PERCEPTION OF AID FOR EDUCATION IN KENYA: A CASE STUDY OF WORLD VISION AID FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL PUPILS IN SAMBURU EAST CONSTITUENCY

BY

BARAKA RITEY – ID 647051

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this is my original work and has not been submitted to any other college, or university other than the United States International University- Africa for academic credit.

Signed: ____________________________    Date: ______________________

BARAKA RITEY -647051

Student.

This Proposal has been presented for examination with my approval as the appointed supervisor

MR. LEONARD MAUMO Signed: ____________________________    Date: ______________________

Supervisor.

Prof. ANGELINA KIOKO Signed: ____________________________    Date: ______________________

Dean, School of Humanities and Social Sciences.

Ambassador Prof. RUTHIE RONO Signed: ____________________________    Date: ______________________

Deputy Vice Chancellor Academic Affairs.
DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my mother Mrs. Zambezi Naiyiai Ritey for being my pillar of strength. Without her support I would not have achieved this goal. I would like to dedicate this study to my two sons, Melau Sarion and Asafa Senteyo as well as my nephew Benson Leshan for cheering me on even when I felt overwhelmed by the task. Lastly, my Sister Jelina Sanita, who give me her unconditional support. You have all been an inspirational to me.
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Special thanks to the Directors at the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Interior in Samburu County for their willingness to provide information and documents for my research. Warm words of appreciation to my colleagues in the Masters of Arts in International Relations class of 2018 for their invaluable contributions during class presentations and other various research related consultations.
ABSTRACT

The aim of the study was to establish the perception of aid for education in Kenya by taking a case study of education aid for primary school pupils in Samburu East Sub-County. The specific objectives were: to examine the perception of aid for education in Samburu East sub-county; to determine the effect of aid for education on primary school enrolment in Samburu East sub-County; to determine the effect of aid for education on primary school completion in Samburu East sub-county; and to determine how aid can be better developed to achieve educational goals in Samburu East constituency. A case study research design was adopted for the study. Descriptive survey research was the main research method. The target population for this study is the 45 primary schools located in the four county wards of Samburu East Constituency. They will be represented by head teachers, teachers, government officials and a world vision aid official. Questionnaires were used to gather primary data. The first section of the questionnaire collected background information of the respondents including their age, gender, marital status, level of education, and their job. The results are presented in this subsection. The study found out that education aid had a high impact and positive effect on education in Samburu East Constituency. The study found that education aid was mostly utilized for scholarships, school feeding programmes, building classrooms, teacher education, and buying book/educational materials. Finally the study found out that education aid can be better developed to achieve educational goals in Samburu East Constituency by formulating better policies, punishing offenders who misappropriate or steal funds, doing periodic accounts review, and by the reforming education sector.

Keywords: Aid, Education Aid, Samburu East Constituency
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### ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KANU</td>
<td>Kenya African National Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>K.C.P.E</td>
<td>Kenya Certificate of Primary Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>NARC</td>
<td>National Alliance Rainbow Coalition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ODA</td>
<td>Official Development Assistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPE</td>
<td>Universal Primary Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>USAID</td>
<td>United States Agency for International Development</td>
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<td>KESSP</td>
<td>Kenya Education Sector Support Program</td>
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<td>MOE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
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<tr>
<td>WEF</td>
<td>World Education Forum</td>
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<td>UDHR</td>
<td>Universal Declaration of Human Rights</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction

The moral necessity to ‘aid’ of poor countries, and the desire of rich donors to ensure that aid budgets are spent effectively, have made the question of whether aid plays a role in stimulating economic growth one of the most pervasive and significant inquiries in economics. However, despite the ample literature on aid and growth, the question of whether development aid leads to economic growth still continues to be controversial. This is in large part due to the lack of an obvious causal link between aid and growth, as well as the potential for confusing factors. As such, discussion regarding the efficiency and effectiveness of aid has been highly divisive and a practical middle ground rarely conceded (Turrent, 2016).

It is often argued that current levels of external aid for education are inadequate to close the very significant financing gaps in free education for all, but only minimal investigation has been conducted at the global level to identify whether education aid has indeed been successful in achieving its purpose of improving access to and participation in education (Njoroge, 2012).

The introduction of free primary education (FPE) by the National Alliance Rainbow Coalition (NARC) government in 2003 has created greater opportunities for pupils to enroll in primary school while there has been dramatic increase in enrolment of children to school, gender disparity are observe as a major problem particularly in rural areas and urban slums.

This chapter contains the following subheadings; study background, problem statement, purpose of the study, study objectives, research questions, study significance, study limitations and the scope of the study.
1.1 Study Background

The colonial educational legacy in Kenya continued to affect educational development in the country long after its attainment of independence in 1963. In common with practice elsewhere, the colonial government had provided few formal education opportunities for African children and until as late as 1967 state schools for Africans in Kenya remained small in number, most being run by missions with some government support. In its election manifesto, the Kenya African National Union (KANU) emphasized a commitment to providing free universal primary education (FPE) and, on gaining power, it implemented changes which began to correct the disadvantages that had been suffered by African children prior to independence.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) 1948 by the United Nations embraces education as a basic human right. Kenya is a signatory to this declaration and to the international Protocol that established Education for All (EFA) in Jomtien Thailand 1990 and the World Education Forum (WEF) in Dakar Senegal 2000.

Since Kenya’s independence in 1963, ASAL region continues to experience extreme lower access to education, participation, completion and achievement rate (Sifuna, 2005), the limitation facing education in Samburu county for instance is inclusive and has attracted various actions and national interventions which have been criticized as inappropriate for socio economic and geographical realities and marginalization of the region which is deemed inadequate to mitigate the historical deprivation the region has experienced.

After Kenya independence in 1963, Kenya government sought to correct some problems created by the colonial government on education, through various reforms and Sessional Papers they were able to improve the education policy of Kenya by increasing opportunities for Kenya African Population in schools (court and Ghai, 1974).
Following years of decline in rates of educational enrolment, retention and completion, the NARC government in Kenya was keen to see major reform of education early in their term. A new Economic Recovery Strategy established Free Primary Education as a priority, and gave a commitment to increase spending on the social sectors. Although the attainment of universal primary education (UPE) had been an elusive goal for the Kenyan government since independence, early actions by the new administration suggested that lessons from earlier failures were being learned (Colclough and Webb, 2010). The commitment to free primary schooling was reaffirmed in the government’s first policy paper on education, Sessional Paper No 1 of 2000, and it identified its proper implementation as the key to attaining UPE.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Kenya upholds education as a fundamental human right and recognizes its importance in the attainment of self fulfillment and national development (GOK 2007, MOE 2006 Children Act Cap 586 of 2001). The Kenya government declaration of Free Primary Education (FPE) of 2003 is in accordance with the achievement of Universal Primary School (UPE) and Education For All (EFA) which are the United Nations Millennium Goal plan that should be accomplished by 2015 (Sifuna, 2005).

While notable achievements in FPE were recognized across the country, the performance in Samburu county, Samburu East sub-county in primary school education remained low as compared to other counties. The performance, participation, enrolment and completion of primary school education are low. The Samburu County is inhibited by the Samburu pastoral communities who live a nomadic life making it difficult for children to be consistent with school. Natural calamities and disasters are also prone in the region such as drought and floods causing
misplacement and poverty. Conflict in the region is still adamant due to cattle rustling by the
neighbouring communities such as the Turkana, Pokot, Borana among others. This insecurity
destabilizes community causing traumas, desperation, poverty, diseases, hunger and starvation in
the community. Retrogressive cultural practices, illiteracy continues to limit the right to
education (Mwangi, 2004).

This study therefore aims at investigating the perception of humanitarian aid on primary school
education in Samburu east constituency in Samburu County.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The study will gives a broad perspective on the perception of humanitarian aid, specific to
education aid by international donors in Samburu County in Kenya.

This paper will set out to answer the questions such as how humanitarian aid for education
affects economic growth in Samburu County and whether prolonged education aid in Samburu
county leads to dependency or development. In addition, this paper will use both an empirical
strategy and theoretical analysis to examine the impact that humanitarian aid for education has in
Samburu County.

1.4 Study Objectives

1.4.1 General Objectives

To examine the perception of aid for education in Samburu East Sub-County

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

To determine the effect of aid for education on primary school enrolment in Samburu
East sub-county.
To determine the effect of aid for education on primary school completion in Samburu East sub-county.

To determine how aid can be better developed to achieve educational goals in Samburu East Constituency.

1.4.3 Research Questions

What effect does aid for education have on primary school enrolment in Samburu East sub-county?

What effect does aid for education have on primary school completion in Samburu East sub-county?

How can aid be better developed to achieve educational goals in Samburu East Constituency?

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study will fill an existing knowledge gap regarding the perception that humanitarian aid for education has on Samburu East Sub County and its community. The Study will either give legitimacy or disqualify the notion that humanitarian aid creates dependency on the donors. This study will be significant to the County Government of Samburu, to use in determining the educational policies to adopt and implement. To the researcher, the outcome of this study will be significant since it is a requirement for an award to be presented at the end of the Master of International Relations at the United States International University.

To other researchers, the outcome of this study will be of great importance to those who may develop interest in the same or similar field of study in that it may be used as a document for literature review to give them relevant or required ideas.
1.6 Scope of the Study

This study will cover the impact of aid for education in Kenya by taking a case study of education aid for primary school pupils in Samburu East Constituency.

1.7 Limitation of the study

The study was carried out in Samburu East constituency. The main limitation of the study was that the sub county is rural set up therefore findings may not be generalized to other areas, literacy level among some respondents are high thereby hard for them to understand the questions asked. There is also limited literature about study specifically to the Samburu east Sub County which may require more time spent gathering relevant information.

1.8 Delimitation of the study

This study was conducted in Samburu East Constituency, the choice for the area was since the region is one of the Sub County that experience high rate of drop outs and low enrolment to primary school and benefited from World Vision Aid. The respondents were delimited to the education stakeholders who have vast information about the area. Other stakeholders such us area chief, religious leaders, community members were also included in the study to give the research relevant credibility.
1.9 Assumptions of the study

This study has the following assumptions

1. Samburu East Sub County is one of the counties with the least enrolled primary school pupils.
2. The respondents will be willing to share information with the interviewer.
3. The respondent will be willing to share information with the interviewer.
4. The respondents will be honest in responding to the data collection instruments.
5. The chosen group can represent the population under study.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The literature review of this study takes on a thematic and deductive approach in analyzing what other scholars have authored about humanitarian aid in regard to education and what impact it has on a society. The literature review highlights scholars’ views about humanitarian aid in education from a global perspective, a regional perspective and from national perspective.

2.1 The state of Primary school education in the world

There is an enormous challenge of attaining the Education for All (EFA) in many areas in the world and the United Nations millennium development goal of Universal Primary Education by 2015 is one of the strategies used to make education accessible for all. Nearly 40% of the 104 million children between 6 years old to 11 years old are not in school, 60 million of them are girls in Sub Saharan Africa, 35% in Asian (UNESCO, 2003a). Currently there are about 150 million children enrolled in school and are estimated to drop out before primary school completion (World Bank, 2002a). More than 54% of girls in Sub Saharan countries do not complete primary school (Brun et al, 2003)

So far, more than 180 nations in the world have committed to address the challenges of education realization goals by pledging that every pupil receives quality basic education by 2015. This target is endorsed as one of the eight United Nations millennium goals to achieve the goal of Universal education. Policy makers are required to make efforts in addressing the socio economic and cultural barriers that makes the dream for education difficult to realize for many children living in poor countries and regions. Research confirm that investing in education unlock great potentials and underlying talents that fosters great productivity for sustainable development.
Improving quality education as well as access to education will encourage parents to send their children to school, it motivates children to focus on education and the government will be willing to invest more resources in education. Equal access to primary education and secondary education has been identified by the international community as a key measure of progress towards gender issues. The Kenya government being a signatory to major international conventions and Agreements on human rights is expected to pursue policies that lead to the achievement of Education in Kenya.

2.2 Primary school education in Africa

African countries have struggled to achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE) despite the socio economic, political constraints and enormous cultural practices that are retrogressive to African development. According to research, 72 million children are out of school in 2007 (UNESCO, GMR 2010 Pg 1). Over the past 15 years, the countries in Sub Saharan Africa have achieved considerable progress in expanding educational coverage especially in primary school, however, many of them have still not attained the Universal Primary Education a Millennium Development Goal (MDG) prioritized by nearly all governments and donor partners (World Bank, 2012).

The colonial education system in Africa was based on a model of segregation. This was because of the establishment of separate education system for European, Asian and Africans a factor that perpetuated inequalities in accessing education more so for the African population.

Government and donor agencies have come together in support for education and given focus on girls education who have suffered discrimination and gender inequity (Sibbons et al, 2000). Quality education for both girls and boys has proven worthwhile in realizing development goals of the African Continent and the objectives of the African Union.
2.3 Primary Education in Kenya

Before independence 1963, education system in Kenya was under the British colonial government and missionaries whose intention was to spread Christianity therefore the introduction of reading and English language for ease of communication thereby tackling the language barrier. The subjects taught were supposed to prepare African communities for technical and expertise jobs. Expansion of colonial administration and missionaries in Kenya established more mission schools for example, St. Teresas Wamba, Catholic Christian Mission Primary school and Consolata nursery school in Samburu East Sub County.

After Kenya attained its independence in 1963 it embarked on the mission to rectify the problems created by the colonial government education system through increasing opportunities for Kenyans population so that they can provide qualified persons for growth and development of the administrative institutions left behind by the colonial government (Court and Ghai, 1974).

Several commissions were formed to address the challenges facing the sector and to come out with a more responsive educational system that compacts the needs of Kenyans. Therefore, Kenya Education Commission was formed which recommended an education system that would promote national unity and African socialism (Ominde reports, 1964).

National committee on education objectives and policies (Gachathi Report, 1976) this report came up with clear education objectives that were made into policies and implemented as a regulation that governs the academic model of Kenya. The Mackay report 1981 came with recommendations to remove advanced level of secondary education. There was also the commission of higher education report that saw the adoption of 844 systems in 1985. In 1988 there was a Kamunge report, the Koech report of 2000 and a Sessional paper of 2005 on policy framework for education training and research.
Key education policy reforms were put in place to gear towards the improvement and access of education. It includes the adoption of a Sector Wide Approach Program (SWAP). This approach involves bringing different stakeholders together to support education both for primary level as well as secondary.

Through the SWAP process, the Kenya government and development partners have developed the Kenya Education Sector Support Program (KESSP) this sector brought education reforms that is aimed at improving access to education, equity, equality, quality and completion rates both at primary and secondary schools (MOEST, 2005).

In 2005, KESSP key developments have been initiated with education sector. For the primary level, it comprises of decentralizing its functions from the national levels to regional levels so that services can be closer to the beneficiary community and the primary school government funding used to purchase instructional materials and support other services for the institution in order to implementation the Universal Primary Education for all school going children by the year 2015 (MOE, 2015)

Among the major interventions to increase access and participation of the disadvantaged groups in primary education in Kenya has been the waiving of school fees and free primary education programmes (Sifuna, 2005). In the 1963 elections, the Kenya African National Union (KANU), which became the ruling party, published in its manifesto entitled What a KANU Government Offers You.

According to Ngugi, Muimukha, Fedha and Ndiga (2015), significant progress has been made in primary school enrolments due to school fees waiver. The concept of meaningful advancement in universalizing Primary Education in Kenya cuts across a wider than ordinary lens on school fees waiver in line with Free Primary education. It encompasses physical access, equity and
meaningful fighting of illiteracy. Since education is seen as a tool for transmission of knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for meaningful survival, then it is from this premise that it is attributed to positive economic and social development of the society.

2.4 Problems associated with education in Samburu East Constituency

Samburu County lies in the former Rift Valley Province, Kenya. It is geographically within the Arid and Semi-Arid parts of Kenya and has an area of 21,022.1 sq. Km. Maralal is the largest town and the Headquarter of the County. It is situated in the northern part of the Great Rift Valley. According to Kenya National Bureau of Statistic 2018, the populations of the county is estimated to be 304 602 (KNBS, 2018). Politically, the county comprises of three constituencies namely: Samburu West, Samburu North, and Samburu East Constituencies and 15 county wards. The County has 149 primary schools with a total enrolment of 45,000 pupils (Samburu County Government, 2017). Considering that there are 64,756 children of primary school going age, it means that approximately 20,000 children are out of school in the entire county and the number of teachers in primary school is 949 leading to teacher ratio of 1:47. Additionally, the county has 19 secondary schools with a total enrolment of 4,422 pupils and 185 teachers. There is no single youth polytechnic active in the county. There is one private teacher training college located in the county. In regarding to university education, Laikipia University has recently established a satellite campus at Maralal town (Samburu County Government, 2017).

Samburu East Constituency lies in the arid area of Kenya which stretches to northern parts of Kenya and is one of the three constituencies in Samburu County. It is bordered to the North West by Laisamis constituency, to the East by Isiolo North constituency, to the South by Laikipia
North constituency, to the West by Samburu Central and to the North West by Samburu North constituency.

2.5 Politicization of education

Political backing in the education sector has had influence in the distribution of educational institutions and enhancement of inequality in accessing education in Kenya. The introduction of special quota system in the 1970’s was meant to avoid deserving students from less privileged background to achieve ethnic imbalance. Regional inequalities and marginalization was worsed by the colonial government structures that caused uneven development all over Kenya (Emenyonu, 1990).

Political unwillingness has been used to undermine the implementation of government initiatives in aim of improving the education management and general welfare of the academic community. Koech Commission of 2002 for instance was dismissed as unrealistic by the ruling political party and was meant to improve the challenges faced by the 844 system (Woolman, 2001). Today political decisions continue to influence education policy in Kenya. The introduction of Free Primary Education (FPE) by National Alliance Rainbow Coalition (NARC) government was implemented to fulfill its campaign manifestos of 2002.

2.6 Poverty and inequality

Poverty is a condition characterized by deprivation of basic human needs including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information. It depends not only on income but on access to services, it is living below one dollar a day (Gordon, 2005). Poverty and inequality are interlinked because the lack of resources to acquire basic needs automatically causes the poverty gaps among regions. Poverty distracts access to education opportunities. According to basic report by the Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey
(KIHBS) a significant number of pupils are still not attending schools inspite of the Free Primary Education (FPE) attainment. The reasons are costs of schooling like uniforms and food which is financially not achievable by poor parents, consequently forcing children to work in order to fend for their poor families. International evidence reveals two general patterns about the relationship between economic growth and poverty change in the developing world (Fields 2001; Asian Development Bank 2007; United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean 2011). First, when economic growth has taken place, poverty has fallen in the great majority of cases, though not all. Second, when poverty has not fallen, typically it is because economic growth has not taken place.

According to (Feeny2003, p. 73) “growth is often viewed as the primary driver of poverty reduction. Therefore, inferences of the impact of aid on poverty are commonly drawn from the impact of aid on growth.”(Kraay2005, p. 1) asserts that “sustained poverty reduction is impossible without sustained growth”. The main assumption here is that, if aid has a positive impact on growth and if growth reduces poverty, then aid contributes to poverty reduction (Guillaumont and Wagner, 2014). The extent to which aid affects poverty will depend on the growth elasticity of poverty (or income elasticity of poverty).

2.7 Gender disparities

Gender issues continues to hamper access to education one reason being a county with high illiteracy level have low levels of fertility, low infant mortality, low maternal mortality and low expectancy and access to gender issues in development (Abagi 1998). Although, an increase in the number of girls was witnesses after the introduction of Free Primary Education (FPE), the numbers are still lower than the boys in Samburu County.
Girls enrolment in primary school are still affected by cultural socio economic factors this is according to a study conducted by Africa Population and Health Research Centre (APHRC) girls are more affected by poverty, a factor that encourages early marriage and teenage pregnancy.

2.7.1 Curriculum of the Education System

The education curriculum of Kenya has faced criticism as being cumbersome. Students are overburdened with heavy academic work loads and course overlap. The education curriculum has also been criticized for its lack of proper structure in the learning items, the curriculum does not emphasize in science and technology courses which is an important aspect in a global world and interconnected world with a knowledge driven society.

2.7.2 Insecurity

Security and peace is significant in achieving education goals. Samburu County is known for insecurity cause by cattle rustling and bandits that has caused increased poverty and inability of pupils to attain education. The impact of insecurity to education sector has become more apparent with the post election violence that has hit Kenya in 2007 general election. Violence caused displacement as teachers, parents and pupils run in search for safety. Schools fail to open within the required time and teachers have to cope with curriculum on time. The state of insecurity of insecurity in many parts of Kenya has resulted in a massive number of displaced pupils who may have lost their parents and never enrolled back to school.

Insecurity undermines the government initiative to achieve a universal education for all and to implement the Free Primary Education (FPE) system, school feeding programs and effects of gender gap. Vulnerable groups and female students are more exposed to gender based violence, female genital mutilation and early pregnancy that affects the rate of school drop outs.
2.7.3 Cultural influence

Samburu region is faced with socio cultural marginalization and the culture of nomadic communities is largely communal as opposed to formal education that focuses on the individual presentation. Pastoralists livelihood has many difficulties that has not be considered by the schools curriculum and contributed so little to the practical knowledge. Retrogressive cultural practices such as Female Genital Mutilation, early marriage, forced marriage, teenage pregnancy continues to affect the lives of the pastoralist girls.

2.8 Aid to Education in Kenya

During the early post-independence period, Kenya was well favoured by the donor community. Although corruption was a challenge, it initially seemed that it was less prevalent in Kenya than in many other states in the continent. Kenya’s political and economic interests were clearly allied with the West, and Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries - most notably the United Kingdom (UK), as the former colonial power - were keen to maintain this allegiance (Mwega, 2009).

Kenya’s relatively strong economic performance during the 1970s waned over the following decade. Global recession took its toll and the economy slowed under the pressures of increased oil prices and lower international prices for Kenya’s commodity exports. Kenya’s balance of payments difficulties led to the introduction of an adjustment programme supported by heavy borrowing from the international financial institutions (ColClough and Webb, 2010).

Meanwhile, democratic processes were increasingly ignored as President Daniel ArapMoi consolidated his political power, and increased the executive powers of his government. The end of the Cold War in 1989 caused a shift in the perceived importance of maintaining earlier
allegiances, and the aid donors became impatient with Kenya’s increasingly repressive regime (O’Brien and Ryan, 2001). Significant proportions of donor aid were withheld in 1991, and their release was made conditional on the curbing of corruption and the introduction of economic and political reforms (Brown 2001).

Relations between Kenya and the donor community began to improve, however, with the election of the National Alliance Rainbow Coalition (NARC) government in 2002. Perceptions that governance and accountability were improving, and that development spending was becoming more effective were important influences on aid flows from then on (King, 2007).

The link between aid and education has been investigated before, with Michaelowa and Weber (2006) representing the most notable example. Arguably, the impact of aid with regard to education depends on how aid is measured, the extent to which aid for education adds to overall educational expenditure of the recipient government, and whether aid encourages policy reforms in education that may result in more productive use of foreign and domestic resources (Michaelowa and Weber, 2006).

Michaelowa and Weber (2006) focus on more specific outcomes, instead of short term growth effect. One outcome where aid may be expected to make a measurable difference is educational attainment. Education features prominently in the list of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) adopted by the member states of the United Nations in September 2000, that had to be achieved by the year 2015 (Asiedu and Nandwa, 2007).

To this end, donors have devoted an increasing share of aid resources to the education sector in recipient countries (Thiele, Nunnenkamp and Dreher 2006). Yet, it is open to debate whether more resources necessarily translate into better educational outcomes (Roberts 2003).
2.9 World Vision in Kenya

World Vision Kenya has a vast program reach in Kenya, with long-term development programs, spread across 35 counties, nationwide (World Vision Kenya, 2018). In terms of education, World vision Kenya’s education and child protection sector goals include; strengthening household and institutions’ capacity to nurture and protect children from abuse, improve access to quality early childhood developments and improve literacy and numeracy among children.

World Vision as an actor in education sector is an international development and advocacy organization dedicated to working with children, families and communities at risk to overcome poverty and injustice (World Vision International, 2018). It partners with communities, the government, sponsors, donors and corporate so as to realize their global strategy with activities in over 90 countries across the globe including in Kenya.

World Vision was built by Rev. Pierce in 1950 after an encounter with a battered and abandoned child named White Jade. Rev. Pierce built the organization dedicated to helping the world's children. The first child sponsorship programme began three years later in response to the needs of hundreds of thousands of orphans at the end of the Korean War. Over the next several decades, World Vision expanded their work throughout Asia, Latin America, Africa, the Middle East and Eastern Europe. In the 1970s, World Vision embraced a broader community development model and established an emergency relief division. The organization also attempted to address the causes of poverty by focusing on community needs such as water, sanitation, education, health, leadership training and income generation (World Vision International, 2018).

The 21st century began by World Vision strengthening their advocacy efforts, particularly on issues related to child survival. They became more active in working with governments,
businesses and other organizations in addressing issues such as child labor, children in armed conflict and the sexual exploitation of women and children. Today, together in microfinance subsidiary Vision Fund International, World Vision is one of the world’s leading humanitarian organizations.

2.9.1 World Vision in Samburu County and Samburu East Sub County

In Samburu County, World Vision is active in advocating for children and community rights. In 2013, World Vision sensitized the community leaders and created awareness of the harmful effects of FGM on girls. In addition, World Vision is working with the Samburu Girls Foundation to help the rescued girls find safe havens in the rescue centers and integrate anti-FGM trainings with community health workers (World Vision, 2013).

Currently, World Vision has an ongoing project in Samburu County dubbed “Lorroki Girl Child Education Project”. The project seeks to improve access to quality primary education and enhance literacy levels, life skills and competencies for rescued girls from Samburu County by 2019.

According to World Vision Kenya impact of drought on education is due to the fact of migration of families to other areas, in search of food and pasture for livestock. During assessments conducted by National Drought Management Authority (NDMA) in December 2016, some of the schools were closed as a result of ongoing drought (World Vision, 2016).

World Vision Support primary school pupils in Samburu by monitoring and evaluation of their attendant and participation in school and supports them by giving uniforms and books to encourage them and make their environment school friendly.
Because of education foreign aid, economic growth of a country and its population leads to increased employment. Increased access to quality education leads to the development of a country which in turns creates employment for the population (Tarnoff, 2016).

Employment, particularly attained through education, has been emphasized as a critical determinant of economic progress (Barro& Lee, 2001) and growth rates are affected by ideas and invention, which in turn are related to the stock of human capital, either through research and development activities or through the absorptive capacity of technology.

According to Habiyaremye and Ziesemer (2006) explain how education affects employment and contributes to economic performance. Firstly, education has the effect of increasing labor efficiency. Secondly, educated workers are able to perform complex tasks and are therefore not substitutable by unskilled workers. Thirdly, the education and skills of workers generate more output. Applied to the case of developing countries, these views suggest that educated workers help the country to absorb, implement and diffuse foreign technology, and consequently stimulate economic growth.

2.10 Empirical Review

The empirical literature examining the link between aid and growth is vast and has been surveyed by White (1992), Hansen and Tarp (2000), Hjertholm et al. (2000) and McGillivray, Feeny et al. (2005). Numerous studies conducted between the 1960s and 1980s measured the impact of aid on growth with widely differing results. In some cases aid was shown to be effective in inducing growth: however, the majority of studies from this period showed that the impact was either insignificant or negative (Chenery, Ahluwalia et al. 1974; Dudley and Montmarquette 1976; Mosley 1987).
Michalopoulos and Sukhatme (1989), who reviewed literature from the period, conclude that evidence is inconclusive, whilst White (1992) postulates that the macroeconomic impact of development assistance is little understood. Indeed, reviewers of the aid literature during this period regularly put forward the idea that cross-country empirical studies failed to produce statistically significant results.

The perceived lack of evidence on the macroeconomic impact of aid at this time, and in later years, has been discussed with reference to criticisms of the methods applied - notably the econometric, conceptual and data difficulties that are implicit in cross-country analyses of the link between aid and growth (Michalopoulos and Sukhatme 1989; White 1992).

Although the literature of the 1980s found insufficient evidence of a link between aid and growth, much of the research conducted during the 1990s - particularly that commissioned by the World Bank (Burnside and Dollar 1997; Collier and Dollar 1999) - sought to establish a causal relationship. Cassen (1994) contends that there is a wealth of evidence confirming that aid projects generate adequate economic rates of return. Likewise, many case studies corroborate the World Bank’s (1998) reflection that aid has, on occasion, achieved a lot. Hansen and Tarp (2000: 376) argue that it is, therefore, “neither analytically defensible nor empirically credible to argue from the outset that aid never works”.

However, evidence from studies that have attempted to assess the indirect link between aid and growth through investment has again been largely inconclusive. While some papers had found a
link, others have been unable to establish a positive correlation (Dollar and Easterly 1999; Easterly 1999; Arndt, Jones et al. 2010).

The results of studies that incorporate aid in structural growth models have been similarly ambiguous. Where aid has been included as part of an optimal growth model, it has been found to stimulate investment in the short term; however, in the long term it has been shown to reduce labour supply and capital stock, whilst increasing consumption (Obstfeld 1999; Gong and Zou 2001).

Rajan and Subramanian (2005), amongst others, uncover no strong evidence of a causal link between aid and growth, and little to suggest that aid works better in strong policy or particular geographical environments; nor do they find that certain kinds of aid work better than others, as has been claimed elsewhere. The authors state that strong claims about aid effectiveness are therefore unjustifiable, with aid policies shaped on the basis of such claims being in need of reconsideration.

There is little consensus as to the overall effect of aid. Whilst the empirical literature on aid effectiveness has benefitted in recent years from the availability of better data and improved estimation techniques, it appears that aid is at best only marginally significant in contributing to economic growth. Against this background, studies conducted over the course of the last decade have sought to establish the reasons behind the apparent ineffectiveness of aid.
The following two sub-sections explore two dominant themes in this literature that are of relevance to the allocation and impact of education aid - the policy environment into which aid is delivered and the impact of aid in post-conflict reconstruction.

Research conducted by Boone (1996) is notable for introducing the political determinants of aid into cross-country growth regressions. Subsequent work commissioned by the World Bank and carried out by Burnside and Dollar (1997) led to a debate on the importance of strong political will and institutions as instruments of effective aid. Their results were published in the American Economic Review (Burnside and Dollar 2000) in an article that explored the relationship between aid, economic policy, and growth. They argued that aid is invariably disbursed in countries where policy conditions are distorted, leading to a reduction in the marginal productivity of capital and a weakened incentive for investors. The authors included a range of institutional and policy indicators, with their results showing the interaction between aid and good policy environments to be significant in a number of model specifications.

Dollar and Easterly (1999) likewise found a statistically significant relationship between aid and investment in good policy environments, contributing to the influential literature that led to concern for aid to be allocated selectively to countries demonstrating strong policies and political will.

These papers were initially very influential and deemed to address the inconsistencies in the literature on aid effectiveness. However, as Easterly (2003) rightly notes, whilst the findings are intuitively plausible, it should be of concern that the Burnside and Dollar (2000) paper became the basis for a policy recommendation to increase foreign aid in countries where policies are
good without there being further testing of whether the results hold true when expanding the
dataset or using alternative definitions of ‘aid’, ‘policy’ and ‘growth’. Moreover, Hansen and
Tarp (2000), (2001) have undermined the results, showing that they are extremely data-
dependent and, based on the available evidence, have concluded that the policy environment in
the recipient country does not influence the effectiveness of aid. Furthermore, the findings have
come under intense scrutiny and have been challenged on methodological grounds such as the
identification and treatment of outliers, the choice of instruments, and methods of estimation
(Dalgaard and Hansen 2001; Benyon 2003; Easterly, Levine et al. 2004).

Easterly et al. (2004) employ the same specification as Burnside and Dollar (2000), but they
include more recent data with a resulting sample covering 1970 to 1997. Their results show the
coefficient for the critical interaction term between aid and policy to be insignificant in the
expanded sample.

A further paper widely cited by aid advocates is that conducted by Collier and Dollar (2002).
The study adopts the Country Policy and Institutional Analysis as a measure of the policy
environment and largely confirms the Burnside and Dollar (2000) results, with the exception that
the overall impact of aid is found to be greater and its sensitivity to the quality of recipient policy
more muted. An additional one percentage point’s worth of aid (equivalent to a one per cent
increase in GDP) increases the rate of economic growth by 0.2 percentage points in countries
with weak policies, 0.4 in countries with average policies, and 0.6 in those countries with strong
policies in place (Collier and Dollar 2002). The authors conclude that a reduction in poverty is
dependent upon the extent of poverty and upon the distribution of income. On the basis of these
findings, Collier and Dollar (2002) estimated a ‘poverty-efficient’ allocation of aid between countries - a system of allocating aid in order to maximise poverty reduction within a given global aid budget.

Clearly, the model of aid allocation that Collier and Dollar (2002) propose is very attractive, particularly to those responsible for ensuring the efficient spending of aid monies. However, as Benyon (2003) points out, the findings are not altogether robust: the comprehensiveness and currency of the dataset; limited sensitivity testing; ambiguous interpretation of high correlation coefficients between different scenario results; the validity of certain primary data; the variation in individual and regional allocations; methods used to restrict allocations to populous countries as well as the handling of the potential for small country bias; and the pattern of regional progress towards the MDGs, may all be called into question.

Benyon (2003) tackles many of these concerns by employing a more rigorous approach to the sensitivity testing (accounting for 25 different scenarios) of the basic Collier and Dollar (2002) model. He finds the variation in individual and regional allocations to increase significantly - Sub-Saharan Africa’s poverty-efficient share ranges from 25 per cent to 83 per cent, and the number of potential recipients varies from 15 to 29 countries - and concludes that the practical value of the Collier and Dollar (2002) model for aid policymakers in redirecting allocations to specific countries is therefore diminished.

The result of selectivity in aid allocation has meant that aid volatility in what are termed ‘fragile states’ - ‘bad performing’ countries with weak governance and/or institutions - is more acute than in more stable countries (Levin and Dollar 2005). ‘Fragile’ states is the term that has been
coined to refer to those nation states exhibiting weak government institutions and poor policies. The term captures shared characteristics of weak or deteriorating governance, a vulnerability to conflict as well as fragile conditions of protracted crisis, post-conflict and political transition (Rice and Patrick 2008). Although they represent a highly diverse group of countries, many are considered to be ‘aid orphans’ and few attract much in the way of regular private finance (Levin and Dollar 2005; Colenso 2011). It is frequently argued that the threat to development posed by fragile states requires an early, customised, and harmonised approach by donors that goes beyond the existing ad hoc response (Leader and Colenso 2005; Fayolle 2006; Sperling 2006; OECD 2007; Winthrop, Ndaruhutse et al. 2010; Colenso 2011).

Donors tend to use technical and off-budget assistance channeled through NGOs and civil society organizations in order to prevent corruption in fragile states. However, this means that the opportunity to build government system capacity and improve transparency may often be bypassed - thus perpetuating the cycle of institutional fragility (Leader and Colenso 2005; Winthrop, Ndaruhutse et al. 2010; Turrent 2011).

Levin and Dollar’s (2005) research on aid volatility examines aid flows between 1992 and 2002 and finds aid volatility to be far greater in fragile states than it is in other low-income countries. The authors also find that aid to fragile states is delivered in sudden bouts, suggesting that aid is allocated to countries over short timeframes when donors are made aware of specific international ‘crises’. Overall, fragile states were in receipt of 43 per cent less aid than the amount commensurate with their population, poverty, policy and institutional levels (Levin and Dollar 2005) - detrimental to prospects for poverty reduction. Moreover, problems for fragile
states are further exacerbated by allocation criteria that are inconsistent and often not transparent, meaning that aid flows are unpredictable (McGillivray 2005; Colclough 2011; Colenso 2011).

For the purposes of aid analysis, countries emerging from conflict - due to their invariably low institutional capacity - are regularly categorized as ‘fragile states’. However, there is reason to believe that aid delivered to post-conflict countries may behave differently than in other fragile states, in which studies have shown it to be relatively ineffective due to weak capacity and institutions (Burnside and Dollar 2000; Collier and Dollar 2002).

The end of conflict generates an instant recovery of economic activity, as donor and government consumption of local goods and services fuel broader economic growth. Furthermore, job-creation programmes cause a momentary rise in employment and consumption, whilst investment in physical and social infrastructure stimulates demand over the short-term and support growth in the long-term (Collier 1999).

As Collier and Hoeffler (2004) argue, the economic circumstance of post-conflict societies is therefore quite distinct from other developing countries in the early post-conflict years, with the prospect for recovery bringing about a period in which economic growth is ‘supra-normal’ - the necessity to rebuild infrastructure at a time when domestic revenue has collapsed makes aid unexpectedly productive.

Collier and Hoeffler’s (2004) research on aid, policy and growth in post-conflict societies considers countries in their first decade of post-conflict economic recovery during the 1990s, by
examining whether absorptive capacity is systematically different in post-conflict countries compared to other developing countries. The term absorptive capacity in the context of development aid generally refers to the capacity of the recipient country to use aid in a manner that is acceptable to donors. In economics, the term refers to the marginal rate of return to aid disbursed, with the assumption that aid is subject to diminishing returns. The authors find that absorptive capacity is no greater than usual throughout the first three years following the cessation of conflict, but that for the remainder of the first post-conflict decade it reaches around double its normal level. They conclude that, ideally, aid should be steadily introduced over the years of the first post-conflict decade. This is quite the opposite of the historical pattern of aid allocation in which, in most examples, aid has been higher in the immediate aftermath of conflict at the point during which international concern is at its peak and has reduced considerably over the course of the decade.

Collier and Hoeffler (2004) also question whether the role that policy plays in determining economic growth is systematically different in post-conflict countries, and specifically, whether the different constituents of government policy are differentially important. The authors find that economic growth is more responsive to policy in post-conflict societies; and, evaluating the effectiveness of different policies, observe that social policies have a greater impact when compared to macroeconomic policies. However, again, this is not how policy reform has tended to be conducted in post-conflict societies historically. The authors argue that their results reinforce the case that aid should taper in rather than taper out, and that it should be directed to policies aimed at strengthening provision of basic social services - arguing that the findings provide a strong justification for directing international attention towards improving aid allocation in post-conflict settings.
As has been suggested by the literature reviewed above, understanding how aid operates in different development scenarios and in different sectors is crucial to the development of policymaking on aid allocation. The following section considers the literature on aid effectiveness at the level of the education sector: first exploring the ways in which the question of the impact of aid on education outcomes has been addressed, and subsequently the data and methods used to empirically examine the effect of education aid.

The ample literature on aid effectiveness provides little concrete evidence of the impact of aid on growth as almost all the research is contested - for surveys of the literature, see Clemens, Radelet et al. (2004); Harms and Lutz (2004). During the 1980s, a positive and significant effect of aid on growth was found by some researchers (Gupta and Islam 1983; Levy 1988), whilst others found no effect at all (Mosley 1985; Boone 1994). These studies were the impetus for further research seeking either to untwine or disprove the findings. Amongst these were studies showing that aid can bring about economic growth when deployed development scenarios - for example, where good policies are in place (Burnside and Dollar 2000), or where institutional quality is high (Collier and Dollar 2002). Yet other research found that, on average, aid works but with diminishing returns (Hadjimichael, Ghura et al. 1995; Durbarrny, Gemmell et al. 1998; Hansen and Tarp 2000). Recent studies continue both to challenge and to support the hypothesis that aid leads to growth. The declaration by Easterly (2006) that aid has done ‘so much ill and so little good’ has been rigorously challenged by several leading thinkers on aid including Sen (2006) and Tarp (2006), who contend that such bold claims obscure the fact that development assistance can be effective if delivered correctly. Likewise, surveys of the literature on aid and growth also
reach wildly differing conclusions: Doucouliagos and Paldam (2005) speculate that the aid effectiveness literature has been futile in its efforts to prove that aid works, whilst McGillivray, Feeny et al. (2005) emphasize that most of the research finds a positive association between aid and growth. A definitive answer to the question as to whether aid predicts growth remains elusive.

The case that aid does not work has been made since the 1950s by critics such as Friedman (1958). It argues that the number of aid-programmes has increased not necessarily because of their demonstrable successes but, rather, for moral reasons and because no feasible alternatives have yet been established. The argument continues that aid has accomplished little that countries could not have achieved independent of aid finance and that the prospect of aid monies has invariably promoted recipient governments’ worst traits. The view that developing countries would be in a better position without development assistance is once again gaining in popularity in aid circles. That such stances on aid are again gaining currency is significant and ought to be considered seriously.

As Easterly (2006), Glennie (2008), Birdsall and Savedoff (2010) and others have observed, there has been a frustrating lack of intellectual rigour behind many of the calls for large increases in aid. Undoubtedly, it would be dangerous not to query the anticipated benefits that it is proposed additional aid will bring to developing countries because, as is discussed in section 2.5.2, there remains inconclusive evidence for claims that aid has been effective.
The position laid out by Moyo (2009) that calls for an end to aid programmes in Africa, supposing that governments would thus be obliged to pursue alternative sources of finance consequently forcing them to become more accountable, is part of the new wave of anti-aid literature. This neo-liberal, market fundamentalist approach adopted by Moyo (2009) is, however, questionable, underestimating the challenges faced by African societies and exaggerating the opportunities presented by alternative finance (Collier 2009). Apart from her ideological stance, the prime criticism of Moyo’s case is that it is not based on empirical research and, as has been argued by Roodman (2009b), is overstated. Nonetheless, Moyo presents a convincing argument in relation to the matter of aid dependency - stating that the prospect of accountable and effective governance is invariably damaged by exceedingly high levels of bilateral aid, a position espoused also by Moss et al. (2006). Likewise, Glennie (2008) maintains that rather than the usual appeals for increased aid, strategies should be put in place to reduce aid in the medium-term due to the mounting evidence of the damage that it can cause to country growth and institutions.

Whilst there is evidently increasing appreciation of the significance of state institutions in development (Commission for Africa 2005; OECD DAC 2005), there remains limited knowledge of the harm that aid dependency has upon recipient governments. Aid is thought to be detrimental to the process of learning, with the argument made by Branczik (2004) that countries are able to acquire knowledge and cultivate new skills and technology when resources are generated locally; but when resources are imported, as is the case with external development assistance, this process of learning and skill development is lost. Aid dependency occurs, as this loss of opportunity with regards to the broader means of development results in countries
becoming increasingly dependent upon the external supply of resources. An Orjiako (2000) postulate that aid is apt to encourage export lethargy amongst aid recipients as it is invariably aimed at making up for the shortage of foreign exchange. A problem arises as recipients declare the foreign aid shortage in support of calls for more aid - promoting a culture of export lethargy and encouraging indiscipline in the balance of payments position.

Other arguments stating the harm that aid can do include a tendency for ambitious planning on the promise of aid and political ramifications resulting from the promotion of centralized government power. In the first instance, it has been found that countries in receipt of aid monies have a propensity for large-scale planning on the basis of commitments from external donors to provide aid, but fail to mobilize sufficient domestic resources to implement them. When failure to mobilize domestic resources occurs, this is invariably addressed by employing deficit budgeting (Pankaj 2005). The provision of aid may also have harmful political implications in a decentralized system of governance, as donors tend to allocate aid directly to federal government, leading to a centralisation of power. Moreover, based on foreign aid, governments indulge in ambitious expansions of public sector activities without consideration of their economic feasibility (Pankaj 2005).

The relationship between aid and governance is even more complex. Aid pessimists assert that predictable and adequate amounts of development aid can weaken the incentives for recipient country governments to boost domestic revenue, generating a cycle of aid dependence and weakening accountability to citizens. Braütgam (2000) maintains that large influxes of aid fuel corruption, particularly in recipient countries with weak public financial management systems.
However, while corruption may be widespread among many governments in receipt of aid, cross-country research has not been successful in establishing a significant, clear or consistent causal link between aid dependence and governance (Moss, Pettersson et al. 2006).

Easterly (2003) has argued that development assistance weakens economic growth, alters national priorities, encourages corruption and ultimately achieves little for its intended beneficiaries. Bauer (1959), Byres (1972) and Lipton and Toye (1990), are other often cited critics of the aid-led growth model. Rejecting the theory that foreign aid is positively correlated to growth and development, they argue that there is a fundamental difference between foreign capital and domestic capital. The thrust of their argument lies in the conviction that foreign aid alone does not guarantee the growth and development of developing countries and that there are particular perils - both economic and political - to dependence on foreign aid that need to be understood. The case that they build against aid-led growth strategies is based on both theoretical grounds and the documented experiences of aid recipient countries.

A common strand in the argument against foreign aid-led growth models is that they are biased towards a capital-intensive growth strategy, and that an all-purpose application of these models is limited due to the heterogeneity of country conditions. It is proposed that, whilst many of these developing countries may experience low capital formation, this is not the sole setback experienced - their predicament goes beyond savings and foreign exchange constraints to include colonial and semi-colonial dependence; capital flight; and other bottlenecks to development that cannot be eliminated merely with the influx of aid (Mikesell 1968; Tandon 2008).
Similarly, Pankaj (2005) argues the socio-cultural impediments to growth and development, structural rigidities, the low level of technology, weak banking and financial structures, inappropriate government policies and an overloaded primary sector, are other deterrents of growth which cannot be eradicated with the injection of additional foreign capital. An additional difficulty with the application of the capital-oriented growth strategy in the developing world is its appropriateness to the context of low-income economies, which generally suffer from a surplus of labour. In these less developed countries, the primary concern is often with increasing opportunities for employment as well as improving growth rates (Pankaj 2005).

Bauer (1959) discards the view that self-sustained economic growth can be achieved on account of aid, whilst Ward and Bauer (1968) identify determinants of development - individuals’ beliefs, economic qualities and attitudes, values and objectives, as well as peoples’ social and political values - that are negatively influenced by the receipt of foreign aid.

Aid pessimists raise valuable questions over the issue of aid effectiveness. Whilst economic growth has been unsatisfactory in many aid-dependent countries, this does not imply that aid is the underlying cause. It does elude, however, to there being a robust case for reckoning that aid ought to have achieved more. Indeed, the broader economic picture does not appear to corroborate such intense pessimism on aid effectiveness. The suggestion that increased aid results in less economic growth would imply stagnant or waning poverty reduction rates, but there is no solid evidence verifying the assertion that aid undermines growth prospects. Chen and Ravallion (2008) find that in the period 2000 to 2008 during which aid to sub-Saharan Africa almost doubled, the average growth rate was between 5 and 6 per cent per annum - twice the
average growth rate of the 1990s. During this time, the incidence of poverty dropped from 58 per cent to 51 percent, with absolute numbers below the poverty line dropping for the first time in a generation. Cross-country analysis looking further back suggests that aid has a broadly positive impact on growth although, as has been discussed above, aid pessimists rightly note that high levels of aid dependence over long periods can have adverse consequences (Clemens, Radelet et al.

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Sachs (2005; 2015) has been the voice leading the call for rapid increases in aid, arguing that African nations are stuck in a ‘poverty trap’ from which they will only be able to remove themselves with the help of development aid. His plea for additional aid has been accompanied by the work of other ‘aid optimists’ seeking to determine on what basis aid could be scaled up. Riddell (2007) sets out what is and what is not known about aid’s impact on recipient countries. Stressing the complexity of the issue of aid effectiveness and the complications in ascertaining whether or not aid has had a positive impact, he refers to the numerous development actors involved and types of aid given - project, programme, as well as technical assistance and capacity building - that make it difficult to untangle the complex web of development assistance and its effectiveness. He also highlights the serious measurement issues that have tended to impede aid effectiveness studies - notably that the data necessary to measure aid’s impact are invariably not available, and that the difficulty in agreeing the aims and purpose of development aid pose significant problems when defining criteria against which performance can be measured. Riddell (2007) also considers what the appropriate time series ought to be over which aid effectiveness outcomes can be assessed. Finally, he questions the issue of establishing what would have occurred in the absence of aid - the counter-factual problem.

Riddell is arguably sceptical of bold claims about the effectiveness of aid. He claims that it is of more value to understand what does not work, as opposed to what does, in order to establish what it is that can be done to make aid more effective. He identifies five problems that are in need of redress: the quantity of aid allocated; efficiency in aid allocation; reducing volatility in aid flows; eradicating duplicated aid efforts due to the proliferation of donor organisations; and attending to disparity in the donor-recipient relationship.
Banerjee’s (2007) position is that aid can work, but that there is substantial waste and inefficiency in the provision of aid due to the lack of scrutiny over which aid programmes really work. This, he contends, stimulates unwarranted cynicism concerning the function of aid in advancing economic development. Unlike Riddell, he posits that improvements in the practice of aid-giving are necessary. Banerjee attributes the sometimes ineffectiveness of aid to ‘institutional laziness’, pointing out that aid donors fail to make the effort to ascertain what kinds of aid are successful before they allocate it. He alludes to the instance of a World Bank publication proposing best-practice measures for poverty reduction that provides no evidence that the measures have been shown to work. Studies to uncover what aid does work suffer from the fact that it is not possible to identify whether what is observed is a consequence of the measures introduced. The solution that Banerjee presents is to conduct Randomised Control Trials (RCTs) prior to apportioning aid, and to fund only those projects that are demonstrably successful. He illustrates his case by proposing how RCTs have been applied to ascertain the most cost-effective means of encouraging children to spend more time in school. The result was that the introduction of de-worming medicine, meaning that children were less frequently away from school due to illness, was the most aid effective way of achieving this (Kremer and Miguel, 2004).

Selecting the most efficient and effective project is extremely important in order to ensure that limited aid funds are not unnecessarily wasted. Of course, as several of the contributors to Banerjee’s (2007) book Making Aid Work point out, there are practical issues in taking this approach too far. Banerjee, however, presents a persuasive argument for a more scientific approach to the practice of aid-giving and selection of appropriate projects for funding.

At a time when the donor community is being called to match their words with action by increasing the amount of aid given to match the previously agreed target of 0.7 per cent of
bilateral donors’ gross national income (United Nations 2014), and whilst there is concern over the effectiveness of aid as formerly ‘rich’ donors struggle to meet aid commitments (UNESCO 2012a), it is of critical importance to appreciate how development aid can be most effectively utilised in order to achieve the best possible outcomes. As is frequently argued, making aid more effective matters as much as giving more (Banerjee 2007; Riddell 2007; Fredriksen 2013).

At the heart of the matter, in contrast to what aid optimists (such as Sachs) and aid pessimists (such as Moyo) propose, lies the reality that the impacts of aid are complex. Only through rigorous empirical research is an appraisal of these impacts made possible, and for an understanding of aid effectiveness to be inferred. Glennie (2008) coins this ‘aid realism’ - implying that decisions regarding aid and its future role are founded neither on an ideological anti-aid position, nor the ‘moral’ requirement to raise the levels of aid when studies reveal that current practice is ineffective. A fitting and ‘realistic’ response to aid pessimists, then, is not to hark back to the aid optimist viewpoint of postulating unsubstantiated scenarios in which there will be ‘X number of lives saved per billion dollars spent’, but instead to acknowledge the faults of aid and the harm that it can, on occasion, cause; and then to uphold its positive achievements.

As has been discussed above, both aid optimists and aid pessimists overstate the importance of aid. No country has ever developed as a consequence of aid: the development process is far more complex. It continues to be unclear what it is that makes aid work, or not. Although the world is now generally prosperous, the developing world lingers behind and is still renowned for high rates of poverty and disease. The solution requires a serious assessment of whether or not aid works - an issue to which the following section turns.
2.11 Challenges Facing Education Aid

The challenge faced by those evaluating the impact of aid is to ascertain whether the activities supported by donor organizations represent a positive contribution towards their stated goals, and to recommend how aid can be most effectively employed in order to contribute to development. As White (2005) argues, the nature of the challenge of aid impact assessment changes as the development model evolves, and with it the activities of donor agencies. In the 1960s and early 1970s, attention was on techniques of cost-benefit analysis. The move away from measuring development in terms of economic growth was echoed in changes to how aid effectiveness was evaluated. The change was driven, in part, by the misguided notion that the social sectors - which had become the focus of the development agenda in line with the drive to promote ‘basic human needs’, and its broadening to include rights issues such as gender equality (see section 2.4.2) - were less responsive to economic cost-benefit analysis. The assumption was that cost-benefit analysis would be unable to capture these social aspects of development, and that a more qualitative approach was necessary. By the 1980s, qualitative methods dominated the evaluations studies carried out on behalf of development agencies.

The move towards qualitative evaluations of aid was reinforced by an emphasis on process, specifically project management - which accounted for donor coordination, institutional development, and management systems. Clearly, these are essential components of well-managed aid that may be disregarded in a narrow economic study. However, it may be argued that projects focused on process - in which the focal point is invariably institutional development - are generally too far removed from final development outcomes to quantify their impact on the latter (White 2005). The spotlight on results against the background of the MDGs calls for more than qualitative studies can achieve alone, and it is this that has led to the re-emergence and re-
establishment of quantitative methods of aid assessment. This is because qualitative approaches are less appropriate for querying the extent to which interventions by donor agencies have bought about progress towards MDG-related indicators across the developing world.

Quantitative methods have re-established themselves at two levels - first in the measurement of donor agency performance, and second in the evaluation of project-level interventions. Randomization in programme design is increasingly being adopted which, as well as serving the purpose of selecting the most effective projects prior to funding, aids evaluation. Where RCTs are not possible, recent developments in econometrics allow for the production of more satisfactory controls, permitting retrospective analyses of aid to be made that control for the many potentially significant variables. Although in the academic realm of research there has been a recent surge in the application of these quantitative methods to analyse the effectiveness of aid, it remains the case that the vast amount of evaluation work (carried out or contracted out by donor agencies) continues to be conducted without the use of these techniques. This is problematic, as evaluations account for the majority of aid effectiveness studies and, therefore, ultimately shape the future direction of aid policy. Indeed, it has been estimated that up to 90 per cent of evaluations expound the ‘success’ of development aid (Michaelowa and Borrmann 2006). The potential for evaluation-bias in aid-giving - concerning the motivations for evaluations to demonstrate positive outcomes - has been much discussed as a result (Hodson 1997; Easterly 2002; Martens 2002; Michaelowa and Borrmann 2006; Phillips 2013).

There is extensive literature on aid to education, much of it based on case study research conducted at recipient country level (see, for example, Hopkin 1994; Casely-Hayford, Palmer et al. 2007; Malik 2007; Wang 2007; Colclough and De 2010; Malik and Naveed 2012). There is
also a great deal written on aid partnerships in the education sector as well as on aid modalities, much of which has been produced by donor organisations (IMF and World Bank 2002; Smith and Vaux 2003; Radelet 2004; Rose and Greeley 2006; Sperling 2006; UNESCO 2008; Save the Children 2009). A third strand in the literature explores global patterns in education aid (Lewin 1994; King and Buchert 1999; Chisholm, Bloch et al. 2008; King and McGrath 2012). This body of education aid literature is generally positive about the role of aid in education, proposing that developments in education underscore the potential for aid to make a difference. The literature is illustrated by numerous examples of how this has been done - a few of which are outlined below.

Since 2001, Afghanistan has been in receipt of significant tranches of aid intended to lead to the reinstatement of its education system. The Afghan government, with support from NGOs, UN agencies and other donor organisations, has reacted to the high demand for education and is credited with increasing primary enrolment from less than one million children (made up mostly of boys) in 2000 to more than 8.3 million children (of which almost 40 percent were girls) in 2011 (EMIS 2012). The Education Sector Support Project in Cambodia, funded by donor organizations, offers scholarships for poor children wishing to transition from primary to secondary school. Fiszbein and Schady (2009) posit that the scholarships are shown to have had a noticeable effect, with beneficiary schools demonstrating secondary enrolment rates that are 21 per cent higher than non-beneficiaries.

In Mali, attempts to hasten progress towards universal primary education have resulted in an increase in the primary net enrolment rate (NER) from 46 per cent at the end of the 1990s to 63 per cent in 2007. Almost three-quarters of the programme cost in 2007 was borne by external aid agencies, with 22 donors providing technical and financial assistance (Ky in UNESCO 2010). In respect of the Mozambiquan national education strategy, pooled support by donors has been
shown to have played an important role in financing the building of schools in rural communities, in the recruitment and training of teachers, and provision of textbooks. Between 1999 and 2012, the primary net enrolment ratio rose from 52 per cent to 86 per cent (Education Policy and Data Center 2014).

The above examples, and many other such studies, illustrate the success of education aid. However, it should be noted that they do not signify aid success stories in a narrow sense, as they are the result of national policies and political leadership supported by development assistance. Certainly, the case that is regularly put forward is that no amount of aid can counteract poor policies and political apathy (Collier and Dollar 2002; Rose and Greeley 2006; UNESCO 2010).

As such, these studies are of limited use to those interested in understanding whether or not aid works, as they cannot wholly attribute the improvements in education outcomes to the impact of aid. Interestingly, those studies that attempt to address this issue by employing econometric methods that allow for these factors to be controlled for - to a certain extent at least - find the impact of aid to be only marginally positive, and in some instances holding no statistical significance.

Leading academic research on aid effectiveness that makes bold claims about how aid should be allocated concentrates almost entirely on economic growth. Claiming that the cross-country macroeconomic studies have failed conclusively to establish the impact of aid, an emerging literature on the subject of aid effectiveness argues that a disaggregated approach to the analysis of aid is necessary. Although Cassen and Associates (1994) and White (1998) have both argued the case for disaggregated analyses of aid to be made, the composite nature of development cooperation has received only limited attention in the empirical literature. Indeed, the majority of econometric studies on the impact of aid continue to rely on aggregate aid data: this led a survey
on the link between aid and growth by Harms and Lutz (2004) to reiterate the appeal for disaggregated analysis, and to conclude that it was unsurprising that a variable as all-encompassing as ODA demonstrated no robust effect on economic growth.

The majority of studies accounting for different types of aid have been undertaken within the last 10 years, and they have concentrated upon the difference between programme and project aid or between grants and loans (see, for example, Gupta, Verhoeven et al. 2002; Cordella and Dell’Ariccia 2003; Cordella and Ulku 2004; Mavrotas 2005; Cohen, Jacquet et al. 2006; Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. 2006). The sectoral aspect of aid heterogeneity has been the subject of considerably less attention. Thiele, Nunnenkamp et al. (2007) offer an in-depth description of sector-wide aid allocation, but they do not assess its effectiveness. Also drawing on data from the OECD CRS, Clemens, Radelet et al. (2004) assess the effect that short-term sectoral aid might be expected to have on growth. They find that short-impact aid demonstrates a positive and significant effect on economic growth, a claim that is disputed by Rajan and Subramanian (2005). What is interesting, however, is that whilst both Thiele, Nunnenkamp et al. (2007) and Rajan and Subramanian (2005) account for a number of different types of sector-specific aid under short-impact aid, they do not contemplate outcome variables other than economic growth.

Only recently has an empirical literature on the effectiveness of aid within specific sectors emerged, much of which builds upon earlier efforts to approximate the predictors of outcomes in the health and education sectors. With regards to education, which is the focus of this thesis, numerous cross-country regressions have been carried out that examine the effect of public expenditure on education, as well as other variables upon school attendance (measured by enrolment and completion rates) and attainment (literacy, test scores) (Filmer and Pritchett 1999; Gupta, Verhoeven et al. 1999; Roberts 2003; Baldacci, Clements et al. 2004). These studies seek
to ascertain the comparative strength of demand-side factors such as per capita income, adult literacy, size of the school population, and extent of urbanization, and supply-side factors such as pupil-teacher ratio, unit cost of education, and public education expenditure with regard to educational outcomes.

Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. (2008) posit that the most logical strategy in the analysis of aid’s impact upon school enrolment is to include aid for education as an additional explanatory variable in the educational outcome equation. This approach is adopted by Wolf (2007) who defines a system of equations for health and education, as well as for access to water and sanitation, in which outcomes are dependent on outcomes in other sectors, whilst controlling for public expenditure, development assistance and other variables relevant to the respective sector. Wolf (2007) concludes that aid provided to health, to education, and for water and sanitation demonstrates a positive impact on outcomes in each of the respective sectors. However, these findings have been contested on the grounds that the sector-specific results are far from robust. Indeed, it has been noted that the interdependency between sectoral outcomes is weak, calling into question the decision to estimate a system of equations (Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. 2008). Furthermore, the estimated aid-outcome link may not reveal the true relationship because, crucially, the endogeneity of aid is not taken into account; and the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) estimates across the recipient countries pertain to a single year despite it being well-documented that volatility is an issue with annual aid flows (refer to Bulíř and Hamman 2003; Levin and Dollar 2005; Chauvet and Guillaumont 2009).

A handful of studies explore an aid-expenditure link at the sectoral level. Gomanee, Morrissey et al. (2003) develop a pro-poor public expenditure index, proposing this to be a transmission mechanism through which aid might alleviate poverty. In addition to education expenditure, the
index includes health expenditure as well as other expenditure items that are assumed to be pro-poor. The results are ambiguous, however, as while Gomanee, Morrissey et al. (2003) find that aid affects poverty solely through its effect on pro-poor public expenditures, the same authors reach the opposite conclusion when using a larger sample of aid-recipient countries (Gomanee 2005). Pettersson (2006) employs the pro-poor public expenditure index and finds evidence that the effect of aid on infant mortality largely works via this transmission mechanism, upholding the result of Gomanee, Morrissey et al. (2003). As Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. (2008) contend, the work of Pettersson (2006) stands out among these studies in his use of sector-specific aid data - including data on aid for education - alongside government spending at the sectoral level. However, like Wolf (2007), Pettersson (2006) treats aid as exogeneous.

It can reasonably be argued that modeling the interaction between institutions and sector-specific aid may offer additional insights into aid effectiveness. Pritchett (2001), for example, contends that there may be increased social pay-offs to investments made in education in those countries demonstrating strong governance. This is a subject that has been touched on in the emerging literature that specifically examines the link between aid for education and education outcomes.

Since the turn of the Millennium substantial progress has been made towards international development goals, with net primary enrolment rates rising globally - with Benin, Ethiopia, Mozambique and Tanzania being examples of the countries that have demonstrated some of the greatest increases (UNESCO 2015). Consequently, the number of out-of-school children of primary age has dropped from 103 million in 1999 to 59 million in 2013 (UNESCO 2008; UNESCO 2015). However, determining how much of this progress can be ascribed to growing levels of education aid remains difficult to assess. As discussed earlier in this chapter, much of the literature on aid effectiveness has concentrated upon the macro effects of aid - the association
between aid and economic growth. It has been shown that there is no real consensus in the literature, and that much of the discussion has been centred upon the supposition that aid is effective in stimulating growth, but only in recipient countries with strong policies and institutions.

It is evident that a convincing conclusion about the effectiveness of aid will not be reached whilst the thrust of research on the subject remains focused on the link between aid and economic growth, and that it is necessary to define aid effectiveness in another way. Following the calls for disaggregated analyses of aid, it seems sensible to examine how aid affects the specific sectors it is intended to serve (Cassen and Associates 1994; White 1998; Harms and Lutz 2004; Findley 2010). The sectoral approach to evaluating aid effectiveness in the education sector has a number of benefits: first, although a macro-level approach is still required (with the corresponding difficulties having to be dealt with), it circumvents the issue by acknowledging the innumerable factors that influence the aid-growth relationship; second, as opposed to a micro-level project approach, it is possible to explore the effect of governance and other macro-level indicators often assumed to shape aid effectiveness; and, third, reliance upon international statistics is arguably more dependable than project data when we consider that this is often produced for the purpose of development agency evaluations (Michaelowa and Borrmann 2006).

The emerging literature on education aid effectiveness may be readily divided into two groups: studies that weigh up the broad economic outcomes of education aid, such as economic growth, and those that assess educational outcomes as an outcome of interest. Theoretically, in order to be considered effective, educational foreign aid must either positively affect a country’s economy or improve certain educational outcomes (Christensen, Homer et al. 2010). Those studies that consider economic outcomes as the dependent variable of interest most often draw
on increases in GDP as a measure of aid effectiveness, suggesting that education aid should encourage economic growth as it provides human capital (Asiedu and Nandwa 2007; Pritchett 2001). Since the intention of most of the aid is poverty-alleviation, through direct or indirect mechanisms by enhancing growth, such a supposition has logical foundations (Christensen, Homer et al. 2010).

Asiedu and Nandwa (2007) examine the effect that education aid at primary, secondary and tertiary levels has on determining economic growth. They find that only primary education aid positively affects growth in low-income countries whilst, in middle-income countries, only higher education aid has a positive effect on growth. In middle-income countries, primary and secondary education aid is found to have a significant but negative impact on growth. The authors argue this to be the case because most middle-income countries have already achieved universal or near universal primary and secondary education and that, in these contexts, basic education is less relevant for production. Their suggestion, therefore, is to increase aid only to primary education in low-income countries. Whilst interesting and possibly indicative findings, these results should be interpreted with caution because they are based on a very limited number of observations and on disbursement data for years in which it is recognised that the coverage ratio is insufficient for analysis.

Following new trends in sector-specific aid evaluations, and due to the innumerable factors that can be assumed to influence economic growth, it may reasonably be argued that too broad a look at the effectiveness of education aid (for example by examining its impact upon growth) allows for excessive error potential. As such, enrolment rates are increasingly invoked as the dependent variable for studies on aid effectiveness in the education sector. This is in part because they demonstrate the best education outcome for analysis in terms of their global availability, and
since education enrolment was a fundamental measure of MDG 2 - the target of ensuring that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, can complete a full course of primary schooling. Michaelowa and Weber (2006) conduct a dynamic panel analysis to examine the impact of aid for education on primary enrolment rates across eighty developing countries, employing two panels: a long-term structural panel of five-year averages from 1975 to 2000, as well as a short-term annual panel from 1993 to 2000. This approach is clearly superior to the cross-sectional approach adopted by Wolf (2007), as techniques of panel data analysis allow for the comparison of repeated observations for countries, helping to establish more persuasive correlations. Michaelowa and Weber (2006) control for national education system characteristics such as pupil-teacher ratio, domestic education expenditure, and the youth share of the total population. Per capita GDP is employed to control for income. The authors, following the approach adopted by Burnside and Dollar (2000), also examine the importance of good governance; accounting for inflation, fiscal surplus, openness to trade, as well as democratic freedom as further explanatory variables.

In the results of the long-term panel, the impact of education aid on primary enrolment is found to be positive, yet modest. The results indicate that inflation, fiscal surplus and openness to trade are insignificant; while democratic freedom (as measured by the Freedom House index) is shown to be significant and positively related with the enrolment ratio, suggesting that good political and institutional governance may be more important than good economic governance. Michaelowa and Weber (2006) contend that while good governance in economic terms (trade openness, budgetary austerity, price stability) does not demonstrate any significant positive effect on primary education enrolment, general political and institutional governance clearly does - as lack of political freedom and civil liberties is consistently negatively related to enrolment.
They further argue that, at least in the short run, the effects of development assistance and governance seem to be interrelated, and they suggest that under very bad political and institutional conditions, aid can have a negative rather than a positive impact on primary enrolment and completion. They interpret this as an indication of fungibility of resources, whereby more aid frees government resources for activities that are detrimental to the country’s overall development. However, the conclusions drawn by Michaelowa and Weber (2006) are tenuous. These variables are included in the model as explanatory and not as interaction terms with the education aid variable. As such it can only be concluded that good political governance positively affects the enrolment rate directly, but not via aid.

The results of the short-term annual panel also show a positive and significant relationship between education aid and primary enrolment. However, Michaelowa and Weber (2006) find that considerably fewer variables are significant compared to results from the long-term structural panel. The authors address this possible problem of endogeneity between the dependent variable of enrolment and the explanatory aid variable by employing a Two Stage Least Squares estimation with energy aid as an instrument. Overall, coefficient estimates for the impact of aid on net primary enrolment and completion rates are rather small, and they are sensitive to model specification. The authors’ findings indicate that, on average, for every increase in education aid equivalent to 1 per cent of the recipient country’s GDP, there will be an increase in primary completion rates of 1.6 percentage points. This effect is quite small given that, as Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. (2008) point out, education aid as a share of GDP has tended to fluctuate at around 0.3 - 0.5 per cent. As Michaelowa and Weber (2006) concede, on the basis of even their most optimistic estimates, any realistic rate of growth in aid provision will be insufficient to move the world markedly closer towards the internationally agreed EFA objective.
Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. (2008) also analyse the effectiveness of education aid, with the purpose of their study being to establish whether aid is more effective than government expenditure in producing education outcomes. In order to do this, they use enrolment rates as well as completion rates as outcome variables, and education aid as well as domestic education expenditure as explanatory variables. They control for adult literacy, extent of urbanisation, per capita GDP, and youth as a share of the total population. A long-term structural panel data set is built for the period 1970-2004, with data in five-year averages held for 96 developing countries.

It should be noted that the overall approach adopted by Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. (2008) is not directly comparable to the added value approach by Michaelowa and Weber (2006). While Michaelowa and Weber (2006) explore the added value of aid to an existing initial level of enrolment and completion, Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. (2008) examine the overall effect of education aid over a period of several decades. Their study shows a positive and significant correlation between aid and school enrolment, with their results generating considerably higher coefficient estimates. Their findings indicate that, on average, an increase in education aid equivalent to 1 per cent of the recipient country’s GDP results in an increase in primary enrolment of between 2.5 - 5 percentage points. Clearly the considerable variation between results - that suggest that the impact of education aid is around two or three times greater than that estimated by Michaelowa and Weber (2006) - is due to the methods of estimation. It may be argued that the results of Michaelowa and Weber (2006) - which do not neglect the dependence of educational outcomes upon initial values - are more intuitive. Controlling for initial levels of enrolment is important, as gains in countries that are starting from a lower base are likely to be greater, whilst the converse is true in countries that are approaching near 100 per cent enrolment. That this factor is so influential suggests that its exclusion from the Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al.
(2008) study may be responsible for the exaggerated gains in enrolment linked to the allocation of education aid.

Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. (2008) also address the issue of endogeneity by using Two Stage Least Squares regressions, with the child mortality rate (a proxy for country need), the Fraser index of economic freedom, and the ICRG index as instruments. The results remain largely unchanged with the inclusion of the instrumental variables. In order to examine the influence of strong political governance, the authors include an interaction term for education aid and the Freedom House index of political rights and civil liberties. In contrast to the findings of Michaelowa and Weber (2006), the results are not significant. Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. (2008) propose that the effectiveness of education aid, then, does not depend on the extent of democratic freedom. In response to the selectivity criterion stressed by many donors - particularly the quality of governance - the authors argue that this may be less important than widely believed.

Research by Michaelowa and Weber (2006) and Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. (2008) finds positive correlations between education aid and primary enrolment, but the relationship appears not to be substantively significant, suggesting that aid’s influence upon education outcomes is only marginal. Whether these findings are the result of the models employed, methods of instrumentation, or the data itself is an interesting question.

Christensen, Homer et al. (2010), using the comprehensive AidData - as opposed the OECD CRS used by both Michaelowa and Weber (2006) and Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. (2008) - employ latent growth modelling in order to capture the nature of change in primary enrolment rates over the period 1975-2005. By allowing the intercepts and slopes to vary across time periods and countries, the authors assume that it will be possible to model the behaviour of enrolment-rate growth more effectively. Their findings depart from the previous literature with
statistical results indicating there to be little significant relationship between the aid and enrolment variables, suggesting that education aid may not explain changes in education enrolment rates in developing countries. Christensen, Homer et al. (2010: 21) argue that “global commitment to increase primary school attendance through aid efforts may have proven largely ineffective overall, though it is likely that there may have been individual success stories for specific projects”.

Both Michaelowa and Weber (2006) and Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. (2008) examine the effect of total education aid on primary school enrolment, rather than the effect of aid specifically for primary education on primary school enrolment - the reasons for this being that aid information at a sub-sectoral level is not available until 1990. While secondary and tertiary education initiatives might reasonably be expected to have some spillover effects on primary school enrolments, they may also introduce distorting noise into the models. In an effort to address this matter, Michaelowa and Weber (2007a) go beyond their previous research, separately assessing aid effectiveness for primary, secondary and tertiary education by disaggregating the education aid variable into its component parts.

However, despite the more precise sectoral attribution, this approach does not show any stronger effect of aid. Using a dynamic panel model for approximately 100 low- and lower-middle-income countries for which the relevant information is available Michaelowa and Weber (2007a) find, overall, the coefficients for the impact of primary aid upon primary completion to be statistically insignificant. Where they are found to be significant the effect is positive. It should be noted that only eight of the 24 regression estimations find the effect of aid on the respective educational outcome to be significantly positive. The authors contend that the share of significant coefficients confirms the positive, if limited, effect of education aid. The highest coefficient
obtained reveals that an increase in primary education aid equivalent to 1 per cent of recipient GDP would lead to an increase in primary completion of 2.5 percentage points. Contrary to expectation, the effect measured specifically for aid to primary education does not result in higher regression estimates. Where significant coefficients can be compared, the effect of total education aid is shown to be higher than the effect of aid specifically allocated to primary education. Such a result would be inconceivable under otherwise equal model conditions, but the two panels employed by Michaelowa and Weber (2007a) relate to different time periods - covering the periods 1990-2000 and 1999-2004. As Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. (2008) point out, given that in recent years the initial level of primary enrolment will have been higher, further increases in enrolment and completion are likely to have been more difficult to achieve. This is suggestive of the relevance of decreasing returns to education aid - additional gains in enrolment become more difficult to achieve the closer a country is to achieving universal primary education, with fewer children being enrolled in school per extra aid dollar spent.

For enrolment in secondary education, the impact of aid is of a similar magnitude to that at primary level, with the highest positively significant coefficient for secondary education aid as a percentage of GDP estimated to be 2.3. At this level also, Michaelowa and Weber’s (2007a) results from the 1999-2004 annual panel reveal diminishing returns to aid. In the short-term annual panel, aid to tertiary education is found to be insignificant - in some instances even negative - while results suggest that aid allocated to tertiary level leads to increased tertiary enrolment in the longer run. The positively significant coefficients from the longer-term structural panel fall into the same range as those for primary and secondary education aid.

The results suggest that the efficiency of education aid is uniform across the various levels of education to which aid is allocated. Despite the expectation that disaggregated - and more precise
levels of education aid ought to give rise to higher outcomes, even the best results do not significantly improve upon other studies. Michaelowa and Weber’s (2007a) findings indicate that, at all levels of education, results are very sensitive to different model specifications, with the study further suffering from reduced length of time series and the correct attribution of aid to the different sub-sectoral categories.

In a follow up to their earlier work, Christensen, Homer et al. (2011) also look at the impact of aid specifically for primary education upon primary education outcomes. They argue that the problem of adverse selection complicates the effectiveness of aid, hypothesising that bilateral donors are likely to have more freedom than multilateral donors when allocating aid on the basis of the quality of recipient governance, as they are subject to less stringent institutional rules concerned with the impartial provision of aid. The authors therefore assume that bilateral donors will be at an advantage in reducing adverse selection, with the consequence that bilateral aid should boost enrolments to a greater degree.

Their analysis of AidData for around 100 low- and lower-middle-income countries from 1995 to 2008 using latent growth models indicates that, when compared to multilateral donors, bilateral donors are more likely to determine their allocation of primary education aid on the basis of the recipient country’s control of corruption and that bilateral aid is significantly and positively related to improved enrolments as a result. It is argued that, multilateral donors are more tightly constrained by institutional rules and practices where broad coalitions of developing countries have seats and voting shares on development banks’ executive boards and can collude to demand financing with few strings attached. In contrast, bilateral donors are able to be more discriminating about the quality of governance among recipients and therefore act more strategically when allocating aid for primary education. These allocation strategies, the authors
propose, influence the effectiveness of aid in boosting primary-school enrolment rates (Christensen, Homer et al. 2011).

Of course, perhaps one of the most obvious criticisms to be made of this literature is its overreliance upon the ‘quantity of schooling’ as measures of human capital. Many have argued that the available estimates of returns to cognitive skills indicate strong returns to schooling quality especially in developing countries and the large magnitude of the effects show that educational quality concerns are not only very real for developing countries but that they cannot and should not be ignored in empirical estimates. Much in line with the micro literature, while early macro studies of growth empirics also focused on the ‘quantity of schooling’ as measures of human capital, more recent studies have tended to place a stronger emphasis on the ‘quality of schooling’ acquired. As a result, there has been a clear move elsewhere in the empirical literature from using enrolment rates and years of schooling to measure human capital to the use of international test scores to arrive at more convincing measures of learning (Hanushek and Kim 2000; Hanushek and Wößmann 2008; Atherton, Appleton et al. 2013; Birchler and Michaelowa 2015). It must also be mentioned that studies have provided evidence showing the education quality-growth relationship to be robust to controls for reverse causality. That said, there remains a data challenge that needs to be overcome. While a preferred outcome measure of human capital, data relating to the quality of education are not available over sufficiently long time-series to enable researchers to conduct such panel data analyses.

2.12 Theoretical Framework

This study is guided by the Rights Based Approach to Education theory. According to the declaration of human rights 1948, human rights activists viewed education as a basic right and since then education is widely viewed as a necessity of life. The Dakar Conference of EFA and
MGDs affirms this human right provision and the Kenya Government ensures that education policies are fully and widely implemented hence upholding human right policies on poverty reduction, democracy and economic development (MOEST, 2005b). Civil society organizations have also contributed to the success implementation of the government policy on education to ensure progress is achieved. The rights to education are therefore protected by the international convention on economic, social and cultural rights (ICESCR, 1966) and also in the rights of the child 1989.

Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) is an international bill of rights for women adopted in 1979 by the United nations general assembly and the Anti racism convention 1965 provides important aspects about discrimination in education.

There is a useful tool for guidance a scheme adopted known as the 4A scheme for education, which are accessibility, availability, adaptability and acceptability. This scheme explains the human rights principles for achieving their educational goal. The basis for all rights is the core obligation of the state and it must be respected, protected and fulfilled.

Availability is making education equally present for all to earn; the functioning structures and institutions must be operational. Accessibility ensures nondiscrimination and should be free and fair for all. Adaptability requires flexible systems that accommodate the diversity, dynamics of a community and the ever-evolving patterns of events. Acceptability includes norms, aims and goals of the education system and should match the foundation of the right to education. Education should provide full development of the pupils growth cycle that leads to respect of human rights and freedoms (article 26, UDHR).
The right to education must not only be the general rules already laid down in the curriculum but also how to apply the education with respect and dignity for everyone. So, this brings us to the criteria for monitoring results, evaluation of methods of education programs and progress thereby providing core elements that are relevant to the learning process (Paulo Freire, 1970).

The right to education should be considerate to the disadvantaged group groups of pupils who need support and to the children with special need who equal rights as well and rights to equal treatment. The right to read and write is essential and a basic requirement that must be achieved for a prosperous society.
2.13 Conceptual framework

Arising from the literature reviewed and the variables identified for the study, a conceptual framework presented in figure 2.1 has been developed to guide the study.

**Independent variables**

- The nature of primary education
- Socio economic return of education
- Retrogressive cultural education
- Political marginalization of the area

**Moderating Variables**

- World vision Aid and Government policy
- Pupils access to quality education

**Intervening variable**

Attitude of the community

Figure 2.1 impact of humanitarian Aid on education in Kenya a case study of world vision aid for primary schools in Samburu East Constituency.
The figure above shows the relationship of the variables in the studies. The independent variables in this research are represented by the World Vision Aid and the government policy intervention. This framework is based on the system approach method. The figure shows that the inputs are independent variables and the process is the impact of humanitarian aid for education for education. The output presents the dependent variables and is the access to quality primary school education. The moderating factor is the World vision aid and government policy as well as the intervening variables, the perception and attitude of the community members are expected to improve the primary school children access to quality education
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the procedures used in this research including the study area, the study design, the population from which the samples were drawn, the sampling method, the data collection tools, validation of the study instruments and how data was collected and analyzed.

3.1 Study area

Samburu County is also referred to as county number twenty-five following the recent numbering of all the counties after devolution. Samburu County lies on the North Eastern region of Kenya and the old rift valley region. It has an area of approximately 21000 km square. The county shares its borders with Turkana to the west, Baringo to the Southwest, Marsabit to the North, Isiolo to the East and Laikipia to the South. Samburu County is divided into three sub counties namely: Samburu East, Samburu West, Samburu North. Samburu East Sub County is divided into four wards namely: Wamba east, Wamba west, Wamba north and Waso. Samburu east Sub County is the largest county occupying 5143 KM Squared.

The county is predominantly inhabited by nomadic pastoralists whose livelihood revolves around livestock rearing which is the main source of nutrition and primary source of income. The projected population of the county is 304 602 (KNBS 2018). A high proportion of the population in Samburu county is made up of young persons aged below 20 years, accounting to 61% of the entire population. Almost 73% of the population lives in the rural areas and 27% lives in the major urban towns (Gok, SDSO, 2007)
3.1.2 Cultural practices

In Samburu County, the existing socio cultural practices among the Samburu that are concerned to this study are: Early age of female marriages which is encouraged to prevent girls from getting pregnant before marriage leading to school dropout rate. Migration of livestock which is a source of livelihood for the Samburu community, during this migration in search for greener pastures, there is absenteeism from school, repetition of classes and enrollment at an older age.

3.2 Research design

A research design is a master plan that specifies the method and procedures for collecting and analyzing the needed information. A research design provides a framework or plan of action for the research. A descriptive survey is a research technique in which a sample is interviewed in some form or the behaviour of respondents is observed and described in some way (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2010).

A cases study research design was adopted for this study. Descriptive survey research was the main research method. A cross sectional descriptive study was preferred because it is efficient in harvesting the required information at a snapshot. With this design a description of sample characteristics and exploration of association between variables is possible over a short period. It is also economical on both time and funds therefore easy to manage (Kombo and Tromp, 2006).

The study adopted both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection which complemented each other and provided the quality of the data collected.
3.3 Target population

A population (universe) is any complete group – for example, of people, shops, college students, or company’s employees – that shares some common set of characteristics. A population element refers to an individual member of the population (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2010).

The target population for this study is educational representatives in Samburu East Constituency who include head teachers, teachers, government officials and a world vision aid official as tabulated below.

Table 3.1: Target Population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target</th>
<th>No. of population</th>
<th>Percentage of Total Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public school heads in Samburu East constituency</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>31.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers in S. E public schools</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>62.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Officials</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Vision Samburu</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>144</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

Sampling involves any procedure that draws conclusions based on measurements of a portion of the population. The purpose of sampling is to estimate an unknown characteristic of a population. A sample is a subset, or some part, of a larger population. Probability sampling is a technique where every element in the population has a known, non-zero probability of selection. (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2010). Mugenda and Mugenda, (2003) defines a sample as the number of units selected from the target population for investigation. Stratified random sampling was used to select 25 respondents from the educational representatives in Samburu East Constituency. Stratified random sampling is a probability sampling procedure in which sub-samples that are more or less equal on some characteristic are drawn using simple random sampling from within each stratum of the population. Simple random sampling is a sampling procedure that ensures that each element in the population will have an equal chance of being included in the sample. This can be achieved through rolling dice, drawing names from a hat, or, where the population consists of large numbers, using a table of random numbers or computer-generated random numbers (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2010). The study also employed purposive sampling to select Samburu County and Samburu East Sub County. Samburu East Sub County is divided into four wards which were sampled by use of simple random sampling. Wards were used as stratus hence population proportionate to size was used to determine the number of respondents per ward.


3.5 Data Collection Procedures

Data gathering is the process of gathering or collecting information. Data gathering is an important process in any research. Primary and secondary data was used in this study. Primary data is the data that you collect yourself or through assistants from the sample you choose to represent your target population in the course of your research. Secondary data on the other hand is data which has been gathered and recorded by someone else (and for purposes other than) the current project. Secondary data usually are historical and already assembled (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2010).

The study adopted both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection. The qualitative data was collected through focused group discussion while quantitative data was collected through administration of semi structured questionnaires to consenting respondents. Both methods of data collection were considered to complement each other in that qualitative methods provided an in-depth explanation while quantitative methods provided the data needed to address the study objectives. In addition, both methods helped in reducing the biases associated with each method, whereby the subjectivity associated with qualitative methods is minimized by objectivity of quantitative methods hence providing for validation of data collected (Mugenda and Mugeda, 1999).

3.5.1 Data collection tools

A semi structured questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data from the respondents. The tool was divided into five major sections namely; socio demographic information, knowledge and perception on world vision aid for education in Samburu east Sub County (appendixi)
A Focused Group Discussion (FGD) guide was used to collect qualitative information through group consensus. The researcher with the help of the assistants used the FGD guide to conduct two FDG in Wamba East Ward and Waso Ward. The guide was designed to collect information on the objectives of the study (Appendix ii).

### 3.5.2 Validity of the Research Instruments

According to (Higgins, 2011), establishing validity involves examining the logical relationships that should exist between assessment measures. Validity is the extent to which an instrument measures what is supposed to measure and performs as it is designed to perform.

The validity of the instruments was achieved by performing a pilot test by distributing the instruments to a smaller group of educational representatives and getting feedback from the group prior to going to the field for actual data collection.

### 3.5.3 Reliability of the Research Instruments

According to Shuttleworth (2013), Instrument reliability is a way of ensuring that any instrument used for measuring experimental variables gives the same results every time. If in future the same research will be conducted in the same area using same instruments, the researcher believes that the same results would be obtained by the future researcher because of the pilot test carried out. This shows that the research instrument was reliable.

### 3.6 Selection and training of research assistants

Four research assistants were recruited and trained for three days to assist in data collection. They were college graduates. The training included explanation of the study, its purposes and
objectives, interview techniques, interviewing skills and research ethics; this was done to avoid information errors and biases.

3.7 Data Analysis Procedures

The software packages that was used in aiding coding, analysis and presentation was Microsoft Excel and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Quantitative data was coded, entered and cleaned then analyzed using SPSS for windows version 12 (SPSS inc., Chicago, IL). Package to compute descriptive and inferential statistics, the computed descriptive statistics were used to characterize the distribution of variables being studied, which were then presented as frequencies, percentages, graphs and charts. Quantitative data was organized into themes, categories and concepts in a narrative form. It was then evaluated and analyzed to determine the adequacy of information and the credibility, usefulness, consistency and validation in answering the research questions (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999).

Data analysis is the application of reasoning to understand the data that have been gathered. In its simplest form, analysis may involve determining consistent patterns and summarizing the relevant details revealed in the investigation (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2010).

3.8 Quality control

Confidentiality of the information was explained to the interviewers and interviewees. The tools were pretested in Wamba East Ward (N-25) of Samburu County and reviewed before the start of the study to ensure correct design of instruments, flow of questions, easy understanding of
questions and to know the length of time required to administer the questionnaire. The supervision of data collection was done by the researcher.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues related to the study were addressed by maintaining utmost confidentiality of the information volunteered by the respondents. The interviews with the respondents were not recorded without their approval. Importantly, the researcher maintained respect and was subtle and sensitive during interviews. Finally, the researcher undertook approval by the concerned officials in various agencies and the interviewees were duly informed of the purpose of the research and their consent for participation sought.

3.10 Dissemination and utilization of findings

The study findings will be prepared in a thesis and presented to United States International University Africa (USIU-Africa) in partial fulfilment of the requirements for Master of Arts in international relations. They shall also be communicated to the ministry of education for implementation of the study recommendations. Samburu County education sector and World Vision will also be provided with copies of this thesis. The study will also be presented in conferences and published in relevant journals.
CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

The aim of the study was to examine the impact of aid for education in Kenya: a case study of world vision aid for primary school pupils in Samburu East Constituency. This chapter presents the findings of the study and discusses these findings in relation to the objectives of the study. Summary tables, charts and graphs will be used to aid the presentation and discussion.

The primary data for this study was collected from head teachers, teachers, government officials and world vision officials using questionnaires. The response rate achieved was 100 per cent as is shown in table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1 Response Rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Sample Size</th>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Heads</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Officials</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Vision Official</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey Data from Author

4.1 Background Information

The first section of the questionnaire collected socio demographic information of the respondents including their age, gender, marital status, level of education, and their job. The results are presented in this subsection.

The responses on age group are shown in figure 4.1. Majority of the respondents were between the ages of 28 to 37 years (32%), followed by those between the ages of 18 to 27 years (24%)
and 38 to 47 years (24%), then by those between the ages of 48 to 57 years (18%), and a few by those aged 58 years or above (2%).

Figure 4.1: Age of the Respondents

The respondents indicated their gender in figure 4.2. Majority of the respondents were female (52.00%) followed by males (48.00%).

Figure 4.2: Gender of the Respondents
Respondent indicated their marital status as shown in figure 4.3. Majority of the respondents were married (50.00%), followed by those who were single (30.00%), then by those who were divorced (16.00%), and fewer by those who were widowed (4.00%).

![Marital Status Chart]

**Figure 4.3: Marital Status of the Respondents**

The respondents indicated their level of education as shown in figure 4.4. Majority of the respondents had a degree (54.00%), followed by those with either a masters or a post graduate diploma (22.00%), then by those with a diploma (14.00%), then by those with a certificate (6.00%), and lastly by those with a doctorate (4.00%).
4.2 Perception of Aid on Education

The respondents were asked various questions concerning the perception of aid on education in Samburu East Constituency. Most respondents 40% acknowledged that aid on education had high impact while 28% slightly above quarter believed it had a low impact. Their responses are shown in table 4.2. As can be seen from the table, majority of the respondents indicated that it had a high impact (40.0%) followed by those who indicated it had a medium impact (32.0%) and lastly by those who indicated it had a low impact (28.0%).
Table 4.2: The degree of impact that aid has on education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Impact</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium Impact</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Impact</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey Data from Author  

The respondents indicated the effect of aid on education in Samburu East Constituency in table 4.3. From this table the majority of the respondents indicated that it had a positive effect (72.0%) followed by those who indicated that it had no effect (20.0%). However, few respondents indicated that it had a negative effect (8.0%).

Table 4.3: The effect of aid on education in Samburu East Constituency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Effect</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Effect</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Effect</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey Data from Author  

The respondents indicated the level of influence of aid on school enrolment in Samburu East Constituency. As can be seen from their responses in table 4.4, majority of the respondents indicated that it had a high level (52.0%) followed by those who indicated it had a medium level (44.0%) and lastly by those who indicated it had a low level (4.0%).
Table 4.4: The level of influence of aid on school enrolment in Samburu East Constituency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey Data from Author  

The respondents indicated the level of influence of aid on school completion in Samburu East Constituency as shown in table 4.5. Majority of the respondents indicated that it had a medium level (60.0%) followed by those who indicated that it had a high level (36.0%) and lastly by those who indicated that it had a low level (4.0%).

Table 4.5: The level of influence of aid on school completion in Samburu East Constituency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey Data from Author  

Response to the ways in which aid is mostly utilized by the education sector in Samburu East Constituency is presented in table 4.6 below. The majority of the respondents indicated that aid was mostly utilized for scholarships (28.0%) followed by school feeding programmes (26.0%), then by building classrooms (20.0%) and teacher education (20.0%), few (6%) indicated that aid is used by buying book/educational materials.
Table 4.6: Utilization of aid in education sector in Samburu East Constituency?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scholarships</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books / Educational Material</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building Classrooms</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Feeding Programmes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Education</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey Data from Author  

On utilization of aid in education sector, overwhelming majority (82%) indicated that the organization has a framework for monitoring and evaluation as shown in table 4.7, while only a few (18.0%) indicated the organizations did not have monitoring and evaluation.

Table 4.7: Presence of monitoring and evaluation framework on utilization of aid

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey Data from Author  

The respondents indicated how aid can be better developed to achieve educational goals in Samburu East Constituency as shown in table 4.8. Majority of the respondents indicated formulating better policies (52.0%), followed by punishing offenders who misappropriate or
steal funds (36.0%), then by periodic accounts review (8.0%) and lastly by reforming education sector (4.0%).

Table 4.8: Development of aid in order to achieve educational goals in Samburu East Constituency?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reforming Education Sector</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Periodic Accounts Review</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punishing Offenders</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formulating Better Policies</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey Data from Author  

We have seen that there are several challenges that have been as blocks for attainment of goals and objectives of education in Kenya. Some of these challenges are natural, some financial in nature while others are economically and socially induced. Political challenges also are a major reason why these goals and objectives are still not achievable.

Some of the challenges that we noted include the following, firstly there is a lack of adequate infrastructure and shortage of permanent classrooms in primary schools, particularly in poor counties such as North Eastern. Secondly, there is a lack of clear legal guidelines on the implementation of inclusive education and non-formal education programs. The guidelines provided for implementation of educational plan are always inefficient. Thirdly, there is a lack of reliable data on children with special needs, out-of-school children and illiterate adults and youth. This results due to inadequate machines and personnel in collecting, analyzing and recording correct data. Fourthly, there is a shortfall of adult literacy teachers as well as teaching
and learning materials. There are no proper motivation and clear follow up on adult education which discourages education in this level. Fifth, there are low transition rates from primary to secondary, secondary to higher education institutions, and higher education to special fields or job market.

4.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of the study. The aim of the study was to examine the perception of aid for education in Kenya. The study chose a case study of World Vision Aid for primary school pupils in Samburu East Constituency.
5.0 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the study and gives the conclusions and recommendations. The conclusions are based on the results/findings of this study and the recommendations are based on the conclusions. The main aim of this study was to examine perception of aid for education in Kenya. The study chose a case study of World Vision Aid for primary school pupils in Samburu East Constituency.

5.1 Summary

The general objective of the study was to establish the perception of World Vision aid for education in Samburu East Sub-County. The specific objectives were: to determine the criteria used by World Vision in selecting who benefits from the aid in Samburu East sub-county; to establish the number of beneficiaries from the education aid by World Vision in Samburu East sub-County; and to establish the transition rate of students from primary education to secondary education in Samburu East sub-county after the World Vision education aid ends.

A case study research design was adopted for this study. Descriptive survey research was the main research method. The target population for this study is the 45 primary schools located in the four county wards of Samburu East Constituency. They will be represented by head teachers, teachers, government officials and a world vision aid official. Questionnaires were used to gather primary data.

Provision of good quality primary education still remains to be huge in terms of the funding gap, other areas of education that are also underfunded in humanitarian funding should also be addressed so as to improve on education goals for all, for example, funding secondary education.
in marginalized areas has proved to be worthwhile especially because secondary school attainment can help reduce poverty, increase chances of employment and even deals with problems of illiteracy. More so, the effective recruitment, training and deployment of good quality teachers has been a real challenge for marginalized regions which is of vital importance in increasing performance rate of pupils seeking education from this area and humanitarian aid to education should meet needs that are currently not reflected in humanitarian plans for education. Setting targets to have out-of-school pupils in school ensures that the most vulnerable and marginalized are prioritized and efforts should start with ensuring that pupils are accessing school, specifically focusing on out-of-school pupils in order to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals. Education urgently needs to be made a priority in marginalized and vulnerable regions such as Samburu East Sub-County. These areas currently have some of the country’s worst education indicators and thousands of pupils are being deprived of their right to an education that could transform their lives. Not focusing on these regions will affect the education targets to be realized by vision 2030.

5.2 Socio demographic factors

The first section of the questionnaire collected background information of the respondents including their age, gender, marital status, level of education, and their job. The results are presented in this subsection.

The first question indicated their age group. Their responses are shown in figure 4.1 and majority of the respondents were between the ages of 28 to 37 years (32.00%), followed by those between the ages of 18 to 27 years (24.00%) and 38 to 47 years (24.00%), then by those between the ages of 48 to 57 years (18.00%), and lastly by those aged 58 years or above (2.00%).
Respondents indicated their gender. Their responses are shown in figure 4.2. From the figure it is evident that majority of the respondents were female (52.00%) followed by males (48.00%).

Respondents indicated their marital status as shown in figure 4.3. As is evident from the figure majority of the respondents were married (50.00%), followed by those who were single (30.00%), then by those who were divorced (16.00%), and lastly by those who were widowed (4.00%).

Respondents indicated their level of education as shown in figure 4.4 and majority of the respondents had a degree (54.00%), followed equally by those with either a masters or a post graduate diploma (22.00%), then by those with a diploma (14.00%), then by those with a certificate (6.00%), and lastly by those with a doctorate (4.00%).

5.3 Perception of Aid on education in Samburu East Sub-County

The second part of the questionnaire asked the respondents various questions concerning the perception of aid on education in Samburu East Constituency. Respondents indicated the degree of impact that aid has on education. Their responses are shown in table 4.2. Majority of the respondents indicated that it had a high impact (40.0%) followed by those who indicated it had a medium impact (32.0%) and lastly by those who indicated it had a low impact (28.0%).

Efficient aid and development aid systems, together with sufficient levels of domestic finance, should support millions of pupils in nomadic areas attain education. This will help achieve the global efforts to ensure school access for all. Humanitarian aid should prioritize education, translating it to sufficient funding. The globally agreed target for the minimum share of education in humanitarian aid at 4% needs to be strengthened to ensure funding reaches all
pupils in marginalized and vulnerable regions. Donors should better target aid according to need (UNESCO, 2011).

5.4 **Effect of Aid on education in Samburu East Constituency**

Respondents indicated the effect of aid on education in Samburu East Constituency as shown in table 4.3. From this table majority of the respondents indicated that it had a positive effect (72.0%) followed by those who indicated that it had no effect (20.0%) and lastly by those who indicated that it had a negative effect (8.0%).

There is clear evidence that a good quality education is important to attaining many of the proposed Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and without significant efforts towards universal access to education, many of these goals will not be achieved (UNESCO, 2014a). Better mechanisms of Aid should be employed in order to achieve the goal of Education for All. A lot of humanitarian aid is provided through bilateral channels, this leads to some projects funded than others because it lacks donors coordination (Save the Children, 2014). Through Humanitarian pooled funds better methods to facilitate coordinated funding is attained and can be used to respond more flexibly to dynamics (Development Initiatives, 2014). The particular challenges associated with counties in marginalized regions require a flexible approach to funding(Poole, 2014).
5.5 Level of influence of aid on enrolment in Samburu East Constituency

Respondents indicated the level of influence of aid on school enrolment in Samburu East Constituency in table 4.4, majority of the respondents indicated that it had a high level (52.0%) followed by those who indicated it had a medium level (44.0%) and lastly by those who indicated it had a low level (4.0%).

Great progress was achieved after 2000 in reducing the number of out-of-school pupils, inequalities in children’s access and progression through schools are different in marginalized area. GMR analysis shows that while poverty hampers children’s access and progression through schooling systems in low and middle income families, it is more pronounced in nomadic regions (UNESCO, 2011).

According to education reports all countries globally are expected to achieve universal primary enrolment, the most important of the Education ForAll goals, in spite of the large numbers of out-of-school pupils. Poor funding of education in humanitarian aid and development aid contrasts with the high prioritization that communities and children place on education (UNESCO, 2011).

5.6 Level of influence of aid on school completion in Samburu East Constituency

Respondents indicated the level of influence of aid on school completion in Samburu East Constituency as shown in table 4.5. Majority of the respondents indicated that it had a medium level (60.0%) followed by those who indicated that it had a high level (36.0%) and lastly by those who indicated that it had a low level (4.0%).
Many pupils from the poorest households do not complete primary education in comparison with the poorest children from stable setting this explains that educational outcomes of children with the same demographic, health and socioeconomic characteristics are different from regions. Influence of Aid on school completion is therefore more in marginalized communities (UNESCO, 2011).

5.7 Aid utilization by education sectors

Respondents indicated the way in which aid is mostly utilized by the education sector in Samburu East Constituency as presented in table 4.6 below and majority of the respondents indicated that was mostly utilized for scholarships (28.0%) followed by school feeding programmes (26.0%), then equally by building classrooms (20.0%) and teacher education (20.0%), and lastly by buying book/educational materials (6.0%).

Humanitarian Aid analysis of education projects indicate that more focus has been on the construction of school buildings and the purchase of textbooks, teaching materials and other equipment has done much better with their funding requests. Projects seeking to improve access and quality, on the other hand, fared worse because funding mechanisms make up a small share of total humanitarian funding for education (Save the Children, 2014).

5.8 Framework for monitoring and evaluation

Respondents indicated that the World Vision aid organization have a framework for monitoring and evaluation as shown in table 4.7 and majority of them (82.0%) indicated that the
organizations did have a framework for monitoring and evaluation the utilization of aid while only a few (18.0%) indicated the organizations did not.

Greater transparency is required from all of the education actors on who selection of beneficiaries and how they are being targeted. Concern regarding aid responses to the needs of the education sector is the lack of accurate needs assessment methodologies, which have important consequences for the prioritization of funding and programmes (UNESCO, 2011, Nicolai, 2015). This responsibility does not only belong to humanitarian actors, but domestic governments and development aid actors must also work efficiently and effectively to identify beneficiaries who are vulnerable. Poor data transparency and coordination makes it unclear how many of these beneficiaries are being targeted by domestic and external development financing (UNESCO, 2011).

5.9 Development of Aid to achieve educational goals

The respondents indicated that aid can be better developed to achieve educational goals in Samburu East Constituency as shown in table 4.8. Majority of the respondents indicated formulating better policies (52.0%), followed by punishing offenders who misappropriate or steal funds (36.0%), then by periodic accounts review (8.0%) and lastly by reforming education sector (4.0%).

Humanitarian aid needs a clearly defined role which is focused on those pupils who are out of school because of nomadic life, conflict, poverty, disease or natural disasters. In respect to the severe challenges faced in allocating humanitarian financing for education the proposed funding
framework should need to ensure that resources are additional, flexible and predictable in nature (Save the Children, 2015). Funding should be aligned to need so that all regions in the country get a fair advantage of education.

5.10 Conclusions

In conclusion, we have seen that aid directed to education has been the subject of considerable discourse. It remains open to debate whether any judgement concerning aid effectiveness can be made whilst the debate is confined to discussions of the aid-growth relationship. It has been argued that ambiguity in the findings of the aid effectiveness literature may be due to the disparity of aid motives and the convoluted nature of the causal link between development assistance and its outcomes (Bourguignon and Sundberg 2007; Birchler and Michaelowa 2015), and that donors, by admission, tend to pursue multiple and often contradictory aims when allocating aid (Isenman and Ehrenpreis 2003; Fredriksen 2013; OECD 2013). The precise purpose that education aid is intended to fulfill as detailed in donor policy declarations - such as poverty reduction through improved health and education, as well as increased institutional and participatory development - has a tendency to evade analysis concentrated narrowly on the link between aid and economic growth (Mavrotas and Nunnenkamp 2007; Christensen, Homer et al. 2011).

Although aid effectiveness has been investigated in terms of overall economic development over a long period of time, cross-country examinations of the impact of aid within specific sectors has started only in the last decade. In the education sector this began with studies by Michaelowa and Weber (2007b) and Dreher, Nunnenkamp et al. (2008). Following these early studies has been complementary research seeking alternative means of handling the potential for endogeneity
(D'Aiglepierre and Wagner 2010) and making distinctions between the type of education aid allocated (Christensen, Homer et al. 2011; Birchler and Michaelowa 2015). Central to these studies is the belief that conclusive answers to questions concerning aid effectiveness will only be found by examining the more direct causal link that is likely to exist between education inputs and outputs; and that as education is an important development goal in its own right, it is important to understand whether education aid works.

The results produced by this study find education aid to be statistically significant as a predictor of primary enrolment, although not so significant substantively. Indeed, it is reasoned that education aid could have achieved more. The case study analysis argues that education aid has not achieved as much as might have been expected due to the complex background of donor-recipient relations, inadequacies in public financial management and accountability procedures, and in some cases a lack of political commitment to education priorities, against which aid is allocated; although evidence does suggest that aid has contributed in many countries and, despite its many flaws, can continue to do so. It also makes the case that the effectiveness of education aid is dependent to some degree upon the stability of institutions in the recipient country, but that this relationship is weaker than might have been expected. Although the effects of better government stability are shown to work positively through aid for education, the additional impact is minimal. It is argued that future research could build on these findings by accounting for the interaction between aid for education and specific aspects of good educational policy - education plans, political will toward education, resource mobilization, and viable implementation strategies - as internationally comparable data becomes available.

Therefore, making aid more effective matters as much as giving more. A consequence of this conclusion is that substantially increasing aid efforts through a transferral of additional resources
to developing countries would be insufficient - it is doubtful that amplifying aid efforts would have the desired effects. Development aid is a scarce resource, and it is therefore of fundamental importance that the development community works to maximize the benefits that it can generate when spent well. With pressure raised on donor budgets as the result of global economic decline, and in the wake of the endorsement of the Sustainable Development Goals, the requirement to ensure the effectiveness of education aid has taken on even greater significance. Indeed, the potential for education aid to spur on momentum towards the newly formed international education goals will increasingly depend on it being allocated more strategically.

5.11 Recommendations

We have seen that indeed aid does have an impact on education according to perception. From the literature reviewed and from the findings of the study the following are the recommendations: Educating pastoral pupils will put an end to the conflict of cattle rustling in the area. Education will empower these pupils intellectually and financially. The ministry of education though Free Primary Education (FPE) should ensure majority of nomadic pupils attain at least primary and secondary education by providing favorable learning environment like boarding schools and mobile schools in nomadic areas.

1. Formulating Better Policies on education by the government and nongovernmental organization so that they can effectively and efficiently achieve their goal as well as the millennium development goals of education for all

2. Punishing Offenders Who Misappropriate or Steal Funds so as to achieve integrity in spending money meant for development.
3. Periodic Accounts Review for quality controls and ensuring that audits are done and records maintained for future reference as well as evaluation of the institution on programs implementation.

4. Reforming Education Sector so as to factor in issues affecting nomadic pupils in Samburu East Constituency and ensure they have an equal chance for quality education.

In relation to world vision the following recommendations seek to address the challenges of education funding. Education stakeholders should develop consistent and objective needs assessments to be used in common by both humanitarian and development actors to improve on prioritization and targeting of funding. Connections between humanitarian and development financing should be enhanced so that no needs are left unattended.

Humanitarian aid actors together with development aid organizations should ensure that the funding gap between now and 2030 is filled so that good quality education for all pupils is attained. Ensure more equitable distribution of resources and the share of funding requested for the education purpose should not be diverted from education to other uses.

5.12 Suggested for further research

1. Determine the factors that enhances the world vision support in championing pupils education because it will help establish better policies that will promote pupils completion and absenteeism rate.

2. To establish the impact of enrolment and completion initiated by administrators and teachers in improving education for pupils.
REFERENCES


Poole, L. 2014. *Bridging the Needs-Based Funding Gap: NGO Field Perspectives.* Norwegian Refugee Council.


APPENDICES

Appendix i – Questionnaire

Dear Respondent,

I am a student of the United States International University pursuing a Master of Arts in International Relations. I am conducting academic research on the perception of aid for education in Kenya: a case study of World Vision Aid for primary school pupils in Samburu East Constituency. Please note that all the information provided for this study will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Answer all the questions honestly and to the best of your knowledge.

Thank you for your co-operation and precious time. Yours faithfully,

Baraka Ritey

Section One: Background Information

Please tick in the appropriate box and / or fill in the blank spaces provided. You are requested to complete this questionnaire as honestly as possible.

1. Age Group

   [ ] 18 – 27 Years       [ ] 28 – 37 Years
   [ ] 38 – 47 Years       [ ] 48 – 57 Years
   [ ] 58 Years or Above

2. Gender

   [ ] Male       [ ] Female
3. Marital Status

[ ] Single          [ ] Married
[ ] Separated       [ ] Divorced
[ ] Widowed

4. Level of Education

[ ] Certificate       [ ] Diploma
[ ] Degree            [ ] Masters / Post Graduate Diploma
[ ] Doctorate

5. Current Job

[ ] School Head       [ ] Teacher

Section Two: Impact of Aid on Education

6. In your opinion, what degrees of impact does aid have an education?

[ ] High Impact       [ ] Medium Impact       [ ] Low Impact

7. What is the effect of aid on education in Samburu East Constituency?

[ ] Positive Effect   [ ] Negative Effect   [ ] No Effect

8. What is the level of influence of aid on school enrolment in Samburu East Constituency?

[ ] High       [ ] Medium       [ ] Low

9. What is the level of influence of aid on school completion in Samburu East Constituency?

[ ] High       [ ] Medium       [ ] Low
10. In what way is aid mostly utilized by the education sector in Samburu East Constituency?

[ ] Scholarships
[ ] Books and Educational Material
[ ] Building Classrooms
[ ] School Feeding Programmes
[ ] Teacher Education

11. Do the aid organizations have a framework for monitoring and evaluation the utilization of aid?

12. How can aid be better developed to achieve educational goals in Samburu East Constituency?

[ ] Better Monitoring and Evaluation
[ ] Reforming Education Sector
[ ] Periodic Accounts Review
[ ] Punishing Offenders
[ ] Formulating Better Policies

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION
Appendix ii – FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION (FGD)

Schedule for FDG for World Vision official

Describe the situation of primary education in Samburu County, Samburu East Sub County in respect to enrolment, participation, performance and completion rate of pupils?

Pupils’ problems in attaining primary school education

1. What are the common problems that pupils encounter in Samburu east Sub County that affect education attainment?

2. What challenges do teachers and administrators face in supporting pupils in Samburu East Sub County?

3. What strategies has your organization used to address the problems of pupils education in Samburu east Sub County?

4. How effective were these strategies in promoting education of pupils in Samburu East Sub County?

5. What has the government done to support your organization in increasing enrolment of pupils in Samburu East Sub County?

Education Policies

1. What are the national policies that support education of pupils in Samburu East Sub County?

2. Which policies are difficult to implement in Samburu East Sub County?

3. How has Free Primary Education (FPE) affected your organization in supporting pupils education in Samburu County?

Thank you for your participation.
## Appendix iii – Time Frame

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<th>October</th>
<th>November</th>
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<td>Preparation and piloting of the questionnaires</td>
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<td>Questionnaire coding and data entry into analysis packages</td>
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<td>Data analysis</td>
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<td>Preparation of chapter four and five</td>
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## Appendix iv – Budget

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<td>Data Analysis</td>
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<td>Report Preparation Expenses</td>
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<td>Miscellaneous and Emergency Expenses</td>
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<td><strong>TOTAL COST</strong></td>
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TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN,

12th November, 2018

Dear Sir/Madam,

REF: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH – BARAKA RITEY
STUDENT ID. NO. 647851

The bearer of this letter is a student of United States International University (USIU) – Africa pursuing a Master of Arts in international relations.

As part of the program, the student is required to undertake a dissertation on “Impact of Aid on Education in Kenya: A Case Study of World Vision Aid for Primary School Pupils in Samburu East Constituency” which requires her to collect data.

Please note that information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will only be used for academic purposes.

Kindly assist the student get the appropriate data and should you have any queries contact the undersigned.

Yours Sincerely,

[Signature]

Prof. Amos Njuguna,
Dean – School of Graduate Studies, Research and Extension
Tel: 730 116 442
Email: amnnjuguna@usiu.ac.ke
Appendix vi: National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Baraka Janekin Ritey
United States International University
P.O. Box 14634- 00800
NAIROBI.

REF: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on “Impact of aid on education a case study of World Vision Aid for primary school pupils in Samburu East Constituency,” I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in Samburu County for the period ending 16th November, 2019.

You are advised to report to the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Samburu County before embarking on the research project.

Kindly note that, as an applicant who has been licensed under the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 to conduct research in Kenya, you shall deposit a copy of the final research report to the Commission within one year of completion. The soft copy of the same should be submitted through the Online Research Information System.

DR. MOSES RUGUT, PHD, QGW
DIRECTOR GENERAL/CEO

Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Samburu County.

The County Director of Education
Samburu County.
TO ALL HEADTEACHERS

SAMBURU EAST

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION –BARAKA RITEY STUDENT I.D. NO.647051

The bearer of letter is a student of United International University (USIU)- Africa pursuing a masters of Arts in International relations.

She had been authorized to carry out research in our schools.

The purpose of this letter is to request you to co-operate with her in her endeavor.

ZACHARY MUTUIRI
COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
SAMBURU
THE PRESIDENCY
MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND CO-ORDINATION OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

OFFICE OF THE COUNTY COMMISSIONER
SAMBURU COUNTY
P.O. BOX 5 – 26600
MARIKALI

26th November, 2018

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION FOR BARAKA JANEKIN RITEY

Reference is made to a letter Ref: NACOSTI/P/18/70992/26942 dated 19th November, 2018 copied to this office

The above named is a researcher from United States International University (USIU)-Africa and as part of her training she is expected to carry out research on “Impact of aid on education a case study of World Vision Aid for primary school pupils in Samburu East Constituency”, I am please to inform you that you have been Authorized to undertake research in Samburu County for a period ending 16th November, 2019.

Please accord him the necessary support in this endeavor.

STEVE. ODOTTEH
FOR: COUNTY COMMISSIONER,
SAMBURU COUNTY

CC

County Director of Education-Samburu County