty (30) adult literacy teachers out of the sixty (60) who were involved in the study. At the initial stage, the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table for determining sample size for research activities was used. Hence, using simple random sampling technique, 20% of 242 learners, making 48 of the total, were selected to participate in the study. The sample size for the study therefore comprised of 1 District Adult Education Officer, 33 adult literacy teachers and 48 learners, making a total of 82 respondents. The sample was adequate for the nature of study adopted (Brooks, 2013; Orodho, 2012; Orodho, Khatete & Mugiraneza, 2016).
2.3 Data Collection and Analysis
The research instruments used in this study were interview schedules for the district adult education officer, the division adult education officer and adult education learners. Also, questionnaires for adult education teachers and an observation schedule were used. Questionnaires were used because, according to Carter and Williamson (1996), they enable one to collect as much information as possible in a short time. An observation schedule/guide will enable the researcher to obtain additional information as well as seek confirmation to the responses given by respondents (Carter & Williamson, 1996; Orodho, 2009a, 2009b; Orodho, Ampofo, Bizimana & Ndayambaje, 2016).

For the purpose of this study, content validity of the instruments was checked through the pilot study where the responses given by respondents were evaluated and ambiguous items rephrased while irrelevant ones were removed all together. Threats to internal validity were checked through administration of the research instruments by the researcher. According to Frankel and Wallen (2000), reliability of a measure refers to its reproducibility i.e. the measure’s consistency in producing similar results in different but comparable conditions. At the design stage, internal reliability of the instruments was estimated at Cronbach’s alpha, \( \alpha \approx .94 \) (Edwards & Smillie, 1994). Using Kuder-Richardson formula 20, the pre-test estimated internal reliability at \( \alpha \approx .94 \).

Data was processed by conducting three major activities namely; data editing, data coding and tabulation. The data was edited to identify and correct wrong entries, errors in responses, omissions and other inconsistencies. The final data was then coded and tabulated. Data analysis was done with the help of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) as illustrated by Orodho, Ampofo, Bizimana and Ndayambaje (2016). Closed items were analyzed using statistical analysis while open-ended items were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Data was presented using frequency and percentage tables, pie-charts and graphs.

3. Findings and Discussion
Adequacy of Public Financing of the Adult Literacy
The study sought to establish adequacy of public funds to adult education programmes and how this had impacted on enrolment and retention rates. The findings are as presented in the successive sub-sections.

Allocations and Expenditures of Adult Education Centres
The adult education teachers from centres that have benefited from public funding of adult education programmes were asked to indicate the amount allocated to them against the total expenditures of the centres. The findings are as presented on Table 2.

Table 2: Allocations and Projected Expenditures of Adult Education centres

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area financed</th>
<th>GOK(kshs)</th>
<th>Other sources</th>
<th>Projected expenditure</th>
<th>Variance (Kshs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Centre One</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>78,246</td>
<td>-38,246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre Two</td>
<td>55,000</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>120,672</td>
<td>-65,672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre Three</td>
<td>56,000</td>
<td>150,000</td>
<td>194,786</td>
<td>11,214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre Four</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>115,671</td>
<td>-45,671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre Five</td>
<td>60,000</td>
<td>82,000</td>
<td>106,500</td>
<td>35,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre Six</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>97,344</td>
<td>-67,344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand total</td>
<td>281,000</td>
<td>262,000</td>
<td>713,219</td>
<td>-170,219</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings on Table 2 show that in majority of centres (4 out of 6; 66.7%) that received public funding, the amount allocated fell below the projected budgets of the centres. For instance, Centre One had a deficit of Kshs 38,246, Centre Two Ksh 65,672, Centre Four Ksh 45,671 and Centre Six Ksh 67,344. Only 2 centres out of 6 (33.3%) received public funds above the projected expenditure, where Centre Three had an access of Ksh 11,214 and Centre Five an access of Ksh 35,500 (Names of centres withheld for confidentiality purposes). These findings were an indication that public funds channelled directly to centres are inadequate in financing the operations of adult education programmes. These findings concur with UNESCO (2004a & b), Mwangi (2004) and Audi (2005) who observe that another major constraint of the adult education programme is that it is severely under-funded.

Teachers who said that the funds were adequate indicated that they used the funds to construct classrooms in the case of CDF funds and purchase furniture and teaching and learning materials in the case of K.E.S.S.P, making learners comfortable unlike before where they did not have the furniture, which has promoted enrolment and retention. Funds from the National Aids Control Council were used to initiate testing and counselling the community while women enterprise fund was used to assist learners to start income generating projects which encouraged them to continue with the programme.

Those with inadequate funds felt that the chairs and tables purchased were not enough. The money was
also not enough to fit the windows in the classrooms. They added that the classrooms were half-complete thus dusty and uncomfortable to use. Due to inadequate public funds, teachers also felt that there was lack of adult education teaching and learning materials; they had not been able to construct their own centre and therefore the centres were situated in primary schools so that when schools were closed, the gates were locked and adult learners were denied access. The centres also lacked enough funds to finance daily operations and that adult learners were using furniture meant for children. This made adult education programmes unattractive, leading to low enrolment and retention rates. The District Adult Education Officer also said that the public funds were inadequate, making their operations to be very much affected by the budget constraints.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of funding</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adequacy of public funds determines availability of start-up capital for income</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>75.8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>generating projects which makes learners to enrol and remain in the programme.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequacy of public funds determines the provision of teaching and learning</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>68.9</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>materials thus enrolment and retention.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequacy of public funds determines provision of physical facilities</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>65.5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enrolment and retention.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequacy of public funds determines adult education advocacy making learners</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to enrol and remain in the programme.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequacy of public funds determines the provision of adequate adult education</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teachers thus enrolment and retention.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Table 3 show that majority of adult education teachers (75.8%) indicated that adequacy of public funds determines availability of start-up capital for income generating projects which motivates learners to enrol and remain in the programme. This was followed by 68.9% of those who were of the opinion that adequacy of public funds determines the provision of teaching and learning materials which influence enrolment and retention and then 65.5% who said that adequacy of public funds determines provision of physical facilities which influence enrolment and retention rates in adult education programme. The least cited was that adequacy of public funds determines the provision of adult education supervisory services which influence enrolment and retention rates in adult education programmes. These findings show that adequacy of public funds to adult education programmes play a major role in enhancing enrolment and retention rates as it enhances the provision of facilities needed by the programme, facilitation of awareness campaigns and provision of incentives for learners which motivate them to join and remain in the programme. Most of adult learners could be discouraged from participating in the programme if learning environment is not conducive (Kebathi, 2004).

III. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study examined the level of adequacy of current sources in facilitating access and participation in adult education centres in Murang’a South Sub-County, Murang’a County, Kenya. The findings of this study point to the conclusion that public funds channelled directly to centres are inadequate in financing the operations of adult education programmes. This has made adult education programmes unattractive, leading to low enrolment and retention rates. The emphasis by the Ministry of Education that adult education centres be provided with facilities instead of being given funds has reduced the programme to being only for those who cannot read or write thus further perpetuating the stigma that it is a programme for illiterates and, therefore, made many not to join or those in it to drop out. Some public financing agencies dictate to centres the areas in which the funds should be utilised, leading to a situation where funds are channelled to less crucial priorities. Delay in the disbursement of public funds for adult education programmes is also a challenge which causes delays in the implementation of projects, discouraging many adult education learners from participating in the programme.

The findings of this study point to the following recommendations:

1. The government and other public financing agencies of adult education programmes should, in addition to funding, conduct adult education campaigns through advertisements in the media and public fora so as to sensitise members of the public on the crucial role of adult education to individual and national development thus, leading to increased enrolment and retention rates.
2. The government, together with other adult education financing agencies, should provide funds directly to centres rather than providing them with materials so as to ensure that individual needs and interests of centres are catered for. This will go a long way in attracting learners to the programme.
3. The government, adult education teachers and other financing agencies should make individual learners’ needs assessment to aid decisions on the priority areas of public funding of adult education programme. This will make the programme learner-friendly thus promote enrolment and retention rates.
4. The government should increase budgetary allocation towards the adult education programme and also solicit for more donors and encourage them to allocate adequate funds so as to ensure that adult education programmes have adequate funds to finance their operations, enhancing enrolment and retention.

5. The government and other financing agencies should give adult education management committee in centres a free hand in identifying areas to use public funds rather than dictate to them how and where to use the funds. This will enable these committees to put money in much deserving areas, promoting enrolment and retention rates.

References


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