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Journal of African Interdisciplinary Studies (JAIS) Volume 1, Number 2, November 2017

Table of Contents   Page

Examining antecedents of destination loyalty in a Zambian context: The effect of perceived value, service quality and satisfaction

By Jane M. Kwenye and Wayne Freimund

Abstract

Drawing from the cognitive->affect->conative loyalty formation model, this study explored predictors of loyalty in a domestic tourism context through an investigation of the relationships among service quality, perceived value, satisfaction and destination loyalty. The relationships are explored using data collected from a sample of 1,060 domestic tourists at the Victoria Falls World Heritage site in Zambia. Using structural equation modeling (SEM) technique, the results reveal that satisfaction has a direct effect on destination loyalty while the effects of perceived value and service quality on destination loyalty is recognized via the mediating effects of satisfaction. Findings are discussed with respect to their applied and theoretical relevance. Practical applications of this study include strategies aimed at promoting destination loyalty by addressing aspects of service quality, perceived value and satisfaction in a domestic tourism context of an African setting.

Key words: perceived value, service quality, satisfaction, destination loyalty, domestic tourism

Citation Format

Examining antecedents of destination loyalty in a Zambian context: The effect of perceived value, service quality and satisfaction

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Introduction

Amidst growing competition, destination marketing organizations (DMOs) are facing increased difficulties in convincing visitors to choose their specific destinations over an increasing number of alternatives (Castro, Armario, & Ruiz, 2007; Morais & Lin, 2010; Pike & Ryan, 2004). Consequently, destination marketing and management research has been focusing on understanding tourist' post-purchase behaviors and decision making processes so as to divulge avenues for fostering destination loyalty (Chi & Qu, 2008; Lee, 2003; Zhang, Fu, Cai, & Lu, 2014). Built upon related theories of customer loyalty in marketing literature, destination loyalty has been receiving increased attention among tourism researchers. The importance of understanding, predicting and influencing tourists' intentions to patronize specific destinations has motivated research on the concept of destination loyalty (Chi, 2005; Chi, 2012; Kwenye & Phiri, 2016; Oppermann, 2000; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Yoon &, Uysal, 2005; Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010). Past studies note that if a tourist's experience at a destination is understood as a product, then the degree of loyalty can be reflected in their intention to revisit the destination and recommend the destination to others (Oppermann, 2000; Chen & Tsai, 2007). Consequently, tourists' intentions to revisit the destination and their intention to recommend it to others are considered as indicators of destination loyalty (Chi, 2005; Chi & Qu, 2008). Intentions to revisit and recommend a destination to others are used as indicators of destination loyalty in that studying actual behavior is difficult and costly (Halpenny, 2010). Further, behavioral intentions have proven to be effective indicators of future behaviors (Ajzen, 1988; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Kraus, 1995).

While research on destination loyalty has received considerable attention in the tourism literature (Chi & Qu, 2008; Kim, 2010; Lee, Graefe, & Burns, 2007; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), studies exploring this concept among domestic tourists in an African context, particularly, Zambia are rare. This is despite the Zambian governments' desire to foster domestic tourism as highlighted in the 2014 marketing plan of the Zambia Tourism Agency, ZTB (2014) and the country's Tourism Strategic Plan (MTA 2013). Therefore, this study examined antecedents of domestic tourists' loyalty to a local natural tourist setting in Zambia drawing from the cognitive
->affective -> conative loyalty formation model (Oliver, 1997, 1999). This loyalty formation model posits that loyalty is shaped through sequential phases: cognitive, affective and conative. That is the cognitive component influences the affective component which consequently influences the conative component. Accordingly, consumers develop positive beliefs and affective sentiments about a service provider and experience increasing intention to purchase preferably from that provider (Morias, Dorsch, & Backman, 2004). The beliefs that customers develop about the service provider emanate from cognitive evaluations of the product based on vicarious knowledge related to the offering, its attributes, and its performance or current experience-based information (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Eggert & Ulaga, 2002; Han, Kim, & Kim, 2011). Past studies in marketing and consumer behavior indicate that cognitive components of the cognitive-> affective->loyalty model loyalty formation model mainly consists of perceived value and service quality (Back, 2005; Han & Back, 2008; Oliver, 1997, 1999).

The affective component of the cognitive-affective-conative loyalty formation model constitutes emotional response to a product or service experience or feelings towards a product (Campon, Alves, & Hernandez, 2013). Past studies conceptualize satisfaction as an

emotional response to a product or service experience (Han & Back, 2007). Consequently, researchers agree that satisfaction constitutes the affective component of the cognitive-affective-conative loyalty formation model (Han, Kim, & Kim, 2011; Oliver, 1997, 1999). The final component in the loyalty model which is conative, relates to behavioral intention towards a product (Campon, Alves, & Hernandez, 2013). Oliver (1997, 393) describes conation as "an intention or commitment to behave towards a goal in a particular manner". Consequently, the conative stage in the loyalty formation model entails an intention to repurchase (Oliver, 1997, 1999). In destination loyalty studies, intentions to revisit and recommend a destination to others are considered as indicators of destination loyalty (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi, 2005; Chi & Qu, 2008).

Drawing from the cognitive- affective-conative loyalty formation model (Oliver, 1997), past studies have identified service quality, perceived value and satisfaction as antecedents affecting destination loyalty/ tourists' behavioral intentions (Chen & Chen, 2010; Kim, 2010; Petrick, 2004; Petrick & Backman, 2002). Consequently, the effect of service quality, perceived value, and satisfaction as antecedent of destination loyalty have been explored in past studies (e.g. Kim 2010; Lee, Graefe, & Burns, 2007). To extend an examination of these relationships to a domestic tourism context of an African setting, particularly, Zambian setting, this study examined the effect of perceived value, service quality and satisfaction as antecedents of loyalty destination loyalty. Although these relationships have been studies in past research, to the author's best knowledge, there is no previous study endeavored to the context of domestic tourism in an African setting, particularly, Zambian setting. A better understanding of the relationships explored in this study can provide destination managers insight into knowing factors that need to be addressed in order to foster domestic tourists' willingness to revisit the destination and recommend the destination to others.

Theoretical background and hypotheses

Service quality is considered as a critical construct given its effect on consumer choice behavior (Cole & Illum, 2006; Dabholkar, Shephard, & Thorpe, 2000). In the tourism context, service quality refers to service performance at the attribute level (Chen & Chen, 2010: Cole & Illum, 2006). It is defined as the quality of the attributes of a service that are under the control of the service provider (Crompton & Love, 1995). This performance quality is said to contribute to the quality of the tourists' experience at a destination (Cole & Illum, 2006). In terms of service quality measurement, the service quality model, SERVQUAL based on the expectancy disconfirmation theory (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985, 1988), has been widely although the applicability of the SERVQUAL scale has been criticized (Petrick, 2004). Studies argue that the relevance of the disconfirmation of expectations as the basis for measuring service quality are ambiguous and inadequate (Carman, 1990; Cronin & Taylor, 1992). Consequently, the performance-based measurement of service quality is recommended (Crompton & Love, 1995; Cronin & Taylor, 1992).

In the marketing services literature, past studies indicate that service quality consists of five dimensions namely tangibles, reliability; responsiveness; assurance; and empathy (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). However, applying the measurement scale that reflected the five dimensions in the tourism context, Fick and Ritchie (1991) noted that the original measure did not adequately cover tangibles factors. The authors indicated that this was probably because facilities tend to be situation-specific in tourism and hence do not lend themselves to inclusion in a generic type of measure. That is, in tourism contexts, there is no process of delivery per se that is addressed by four of the dimensions reported by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry (1988). Rather the dominant measure is the tangibles dimension (Crompton & Love, 1995). Thus, in the tourism field, service quality is generally

assessed in terms of the tangibles dimension (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Crompton & Love, 1995; Cole & Illum, 2006). For instance, examining predictors of loyalty in a forest setting, Lee (2003) used service quality indicators that reflected dimensions including conditions of facilities, safety and securities, health and cleanliness of settings and responsiveness of staff. Similarly, Cole & Scot (2004) measured service quality using indicators that reflected dimensions including amenities, ambiance and comfort.

Past studies have suggested that service quality influences consumer choice behavior and is an important antecedent of satisfaction and behavioral intentions/loyalty (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Kim, 2010). Consequently, past studies have explored the relationship between service quality, satisfaction and behavioral intentions/destination loyalty. Confounding results have been reported. In the context of the cognitive-affective-conative link, some studies suggest that the cognitive variable (i.e. service quality) has an indirect effect on the conative variable (i.e. destination loyalty) through the affective variable (i.e. satifaction) (e.g. Alexandris, Kouthouris, & Meligdis, 2006; Kim, 2010). Other studies indicate that the cognitive variable (i.e. service quality) has an direct effect on the conative variable (e.g. Petrick, 2004). Given the confounding results in the existing literature, researchers have suggested further investigations on the relationship between service quality, satisfaction and loyalty (Velazquez, Saura, & Johnson, 2011). Therefore, drawing from the cognitive->affective->conative loyalty model (Oliver, 1997, 1999), this study examined the relationships among service quality, satisfaction and destination loyalty. The following hypotheses were tested:

H_1: Service quality has a significant direct effect on satisfaction

H_2: Service quality has a significant indirect effect on destination loyalty through satisfaction

Perceived value has gained considerable research interest as a stable construct to predict buying behavior (Anderson and Srinivasan, 2003; Chen & Dubinsky, 2003; Cronin, Brady, & Hultz, 2000) As a result, it been emphasized as the object of attention by researchers in tourism (Chen & Tsai, 2007). Notwithstanding the lack of consensus on the definition of the concept, a frequently cited definition of perceived value is that it is the consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product (or service) based on perceptions of what is received and what is given (Zeithaml, 1988). Perceived value has been measured using either a self-reported, unidimensional measure (Gale 1994) or a multidimensional scale (Petrick & Backman, 2002; Sheth, Newman, & Gross, 1991). However, the validity of the unidimensional measure has been criticized due to its assumption that consumers have a shared meaning of value (Chen & Chen, 2010). Consequently, many researchers recommend the use of the multidimensional scale to measure perceived value (Sanchez, Callarisa, Rodriquez & Moliner, 2007; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Sweeney, Soutar, & Johnson, 1996). For instance, building on past studies that conceptualized perceived value using multidimensional scales, Lee, Yoon, & Lee (2007a) constructed a multidimensional scale consisting of dimensions including emotional, functional and overall value.

The influence of perceived value on re-purchase behavior (e.g. loyalty) has been widely explored in services marketing studies. However, research on perceived value as it relates to loyalty and its predictors is still in its infancy in tourism studies. Studies that have explored the relationship between perceived value, satisfaction and destination loyalty report confounding results. In the context of the cognitive-affective-conative loyalty model, some studies reported that perceived value (i.e. the cognitive variable) has an indirect affect on destination loyalty (i.e. conative variable) through satisfaction (i.e. affective variable) (e.g. Deng & Pierskalla, 2011, Kim, 2010; Lee, Yoon, & Lee 2007a). Other studies indicated that perceived value has a direct effect on tourists' intention to revisit and recommend a

destination (e.g. Chen & Chen, 2010; Petrick, 2004; Petrick, Morais, & Norman, 2001). Confounding results on the relationships among these variable necessitates the need for further investigation on these relationships. Therefore, drawing from the cognitive-affective-conative model (Oliver, 1997, 1999), this study examined the relationships among perceived value, satisfaction and destination loyalty. The following hypotheses were tested:

H_3: Perceived value has a direct effect on satisfaction

H_4: Perceived value has a significant indirect effect on destination loyalty through satisfaction.

Satisfaction is considered to play an important role in influencing the choice of the destination and the decision to return (Kozak & Rimmington, 2000). Consequently, satisfaction has been receiving increased attention in tourism studies. Approaches to the definition of satisfaction in the extant literature range from cognitive and/or affective perspective to those which consider the specific or overall assessment of the transaction (Hu, Kandampully, & Juwaheer, 2009). Past studies that employed the cognitive approach defined satisfaction as consumers' response to the discrepancy between pre-purchase expectations and post-purchase perceived performance (Fornell, 1992; Deng & Pierskalla, 2011). In this respect, satisfaction is viewed as a relative concept that is judged in relation to a standard (Yuksel & Yuksel, 2001). However, the cognitive approach has been criticized given that the measurement of consumer expectations and the selection of appropriate comparative standards remain problematic (Yuksel & Yuksel, 2001). Studies that employ the affective perspective define satisfaction as an effective response to a specific consumption experience (Gotlieb, Grewal, & Brown, 1994). It is viewed as consumers' emotional state after exposure to a consumption experience (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Petrick, 2004). Thus, it reflects the degree to which a consumer believes that an experience evokes positive feelings (Rust & Oliver, 1994). While there is no consensus on its conceptualization and measurement, satisfaction is considered as a critical concept for understanding post purchase behaviors (Velazquez, Saura, & Molina, 2011). It is generally believed that satisfaction leads to repeat purchases and positive word of mouth recommendation, which are main indicators of loyalty (Chi & Qu, 2008). Consequently, this has motivated research on the influence of satisfaction on destination loyalty (Chi, 2012; Kim, 2010; Lee, 2003; Lee, Graefe, & Burns, 2007; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

Past studies provide empirical evidence that tourists' satisfaction is a significant indicator of their intentions to revisit and recommend the destination to others (Chi & Qu, 2008; Kim, 2010; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). It is noted that satisfied tourists are more likely to return to the same destination and are more willing to provide word of mouth recommends about the destination to others (Chi & Qu, 2008). Although past studies have investigated the influence of satisfaction on destination loyalty (e.g. Chi & Qu, 2008; Kim, 2010; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), this relationship has not be investigated in a domestic tourism context of an African setting, particularly, a Zambian setting. Therefore, this study investigated the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty. The following hypothesis was tested:

H_5: Satisfaction has a significant direct effect on destination loyalty

The hypothetical model tested in this study is presented in Figure 1. Drawing the cognitive-affective-conative loyalty formation model (Oliver, 1997, 1999), it was posited that cognitive variables (i.e. perceived value and service quality) had a direct influence on the affective variable (i.e. satisfaction), and subsequently an indirect on the conative variable (i.e. destination loyalty). Further, it was postulated that the affective variable (satisfaction) has a direct effect on the conative variable (destination loyalty).
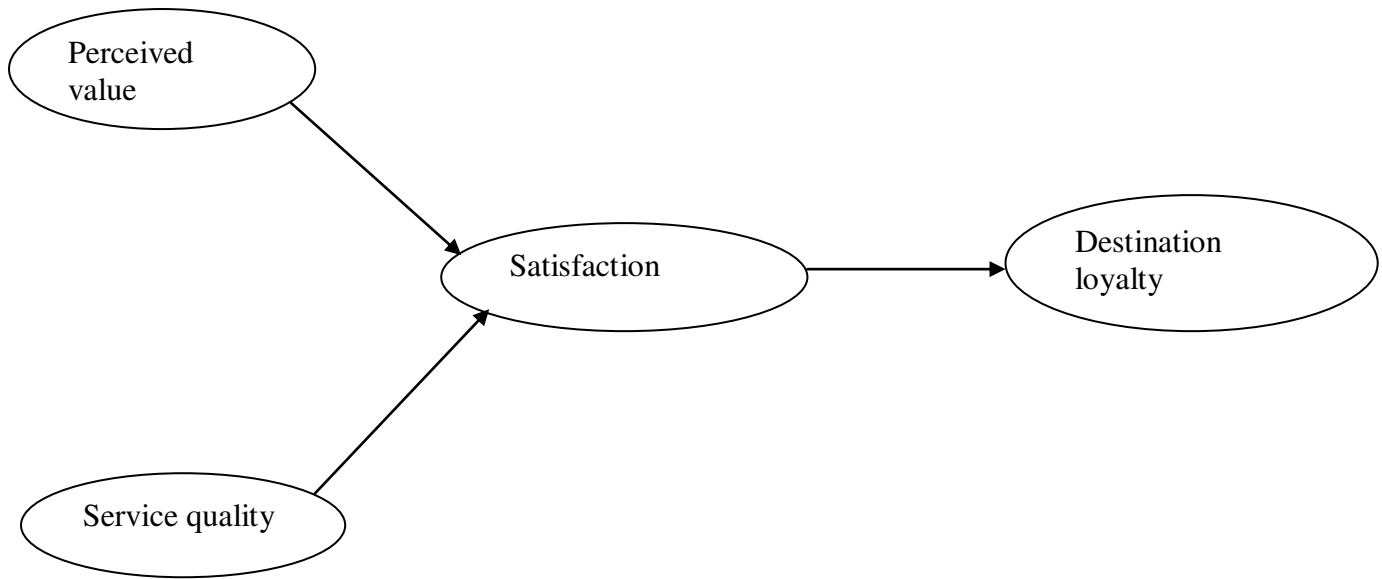
Figure 1: Proposed Theoretical Model (TM)

3. Methods

3.1 Study site

The data for this study were collected by a self-administered questionnaire method at the Victoria Falls World Heritage site in Livingstone, Zambia (Figure 2). The Victoria Falls World Heritage site is located in the southern part of Zambia and is situated within the Mosi-oa-Tunya National Park which covers an area of 66 km^2. It is a mature natural tourist destination attracting domestic tourists in high volumes over a couple of decades.
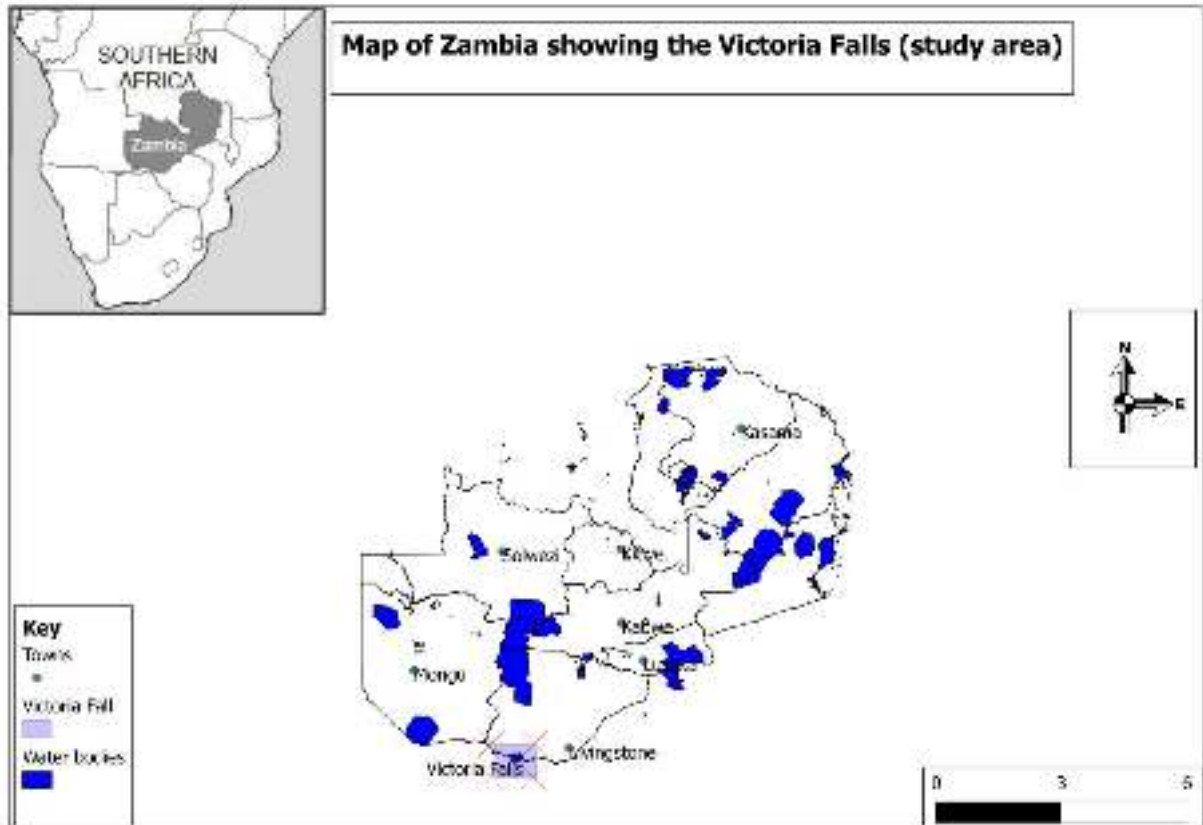
Figure 2: Map of Zambia showing the location of the Victoria Falls World Heritage site

3.2. Survey instrument design and research variables

A self-administered questionnaire was pre-tested on domestic tourists at the Victoria Falls World Heritage site from 5th to 10th August 2014. Reliability assessments results showed that the items used to measure perceived value, service quality, satisfaction, and destination loyalty had acceptable internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha ranging from 0.81 to 0.87. All items in the questionnaire were retained although some items were slightly modified in wording to improve comprehensibility based on feedback from Victoria Falls World Heritage site staff, five professors at the University of Montana and domestic tourists who participated in the questionnaire pre-test. The questionnaire included items measuring perceived value, service quality, satisfaction, and destination loyalty (Table 1). Information on key demographic and travel characteristics about the domestic tourists was also solicited in the questionnaire. Measurement scales used to measure the constructs in the hypothetical model were as follows:

(1) Perceived value: A twelve-item scale composed of functional value (measured by four items), emotional value (measured by three items), and overall value (measured by five items) was used to measure perceived value. All the twelve items included in this scale were based on the findings of Lee, Graefe, & Burns, (2007a).

(2) Service quality: A ten-item scale consisting of conditions of facilities (measured by four items), amenities (measured by four items), and accessibilities (measured by two items) was used to measure service quality. These items were adopted from Lee (2003), Chi (2005), and Cole & Scott (2004).

(3) Satisfaction: Three items adopted from Back (2001) and Han, Kim, & Kim (2011) were used to measure satisfaction.

(4) Destination loyalty: A six-item scale composed of revisit intentions (measured by three items) and recommendation intentions (measured by three items) was used to measure destination loyalty. These items were adopted from Chi (2005), Chi & Qu (2008) and Lee (2003).

Items used to measure perceived value, satisfaction and destination loyalty were measured using a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) = Strongly Disagree to (5) = Strongly Agree. Indicators used to measure service quality were measured using a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) = Very poor to (5) = Very Good.

3.3 Data collection and study sample

Data for this study were collected in a three weeks period between August 26th and September 10th 2014. This data collection period was the peak season, consequently, it provided the opportunity to survey a representative sample of domestic tourists who travelled from various towns across the country thereby reducing any risk of under coverage due to the administration period. In terms of sampling, the convenient sampling method was used in this study in that no complete sampling frame was available for the visitor population. This approach is appropriate in instances where a sampling frame is unavailable (Lee, 2003). The first respondent to participate in the survey on each day of the data collection period was determined by selecting every second available respondent upon commencing the data collection. Thereafter, every available respondent was requested to participate in the survey. The respondents were requested to complete the self-administered questionnaire after visiting the Victoria Falls World Heritage site. Consequently, three sampling points were selected and used for this study based on their popularity as exit point from the site.

The minimal sample size for this study was determined using the confidence interval approach (Burns & Bush, 1995; Chi, 2005). To obtain a 95 percent desired accuracy at the 95 percent confidence level with the response and unusable rates set at 50 percent and 20 percent respectively, the required minimum sample size was 963. A total of 1,150 domestic tourists were requested to participate in the self-administered survey of which 1,060 accepted, giving a response rate of 92 percent. Slight more than half of the total sample was comprised of males (56 %), with the majority of the total sample aged between 18 and 40 years (76 %). The highly represented education level was a college/university diploma with respondents in this category constituting 46 percent of the total sample. The majority of the respondents earned less than K60, 000 per annum constituting 58 percent of the total sample.

3.4. Data analysis

The proposed model in this study was examined using the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) procedure. SEM was used to test both the theoretical relationships within the model and the model's overall fit to the survey data. The SEM procedure was an appropriate technique for testing the conceptual model in this study given that the model was set up on the basis of prior empirical research and theory. All the parameters were estimated using the maximum likelihood estimation in Stata 13.0.

The two-step SEM estimation process recommended by Anderson & Gerbeing (1988) was adopted in this study. This process involves testing the fit and construct validity of the measurement model in the first step and then testing the structural model in the second step. The two-step SEM process is recommended in that valid structural theory tests cannot be conducted using poor measures (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). The measurement model was validated using confirmatory factor analysis while the structural model was examined to test the hypotheses simultaneously by using path analysis.

Missing values, outliers, and distribution of all measured variables were examined to purify the data and reduce systematic errors. Normality assessment results showed that the

data deviated from multivariate normality. The detrimental effects of data demonstrating non-normality diminish with large sample sizes having a ratio of at least 15 respondents per each estimated parameter (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson 2010). The sample size for this study was adequate to diminish the detrimental effects of non-normality. Outlier detection results showed that no outliers were found and observations with missing data were managed using a listwise procedure.

Sequential chi-squared difference tests (SCDTS) were also performed using competing models. SCDTs were performed as post hoc tests to provide successive fit information (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). An insignificant change in chi-square (χ^2) statistics between the nested models was used as test of invariance (Byrne, 1993; Lee, 2011). The $\chi2$ was used to determine whether there were significant differences in estimated construct variances explained by the four models (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1995). To determine the best fitting model, three competing models (CM$_1$, CM$_2$, CM$_3$) (Figure 2) were compared with the theoretical model (TM) (Figure 1). In CM$_1$ a path was added between perceived value and destination loyalty. In CM$_2$, a path was added between service quality and destination loyalty. Further, in CM$_3$ two paths were simultaneously added between (1) service quality and destination loyalty, and (2) perceived value and destination loyalty.
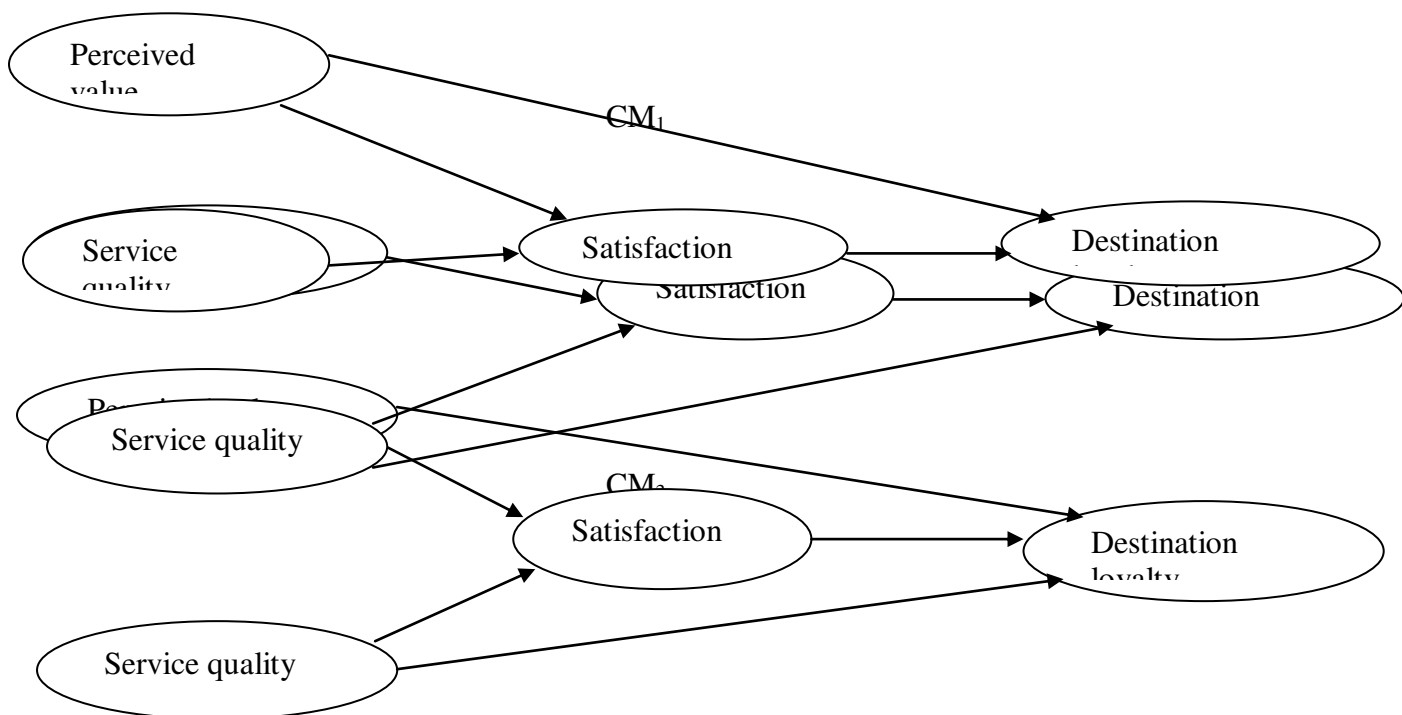
Figure 2: Competing Models

Results
Summary statistics of the multi-item scales that include composite mean scores and standard deviations (SD), as well as factor loadings, composite reliabilities (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) estimates are presented in Table 1. All the composite mean scores were above the mid-point (2.5) indicating that respondents rated the measures of all the latent variables highly. The composite reliabilities (CR) estimates were all within the 0.7 cut off

value indicating internal consistency. All the AVE estimates were also within the recommended 0.5 cut off value indicating that the latent variables explained a good amount of variance in their respective indicators.

Table 1: Summary statistics for multi-item scales, factor loadings, composite reliabilities (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) estimates

Indicator	Mean	SD	Factor loading	CR	AVE
Perceived Value					
Dimension 1: Functional value	3.97	0.69		0.8	0.6
Visiting Vic Falls was reasonable priced			0.56		
Compared to travel expenses I got reasonable quality from visiting Vic Falls			0.67		
Compared to other destinations Vic Falls is a good value for money			0.64		
I received good service while visiting Vic Falls	4.23	0.72	0.55		
Dimension 2: Emotional Value				0.8	0.5
Visiting Vic Falls gave me pleasure			0.73		
Visiting Vic Falls made me feel better			0.76		
After visiting Vic Falls my image of Vic Falls was improved			0.62		
Dimension 3: Overall Value				0.7	0.5
The choice to visit Vic Falls was the right decision	4.21	0.62	0.74		
I obtained good results from visiting Vic Falls			0.71		
Overall visiting Vic Falls was valuable			0.65		
Overall visiting Vic Falls was worth it			0.66		
The value of visiting Vic Falls was more than what I expected			0.54		
Service quality					
Dimension 1: Accessibility				0.7	0.5
Availability of parking spaces	3.83	0.77	0.57		
Availability of site maps			0.60		
Dimension 2: Conditions of facilities				0.7	0.5
Cleanliness of toilets	3.89	0.66	0.59		
Cleanliness of recreation areas			0.71		
State of trails around the site			0.66		
Sate of the road at the site			0.59		
Dimension 3: Amenities				0.5	0.5
Availability of raincoats/umbrellas	3.35	0.78	0.56		
Availability of interpretation services			0.68		
Availability of restaurants			0.66		
Availability of places to sit and rest			0.60		
Satisfaction					
Overall I am satisfied with my experience at Vic Falls	4.35	0.67	0.74	0.7	0.7
As a whole I really enjoyed my visit to Vic Falls	4.42	0.67	0.85		
Overall I am happy with my experience at Vic Falls	4.35	0.77	0.73		
Destination loyalty					
Dimension 1: Revisit intentions	4.38	0.57		0.8	0.6
I intend to revisit the Vic Falls again			0.69		

Indicator	Mean	SD	Factor loading	CR	AVE
I intend to revisit the Vic Falls with other who have never visited the site before			0.81		
My next recreation trip will mostly likely be to Vic Falls			0.34		
Dimension 2: Recommendations intentions	4.50	0.56		0.8	0.5
I intend to say positive things about Vic Falls			0.66		
I intend to recommend Vic Falls to others			0.71		
I intend to share my positive experiences at Vic Falls with others			0.77		

4.1. Measurement model

The overall measurement model was validated using confirmatory factor analysis. Prior to testing the overall measurement model, each of the four constructs in the model was evaluated separately to ensure that the indicators variables were actually measuring the underlying constructs of interest. Results of CFA tests for all the constructs provided support for the underlying factor structures of the constructs. With each of the five constructs appropriately specified, the overall measurement model was evaluated next. Results of the goodness-of-fit statistics are reported in Table 2. The chi-square (χ^2) value was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 67.45$, df = 38, $\rho < 0.01$) indicating poor fit to the data. However, a large sample size can hinder this test's ability to assess model fitness because sample size can affect χ^2 value (McDonald & Ho, 2002). Consequently, other measurement model fit indices were employed to verify results of the χ^2 test.

Table 2: Goodness of fit statistics for the measurement model

Chi-square ($\chi 2$)	67.45 (df = 38, $\rho < 0.01$)
RMSEA	0.03
SRMR	0.02
CFI	0.99
TLI	0.99
N	1054

Additional fit indices showed that RMSEA was 0.03 and within the suggested 0.08 cut-off value for an acceptable model fit (Acock, 2013; Kim, 2010). The SRMR value was 0.02 and within the suggested < 0.1 cut-off value for a well fitting model (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson 2010; Kline, 1998). The CFI and TLI values were both 0.99 and above the recommended 0.90 cut-off value for a well fitting model (Kim, 2010). On the basis of the additional fit indices, it was concluded that the measurement model fit the sample data fairly well.

Table 3 presents the indicator loadings, z-statistics, composite reliabilities and average variance extracted estimates for the latent variables. All composite reliabilities were greater than or equal to 0.7 indicating that the latent variables had a high degree of internal consistency (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson 2010). The AVE estimates were all greater than or equal to 0.5 indicating that the latent variables explained a good amount of variance in their respective indicators. The measurement for the latent variables reached convergent validity at the item level given that all the indicator loadings ranged from 0.62 to 0.82 and were

significant at the $\rho < 0.01$ level (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Discriminant validity was assessed by comparing the AVE values with the square of the correlations between each pair of constructs. Discriminant validity is established when the AVE values exceed the squared correlations of a pair of constructs (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson 2010). The AVE estimates for each of the constructs exceeded the square of the correlations between each pair of the constructs thereby providing support for the discriminant validity of the constructs.

Table 3: Indicator loadings, z-statistics, CR and AVE estimates for the Overall Measurement Model

Construct and indicators	Std loadings	z-statistics	CR	AVE
Perceived value			0.8	0.6
Functional value	0.62	26.95		
Emotional value	0.81	46.28		
Overall value	0.81	46.36		
Service quality			0.8	0.5
Accessibility	0.70	28.10		
Conditions of facilities	0.71	28.51		
Amenities	0.63	24.37		
Satisfaction			0.7	0.5
Overall I am satisfied with my experience at Vic Falls	0.75	41.66		
As a whole I really enjoyed my experience to Vic Falls	0.82	51.76		
Overall I am happy with my experience at Vic Falls	0.76	42.84		
Destination loyalty			0.7	0.5
Revisit intentions	0.74	18.98		
Recommendation intentions	0.70	45.16		

Structural Model

Having assessed the measurement model, the fit of the theoretical model was examined. The chi-square (χ^2) value for the model was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 146.84$, df = 57, $\rho < 0.01$) indicating a poor fit to the data (Table 3). However, since the χ^2 test is heavily influenced by sample size (Bollen & Long, 1993), other goodness of fit statistics are suggested to help the model evaluation (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996). The additional goodness of fit indices including RMSEA (0.04), SRMR (0.03), CFI (0.98) and TLI (0.97) were all consistent in suggesting that the hypothesized model fit the data fairly well.
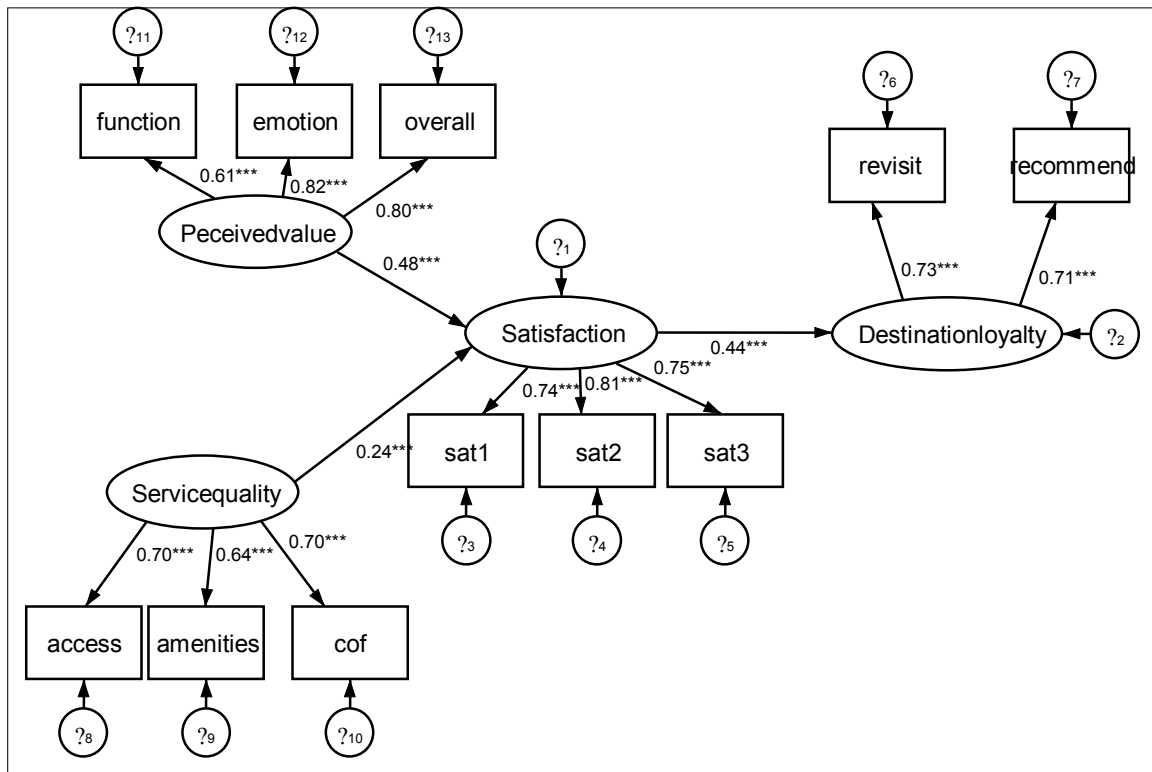
Figure 2: Results of the relationships among perceived value, service quality, satisfaction and destination loyalty.

Figure 2 and Table 4 shows results of the relationships among perceived value, service quality, satisfaction and destination loyalty. The analytical results indicated that service quality directly affected satisfaction ($\beta = 0.24$, $z = 6.18$, $\rho < 0.001$) and indirectly affected destination loyalty through satisfaction ($\beta = 0.08$, $z = 5.10$, $\rho < 0.001$) though weakly; therefore, H_1 and H_2 were supported. Perceived value directly affected satisfaction ($\beta = 0.48$, $z = 14.73$, $\rho < 0.001$) and indirectly affected destination loyalty through satisfaction ($\beta = 0.20$, $z = 7.61$, $\rho < 0.001$); thus, H_3 and H_4 were supported. The analytical results also showed that satisfaction affected destination loyalty directly ($\beta = 0.44$, $z = 12.74$, $\rho < 0.001$); thus, H_5 was supported.

Further, the squared multiple correlation (R^2) was 0.3 for satisfaction indicating that 30 percent of the variance in satisfaction was explained by the variance in perceived value and service quality. The squared multiple correlation was 0.2 for destination loyalty indicating that 20 percent of the variance in the destination loyalty was explained by the variance in perceived value, service quality and satisfaction.

Table 4: Hypothesis tests results

Structural path tested	Std loadings	Z-statistic	Test results
SQ->SAT	0.24	6.18	Supported
SQ->SAT->DL	0.08	5.10	Supported
PV->SAT	0.48	14.78	Supported
PV->SAT->DL	0.20	7.61	Supported
SAT->DL	0.44	12.74	Supported

*** = $\rho < 0.001$. PV = Perceived value; SQ = Service quality; SAT = Satisfaction; DL = Destination loyalty

Competing models

Having assessed the structural model, sequential chi-squared difference tests (SCDTs) were performed as post hoc tests to provide successive fit information. Table 5 lists the statistical indices of the theoretical, TM (χ^2 = 197.02; df = 41) and the three competing models. First, the $\Delta \chi^2$ for TM and CM_1 (χ^2 = 145.37; df = 56) was 0.05 (with 1 df, ρ > 0.05), indicating that the theoretical model, TM and CM_1 were insignificantly different in terms of model fit. However, the statistical indices favored the theoretical model. Second, the $\Delta \chi^2$ for TM and CM_2 (χ^2 = 195.49; df = 40) was 1.53 (with 1 df, ρ > 0.05), indicating that the TM and CM_2 were insignificantly different in terms of model fit. The statistical indices indicated that the TM had a better fit than CM_2. Third, the $\Delta \chi^2$ for TM and CM_3 (χ^2 = 195.36; df = 39) was 1.66 (with 2 df, ρ > 0.05), also indicating that the TM and CM_3 were insignificantly different in terms of model fit. The statistical indices indicated that the TM had a better fit than CM_2. To detect the effect of adding causal relationships (paths) in the competing models, the statistical significance of the parameter coefficients for the additional paths were examined. The analytical results showed that all the added paths in the three competing model were insignificant at ρ < 0.05. This finding suggested that there should be no direct path between perceived value and destination loyalty, as well as between service quality and destination loyalty as the three competing models proposed. This finding further provided support that TM provided a better representation of the data.

Table 5: Fit indices for the theoretical model and competing models

Models	TM	CM_1	CM_2	CM_3
Chi-square	197.02	196.97	195.49	195.36
	df = 41, ρ < 0.01	*df* = 40, ρ < 0.01	*df* = 40, ρ < 0.01	*df* = 39, ρ < 0.01
RMSEA	0.060	0.061	0.061	0.062
SRMR	0.092	0.092	0.091	0.091
CFI	0.956	0.956	0.957	0.956
TLI	0.942	0.940	0.940	0.938

Discussion, Implications and Conclusion

Drawing from the cognitive-> affective->conative loyalty formation model (Oliver, 1997), past studies have identified service quality, perceived value and satisfaction as antecedents affecting destination loyalty/ tourists' behavioral intentions (Chen & Chen, 2010; Kim, 2010; Petrick, 2004; Petrick & Backman 2002). However, relationships among these variables have not been examined in domestic tourism context of an African setting, particularly, Zambian setting. Therefore, to extend an examination of these relationships to a domestic tourism context of an Africa setting, particularly, Zambia, this study examined the effects of perceived value, service quality and satisfaction as antecedents of destination loyalty. Although these relationships have been studies in past research, to the author's best knowledge, there is no previous study endeavored to the context of domestic tourism in Zambia. It is believed that this study has a substantial capability for generating more precise applications related to promoting destination loyalty by addressing aspects of service quality, perceived value and satisfaction in a domestic tourism context of an African setting, especially Zambia setting.

The empirical results of this study provide tenable evidence that the proposed structural equation model designed to examine the relationships among service quality, perceived value, satisfaction and destination loyalty simultaneously is acceptable. Consistent with the cognitive ->affective->conative link (Oliver, 1997, 1999), service quality directly affects satisfaction and indirect affect destination loyalty through satisfaction, although this link was weak but significant. Further, perceived value was also found to directly affect satisfaction and

indirectly destination loyalty through satisfaction. These results imply that the effects of perceived value and service quality on destination loyalty is recognized via the mediating effects of satisfaction in a domestic tourism context of an African setting, particularly, Zambian setting. Consistent with Bagozzi's (1992) proposition that cognitive responses precede emotional response, the findings of this study lend support to Cronin, Brady, & Hult's (2000) proposal that quality and value are cognitive responses to a service experience while satisfaction is an emotional response. Consequently, enhancing service quality and value thereby leading to satisfaction is important for destination managers when designating strategies to promote loyalty in domestic tourism contexts

Enhancing service quality as a management goal as well as ensuring superior value leading to satisfaction are important issues for destination managers when designing strategies for promoting loyalty in a domestic tourism context of an African setting, particularly, Zambian setting. To provide superior service quality, destination managers could endeavor to meet tourists' expectations with respect to components of accessibility, amenities and conditions of facilities as found by this study. Further, since perceived value was found to have significant effects on satisfaction and destination loyalty, destination managers and marketers need to recognize the importance of multidimensional values when destination tourism services are developed. Particularly, destination managers and marketers could endeavor to meet tourists' expectations with respect to functional, emotional and overall value as found by this study. Consequently, the need to provide pleasurable and fairly priced experiences are among important ways of meeting the aforementioned tourists' expectations.

Empirical results also showed that satisfaction has a significant direct effect on destination loyalty, thus, the affective->conative link was supported. This relationship suggests that tourists' satisfaction with their experiences at the destination have significant effects on their future behavior. Consequently, as satisfaction levels increase, the propensity to return and recommend the destination increases. This finding reinforces past studies that argue that satisfied tourists are more likely to revisit a destination, recommend it to others or express favorable comments about the destination (Chen & Chen, 2010; Cole & Illum, 2006). Conversely, dissatisfied tourists may express negative comments about a destination and damage its market reputation (Reisinger & Turner, 2003) and never return to a destination (Chen & Chen, 2010).

Notwithstanding the study's contributions, the findings presented in this study should be qualified in light of some limitations. First, to investigate the relationship between perceived value, service quality, satisfaction and destination loyalty in a domestic tourism context of an African setting, particularly, Zambia setting, this study used cross sectional data. Thus, it was impossible to analyze the potential time-lag effects on the relationships established. Future research can build on this study by using longitudinal data to examine the relationships explored in this study in similar contexts. Second, the structural model tested in this study, assumes unidirectional relationships among the model constructs, however, they could be bidirectional linkages that may exist. Future research could explore such bidirectional linkages. Third, while the effects of cognitive variables (i.e. perceived value, service quality) and affective variable (i.e. satisfaction) on destination loyalty were demonstrated in this study, there could be other cognitive and affective variables (e.g. destination image, personal involvement) that can included in the model tested in this study in a domestic tourism context of an African setting. Therefore, future research could include these variables to extend our theoretical understanding of destination loyalty antecedents in a domestic tourism context, especially in an African setting.

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Role of Head Teachers and Teachers in Managing Conflicts during the 2008 post Election Violence Period in Secondary Schools in the Rift Valley Region, Kenya

By Lydia C. Kipkoech and Alice Limo

Abstract
Africa is rich in diversity but peace has remained elusive due to historical factors and poor leadership. Kenya has witnessed periods of violence every election period since 1992 .The worst of the election violence experienced took place at the end of 2007 and beginning of 2008. The study sought to establish the role of head teachers and teachers in managing and resolving conflicts arising from the post election violence of 2007/08. The study was guided by the systems theory attributed to David Easton. The study adapted quantitative and qualitative methodologies which included collection of numerical and statistical data and use of narratives that drew from personal experiences and descriptive survey research design. Purposive random sampling was used to select 20 schools in 4 districts and stratified random sampling to select 274 respondents to constitute a sampling unit and a unit of analysis. Data was collected using Survey questionnaires, face to face interviews, observations and document analysis. The study also used descriptive statistics to determine and explain proportions. Chi-square was used to test whether or not two variables were independent of each other. The findings revealed that the head teachers and teachers played a great role in making students settle in schools by counseling and guiding them despite the fact that many of them lack skills in management of conflict. The study recommends training of teachers on conflict management.

Key words: **Education, Elections, Head teachers, Students, Violence**

Citation Format

Role of Head Teachers and Teachers in Managing Conflicts during the 2008 post Election Violence Period in Secondary Schools in the Rift Valley Region, Kenya

By Lydia C. Kipkoech and Alice Limo

Introduction

School systems seek to inculcate certain basic values and attitudes, such as honesty, respect, for the truth, and for other individuals, self-discipline, and the capacity to identify right from wrong according to criteria of principle and not of expediency (Thompson, 1981). On the other hand, the society ought to establish structures which personal and social differences can be identified and worked out. The structures should also be all inclusive because it is only when the root causes of the differences are explored and resolved that peace can be achieved. Furthermore, the structures need to be accepted and owned by all.

The ethnic and post election violence was a sign that many things needed to be addressed for Kenyans to coexist. Promises are made during the campaigns that corruption will be a thing of the past but it still remains. Patronage politics, the political manipulation of ethnicity and sharp horizontal inequalities have reinforced an undercurrent of ethnic tension in Kenya. Less obvious prior to 2008, these tensions were brought to the surface by the post-election violence. Ethnicity has now become the dominant identity in Kenya, even amongst the middle class, leading to high levels of fear and mistrust between communities.

Education can be a tool needed to bring about change of perception of other citizens and the future of this country. Schools can teach children how to cooperate, share and help others because assuming that children learn these competencies outside the school is not sound (Johnson and Johnson, 1995). This can be done through provision of a curriculum that emphasizes on the need to view the other student, or neighbour as a Kenyan and therefore a brother. Through education curriculum the students can undergo a process of being made to be patriotic and nationalistic such that, their allegiance should first be to their country and not their tribes as the case is today. A good education system therefore, triggers responsible development culturally, spiritually, politically and economically. The school will produce graduates that will champion justice, fairness, love, care, and reconciliation. 'Role models are those mentored by their parents, families in impeccable values in order to influence their neighbourhoods, religious communities and the larger world community' (Bigambo 2009).

The root cause of political conflicts in Africa is not the presumed historical inter-ethnic animosity and hatred but the skewed manner in which resources are allocated. Poor leadership especially where the incumbent serve their own interests and disfavour others invites conflicts. There is need to harmonize diversity of interests and diminishing potentials for ethnic antagonism that invariably lead to conflicts. Equality of all groups should be ensured with more emphasis laid on civil liberties including equality before the law among others. This was because the PEV appeared to be a problem of the rich verses the poor within each ethnic community. This view is supported by Richardson and Sen (1996) when they point out that it is typical of ethnic conflict to have an intra-ethnic and inter-class dimension as a way of solidifying the group as a strategy for greater militarized conflict.

Thus, one way of alleviating tribal animosity is to prioritize economic growth. However in the course of controlling overt violence it can perpetuate covert or structural violence. The structural violence is the social and personal violence that arise from unjust, repressive and oppressive national or international political and social structures (Galtung, 1969). Kamugisha (2006) specifies what disorients and dehumanizes society.

> It is not only war that destroys peace but every action that is against one's life is something against peace…The enemies of peace have their homes in our

> hearts, and these are gluttony, covetousness, struggling for power, jealousy anger, and pride. If these enemies were to be expelled completely, we would enjoy the lasting peace .Other enemies are revenge, war, preparation for war, drug abuse, rape, abortion, enslavement, and oppression to mention but a few.

Teachers are agents of change .In a volatile situation, they are looked upon by many people in the society to give directions. In the school environment they are best placed to preach peace and reconciliation. This view is supported by D'Souza (2007) who adds that, leaders need to learn the skills involved in managing and resolving conflict constructively. Unresolved conflicts have caused individuals to flounder and organizations to fail. Lack of harmony in place of work can be harmful and lead to wastage .Teacher stress is the unpleasant experience, negative emotions, and distress that exist when the problems confronting teachers threaten their well-being, and surpass their ability to resolve them (Litt and Turk, 1985).

The effectiveness of each step must be capable of being traced back to the teacher or manager who is responsible (Owen, 1992).The school management has to be clear about the influences to which they respond. They also need to be encouraged to share judgments about the weight which is to be given to tightly organized professional activities and to less definable influences from a neighborhood and a community. Managers are under obligation to be consistent, credible and intelligible. They have to be clear about how they can take account of differences of attitude, mind, and personality on the part of those whom they work with.

Objective of the study

The objective of the study was to determine the role of the head teachers and teachers in resolving conflicts during the post election violence of 2008.

Theoretical framework

The study was be guided by the systems theory. Schools are open systems hence they are affected by what happens within its environment. The systems theory puts emphasis on the relationship between the school and the environment. Hanson (2003) further adds that it receives inputs such as human and material resources ,values community expectations and societal demands; transforms them through a production process (for example class activities);and exports the product (for example graduates ,new knowledge ,revised value sets) into the environment with value added.

The schools are part of the larger environment hence anything that happens in the larger environment affect the school and vice versa. Those who participated in the violence witnessed were graduates of the schools hence it would appear that the schools have failed to inculcate nationalism and unity in diversity among its products.

This will depend on the ability of the schools to effectively and efficiently gather space, process, and utilize information. Organizations cannot generate internally the needed resources because these must come from the environment. Schools must enter into exchanges and competition with environmental units to obtain the requisite products and services. Hoy and Miskel (2005) assert that, because environmental uncertainty and scarcity of resources threaten organizational autonomy and effectiveness administrators often attempt to develop strategies to gain more control over the environment. Schools therefore have to conform to powerful sets of values and requirements that the legal, social, professional and political institutions impose.

The school structures and processes mirror the norms, values, and ideologies, institutionalized in society. As a result, educational planners must consider the ability of the educational system itself to cope with any changes which might be recommended. It is

certainly a waste of time and resources for educational administrators to be saddled with the responsibility of implementing and managing changes which might be beyond the capacity of that system, at a given point in time (Bacchus, 1987).

Research methodology

Research Design

The study was a descriptive survey. Peil (1982) states that survey methods are a useful source of information on population distribution, attitudes, and behaviour (demographic data, housing, family planning, voting, migration, educational, and occupational aspirations, friendship networks). Surveys can therefore provide reliable, valid and theoretically meaningful information. According to Kerlinger (1969), descriptive studies are not only restricted to fact findings, but may often result in the formulation of important principles of knowledge and solution to significant problems. They are more than just a collection of data. They involve measurement, classification, analysis, comparison, and interpretation of data. Descriptive survey is a method of collecting information by interviewing or administering a questionnaire to a sample of individuals (Orodho, 2003).

Target population

The target population was secondary schools, teachers, students and interest groups in Rift valley province in Kenya. The secondary schools in the region were selected because they were the most affected during the post election violence. These participants were included because they were directly affected and involved in the management of schools after the Post Election Violence.

Sample and Sampling Technique

Purposive random sampling was used to select 4 districts that included: Wareng, Naivasha, Bomet and Trans-Nzoia, Purposive was used to select particularly the schools that were adversely affected by the Post Election Violence. Simple random sampling was used to select 5 schools from each district to make a total of 20 that participated in the study. This sampling technique was used because it was easier, less costly and gave equal chances to each departments of being selected in the sampling unit. Stratified random sampling was used to select 20 head teachers, 60 teachers, 180 students, 4 district education officers and 10 interest groups comprising members of churches and other organizations that assisted schools during the post election violence. This sampling technique was used because the unit of analysis consisted of sub-groups or strata that differed in characteristics. Therefore, the use of this technique improved representativeness and also enabled the researcher to study the differences that existed between various sub-groups.

Data collection Instruments

The study developed and used various data collection instruments including the questionnaire, interview schedule, and observation schedule and document analysis.

Data analysis

Both qualitative and quantitative data analysis techniques were used. The qualitative techniques were used to answer the why and how questions whereas quantitative techniques analyzed figures for purposes of making descriptions and inferences. The data collected

during the interview was analyzed in the field. This includes categorization and reduction of data into key themes to identify meanings.

Discussion of findings

The data presented, analyzed and interpreted in this section indicates whether or not head teachers' and teachers played any role in resolving conflicts in schools after the Post election violence).

a) Teachers involvement in conflict management after the PEV

The study examined whether or not head teachers and teachers played any role in resolving conflicts in schools after the Post Election Violence (PEV) Rift valley Province. The results indicated mixed feelings. It was found out that 92 (53.2%) of the students' felt that they were not assisted by the teachers and head teacher to cope with the PEV while 59 (34.1%) agreed. This possibly means that the impact of any assistance given was not felt. These differences in perceptions between the students were not statistically significant at 5 % significance level (x^2(173) = 2.983, p > 0.05). The study therefore, concludes that students were not assisted by

head teachers and teachers to resolve their conflicts after the PEV.

b) Training on Conflict Resolution before the PEV

The study examined whether or not the teachers and head teachers were trained on conflict resolution before the PEV. From their responses, majority 13 (65.0%) and 33(55.9%) of the head teachers and teachers respectively indicated that they are not trained on conflict management and resolution. From the results of the head teachers, it was found out that a no significant difference was found in their responses (x^2 (20) = 13.407, p < 0.05).

This implies that the responses from respondents vary. The Eta squared suggests that about 79.2% of the variance in respondents receiving of the training on conflict management before the PEV could be attributed to the number of years of service in school. This can be interpreted that there were no significant differences in the head teachers' respondents' opinions. Yet this early knowledge of conflict resolution would have been vital, since some students had lost their teaching and learning materials and were angry and bitter they need specialized persons to give group therapy sessions especially for the traumatized victims who had witnessed the killing of relatives in their home area while they were fleeing for their lives. The psychosocial care counseling of students would have also assisted the students to assure them of security and their future in schooling. Table 1 below further demonstrates that the teachers shared similar views with regard to training on conflict management

Table 1.Teachers View on Training on Conflict Management

		Value	Df	Asymp.Sig. (2-sided)	Exact sig.(2-sided)	Exact sig.(1-sided)
Teachers	Pearson Chi-Square	4.144(b)	1	.271		
	Continuity correlation(a)	3.080	1	.079		
	Likelihood Ratio	4.155	1	.042		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.053	.040
	Linear-by-Linear Association	4.073	1	.044		
	N of Valid Cases	59				

On their involvement, in the organization of guidance and counseling for the students and the teachers in schools, the study found out that 15(75.0 %) of the head teachers' indicated that they held group counseling sessions for students and staff 5(25.0 %) did not. They were also asked to indicate the persons who provided the counseling services. From their responses majority, 10 (50.0 %) invited experts to provide counseling, 6 (30.0 %) let the teachers counsel, while 4 (20 %) involved parents. However 3(15.0 %) relied on the church (sponsors), Education officers, NGO representatives, and other visitors respectively. Few 2 (10.0 %) involved the Provincial Administration.

However, both the head teachers and the students were asked to indicate what they thought was the impact of their guidance and counseling provided on the students. Majority of the head teachers 12 (60.0 %) indicated that the students overcame trauma, 5 (25.0 %) indicated that the students were able to forgive those who wronged them while 3 (15.0 %) indicated that they were yet to see the impact. Only 1 (5.0 %) indicated that they tolerated and reconciled. Table 2 shows the head teachers and students response to guidance and counseling.

Table 2   Provision of guidance and counseling for students

		Students response		Head teacher	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Guidance and counseling offered	Yes	123	68.3	15	75.0
	No	55	30.5	5	25.0
	Total	178	100.0	20	100.0
Persons who offered the counseling	Teachers	97	53.8	6	30.0
	Preachers	32	17.7	3	15.0
	Resource persons	21	11.6	10	50.0
	Provincial administration	4	2.2	2	10.0
	Provincial administration	7	3.8	3	15.0
	Parents	26	14.4	4	20.0
	Other visitors	10	5.5	3	15.0
	Ngo representatives	11	6.1	3	15.0

Impact of the counseling	Change of attitude	39	21.6	2	10.0
	Tolerance	12	6.6	1	10.0
	Forgiveness	29	16.1	5	25.0
	Overcame trauma	26	15.0	12	60.0
	Reconciliation	68	38.3	1	5,0
	None	43	23.8	3	15.0

Similarly, the findings revealed that teachers and head teachers being assisted by NGOs were involved in active tracing and follows in all major camps and children homes as well as registration and interviewing of students in order to make them settle in school, as Mwaura a teacher participant narrates:

> In early days of the post election violence emergency, the tracing team of teachers and interest groups was able to help stranded students to locate their families and get back to school. After the situation calmed the teachers have been helping students in restoring family links (TR: February, 26, 2009).

On the impact of guidance and counseling given in schools, 98 (54.0%) of the students indicated that there was reconciliation, 36 (20.0%) there was change of attitude, 28 (15.6%) forgiving while 26(14.4%), overcame trauma and 25 (13.8%) tolerance. However 41 (22.7%) indicated that the guidance and counseling had no effect.

Assistance of Traumatized Teachers

The study sought to establish whether or not teachers' were assisted to cope up with the effects of PEV. The results indicated that 18(30.5%) of the teachers were provided with guidance and counseling, 7(11.9%) were provided with shelter in the school compound while 6(10.2%) were assured of security. Also 5 (8.5%) indicated that their schools were closed until calm returned and 5 (8.5%) indicated that the schools provided them with financial assistance. It was found out that 14(23.7%) indicated that the schools assisted them by facilitating their transfers to other institutions. 1(1.7%) indicated that the school organized talks on reconciliation. One of the respondents Dulo stated that;

> One of the teachers received threats to vacate his home. Another teacher had his house vandalized and household property looted. He is now living with friends as he comes to school to teach. His parents are living in the displacement camp in Eldoret. Fellow teachers have expressed solidarity with their colleague and assisted them with clothes. Yet another teacher had her house vandalized (TR, March 23 2009).

The strategies adopted by the head teachers towards managing teachers is further demonstrated in figure 1 below.
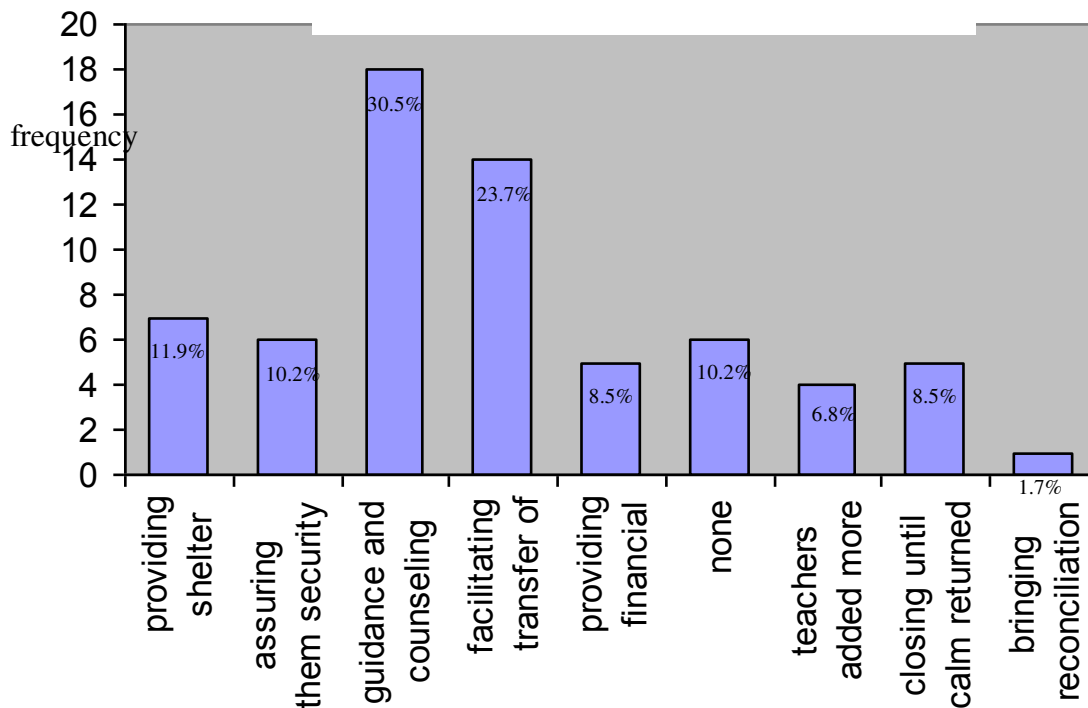
Figure 1. Strategies adopted in managing teachers during and after the PEV

Challenges faced when reconciling students

The study sought to find out the challenged faced when head teachers and the teachers were counseling students and attempted to broker peace among them. The findings from the head teachers are indicated in the Table 3 below:

Table 3. Challenges faced when reconciling students

		Head teachers		Teachers	
		Frequency	*% cent Response*	Frequency	*% cent Response*
1	lack of skill in conflict management	7	35.0	33	55.9
2	feared being branded traitors and groupings along tribal basis in the schools	5	25.0	28	47.5
3	lacked funds and received threats	4	20.4	29	49.2
4	faced hostility from victims of the violence	3	15.0	27	45.8
5	loss of property and transfer of teachers	3	15.0	18	30.5
6	feared politicians	2	10.0	19	32.2
7	feared loss of responsibilities	1	5.0	16	27.1

8	faced no challenges	4	20.0	26	44.1
	Total	20		59	

The study revealed that that 7 (35.0%) of the head teachers indicated that the greatest challenge was the lack of skill in conflict management, 5 (25.0%) feared being branded traitors and groupings along tribal basis in the schools, 4 (20.0%) lacked funds and received threats and faced no challenge respectively, 3(15.0%) indicated that they faced hostility from victims of the violence, loss of property and transfer of teachers while 2(10.0%) feared politicians and 1 (5.0%) feared loss of responsibilities.

On further probing during the face to face interviews, the teacher respondents' indicated that suspicion from the 'other' members of the community was a major challenge. He narrated his experience in this way:

> We feared brokering peace in schools for fear of being branded as the 'traitor' by students' and members of our own communities. This is because of the rumors being peddled that those who were calling for reconciliation were sympathizers of the opposing camps. (TR: 26th February 2009).

Similarly, majority of the teachers 33 (55.9 %) also agreed that the lack of skill in handling conflicts was their greatest challenge .This was followed by 29 (49.2%) who lack of funds,28 (47.5 %) feared groupings on tribal basis, while 27(45.8%) indicated hostility from the victims as a challenge. Twenty six [26] representing 44.1%, however did not have any challenge Twenty one [21] (35.6%) indicated that they received threats and 19(32.2%) feared politicians and loss of property respectively. Eighteen [18] (30.5 %) indicated that the transfer of staff and few 16(27.1) indicated that they feared being transferred.

Conclusion

The study concludes that schools organized debriefing sessions for the students to enable them overcome the trauma associated with the loss they incurred and the general effect of the violence on them. However, the study established that the teachers were not trained in conflict management hence, most of those involved in peace building and reconciliation used ad hoc approaches which did not work. The study concludes that the reconciliation efforts did not quite succeed because those expected to do it lack the necessary skill to do it.

Recommendations

From the findings, this study suggests the following recommendations: There is need to introduce courses that cover emerging issues such as conflict prevention and management in the curriculum. This may prove useful for both the teachers and the learners. The Ministry of Education ought to involve itself or encourage the establishment of a continuous in-service training for the teachers that focus on emerging issues. Those in pre-service training require training in conflict management.

The Ministry of Education could also avail a social worker in every school to cater for the social challenges facing both teachers and students as a result of the violence. This is because not many of the students and teachers affected by the violence received counseling services. Schools may start support groups to sensitize and assist the students who were adversely

affected directly by the post election violence. The educational managers can be trained on educational leadership so that they can impact the larger society positively.

The violence was as a result of the negative ethnicity which was promoted during the campaigns of 2007. The tribal prejudice whipped up during the 2007 campaigns was a major factor contributing to the post election mayhem. During that period there was charged emotions with negative ethnicity. This was felt especially in the areas where diverse communities lived, towns and schools. Kenyans therefore need to reject leaders who thrive in whipping people's emotions for their selfish end. Civic Education, if carried out effectively will help monitor and control how leaders use authority and power at their disposal and make the citizens to run their affairs from informed positions. There is need to carry our civic education to enable the citizens to vote objectively. Civic education equips the people with the knowledge and capabilities necessary to check against the blind obedience through scrutinizing orders and directives down-loaded to them. This can be successfully incorporated into the primary and secondary schools curriculum.

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Electoral Bribery and Corruption: a Deterrent and a Game Changer towards Democratic Process and Fair Election in Kenya

By Eric Thomas Ogwora

Abstract
The fundamental question which this paper addresses is the role of bribery and corruption as a game changer in the choices people make during election of political leaders. In tackling this, the paper discusses the political organization of Kenya. It expose the factors which are quintessential in explaining and understanding Kenya politics. I then goes further to show the various electoral malpractice which take place during the electioneering period. Finally, the paper point out to what extent all these malpractices are linked to bribery and corruption which the greatest game changer is in and a deterrent to the achievement of democratic processes and free election of desired leadership.

Key words: Electoral Bribery and Corruption, Democratic Process, Fair Elections, Kenya

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Electoral Bribery and Corruption: a Deterrent and a Game Changer towards Democratic Process and Fair Election in Kenya

By Eric Thomas Ogwora

Introduction

Africa continue grappling with its governance and political organization which in most cases has not fundamentally changed in any way to warrant better governance. Africans are crying for governance style characterized by citizenry participation, accountability, and transparency, fair and free election which honors the rule of law, peaceful transfer of power among others. When you listen to issues emanating from various elections which have taken place in Africa, you are led to conclude that democracy in Africa is a concept with a different meaning than what is globally acceptable. Electoral bribery and corruption; violence, wars, intimidation, vote buying, unfair campaign strategies, voter stuffing, disfranchisement, unjust handling of opponents in the competition, government suppression on those perceived to be challenging their regime,- all have cast shadow of doom in Africa. In Kenya, the last five election cycles have seen it all. People, especially politicians have used all wrong tactics to rise to power and the throne of leadership. This paper examines the role of electoral bribery and corruption, which is thought to underpin all malpractice in straining the opportunity for people to make fair and democratic choices during election.

1.1 Matter of context

Kenya is one of the African countries where bribery and corruption has become critical and wanting. This has become a powerful tool in determining whether you will get anything done for you in public and private sector. There are many factors which influence decisions but bribery and corruption, in the recent past, has become rampart such that all other factors are subservient to it. It doesn't matter which sector; public or private, governmental or non-governmental organizations, corruption is at stake. While the economic sector has been highly hit by this menace, other sectors have registered cases of corruption which point to the fact that they are not water tight to say the list. One way we can help this menace is to have proper and fairly elected leaders who will take the mantle and lead the country out of this vice. Unfortunately the leaders themselves are product of such vice, a means which they use to come to power. According to a recent research done by Konrad adenauer Stiftung (KAS) Foundation, which is in partnership with Centre for Multi-party Democracy (CMD) on voter bribery as an election malpractice in Kenya, 56% of Kenyans admitted to have ever been bribed during election period. This translates to a population of about 9.5 M eligible voters who will cast their ballot for a candidate who bribes them. This research which was carried out 163 day to election, has exposed a very intricate and cognate issues pertaining to election malpractice in Kenya. In this research, many of the voters who accepted to have been bribed are those from the rural, those who are poor, and largely, those who are uneducated (without elementary primary education). Generally, bribery and corruption during electioneering period has become a perennial practice. The research further exposed a glaring situation whereby voters reported to have been given between Ksh.50 (0.5dollar) – Ksh.200 (2 dollars) which essentially points to the deep seated vicious cycle which the people have been pushed to.

In another research carried out in 32 African countries, which included Kenya, it was realized that a there is a history of vote manipulation entrenched in people's memories, lack of transparency of election monitoring bodies and corruption. Peter Pener concludes in this

research that all these influence people's trust in the system and many are afraid when casting their vote. (Afrobarometer, published by pan-African research institute)

2.0 Bribery and Corruption a Game Changer in Election in Kenya
The electoral process of any given country is the yard stick by which the integrity of a government is measured, not just by its citizens, but by the international community as well. If it is free, fair, transparent, peaceful and credible, then promotion of proper and democratic governance and leadership is achieved. On the contrary, if it is marred by vices and morally unacceptable practice, it loses meaning. Bribery and Corruption is a complex social, political and economic phenomenon that affects almost countries; rich and poor, big and small. Corruption undermines democratic institutions, slows down economic development and contributes to governmental instability. Corruption attacks the foundation of democratic institutions by distorting electoral processes, perverting the rule of law and creating bureaucratic quagmires whose only reason for existing is the soliciting of bribes. Economic development is stunted because foreign direct investment is discouraged and small businesses within the country often find it impossible to overcome the "start-up costs" required for business because of corruption. According to the investigation that was carried out about 2007 and the preceding election in Kenya, on the cause and nature, one of the major finding was that the elections witnessed: Vote-buying and selling (Kriegler and Waki Reports on 2007 Elections.)

2.1 Bribery and Corruption in electoral process
Bribery and corruption has become a complex phenomenon and a practice which has gone unabated for quite some time in Kenya. Today, bribery and corruption during election period is taken to be a normal thing because without it even the citizens are not willing to participate in election. Many of the citizen want to be appreciated or paid in order to take time and vote in a particular candidate. Bribery and corruption start as early as one or two years before the date of election. Bribery and corruption has become a huge menace because of the immediate benefits that is associated with it. Nowadays it is very hard to know when one has been given a bribe and when one has been appreciated. It is every extremely hard to distinguish the difference between a gift, token, church offering, contribution towards hospital bill, a friendly support, and even a real bribe. The roots of bribery and corruption and the extent it has gone in Kenya is deep such that it has become a culture. By culture, is meant a way of life and part of people's general practical life. They have invented names, culturally acceptable names to describe, explain and to name this act. Kenyans have found better words which describe and explain this vice till it looks like a normal and morally acceptable thing. In other words, the use of words portraying euphemistic features and style have been developed to dissuade and disabuse the fact that bribery and corruption is evil and unacceptable. Consequently, the act of bribe is not called by this name especially when it occurs during political processes. Let us make a small survey to illustrate this by using four communities which are vibrant in Kenyan politics.

Political terminologies used by the Abagusii, in relation to bribery and corruption during political campaigns are diverse. They have introduced into the vocabulary of political science a term in ekegusii which they call ogoserwa, literally translated as (posho milling) tosere, (mill for us) insere, (mill for me) which is literally translated as the act of posho milling. This is a recent concept which among the abagusii especially of Nyamira and Kisii county means that in order for them to be convinced to vote for you, do not use empty words explaining your manifesto, your ideology, your capacity and ability in leading them. Just give them some little money to help them take their maize to the posho mill.

Among the Luos of Kenya, various terminologies have been developed in relation to bribery and corruption it works as a game changer during campaigns and electioneering period. The term they use is not similar to the abagusii Ogosera, tosere, isere, but it has the same intended action. The word used in Dholuo is gonywa. Literally translated as untie or remove barrier or an obstacle or set people free. The terminology is founded on the view that after a politician has talked to people about himself and the intentions to be supported to become a leader, he cannot just leave and go. He must 'untie the gathering.' Meaning they have to be set free by removing any barrier or impediment which may make them not to act as the politician said. This is done by giving them money. In other words, the people ask politicians to give them money in order to vote them in. In many occasions, the more the money given in terms of amount and to as many people as possible, the higher the chances of winning the election.

Political terminologies used by the Kalenjins in relation to requesting for a bribe during political campaigns are many. For them the term bribe and corruption in regard to election is not properly distinguished however, they are elaborately designed to inculcate culturally acceptable norms and moral values like being kind and reciprocal. Some of the terms designed and modified to mean bribe include:

1. "Namtechmwai": The word 'namtech' Means 'hold me/us' while "mwai" means 'oil'. Oil represent money (or anything of great value) needed to make one feel good. "Namtechmwai" is used by the locals asking the politicians to give them something before they vote for them.
2. "Makinamebenybirirbuch". The word 'makiname' means 'don't touch'; 'benybirir' means 'red meat', while 'buch' means 'nothing'. 'Makinamebenybirirbuch' therefore means "you can't touch the meat bare handed". The locals often use this word to inform the politician(s) that s/he can't get to power just like that. The meat in this case represents political power and money.
3. "iilankut" The word, 'iilan' means 'anoint me/put oil on' while 'kut' means 'mouth'. "Iilankut" therefore mean 'anoint/put oil on my mouth'. The locals often ask the politician to put something (money or anything of value) to them before they give them votes. "For me to speak good of you, please give me something".

Consequently, one could say that bribery and corruption, is significant in Kenya to a level that institution have failed to avert it. Ideally speaking, the issue of voter bribery and corruption has continued to influence the voting patterns. Because of poverty, people have become susceptible to this without knowing that on long run, they are the ones who suffer due to unaccountable and unresponsive leaders they elect. It is important from the onset to indicate that fair and accountable government is crucial in ending poverty and promoting human rights and respect for the citizenry. This, in our honest opinion is the first step towards changing the democratic processes in leadership.

According to Nic Cheeseman, *Democracy in Africa: A resource for the study in Africa*. Most countries in Africa are grappling with the issue of Democracy. It is not easy to say whether African countries are fully democratic or completely authoritarian. This two system continue to survive in Kenya complementing each other in few occasions but conflicting each other in many occasions. For instance, many countries in Africa, Kenya included, practice multiparty election where many parties field candidates for various positions. This is a true sign of democracy, but within this democracy, there is no level political playing field to ensure free fair and credible election. This is the reason why scholars are arguing that Kenya is not purely democratic state. Some of the factors which tilt the field is bribery and corruption. This semi democratic situation is what has affects the free expression of democratic right of choice. They contend that democracy is all about people's participation in the election exercise. They however don't tell their people what happens

before one is persuaded to cast his vote or more substantially what happens between polls and declaration of winner which are equally important for a vibrant democracy.

Moreover, bribery and corruptive deals in election have made citizens' confidence in governmental institutions to be eroded day in and day out. This is because these two vices undermine people's democratic freedom and participation, their free choice and determination thereby risk them to becoming a democratic façade. In our admission, the existence of electoral code of conduct can only be followed if the populace is educated and willingly accepts to remain indifferent to voter bribery. Ultimately, free and fair elections hinge on the freedom of political parties to campaign for votes without intimidation and violence. Access to all parties and a level playground for all.

2.2 Factors contributing to Bribery and Corruption during Election

Arguably, bribery and corruption has posed a complex situation, while this this paper identifies poverty to be the triggering factor or rightly put, a substratum to all other factors, there are some organizational and functional factors which lead to electoral bribery. They include:

2.2.1 Political patronage

The notion of patronage is not a recent thing. Patronage existed right from the ancient times especially in academic and political life. Patronage as such can be defined as an unequal relationship of mutual and dependence and reciprocity. Usually what is intended in seeking for a patronage is due to differentiation of power, wealth and status in the society. In this way one provides such means and protection. The position of a patron is created in such network so as to have someone who dispenses largesse, resources to the clients and protection. In return the patron get unwavering loyalty and support at all times. Competition between ethnic champions and patronage networks for finite State resources is likely to lead to an increase in corruption. Political patronage works in more or less the same way. Here it means but not limited to the dispensation of favors or rewards such as public office, jobs, contracts, subsidies, prestige or other valued benefits by a patron to a client. The patron in this case can be highly powered officer, minister, chief officer or a president. While this is a manifestation of corruption in the public service which demands that appointments should be based on merit and regional balance, it leads to a very disappointing situation when extended to election processes. One unique feature which connect political patronage to election is where one is elected to an office as a way of reciprocating for being a patron. Such appointment are given to individuals from particular communities, but this is taken as appointment of a community so that they can vote massively for the patron. While money do not exchange here, such is a form of bribery and corruption because the appointment is given and in return the community is told to vote in a particular party and person.

2.2.2 Lack of political will

One reason why there is bribery and corruption continuing in Kenya during election is because there is no political will to stop it. Political will to do things right, to allow the democratic processes to determine objectively the leaders who are preferred based on character, ability and leadership competencies. Lack of political will has submerged Kenya in dubious and desperate situations economically, social, and politically. Bribery and corruption is done by people, who are citizens. There are channels put in reporting bribery and corruption and a constitutionally mandated agency have been put in place to deal with such menace. Lack of political will is the broken and punctured this efforts to eradicate bribery and corruption. Kenya's good gesture in the fight for corruption when it lead in signing its commitment in the fight against corruption by becoming the first country in the world to ratify

the UN Convention Against Corruption in December 2003 in Merida, Mexico. This notwithstanding, Kenya had had anti-corruption agency from the year 1957. This has been strengthened in various amendments in 2010 constitution act (Chapter 15's Article 248) it was mandated to set the integrity bar for all the public servants in Kenya. In addition to this, this commission was to oversee the fight against corruption in all sectors - economic, social and political. Even with these steps political will has been a stabling block. Because the very people.

2.2.3 Breakdown of societal values and norms

Every society has an elaborate culture, which consists of beliefs, norms, practices, values and the general ethos. African had social, moral and political values which emphasized great ideals on life. When these values and norms are compromised, the society is deemed to suffer and have moral decay. Accordingly, society identified firm values and they observed and followed them. Antia contends that "what a people hold to be true, right or proper with regard to those things explains much of the cultural traits by which they become identified" Antia (2005: 17). In Kenya, the erosion of these moral, social and political values have opened the society to various vices. For instance, the continued experience electoral bribery and corruption is a sign that moral values like, honest, transparency, objectivity, justice, disloyalty and unity have been thrown out of the window. The question worth asking here is whether bribery and corruption existed in the state in which it is in the past or not. Second, whether these act contradicts any cherished African societal values. The answer to the first question is bribery and corruption didn't exist in Africa in the state in which it is because everything was held by the community and the community had a collective communalism, hospitality, sharing equitably, respect for humanity and man not based on what he had but by the fact that he is a human being, social unit and value of regard for everybody, believe in justice which went beyond retributive, restorative, distributive to form of justice based on amicable. This values could not allow the roots and fabrics of bribery and corruption to emerge.

Due to capitalism, poor governance, modernity, societal values have been washed away by unknown and exotic values centred in globalization, modernity, perverted exercise of freedom, capitalism, free market forces, competition, technology and consumerism. This is against the spirit which enshrined in the constitution of Kenya on leadership and integrity which emphasised on ethical and moral value from each person (Constitution of Kenya chap 6).

2.2.4 Weak civil society

The term civil society refers to a collective of free citizens who organize their common life in an autonomous and co-operative way. Rainer Forst said that the role of civil society in a modern democracies cannot be overemphasized. Their role is irreplaceable by any political parties, organized lobby groups because they have a constitutional role. According to UN, civil society has been emphasized and this has led to the formation of a strong initiative to network, register and mobilize civil society from all member state for a common front. This is called the integrated Civil Society Organizations (ICSO) System, and is developed by the Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA).

There are many roles which civil society carry out. They range from political, social, economic organization meant to bring transparence and accountability so as to attain a just society for everyone. When these roles are not done well, then that civil society actors and roles are weakened and there by opening door for corruption of resources which may include poor distribution of human and economic resources, manipulation, unjust treatment of citizens and political dishonest and intimidation and suppression. Kenyan civil society is weak, disorganized, conflicting and disparate in its positions. It has been weakened partly because of

the high handedness of the government, but largely because of lack of focus, lack of good will, and lack of funds to drive the various agenda. A case to recon is the fact that civil society are largely self-interested instead of being people, citizen or common interest driven. Many civil society activist have done that just to gain money and after that they keep quiet. They are easily compromised using money, gifts and other advancement so as to stop championing what could benefit the common people. The question that is fundamental here is, to what extent are civil society advancing and pushing social, economic, and political interest of the people? How democratic are they in their pursuit? Finally, how firm are they to the fundamental principles of morality, ethics and good governance? Chandhoke, identified the following three weakness. As De Tocqueville puts, there is the danger of being co-opted by powerful interests or at least of co-operating with them without adequate authority. Again, the issue of the unequal distribution of power resources and the issue of hegemony appear. (Chandhoke, 2003).

Ideally civil society have changed from the Aristotelian conception of whereby he thought of civil society as koinonia politike– translated into Latin as societas civilis– referring to a political community of free and equal, virtuous citizens, bound together by a willingness to advance their common interest by means of political self-rule in order to protect their liberty against both despotism and anarchy (Aristotle, politics)

2.2.5 Lack of professional integrity

In many African countries, the issue of election exposes various challenges touching on the professional integrity. It has been witnessed that those who are involved in the process for preparation of election engage in unprofessional and unethical practices which compromises their ethical conduct and code of ethics. For example, it is against the ethical conduct for an officer responsible for a particular polling station or tallying center to collude with a contestant to either change figures to enable him be pronounced a winner. The New Constitution has established an independent Commission, the Ethics and Anti-Corruption Commission EACC, to lead the fight against corruption in all sectors - economic, social and political but perhaps more importantly, to set the integrity bar for all and especially for officers in the Public Service.

2.2.6 Lack of transparency and accountability

In Kenya one of the requirement set by the constitution in all government public procedure and operations is transparency and accountability. It is very hard to define transparency without involving or falling to the term accountability. This is because the two concepts reinforce, complement and inter related with each other. Transparency is a principle which obliges all public officials, civil servants, managers working in governmental and non-governmental sectors and directors of companies and organizations to act visibly, predictably and understandably to promote participation and accountability.

In this regard, it is a factor which is not only important in election process, but also very critical in order to ensure that there is free, fair and credible election. Transparency entails openness, acting within the rules and regulations, in a predictable and in a way that is well understood everybody. Two important aspect hold and stand out when it comes to transparency in electoral process. These are timely and accurateness of the entire counting and tallying process and relevant and accessible information as to the how and what transpires in the entire steps before and after election.

Accountability essentially means to be able to be answerable for one's action especially in social economic and political sphere. This is a vital aspect which should be maintained during and after election. In other words all public officer are supposed to be responsible for all the decisions and actions that they do.

3.0 Critical appraisal on election in Kenya

In all these factors, the issue of character, ethical and moral standards, ability for proper, responsive, transparent and accountable leadership is not paid great attention. As a matter of fact, even when it is known to the people, it says nothing to the choice they are making. According to the Kenyan constitution (Chapter 6) there are things which should be looked at in choosing any public servant be it in the elective post or administration office. It states clearly that the criteria of all those aspiring for various public offices shall be based on personal integrity, competence and suitability and the selection or election should be on objectivity and fairness and transparence. This ideally sets the scope and the underlying principles of leadership and should guide all public and private officers aspiring for leadership in government and non-governmental institution. On the contrary, this has not been achieved and the agency that are charged with responsibility to implement and foster this principle are themselves violator of such.

Ideally speaking, this situation should not be tolerated at all. According to Tocqueville, democracy should be revitalized from being a mere theory to actual implementation in governance and leadership of all institutions in particular country. He insisted that "the institutions are democratic not only on principle, but particularly in how they function; the people choose their representatives directly, and they choose them every year, in general holding them more fully accountable." (Tocqueville 2009:62) American people have placed a very significant role in the democratic process and development of social economic and political atmosphere where decisions and choices are made based on the character, ability and knowledge of the candidates and not on bribery and corruption of the electorate. This has given the American people a very firm foundation established on proper and constructive democratic process where they are able to hold their leaders accountable and responsive to their manifesto and ideology. They are able to demand for proper performance from their leaders because their choices were informed and built on the ability to deliver a recommendable leadership and governance. The issue of bribery and corruption is highly monitored and there are a number of acts and provisions in their constitution which deter and dissuade anybody wanting to. The civic education and civic responsibility is so incredible such that they do not encourage unfair electoral practices during the pre and post electoral period.

4.0 Free and Fair Election as Expression of Democracy

Elections are a defining characteristic of democracy, and thus form an integral part of the democratization process. It fundamentally represents an important dimension in the efforts towards democratic consolidation in any country. Stated differently, elections are not synonymous with democracy, however election is central component of a functioning democratic system. It is a symbol of democracy. Electoral participation is one of the three indicator of democracy (Powell, 1982)

According to Ogwora, (2015), political crisis in Africa is caused by the leaders' scramble for wealth and power. It is not a desire to inspire, lead and deliver better services and provisions to people. Usually, leadership is bought through dubious means which involves bribery, corruption, intimidation and violence to force people to vote otherwise. The most important criteria for a free and fair election include the following: (1) the right of all voters to participate in the electoral process without hindrance. This is usually ensured if there are no threats or obstacles towards free expression; (2) freedom to campaign for all political parties. This is achieved in situations where people are guided by ideology and manifesto to choose which party to belong or campaign for; (3) secrecy of the ballot is

important because it makes citizens feel that their act of choice is confidential and will not bring any harm; (4) reasonable speed in the counting of ballots. This is very important so as not to allow any opportunity for stealing of votes and tilting results otherwise; (5) accountability and openness of the electoral process to the competing parties so as to portray a neutral stand and objectivity to all the parties involved in the election and (6) an acceptable electoral law which are made after proper and constructive dialogue and consensus (Ndulo 1990).

In other words, this should be maintained in order to call any election free and fair or have a manifestation of a true democratic process. If there is the use of bribery and other corruptive acts to change the electoral process, this will affect participation and freedom of choice thereby yielding undemocratic election.

Conclusion

In this paper, a presentation has been made about political organization in Kenya. It has been observed that the role that bribery and corruption plays in various elections in Kenya. It has been realized that while there are many electoral malpractice which will affect the outcome of any particular election, bribery and corruption stands out as one of the greatest changer and determinant of election. Consequently, this has messed with the elections in Kenya and has led to choosing of leaders who do not deserve to hold public offices. As said above, regular, free and fair election is one of the core values of democracy. Moreover, if this democratic process is affected through lucrative menace like bribes and corruption, then such election serves no role in revitalizing and reinforcing democracy in Kenya. In conclusion, Kenya needs to strengthen the electoral system, improve and emphasize the role of EACC and finally prosecute all cases of corruption in order to deter anybody involving in bribery and corruption which has extended to elections.

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Management strategies in resolving cattle's herdsmen conflict with their host communities in Nigeria

By Florence A. Undiyaundeye and Julius A Basake

Abstract
The article investigates management strategies in resolving conflict between cattle's herdsmen and their host communities in Nigeria, the nation has in recent times lost both its human and material recourses to these ugly phenomena. The paper adopted two research questions and two null hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. Descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. Purposive sampling methods were adopted selecting two hundred and fifty respondents as sample size for the study. The instrument for data collection was the researchers constructed questionnaire tag 'conflict Management strategies for herdsmen's Questionnaire' (CMSHQ) the instrument was validated by two research experts from the University of Calabar, Calabar Nigeria. An overall reliable coefficient of 0.78 was obtained using Crombach alpha Mean ratings and standard deviation were used in answering the research questions. While ANOVA was used in testing the hypothesis The data analysis revealed that management strategies for conflict resolution that should be adopted include measures such as proper notification of the natives before entering the communities and the herdsmen sticking to allotted area of grazing The researcher therefore recommends that Government and the relevant agencies to carry out a campaign on the value of human life and the need for peaceful co exiting.

Keywords: management strategies, conflict resolution, cattle herdsmen and host communities

Citation Format

Management strategies in resolving cattle's herdsmen conflict with their host communities in Nigeria

By Florence A. Undiyaundeye and Julius. A Basake

Introduction

Conflicts like change will always occur given the dynamics of human interactions; It will occur between family members, workers, colleagues, supervisors, boards of management in our work or play environments, between organisations and within organisations. Why is this? Because we all have different interests, goals, perception, viewpoints, values and experiences. The Paradox of conflict is that it is both the force that can tear relationships apart and the force that binds them together, meaning that they can be either healthy (constructive) or unhealthy (destructive). This dual nature of conflict makes it an important concept to study and understand.

It is normal for people to live and work well together to have conflicts from time to time. We disagree with each other because we see the world differently and we have different ideas about what we want and how to do things. Our individual and collective backgrounds and experiences e.g. in cultural, spiritual, political and economic aspects are different; each and every one of us has a different and unique personality.

Conflict has been defined as disagreement between people with different ideas or beliefs; it is also defined as disagreement through which parties involved perceive a threat to their needs, interests or concern. Although conflict is a normal part of human life, providing numerous opportunities for growth through improved understanding and insight, there is a tendency to view conflict as a negative experience caused by difficult circumstances.

Disputants tend to perceive limited options and finite solutions rather than multiple possibilities that may exist 'outside the box' in which we are problem solving. Conflict should not be regarded as an isolated event that can be resolved or managed, but as an integral part of society's on - going evolution and development. It should not be understood solely as an inherently negative and destructive occurrence but rather as a potentially positive and productive force for change if harnessed constructively. Having understood what conflict is, it is clear that the existence of conflict in an organization is as natural as the organization itself. Conflict is a natural part of life, this is because no two individuals are the same.

An organization is a collection of people from different cultural backgrounds; they have different sets of values and ideas. Individuals look at situations or problems in organizational life from their unique perspective, which is the result of the circumstance within which they have grown. Conflict management refers to long term handling of intractable disputes. It is the label for the variety of ways by which people handle grievances, standing up for what they consider to be right and against what they consider to be wrong. When two or more people have to work together and combine ideas, the doorway of conflict is open. The manufacturing industry like any other study set up is a dynamic community. It is a work situation that is not static. Job and work situations as well as terms of employment that may not be in agreement with all employees often result in conflicts.

In managing conflict well, the managers have to realise that there are several conflict management strategies. The key to managing conflict well is choosing and executing the strategy that best fits the situation. Akpotu, Onoyase, and Onoyase (2008) have stressed that management strategies are the strategies in which the managers of organizations being aware of existence of conflict situation will intervene to modify or settle conflict between the parties involved. The intervention strategies identified by Akpatu are as follows: smoothing, forcing, detraction, arbitration. Smoothing is a technique which discourages the difference between the parties involved in the conflict and encourages what they have as common interest. According

to Blake and Nouton (2008) Smoothing involves the loser of win-lose configuration and represented high cooperation with the needs of others along with low assertiveness of one's own needs. Forcing is a way of putting an end to conflict. It appears to be the oldest, but popularly used by administrators in the resolution of conflict. Best (2009) asserted that the introduction of police and other law enforcement authorities may call for the use of extra-ordinary measures, including force to restore law and order. Detraction is a situation where the parties are provided with much work in the conflict in order to remove their minds from the conflict. Huth and Russet (1993) maintained that the purpose of detraction is to prevent the escalation of the conflict to a dangerous dimension. According to Akpatu, Onoyase and Onoyase (2008) said that arbitration is where the parties involved in dispute submit themselves to the judgement of the arbitrator and the decision of the arbitrator is binding on all the parties. Ovwigho (2004) said the parties in conflict are brought together for peaceful settlement of the issue by a third party called the arbitrator. He went on to say that the frequent use of third party intervention may give impression that the leader has lost control of the system.

Conflict is not a problem but it becomes a problem when conflict is poorly managed. Ghaffer (2010) says that conflict is a problem when it: hampers productivity, lowers morale, causes more and more continued conflicts, causes inappropriate behaviour among parties, among students and different groups. When there is long standing conflict in an organization, productivity comes to a halt. If it happens in the higher institution, the authorities, academic, non-academic staff and students will be afraid to come out for fear of being wounded or killed. According to Abbas (2009) a study of major sources of conflicts between the Fulani pastoralists (to be used interchangeably with "herders" or "herdsmen") and farmers shows that land related issues, especially on grazing fields, account for the highest percentage of the conflicts. In other words, struggles over the control of economically viable lands cause more tensions and violent conflicts among communities. Social and economic factors continue to provoke violent conflicts among the Fulani pastoralists and farmers. The intensity and variations of the conflicts largely depend on the nature and type of the user groups where the pastoralists graze. These conflicts have constituted serious threats to the means of survival and livelihoods of both the farmers and pastoralists and what both groups are tenaciously protecting. The conflicts (though provocative) over access rights to farmland and cattle routes (*labi*), have become ubiquitous and seems to have defied solutions (Abbas, 2009). However, Coser (2000) has noted that, the inevitability of conflict in the claim for scarce resource is considered here as the bane for struggles over the inestimable value for land and its resource, with the claim for ownership and the claim for its position as a common resource. Nevertheless, the complex land use system that has changed markedly overtime has culminated in the present day tension and conflicts between Fulani herdsmen and host communities.

Competition-driven conflicts between arable crop farmers host communities and cattle herdsmen have become common occurrences in many parts of Nigeria. The competition between these two agricultural land user-groups has often times turned into serious overt and covert hostilities and social friction in many parts of Nigeria Cases of herders-farmers conflicts are widespread in recent times. Also many farmers and herders have lost their lives and herds while others have experienced dwindling productivity in their herds. In most of these encounters, citizens are regularly killed and the destruction or loss of property leaves an already endangered populace even poorer. The frequency and scale of these communal conflicts have become alarming

Therefore, in the context of host communities and the herdsmen, one key element of the ability of managers to control conflicts is to understand the peculiar characteristics of the crisis elements involves , which is under their control. Meanwhile as the old methods of

conflict resolution continue to be applied, conflicts have continued to ravage the places , the herdsmen and their host communities north Cross River state Nigeria disrupting activities and programs. Lives are still being lost; property and infrastructure are also being damaged. One wonders if the management and administrators are willing to switch over to using the seemingly better and more effective new management strategies for the resolution of conflicts in this environments. It is against this background that the researchers seeks to determine the management strategies for conflict resolution between herdsmen and their host communities in Northern Cross River state, Nigeria.

Research Questions
The following research questions were formulated to guide the study
1. What are the management strategies employed by the government in resolving the herdsmen and host communities Conflicts?
2. What are the management strategies to be adopted for conflict resolution among the herdsmen and host communities in northern Cross River state Nigeria?

Research Hypotheses
The following research hypotheses guide the study
1. There are no significant factors responsible for the conflict between crop farmers and cattle herders.
2. There is no significant difference in the mean ratings of the local chiefs and the herdsmen on the management strategies to be adopted for conflict resolution by the government

Methodology
The design of this study was descriptive survey design which investigated Management Strategies for Conflict Resolution in Federal and State Universities in South East Nigeria. According to Ali (2006) descriptive survey is concerned with describing events as they are, without any manipulation of what caused the event or what is being observed. Ofordile (2002) added that it may involve the procedure of induction, analysis, classification, enumeration or measurement. This survey design is considered most appropriate for the study because it allows the collection of original data from the respondents themselves. The survey design also helps to homogenize the population and allows all respondents equal chance of being selected

Sampling Procedure and Sample Size
The target populations for this study are the cattle herders and crop farmers. A multi-stage sampling was used to select the respondents of this study. The first stage involved the purposive selection of three Local Government Areas, after of the five that make up the senatorial zones. This selection was based on the frequency of occurrence of farmer-herder conflict in the state. These Local Government Areas selected has recorded frequent clashes between herders and farmers. They are: Faskari in the South, Mai"Adua from the North and Kaita from the Central senatorial zones.

The second stage involved purposive sampling of 3 villages (farming communities) from each of the 3 selected Local Government Areas, also based on the frequency of occurrence, making a total of 9 villages. In the case of the herders, due to the nature of their settlement pattern and economic activities, their grazing places, markets and their extended family settlements (*Rugage*) were detected. A total of 21 farmers and 21 cattle herders from each of the 3 Local Government areas were chosen using the snowball sampling method, thus given a total of 63 crop farmers and 63 cattle herders. The snowball method was used by

identifying one respondent that helps the researcher to identify the other, on and on. In all, 126 respondents were selected for enumeration by use of structured interview.

The instrument for data collection was the questionnaire titled 'conflict Management strategies for herdsmen's Questionnaire' (CMSHQ). The researchers developed the items through the information got from the literature review and the research questions. For the items, Likert type scales of strongly Agreed (SA), Agreed (A), Disagreed (D) and Strongly Disagreed (SD) with the numerical values of 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively were used at the end of each statement. The instrument will have two sections namely: Section A is the demographic variables of the respondents and section B, the items made up of fifteen items,

The instrument was subjected to face validation by two experts of which one came from the department of Educational Administration and planning and one also from the department of Measurement and Evaluation all in University of Calabar, Calabar Nigeria. The experts examined, modified and vetted the appropriateness of the instrument. Their comments, suggestions and corrections were strictly adhered to in the production of the final draft of the instrument.

To determine the reliability, the instrument was trial-tested using 20 respondents made up of five chief, five herdsmen's and ten communities members in Benue state Nigeria. This was done to establish the internal consistency reliability using Cronbach Alpha. The reliability was calculated. Internal estimates gave a measure of the homogeneity of the items in an instrument. At the end of the analysis, the scores obtained were 0.75 the alpha for the four clusters put together is 0.83 (see appendix). This showed that the instrument 'conflict Management strategies for herdsmen's Questionnaire' (CMSHQ) was reliable for the study. Since it was reliable, it was applied.

The data for the study was collected through personal administration by the researcher and help of two research assistants who were trained by the researcher. They were trained on the objective of the study, how to reach the subjects, method of administering the questionnaire as well as collecting them back. The researchers and the research assistants visited the areas of study and administered the instrument. The instrument were distributed to the respondents and retrieved on the spotMethod of The data collected were analysed using mean, standard deviation and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The research questions 1-2 were answered using mean and standard deviation. The boundary limit for the mean and standard deviation was 2.50.

Findings and Discussion
Research Question 1

What are the management strategies employed by the Government in resolving conflict between host communities and herdsmen in northern cross river state Nigerian?

Table 1: Mean and Standard Deviation of the Response to government Management Strategies Employed by the government Teams in Handling Conflict between host communities and herdsmen in northern cross river state, Nigeria.

S/NO	Items	Herdsmen Mean SD	Host Mean SD	Total Mean SD	Remarks
1.	Usin or coercion to control The herdsmen e.g. deploying security men.	2.90 1.00	2.88 1.02	2.88 1.01	Agreed
2.	Expelling herdsmen who are involved in conflict.	3.04 0.90	2.77 0.94	2.88 0.93	Agreed
3.	Killing of the of the natives	2.64 1.02	2.60 1.05	2.62 1.03	Agreed
4.	Arresting and detaining herdsmen's by the police or security men.	2.79 0.93	2.60 0.99	2.68 0.97	Agreed
5.	Refusing the Muslim from building their mosque	2.73 0.99	2.78 1.07	2.76 1.04	Agreed
6.	Banning of herdsmen from the community.	2.52 1.06	2.53 1.09	2.52 1.07	Agreed
7.	The mosques are closed down because of the conflict.	2.54 1.03	2.58 1.08	2.56 1.06	Agreed
8.	The herdsmen are made to pay for the damages Caused	2.83 0.93	2.78 1.02	2.80 0.98	Agreed
	Overall	2.77 0.67	2.73 0.72	2.75 0.70	Agree
1.	*Item Code- See appendix A				

Table 1 shows the mean and standard deviation of the response to the management strategies employed by the management team herdsmen and their host communities in Northern Cross River state Nigeria in handling conflicts. The result revealed that items 1 to 9, with the mean ranging between 2.52 and 3.00, were agreed to by the respondents as the management strategies employed by the management teams of herdsmen and their host communities in resovling conflicts. The overall mean is 2.75 while the standard deviation is 0.70 and these imply that the respondents agreed to the items on the management strategies employed by the management teams in handling conflicts.

Research Question 2

What are the management strategies to be adopted for conflicts resolution between host communities and herdsmen in northern cross river state Nigerian

Table 2: Mean and Standard Deviation of the Response to Management Strategies to be adopted for Conflicts Resolution between host communities and herdsmen in northern cross river state Nigerian

S/no	Items	Herdsmen Means SD	Host Means SD	TOtAL Means SD	Remarks
1.	Organizing seminars on usefulness of peace for the both groups 3.40 0.71 Agreed		3.47 0.65	3.34 0.74	
1.	Lack of access to water points 0.79 Agreed	3.44 0.75	3.40 0.83	3.42	
2.	Provision adequate grazing reserves 0.69 Agreed	3.45 0.67	3.48 0.71	3.47	
3.	Review of the amount of money paid as Compensation by herdsmen's. 3.42 0.79 Agreed		3.44 0.75	3.40 0.83	
4.	Introducing peace and conflict t at tie of education Agreed	3.47 0.73	3.29 0.76	3.37 0.75	
5.	Avoiding calling in the police over any issue but to negotiate with both groups leaders 0.89 Agreed	. 3.14 0.87	3.04 0.91	3.08	
6.	Avoid indiscriminate bush burring. 3.40 0.67 Agreed	3.43 0.67	3.38 0.68		
7.	Regular meeting between the government and both parties 3.33 0.75 Agreed	0.73	3.31 0.77	3.31	

Table 2 shows the mean and standard deviation of the management strategies to be adopted for conflicts resolution between host communities and herdsmen in Northern Cross River

state Nigeria. The result revealed that items 1to 8, with the mean ranging between 3.14 and 3.56, were agreed to by the respondents as the management strategies to be adopted for conflicts resolution between host communities and herdsmen in Northern Cross River state

Nigeria. The overall mean is 3.34 while the Standard deviation is 0.41and these imply that the items were agreed to by the respondents as the management strategies to be adopted for conflicts resolution between host communities and herdsmen in Northern Cross River state Nigeria.

Hypothesis 1
There is no significant difference among the mean rating of host communities , herdsmen and government agencies on factors responsible for the conflict between crop farmers and cattle herders. In Northern cross River state Nigeria

Table 3: Summary of ANOVA of Difference among the Mean Rating of host communities , herdsmen and government agencies on factors responsible for the conflict between crop farmers and cattle herders. In Northern cross River state Nigeria

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Means square	F	Sig	Remarks	
Between group	2.3 3	2	1. 162				
Within group	179.030	368	.486 2	.388 .	093	NS	
Total	181.353	370					

Table 3 shows the summary of ANOVA table for difference among the mean ratting host communities , herdsmen and government agencies on factors responsible for the conflict between crop farmers and cattle herders. In Northern cross River state Nigeria. The result revealed that the calculated value of F is 2.388 with the P = 0.093. This F-value is not significant at 0.05, this is because 0.093 is greater than 0.05 that is (p = 0.093; p > 0.05). Therefore, the hypothesis fail to reject hence, there is no significant difference among the

mean rating of host communities , herdsmen and government agencies on factors responsible for the conflict between crop farmers and cattle herders. In Northen cross River state

Hypothesis 4
There is no significant difference among the mean rating of host communities, herdsmen and government agencies on the management strategies to be adopted for conflict resolution by the government. In Northern Cross River state Nigeria. on the management strategies to be adopted for conflict resolution by the government

Table 4: Summary of ANOVA of Difference among the Mean Rating of host communities, herdsmen and government agencies on the management strategies to be adopted for conflict resolution by the government. In Northern Cross River State on the management strategies to be adopted for conflict resolution on the management strategies to be adopted for conflict resolution by the government

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Means square	F	Sig	Remarks	
Between group	.046	2	.023 .				
Within group	61.389	368	.167	.137	.872	NS	
Total	61.435	370					

Table 4 shows the summary of the ANOVA for difference among the mean rating of host communities, herdsmen and government agencies on the management strategies to be adopted for conflict resolution by the government. In Northern Cross River state Nigeria.
 The result revealed that the calculated value of F is 0.137 with the P = 0872. This F-value is not significant at 0.05 level, because 0.872 is greater than 0.05 that is (p = 0.872; p > 0.05). Therefore, the hypothesis fail to reject hence, there is no significant difference among the mean rating of host communities, herdsmen and government agencies on the management strategies to be adopted for conflict resolution by the government. In Northern Cross River state Nigeria. Discussions were made taking cognizance of the research questions and the hypotheses formulated for the study. The nature of conflicts manifestations experienced between host communities, and herdsmen in Northen Cross River state Nigeria.

Responses to question one in table one showed that the three groups of, host communities, herdsmen and government agencies agreed on all the items from 1 to 8 on nature of conflicts experienced by host communities and herdsmen in orthen Cross River state Nigeria. The analysis of the research question one showed the overall mean value of 2.77 with Standard deviation of 0.79 implying that conflicts manifest in those forms such as riots, destruction of lives and properties, demonstrations, harassment of natives and burring of mosques . This is in line with what Amadi (2002) identified as the nature of conflicts in host communities, and herdsmen According to her, herdsmen violently destroy lives and natives properties, causing unrest within their host communities write petitions against the local authorities and demonstrate violently against the them. Amadi also added holding incitement meeting, and destroying natives farms, as further manifestations of conflicts. The content of cluster A if viewed critically, showed that those are the methods herdsmen's and host communities use to express their grievances when their demands are not met. This is also in line with Burton's (2006) opinion where he said that when an individual or group is denied its fundamental need for identity, security, recognition, comfort or equal participation within the society or institution, protracted conflict is inevitable. If the cluster A is critically observed further, it showed that management may have taken some actions that the both host communities and herdsmen found unacceptable which made them to react in those ways. At times the security and needs of both host communities and herdsmen's are considered as though they are not part and parcel of the country. The communities at their level of thinking may resort to destroying and killing at the slightest provocation. Herdsmen's, on the other hand will go on revenge or having a dialogue with other stake holders until the issue is considered/resolved.

When conflicts actually arise, management should be careful not to resort to any action that may result to escalation. It should be noted that conflicts do not always produce negative effects as the resultant interactions may produce positive change in the system. Conflicts help the government to look into their style of management and polices. Conflicts also help management to build, plan and organize the administration of the state. On this, Ghaffer (2010) opined that" conflict is inevitable and often good because good teams always go through a form, storm, and norm and perform". The threat of violence has a deterrent effect tending towards stabilization and therefore, towards the maintenance of peace.

The findings of the hypothesis of table 3 indicated that the calculated F value is 4.618 with p= 0.01 which is less than 0.05. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. There is therefore statistically significant difference among the mean rating of host communities, herdsmen and government agencies on the nature of conflicts manifestations in Northen Cross River state Nigeria.

In table 4, Post-Hoc test was done to determine the direction of the difference for F-value when a statistically significant difference is observed. The Post Hoc test for the difference among the mean rating of host communities, herdsmen and government agencies on the nature of conflicts manifestations in confirmed that there is statistically significant difference between the mean rating of host communities, herdsmen and government agencies This implies that although all accept that the factors listed are all forms of manifestations of conflicts between host communities, herdsmen and government agencies , host communities' perception differ significantly from that of herdsmen.

This reinforces the need for government to handle and listen to the both parties carefully before decisions that affect them are taken. This should be in addition to the opinion of all stakeholders. Every group in the conflict has their own subculture. Government should understand the host communities, and herdsmen to know how to communicate in the appropriate language to either group.

The management strategies employed by the Government teams in handling conflicts between host communities, herdsmen and Government agencies in Northern Cross River state Nigeria

Responses to items in cluster B by the respondents revealed that the items 9 to 15 with mean rating between 2.52 and 3.00 were agreed to by the respondents as the management strategies employed by the management team. It has an overall mean of 2.75 and overall standard deviation of 0.70 and this implies that the host communities, herdsmen and government agencies agreed that the government use these strategies in handling conflicts
These strategies include: Using force or coercion to control host communities, expelling herdsmen who are involved in conflict, calling in police to disperse host communities with tear gas, suspension of local chief and communities leaders for planning a demonstration, closing down mosque because of conflict, making herdsmen fees for damages, arresting and detaining communities youth by the police or security men.

Agreement to these strategies by the three groups of respondents implies that the host communities and herdsmen probably do not approve of the strategies used by the management. These strategies tend to escalate conflicts before de-escalating.. This agrees with what Ghaffer (2010) said that conflict is a problem when it hampers productivity, lowers morale, causes more and more continued conflicts, causes inappropriate behaviours among parties, and different groups. Approach to a problem that has already shown itself is very important. There is nothing wrong with the management going into discussion or dialogue with the host communities, and herdsmen so that government will achieve their goals. Olawale (2004) successfully generated cooperative problem solving relation between

antagonist parties. The test of the hypothesis three on the ANOVA among the mean rating of host communities, herdsmen and government agencies on management strategies employed by government revealed that the P-value is greater than 0.05 and the F-value is not statistically significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the hypothesis has failed to reject, hence, there is no statistically significant difference among the mean rating of host communities, herdsmen and government agencies

Management Strategies to be adopted for conflict resolution between host communities, herdsmen

With reference to research question two which intend to determine the management strategies to be adopted for conflict resolution in host communities, and herdsmen in Northern Cross River state Nigeria The overall mean rating of the two groups showed that the items was agreed to by the respondents. The overall mean was 3.34 and the overall standard deviation of 0.41; this implies that they agreed to the respondents as the management strategies to be adopted for conflict resolution between host communities, and herdsmen If the items are viewed critically, it would be noticed that all the means of the items are above 3.14 except in the item number 15, which suggests/proposes avoiding discussing some herdsmen' problems but to allow the problems die a natural death. The question is, whether it will ever die a natural death? The respondents did not agree with that as a strategy to be adopted for conflict resolution. Their mean rating for the groups had mean rating that were below 2.50 which implies that they did not agree. In the view of Hilgert and Leonard (1998) avoidance option to conflict resolution may be appropriate when conflict is perceived to be minor.

According to Best (2009) it is a way of not addressing the conflict or a tactful way of postponing the conflict for better time if at all such a time will come. This is in line with what Neal (2003) said, that the issues on conflict should not be debated inconclusively and people's feeling should not be considered whether conflict will be resolved or abated.

This implies that whenever conflict has showcased itself in any organization or institution, it should not be avoided by any means. The conflict should be tackled so as to stop it from escalating further. The three groups, host communities, herdsmen and government agencies agreed in all the other factors that there should be a change in the way conflicts are handled on all the crisis involving communities and the herdsmen Not only that, it implies that these strategies should be adopted in order to make a positive impact on the system.

The testing of the hypothesis four of table 9, the summary of ANOVA of the mean rating of host communities, herdsmen and government agencies on management strategies to be adopted for conflict resolution host communities, and herdsmen indicated that the F-value is not statistically significant at the 0.05 level the P-value being greater than 0.05. Therefore, the hypothesis fails to reject, hence, there is no significant difference among the mean rating of host communities, herdsmen and government agencies on management strategies to be adopted for conflicts resolution between host communities, herdsmen and in Northern Cross Rivers State Nigeria.

Conclusion

From the findings, socioeconomic variable such as age has significant implication on the conflict. This is because of the fact that farming and rearing of animal are predominantly carried out by middle aged people within the range of 30-50 years, who are energetic and therefore more willing to participate in violent conflict than the elderly persons. Also, a very low level of formal education is peculiar to the respondents, which is not a healthy situation with regard to the conflict; this is because educated people are more likely to bring better understanding to issues than uneducated people. Despite the importance of education, many of the respondents have not embraced it. The major immediate causes of the conflict are crop

damage and land encroachment. Cultivation of crops was extended into grazing reserves and cattle routes, while crops are being eaten and destroyed by cattle. This is an issue that has consistently been in the forefront of most of the farmer-herder conflicts. Each party blaming the other, but the reality is that, land has been under pressure as a result of increase in population coupled with the problem aggravated by poor land tenure administration. As such, farmers view cattle tracts and grazing reserves as lands not possessed by anyone and can therefore be freely encroached

Recommendations

The following recommendations are suggested for proper conflict resolutions between cattle herders and the farmers:

I. Formal education for both the herdsmen and the farmers should be encouraged through sensitization using individual and mass communication with the aid of extension agents and radio programmes respectively. Also nomadic education and vocational training schools should be strengthened to perform better.

II. There should be enhanced public information and education on the need to respect the law with regard to restricted areas such as grazing and forest reserves.

III. Government at all levels should explore better involvement of indigenous resource user groups in policies relating to natural resource management and utilization.

IV. Survey, demarcation, beaconing and gazetting of the government owned grazing reserves and cattle routes, to reduce pressure on the already overstretched reserves.

V. Periodic orientation of herdsmen at the reserve points to assist social enlightenment pattern

VI. Effective reduction of seasonal inter-regional movement of the herdsmen and emphasis on economic values of both animals and farmer's produce to community.

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Residential Housing Demand in Kenya

By Mwania Paul Mutwiwa

Abstract

This study provides estimates of the demand of housing in Kenya based on annual time series data for the period 1980-2009. As in other studies of housing demand, the log-linear demand equation was estimated to model the effect of house prices, income per capita, average lending interest rate, prices of other related goods and inflation on number of housing units purchased. Time series techniques were applied to test for unit roots, cointegration and Granger causality. Tests of unit roots are critical to avoid spurious results in the estimation of the model. An error-correction model (ECM) was also estimated to capture short-run dynamics toward the long-run equilibrium. The results show that income per capita is the most significant variable in explaining the demand for housing in Kenya both in the long-run and in the short-run. While the long-run income elasticity is greater than unity, the short-run income elasticity is less than unity. The results also show that the adjustment parameter is about 0.43 indicating significant but gradual adjustment toward the long-run equilibrium. The average lending interest rate which was used as a proxy for prices of housing does not have significant impact on demand for housing. Granger causality test indicate unidirectional causality from income per capita to number of housing units purchased. This implies that increase in income per capita directly affects housing demand. Consequently, to increase the uptake of modern housing units, the Government of Kenya should endeavor to overcome constraints on increasing income per capita.

Citation Format

Residential Housing Demand in Kenya

By Mwania Paul Mutwiwa

Introduction

This chapter provides background information on housing sector in Kenya. This includes, developments over time, the challenges facing the housing sector, and the regulatory and institutional framework. The chapter also provides a statement of the research problem, research objectives and significance of the study.

Background on Housing in Kenya

Access to adequate and affordable housing by a country's population is a primary goal of economic development. But according to the 2005 UN-Habitat report, by the year 2030, an additional 3 billion people, by then about 40% of the world's population, will need access to housing. This translates into a demand for 96,150 new affordable units every day and 4000 every hour (UN-Habitat, 2005). Across the world, an average of one in every three urban residents lives in housing with none or few basic services. In many sub-Saharan African cities, the slum population accounts for over 70% of the urban population (UN-Habitat, 2006). It is further estimated that every week in developing world more than one million people are born in or move to cities. As a result, it is estimated that the urban population of developing countries will double from 2 to 4 billion in the next 30 years. (Kissick et al, 2006).

In Kenya, the housing shortage is associated with land shortage, red tape bureaucracy, inadequate housing finance and very high prices of building materials (Republic of Kenya, 2004). Kenya needs to strategize on how to improve access to affordable housing to meet its demand. If this is not done, then expansion of informal settlements and slums will be inevitable to accommodate a fast growing population.

The Government of Kenya – present and past- has placed the housing sector in Kenya at the centre of government efforts to ensure that the population has access to decent and affordable housing. The sector contributes to the economy in at least two ways: First, the sector plays a vital role in meeting the demand for shelter. Second, the sector creates massive direct employment because it is labor intensive. For example, in the early seventies it was estimated that on average each K£ 1 million spent on modern housing construction in Kenya created one year's full time employment for 500 skilled and 1500 unskilled laborers(Republic of Kenya, 1970). Housing construction also creates indirect employment in associated industries like timber, cement and transport industries.

The housing sector in Kenya has evolved considerably since independence in 1963. The 1966/67 National Housing Policy (Republic of Kenya, 1966) promoted a greater budgetary vote for the government to provide affordable housing. At that time the population of Kenya was just over 9 million people. But it was growing at a rate of 3 percent per annum nationally and 5 to 6 percent per annum in the urban areas (Republic of Kenya, 1966). The annual housing requirements then were 7,600 and 38,000 new units in urban and rural areas respectively (Republic of Kenya, 1966).

According to current estimates, the urban housing needs are 150,000 units per year (Republic of Kenya, 2004). This level of production can be achieved if available resources are fully utilized by the private sector with support from the government. It is estimated that the current production of new housing in urban areas is only 20,000-30,000 units annually, giving a short fall of over 120,000 units per annum(Republic of Kenya, 2004). Inadequacy of affordable and decent housing has been accompanied by low level of urban home-ownership, extensive and inappropriate dwelling units, including slums and squatter settlements.

In recent years, the Government of Kenya has shown renewed interest in the housing sector. As Table 2 shows, actual government expenditure on housing increased by 44.9 per cent from Ksh.1, 969.9 million in 2006/07 to Ksh.2853.5 million in 2007/08. But the actual expenditure as a percentage of approved expenditure has been uneven. For example, in 2005-06 it was 65 percent while in the next financial year it rose to 98.9 percent, and then decreased to 91.2 percent in 2007-08. This might suggest that the absorptive capacity varies from year to year or reallocations of approved expenditure are done away from housing to other uses. In 2009, new housing projects were commenced in Nairobi at a cost Ksh. 696.79 million by the Ministry of Housing for sale to civil servants through the civil servant housing scheme fund (Republic of Kenya, 2009). These include, Ngara Phase 1, Jogoo road, Upper hill, Kileleshwa and Kilimani.

The Research Problem

Adequate shelter is a basic need and the housing sector is the sector that plays a critical role in provision of shelter to a country's population. Since independence in 1963, the Kenya government has addressed housing sector issues through various initiatives. The key ones include Sessional paper No. 5 on housing policy of 1966/67 (Republic of Kenya, 1966), the National Strategy for Shelter to the Year 2000 (Republic of Kenya, 2000), the Sessional paper No. 3 on National Housing Policy for Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2004) and other measures contained in successive National Development plans.

The government of Kenya aims to improve housing conditions countrywide particularly in urban areas (Republic of Kenya, 2004). To attain this goal more recent and better knowledge of the housing market is required. In particular, although housing can be treated as a consumption good, the short-run and long-run behaviour of housing demand in Sub-Sahara African countries and Kenya in particular is still not well understood. Most studies of housing demand have been restricted to developed countries and developing countries outside Africa.

The purpose of this study is to fill this knowledge gap by providing empirical evidence on aggregate demand for residential housing in Kenya using recent advances in econometric methods. It addresses the following research questions. First, to what extent do interest rates, inflation and national income affect the aggregate demand for residential housing in Kenya? Second, what is the direction of causality between housing demand and macroeconomic variables?

Research Objectives

The main objective of this study is to analyze factors that determine the demand for residential housing in Kenya over the period 1980 and 2009. The specific objectives are;
a) Estimate a housing demand model that incorporates both macroeconomic and housing-related variables
b) Determine the short and long run relationship between housing demand and macro-economic and housing related variables
c) Examine the causal relationship between housing demand and its determinants
d) Derive policy implications from the research findings.

Literature Review

According to economists houses are typically treated as standard financial assets, leading to the conventional view that home ownership is quite risky. Since house prices are volatile and home owners allocate a substantial proportion of their net worth to their house, fluctuations in house prices can have a sizeable effect on homeowners' balance sheets (Poterba and Samwick, 1997). Further, studies have shown that changes in housing wealth can lead to

significant changes in homeowners' consumption (Case, Quigley and Shiller, 2003) and over-investment in housing can distort their financial portfolio allocations (Brueckner, 1997, Flavin and Yamashita, 1998).

Households that do not own a home must rent, purchasing their housing services on a spot market and thus subjecting themselves to annual fluctuations in rent. Owners by contrast avoid this rent uncertainty by buying a long lived asset that delivers a guaranteed stream of housing services for a known up-front price. Linneman (1986), Rothenberg, et. al (1991) and Hansen and Skak(2005) provide a theoretical argument for a range of economic determinants for homeownership. They argue that individuals or households choose to own a stock from which housing services flow if it is optimal or welfare maximizing given their specific economic conditions. They further argue that changes of the economic environment may lead to change in the optimal choice away from ownership or into ownership.

Housing characteristics and the process by which housing is constructed and occupied are key aspects of the living standards of households in developing countries. In addition, housing is important to households in both developed and developing economies because it is the largest fixed capital investment that households make. In developing countries, housing accounts for 10-30 percent of household expenditure, 6-20 percent of the GNP and 10-50 percent of gross fixed capital formation (Malpezzi, 2000). Other than human capital, housing and land are the two types of capital that are most widely owned. Housing is a form of consumption that can be overlooked when analysts estimate overall standards of living using housing survey data. For example families that rent, their housing include rent payments as part of their overall expenditure whereas families that own their housing often report incurring little current expenditure on housing since they are consuming the fruits of the previous investment.

Empirical Literature review

The factors that determine demand for housing have been discussed at length in the literature. However the relative importance of these factors in explaining housing demand remains a matter of controversy among many writers. There are two broad categories of studies: microeconomic and macroeconomic studies.

Macroeconomic studies of housing demand

Lewis-Bynoe, Archibald and Howard (2005), provide empirical estimates for the demand function for new housing in Barbados using time series data for the period 1965-2004. They used an Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) modeling process to capture the effect of prices, income, interest rates and demographic factors on demand. The computed elasticities indicated that income is the most significant variables in explaining the demand for new housing. The price of housing has no measurable impact, which would indicate that the ability to service one's mortgage may be more critical to the householder. The results of this study also indicate that income, the price of non-housing items and interest rates largely explain the pattern of demand for housing in Barbados, with interest rates apparently having a positive impact on the demand for housing through their effects on mortgage credit availability.

Belayet and Latif (2007) identified the determinants of housing price volatility and to examine the dynamic effects of those determinants on housing price volatility using quarterly data for Canada. The generalized Autoregressive conditional Heteroskedastic (GARCH) and the Vector Autoregressive (VAR) models were employed to analyse possible time variation of the housing price volatility and the interactions between the volatility and the key macro-economic variables. They found the evidence of time varying housing price volatility for Canada. Their VAR, Granger causality and the variance decomposition (VDC) analyses demonstrate that housing price volatility is affected significantly by gross domestic product

(GDP) growth rate, housing price appreciation and volatility itself. The impulse response analyses reveal the asymmetric of the positive and negative shocks. The findings of this article have important implications, particularly for those seeking to develop derivatives for housing market prices.

Halicioglu (2005) estimated an aggregate private housing demand function for Turkey using the ARDL. The results suggest that the most significant factor in determining the level of housing demand is real income, which is followed by the house prices and urbanization level. The CUSUM and CUSUMSQ stability tests show that the estimated private housing demand function represented a stable long run relationship between its independent and dependent variables.

Taufiq (2010) investigated empirically the effects of real interest rate volatility on demand for total housing and new housing in USA. He used monthly data from 1975-2006 using the ARDL lag bounds testing approach to co-integration and the Hendry "general- to-specific" causality test. The results indicated a long run equilibrium relationship between housing demand and its determinants including interest rate volatility. The causality tests indicate housing demand determinants (including interest rate volatility) cause demand for both total and new housing in the long run.

Microeconomic studies of Housing demand.

Boehm and Schlottmann (2006) used data from the national sample of the American Housing Survey to analyze the mobility decisions of families in traditional owned homes and rental units. They used a continuous time probability model (CTM) to estimate the likelihood of these families moving over the period of 1993-2001. Their empirical results indicate that families occupying both owned manufactured housing and traditional owned housing are associated with lower probabilities of moving than those in rental units. They argued that other things remaining constant, families in both traditional owned homes and owned manufactured housing exhibit negative duration dependence or a decreasing probability of moving over time, while for those in rental units duration dependence is positive. They concluded that manufactured housing was the most viable and affordable housing alternative for lower income families.

Davidoff (2006) developed a one- period model in which households may hedge against their labor income risks purchasing houses today and selling off tomorrow. In his model, the capital gains from housing investment and labor income are the only two sources of income to the households. He found that the co movement of house price growth and labor income growth has a negative impact on both the probability of homeownership and the size of housing investment. Home ownership is not attractive to households who are likely to experience negative shocks to labor income and house price to the same time. The author concludes that households enter financial markets with a greater exposure to risks than is typically modeled.

Thomas (2003) analyzed how labor income and house prices would influence home ownership. In his analysis he found that among US households, a one standard deviation in covariance between income and home prices is associated with a decrease of approximately $7,500 in the value of owner occupied housing. This result arises in the presence of controls for the level and distribution of home prices. He found positive correlations between income and home prices. This suggests that households enter financial markets with a greater exposure to risk than in typically modeled.

Sinai and Souleles (2005) proposed a different view of homeownership and argue that owning house is not as risky as people have thought. They point out that the conventional wisdom ignores the fact that the alternative to homeownership, that is, renting is also risk. They argue that all household are in effect born "short" housing services since they have to

live elsewhere. Households that do not own must rent, purchasing their housing services on spot market, and thus subjecting themselves to annual fluctuations in rent. Homeownership can hedge households from rent risks and house price risks. They find empirically that the longer people expect to stay in their houses or the higher the local rent fluctuations the higher the probability of ownership.

Zhang (2007) explores the impact of co movements of labor income, house price and rent on a household's house tenure choice and portfolio choice over the life cycle. He shows that the two hedging functions of home ownership which are to hedge against labor income risk and rent risk, significantly affect the household's decision to rent or own a house and her portfolio choice over the life cycle. He argues that a household whose labor is less correlated with house price is more likely to be an owner, to invest less in stocks and to hold more in bonds. Zhang concluded that in the areas where rents are volatile, a household finds homeownership attractive and therefore has more wealth invested in home equity, less in stocks and more in bonds.

Serrano (2004) investigated the effect of labor income uncertainty in the probability of home ownership in Germany and Spain. He developed a simple theoretical formula that highlighted a pivotal role of risk attitudes in the housing tenure decision that would allow introduction of the phenomenon. He carried out his test using an income uncertainty measure based on panel data labor income equations. He found that households facing increasing income uncertainty display preference for renting while those located in a positively skewed income distribution show a greater propensity for home ownership. He concluded that income uncertainty analysis in housing decision has important implication for the design of private mortgage insurance products.

Lauridsen and Skak (2007) analyzed the determinants of home ownership using a 20 per cent random sample of Danish homes with data covering characteristics of both the homes and their inhabitants. Their sample data was from the beginning of the year 2004 and the analysis is based on a logistic regression. By using data directly related to individual household home ownership, the analysis reveals the characteristics and restrictions that influence choice between renting and ownership. Among the characteristics is civil and social status of the bread winner and income. The results suggest that the impact of the determinants correspond to theory.

Overview of the Literature review

The studies of housing demand can be divided into two categories. Macroeconomic studies which analyze time series data and the microeconomic studies which analyze cross-sectional data on households. From the literature reviewed, there is a general consensus that the demand for housing, like the demand for other commodities depends on its own price, income, prices of other commodities. However, other factors also play a role including migration status, demographic factors and neighborhood characteristics (see Goodman, 1988; Skak, 2005; and Scolttman, 2006).

The survey of housing literature indicates that there are discussions about the housing problem in Kenya (e.g Mulei, 1990). Further, research on housing has concentrated on understanding the housing problem using survey methodology and descriptive analysis. There has been a lack of empirical studies to understand the aggregate behavior of housing market yet the housing sector is crucial for the aggregate economy (aggregate consumption and investment).

This study aims to fill this gap in the literature on housing in Kenya with regard to determinants of aggregate housing demand. It falls under macro-economic studies of housing demand. Such studies are useful for forecasting housing demand and designing appropriate policies directed at the housing market. Estimates of housing demand elasticities can also be

useful for analyzing taxation policies and also macroeconomic policies. An attempt is made to model housing demand using econometric techniques that leads to more precise results.

Research Methodology
The study adopted descriptive research design and used secondary data for analysis. Time series techniques were applied to test for unit roots, cointegration and Granger causality. Tests of unit roots are critical to avoid spurious results in the estimation of the model. An error-correction model (ECM) was also estimated to capture short-run dynamics toward the long-run equilibrium.

Table 3 shows the summary statistics of the variables used in this study. The purpose was to characterize the distributions of the variables by checking normality. The statistics indicated whether each variable is skewed to the left or skewed to the right or it's normally distributed. For the normally distributed series the expectation is that the skewness coefficient ranges from -2 to +2.

Table 3: Summary statistics

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
logH	30	7.308699	.321923	6.542472	7.995306
logPQ	30	3.84602	1.066101	2.070653	5.444623
logY	30	7.023085	.2519487	6.501154	7.46784
IR	30	20.892	12.01869	11	72
$\prod$	30	12.523	8.897472	1.55	45.98
D1985	30	.2	.4068381	0	1
D2001	30	.7333333	.4497764	0	1

Source: Own Computations

Time plots of the variables can also be used to show the trend of the variable over the sample period. Figure 2 plots the natural logarithm of number of housing units bought.

Figure 2: Natural logarithm housing units bought (H) in Kenya, 1980-2009

The graph shows that there was a steady growth in the number of houses demanded from 1980 to 1982 after which a sharp decline was experienced up to 1985. From 1985 to 2001, there was no consistency in the trend on the number of housing units bought. From 2001 to 2009 there was an increasing trend in the number of housing units bought. This period coincided with improved economic performance recorded from 2003 to 2007. The pattern of

GDP per capita over the sample period is shown in Figure 3. The graph shows that the GDP per capita increased steadily from 1980 to 2009. This steady growth has contributed positively to the growth in the number of housing units bought as evidenced by the positive coefficient. The index of prices of non-housing goods (Figure 4) shows a positive trend.

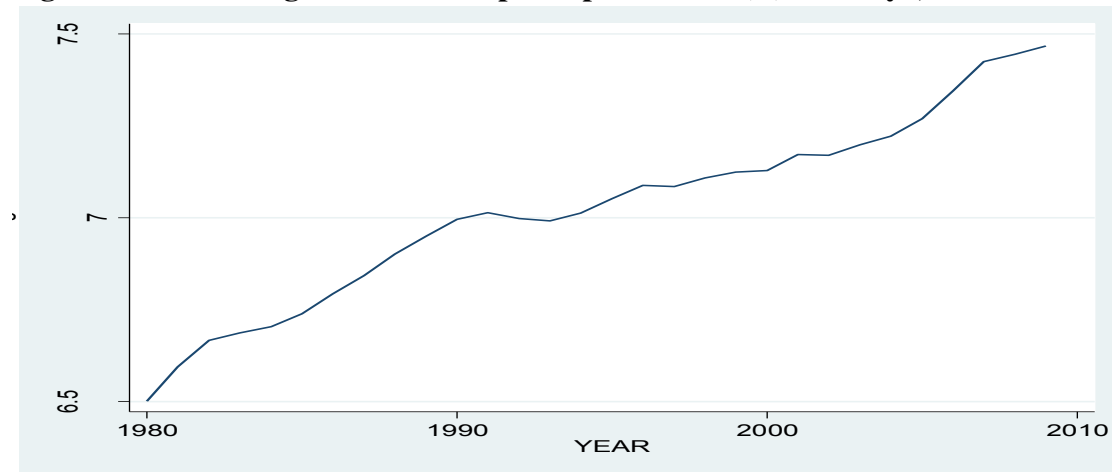**Figure 3: Natural logarithm of real per capita income(Y) in Kenya, 1980-2009.**

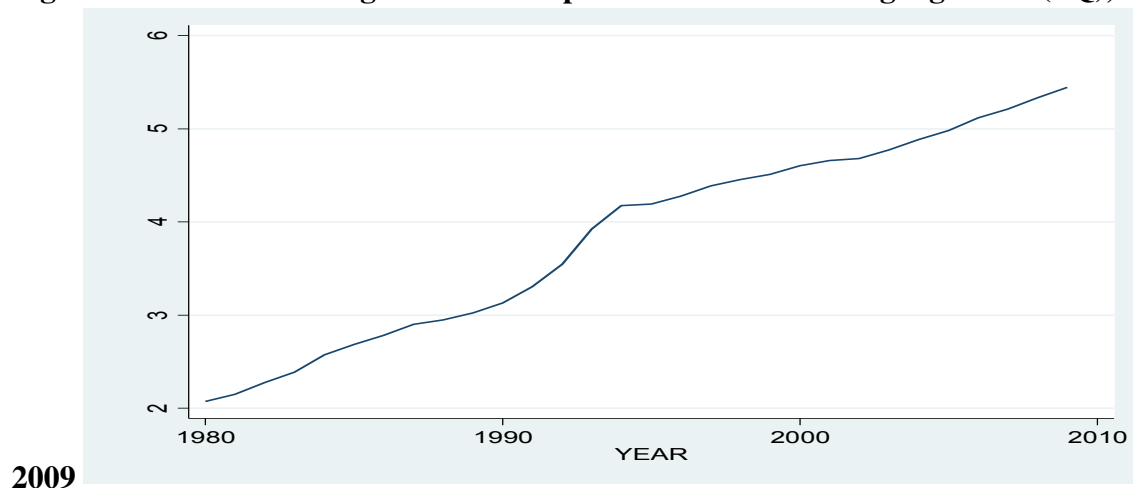**Figure 4: Natural logarithm of price of non-housing goods (PQ), 1980-**
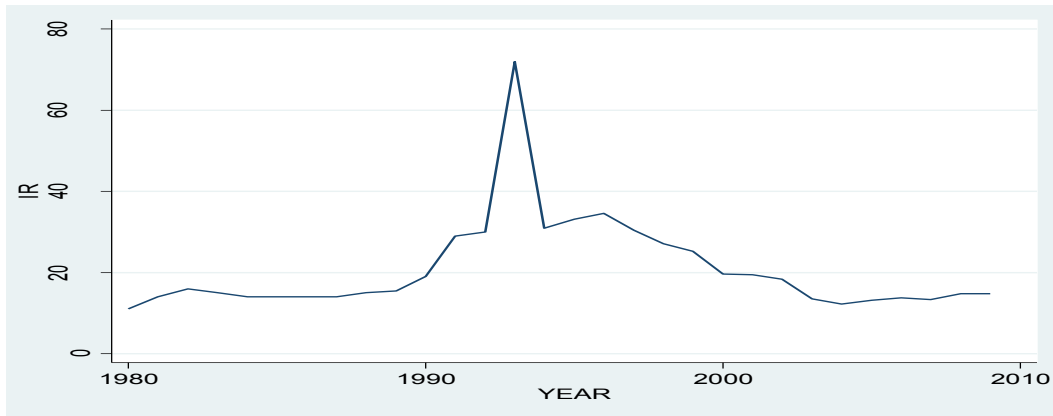

2009

Figure 5 depicts the average commercial banks' lending rate. Although there is no clear overall pattern, the graph there seems to be positive trend in the average interest rate from the years 1980-1993. The interest rates declined but from around 2003 leveled off.

Figure 5: Average lending interest rate in Kenya, 1980-2009

The inflation rate over the sample period is plotted in figure 6. The graph shows that the inflation rate has been quite volatile-very high in some years (e.g. early 1990s) and very low in some other years. This uneven trend could impact negatively on the demand for housing since it would make it difficult to make consumption decisions.

Figure 6: Inflation rate in Kenya, 1980-2009
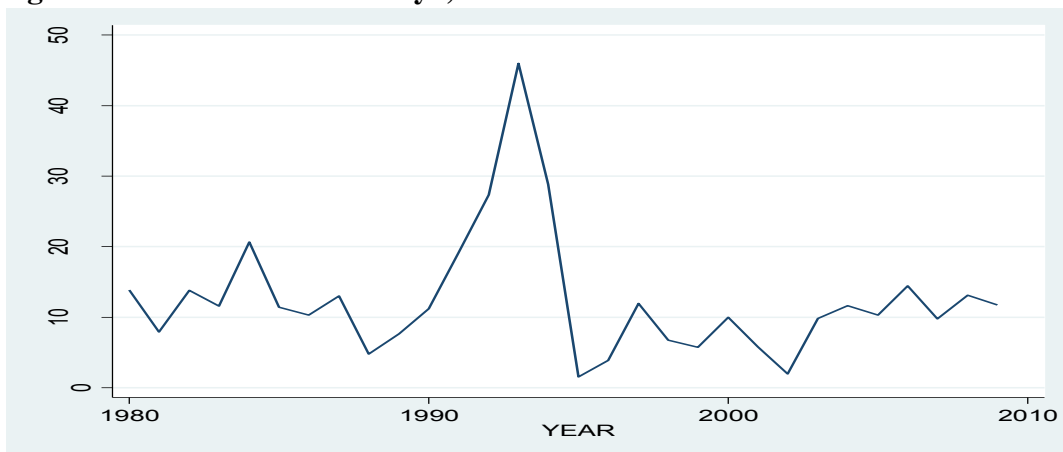
Unit Roots Tests

The least squares estimation method is only appropriate for stationary, I(0) time series data. If time series are not stationary, the standard t-tests and F-tests are unreliable and give misleading results. Therefore, the first step is to test whether the time series are stationary or not. Table 4 presents the results of the Augmented Dickey Fuller and Phillips-Peron tests to the level of the variables. The advantage of the PP test over the ADF test is that the PP test is robust to a large variety of serial correlation.

The results in table 4 indicate that for all the variables, the computed ADF and P-P test statistics are not negative enough to reject the null hypothesis of unit root. It can be concluded that that all variables are non-stationary at levels. Thus using least squares method to estimate the demand for housing would yield misleading results.

Table 4: ADF test and P-P test for unit root (levels)

Variable name	ADF test	PP test	COMMENT
Log H	-2.810(-3.592)	-2.144(-3.584)	Non- stationary
Log Y	-1.70(-3.592)	-2.604(-3.584)	Non-stationary
Log PQ	-1.689(-3.592)	-1.503(-3.584)	Non-stationary
Log PH	-1.960(-3.592)	-1.502(-3.584)	Non-stationary
IR	-1.519(-3.592)	-2.692(-3.584)	Non-stationary
$\prod$	-2.612(-3.592)	-2.912(-3.584)	Non-stationary

Note: The critical values are within parenthesis (5% level of significance).
Source: Own calculation.

However, variables can be non-stationary in levels but stationary in first difference. ADF test and P-P test statistics for the first differences are reported in table 5.

Table 5: ADF test and P-P test for unit root (First difference)

Variable name	ADF stat	PP stat	COMMENTS
dLog H	-4.821(-3.596)	-5.413(-2.992)	Stationary
dLog Y	-2.883(-2.997)	-3.611(-2.992)	Stationary
dLog PQ	-2.505(-3.596)	-2.946(-2.626)	Stationary
dLog PH	-2.471(-2.997)	-7.056(-3.588)	Stationary
IR	-3.204(-2.997)	-8.641(-2.992)	Stationary
$\prod$	-3.535(-2.997)	-4.992(-2.992)	Stationary

Note: The critical values are within parenthesis (5% and 10% level of significance).
Source: own calculation

The ADF test and P-P test statistics are negative enough to permit the null hypothesis of unit root in first-difference to be rejected. The conclusion is that the time series are first-difference stationary. The time series are integrated of order one, 1(1).

Tests for Co-integration: The Engle-Granger Method.
Given that the variables are integrated of order one, the next step is to establish whether there is a long run relationship among the variables, that is, whether non-stationary variables at levels are co-integrated. The Engle-Granger two step procedure was used. In the first step is to generate the residuals from the long run equation of the non-stationary variables. Then stationarity of the residual was tested for using both ADF and Phillip-Peron tests. Table 6 below shows the results of the cointegrating regression in levels.

Table 6: Results of Cointegrating Regression (long-run model)

Variables	Coefficient	Standard error	t-statistic	P-Value
logY	2.443195	0.9766011	2.50	0.020
logPQ	-0.4673343	0.2046996	-2.28	0.032
IR	0.0060422	0.0078086	0.77	0.447
$\prod$	0.0005717	0.0084125	0.07	0.946
D1985	0.3550594	0.2373623	1.50	0.148
D2001	0.2728428	0.2313755	1.18	0.250
Number of obs = 30 F(6, 23) = 2.58 Prob > F = 0.0465 R-squared = 0.4022 Root MSE = .2795				

Note: D1985 and D2001 are dummy variables

In order to establish whether or not there is cointegration among the variables a test of stationarity of residuals is conducted. The ADF and P-P test statistics and critical values are shown in Tables 7. The results indicate that the residuals are stationary at 5% and 10% levels of significance using ADF test. The results of the P-P test also show that the residuals are stationary at 5% and 10% levels of significance. It can then be concluded that the results suggest that there is a long-run relationship among the variables in the demand for housing.

Table 7: Cointegration test: two-step Engle and Granger test

	Test statistic	1% critical value	5% critical value	10% critical value
ADF test	-4.073	-4.362	-3.592	-3.235
P-P test	-3.584	-3.723	-2.989	-2.625

Long-run Results
Having established that the variables are stationary at first-difference and that they are cointegrated, estimation results presented in Table 6 can be interpreted as long-run results. The overall goodness of fit of the model is satisfactory. The R-squared of 0.40 indicates 40 percent of the variations in log of the number of housing units bought is explained by the variables included in the model. The F-statistic measuring the joint significance of all regressors in the model is statistically significant at 5 per cent level.

The results indicate that log of GDP per capita and log of the index for prices of non-housing goods have statistically significant estimated coefficients at 5% level of significance. The coefficient of logY is 2.44 which suggest that in the long-run an increase of one percent in the GDP per capita is associated with a positive increase of 2.44 percent in number of housing units bought. Conversely, a drop in GDP per capita would be associated with a drop in housing units bought. The coefficient on log of the index for prices of non-housing goods -0.4673. Hence, a one percent change in this index is associated with decrease in number of housing units bought of 0.4673 percent.

Table 8: Estimation results-ECM of the housing demand in Kenya

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	T-statistic	P-value
DlogY	3.857883	1.830913	2.11	0.047
DlogPQ	-.2618119	.7080937	-0.37	0.715
DIR	.0027963	.0044271	0.63	0.534
D∏	.0014251	.0066282	0.22	0.832
D1985	-.1644283	.1257595	-1.31	0.205
D2001	.0634351	.1016763	0.62	0.539
ECT	-.4285398	.182379	-2.35	0.029
R-squared = 0.4356 F(7, 21) = 2.32; Prob> F = 0.0645 Number of obs = 29				

Short-run Results

If variables are cointegrated, then an error-correction model can be specified to link the short-run and the long-run relationships. Residuals from the cointegrating regression are used to generate an error correction term (lagged residuals) which is then inserted into the short-run model. The estimates of the error-correction model are presented in Table 8.

The R-squared of 0.4356 indicates that the model explains 44% of the variations in the number of housing units bought. The joint F-test statistic is significant at close to 5 percent level. This indicates that the variables jointly explain housing demand. This means that there are other variables not included in the model which would be responsible for the housing demand. The short-run coefficient on the log GDP per capita is positive and statistically significant at the 5 percent level. However, the short-run coefficients on the other hypothesized determinants are not statistically significant. These results suggest that changes in income per capita is a key driving force in explaining growth of housing demand.

The error correction term (ECT) measures the speed of adjustment to restore long-run equilibrium in the dynamic model. The estimated coefficient is negative and is statistically significant at the 5 percent level. This implies that there is gradual adjustment (convergence) to the long-run equilibrium. The coefficient on the ECT at -0.4285 implies that 43 percent of the disequilibrium in log of the number of houses bought in one period is corrected in the subsequent period.

4.4 Granger causality tests

To answer the causality question, Granger causality test is applied. The vector auto regression in (13) and (14) were estimated. Table 9 presents the null hypotheses and respective F-test statistics for the Granger causality tests. The results indicate that the null hypothesis of no Granger causality may not be rejected in majority of cases. However, the null hypothesis regarding of no Granger causality from GDP per capita to number of houses bought is rejected at the 5 percent level of significance (p-value=0.015). This indicates Granger causality running from GDP per capita to number of houses bought. But there is no evidence for Granger causality from houses bought to income per capita.

Table 9: Granger Causality Tests for Housing Demand Variables

Null hypothesis	F-statistic	P-value
LogY does not Granger-cause logH	4.99	0.0159l
LogH does not Granger-cause logY	0.42	0.6651
LogPQ does not Granger-cause logH	0.74	0.4860
LogH does not Granger-cause logPQ	1.32	0.2877
IR does not Granger-cause logH	0.59	0.5604
LogH does not Granger-cause IR	0.41	0.6695
$\prod$ does not Granger-cause logH	0.45	0.6448
LogH does not Granger-cause $\prod$	0.72	0.4993

Summary, Conclusion and Policy Implications

Summary of the Results

The main objective of this study was to analyze the factors that determine the aggregate demand for residential housing in Kenya over the period 1980 and 2009. A housing demand model that incorporates both macroeconomic and housing related variables was estimated to determine the short run and long run relationships between housing demand and

these variables. The study also investigated the causal relationship between housing demand and its determinants. The study utilizes co-integration and error-correction methods to determine whether the variables were stationary or non-stationary. Co-integration analysis is conducted to establish whether or not the variables in the model have a long-run relationship. An error-correction model is constructed to link the short-run dynamics with long-run equilibrium. Finally Granger-causality tests are conducted to establish whether there are feedback effects between housing demand and its determinants.

It is found that the variables are non- stationary in levels but become stationary after the first differencing. Results from the Engle-Granger two step procedure indicate that the variables were co-integrated. The study finds that in the long-run income per capita and the index for non-housing goods are the key factors influencing housing demand. In the short-run only changes in income per capita are associated with significant growth in demand for housing. In addition, the error- correction term is negatively and significantly associated with changes in housing demand. Finally, Granger causality tests indicates unidirectional causality from income per capita to housing demand.

Conclusion and Policy Implications

Income per capita and the prices of non-housing commodities largely explain the demand for housing in Kenya in the long-run. In addition, unidirectional granger causality reinforces the result. This implies that increasing income per capita would positively affect demand for formal housing. On the basis of these findings one can suggest that the government should continue with efforts to empower households to achieve higher levels of income which would enable them to finance decent formal housing. The negative impact of prices of other goods on housing demand implies that housing and non-housing goods are substitutes. Policy makers should try to stabilize prices of other goods to reduce the negative effect on housing demand.

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Influence of social franchising strategy on uptake of family planning services: a survey of Tunza Family health network in Nyanza, Kenya

By Ombogo Joshua Marwanga

Abstract
Social franchising has been employed in the provision of health services since the 1990s, the health services being; voluntary testing and counseling of HIV/AIDS, cervical cancer screening and family planning. It is an emerging technique used by governments and AID donors, to improve quality and accessibility of these health services in developing countries. Tunza Family Health Network, a franchise run by an NGO, Population Services International (PSI) was established in Kenya in the year 2009, but this far no evaluation research has been done to establish whether it has any influence on uptake of family planning services, which is measured in terms of product/service range and client volumes. This necessitated the research survey to determine the whether the business model is achieving the overall objective of increasing the uptake of family planning services. The conceptual framework was based on correlation of the study variables. The study area was Nyanza region, estimated to be 16,162 square km with a population of 4,392,196 (as per 2009), in which there are 28 franchise clinics, which constituted the study sample. Primary data was collected, using a questionnaire, which was administered to the service providers of the 28 clinics in the Nyanza region. Secondary data was collected from the clinic records and Ministry of Health district records. Data analysis was done using SPSS, for descriptive and inferential statistics. To validate the questionnaire a sample of it was tested with four providers (clinics), and the results used to refine the questionnaire. The results are presented in the form of tables, graphs, pie charts, frequencies, percentages and narrations, which form the basis of the discussions. The study findings revealed that the Tunza Family Health Network, as a social franchise, has been effective in expanding the contraceptive range thus broadening client choice and spurred an increase in the number of FP services consumers. As a result, the franchise members are earning more in terms of increased revenues. The overall impact of the business model, is that, it has increased the general uptake of family planning services, satisfying the main objective of social franchising. These findings will provide reference material to the franchisor (PSI) for program auditing, the government, private providers and other NGOs for analyzing choices related to social franchises, the network member providers to demonstrate the benefits gained from their association with the franchise organization. In academics, it will add up to the knowledge pool on social franchising.

Key Word; Social Franchising; Contraceptives; Family Planning Services; Strategy

Influence of social franchising strategy on uptake of family planning services: a survey of Tunza Family health network in Nyanza, Kenya

By Ombogo Joshua Marwanga

Introduction

Background of the Study

Family planning (FP) is not only a key intervention for improving health, but it is also a key strategy for the achievement of national and international development, including the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (National Family Planning Guidelines for Service Providers, 2008). In the Kenyan National Reproductive Health Policy (Ministry of Health, 2007), FP is regarded as a human right. However there is a gap between levels of knowledge among the populace and the actual use of the services. As a solution, the many players in provision of FP services have adopted various models such as creation of special FP clinics in government facilities, Community Based Distribution (CBD) of FP products strategy and social franchising, in the attempt to improve access and quality of FP services aimed at increasing usage.

Franchising is a business model in which a parent company (franchisor) allows smaller entrepreneurs (franchisees) to use the company's brand name, strategies and trademarks; in exchange, the franchisees pay an initial fee and royalties based on revenues. The parent company also provides the franchisees with support, including advertising and training, as part of the franchising agreement. A number of factors have made franchising a successful business model: accelerated new store expansion, because much of the investment capital and many of the management decisions come from local franchise owners, distribution of fixed costs across many outlets provides economies of scale in purchasing and advertising which only large networks can provide, and the financial risks and rewards associated with local ownership assure that franchise operators will work hard with a lower level of supervision than would be needed in a company-owned chain of stores (Kotler, 2006)

Social franchising uses franchising methods to achieve social rather than financial goals, through influencing the service delivery systems of the private sector. While the concept of social franchising is being proposed in connection with an increasing range of services, from drinking water distributors to voluntary testing and counseling for HIV/AIDS (LaVake, 2003), the majority of experience to date comes from family planning service franchises, and this context forms the basis for this study.

Strategy is defined by Chandler (1962) (as cited by Barnart, 2012), as the determination of the basic long-term goals of an enterprise, and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for attaining these goals. Porter (as cited by Thompson, Peteraf, & Strickland, 2011) developed Chandler's definition further, to define strategy as a broad formula for how a business is going to compete, what its goals should be, and what policies or means will be needed to achieve those goals. Several other definitions of strategy have been developed such as; strategy, defined as the overall plan for deploying resources to establish a favorable position (Grant & Jordan, 2010), strategy as an action plan of a company for outperforming its competitors and achieving superior profitability (Thompson *et al*, 2011), strategy seen as large-scale future-oriented plans for interacting with the competitive environment to achieve company objectives (Pearce & Robinson, 2010) and strategy viewed as the ideas, decisions and actions that enable a firm to succeed (Dess *et al*, 2012). In all these definitions, the common tenet is the formulation of future-oriented plans for the success of a firm

Family planning social franchise programs adapt the commercial franchising model to create networks of private medical practitioners offering a standard set of services under a

shared brand. Franchise members are offered training programs, brand and commodity advertising, inter-franchise referrals and referral fees, follow-up and on-site technical support, opportunities for professional networking and exchange, and subsidized equipment, medicine and contraceptives. In return, providers may be required to meet sales quotas, maintain specific levels of service quality and pay franchise fees (Montagu, 2002).

Central cogs for the success of the social franchising business strategy are; Standardization of Services – a business model which includes a standard package of care and an understanding of the costs and income associated with the service. Brand promotion and development - advertising and promotion of franchise outlets (clinics) and products marketed under the franchise logo and brand name. Quality assurance - through selective recruitment, provider trainings, provision of subsidized equipment, medicines and contraceptives, field support, management of information systems and monitoring quality of care.

The first generation of social franchise programs was funded by USAID in 1990s in the Philippines and Mexico in order to expand markets for clinical family planning services (Smith, 1997). Franchises for family planning or reproductive health now exist in Mexico, India, Pakistan, the Philippines and Kenya. A number of these have now expanded their brands to include cervical cancer screening and HIV/AIDS voluntary counseling and testing (Montagu, 2002). How effective this model has been in increasing access and quality of sexual and reproductive health products and services, is the subject of studies, researches and reviews by many scholars and researchers as cited in the literature review.

Population Services International (PSI), is a non-profit group that develops and implements programs worldwide to empower low-income individuals and communities to lead healthier lives. It is the leading social marketing organization in the world, with projects in more than 50 countries spanning five continents. PSI designed the Tunza Family Health Network (TFHN) of family planning service providers to contribute to the Government of Kenya's family planning goals by complementing its public facility- based family planning service provision strategy with an urban and peri urban-based private sector strategy

The Tunza Family Health Network is constituted of private providers (doctors, clinical officers and nurses) who are tasked to provide quality family planning products and services, as a fractional service (Fractional Franchising). The focus was on both short-term family planning methods (condoms, injectables and oral pill) as well as long-term family planning methods (Intrauterine device and implants).

In setting up the Tunza Family Health Network, providers are selected using a set selection criteria, then invited to join the network and finally sign a memorandum of understanding (MOU), outlining the rules of engagement in the social franchise set up. The selected providers were then taken through a contraceptive technology training to improve their FP provision skills, counseling skills and record keeping and business running skills. After the training, the network members were provided with subsidized equipment, medicines and contraceptives. Additionally, the franchisor (PSI) subsidizes the fee clients are charged on all the franchised products and services.   For purposes of monitoring quality of service, a team of Tunza network doctors, visit the outlets (clinics), monthly, for skill development and adherence to set standards of service quality in all franchise outlets. Marketing of the franchise was done through the creation of a brand, using wall branding of all clinics with Tunza logo, advertising of the brand on radio, television, print media and billboards and community mobilization. All these were geared towards increasing the flow of clients into Tunza clinics.

The Tunza Family health network had grown to 185 franchisees in the whole country by the end of 2011, with most clinics located in low-income neighborhoods in urban and peri-urban areas. The primary population target is low income women of reproductive age. Nyanza province, the area of study has twenty eight (28) of these franchise clinics. As a source of

revenue, the franchisor charges a yearly membership fee of one thousand shillings (Kshs 1000).

The major objectives of the Tunza Family Health Network, were to generate high FP client volumes and subsequent high clinic revenues. As to whether these objectives have been met, has not been determined yet. These are the facets of the Tunza Family Health Network that this research endeavored to investigate.

Statement of the Problem

The Tunza Family Health Network was established to bridge the gap between knowing and practicing through; increasing accessibility and quality of family planning products and services through the private sector. As secondary objectives, the private sector was to benefit through increased clients in the clinics and subsequent improvement of revenues.

Though the family planning social franchise has been in existence since 2009 in Kenya, the researcher found little documentation of franchise members' perspective on the impact this business model has had on the uptake of family planning services, especially on the facets of the range of family planning product and service consumed, the number of family planning clients attending the clinics and the revenues generated thereof. This research focused on determining the influence of the business model on the uptake of FP services, through FP products range consumed and the franchise clinics' consumer volumes and generated clinic revenues, from a purely franchise members' perspective.

Objectives of the Study

The overall objective of the study is to evaluate the impact of social franchising as a business model, on the uptake of family planning services with reference to Tunza health network in Nyanza region.

The specific objectives are;
  i) To determine whether the social franchising business model has spurred any changes in the range of contraceptives taken by consumers.
  ii) To investigate if there is a relationship between the social franchising model and the number of clients seeking reproductive health services at the franchise clinics.
  iii) To establish if there is a relationship between social franchising and franchise clinic revenues.

Research Questions

  i) Does the social franchising business model have a positive influence on the range (types) of contraceptives consumed?
  ii) Has the social franchising business model spurred any changes in consumer volumes seeking family planning services?
  iii) Has social franchising business model had any influence on franchise clinic revenues?

Scope and Limitations of the Study

The study focused Tunza Family Health Network (THN), a network consisting 28 franchisees in Nyanza region that are registered, trained and supervised monthly, given supplies regularly,

are well branded and have a community mobilizer at their disposal. The entire population formed the study sample of twenty eight (28) clinics.,

Limitations of the study were; first, the small number of franchisees in Nyanza province, may not be fully representative and generalized to the entire population in the country. Second, the research questionnaires were administered by the researcher. This was quite costly in terms of time and money since the franchise clinics are spread across the Nyanza region an area of 16,162 square kilometers. Third, determining accuracy of both primary and secondary data was difficult since record keeping at both the clinic and the Ministry of health records department was not up to standard. The study was primarily focused on the service providers in the franchise clinics. The improvement of quality or lack of thereof could not be objectively determined, since the recipients of the services were not interviewed.

Justification of the Study

The findings of the research will be valuable to; first, the franchisor (PSI), the findings will form a basis for an audit of the objectives vis-à-vis the results and resources input vis-à-vis the outcomes. This will help to improve on implementation strategies and focus the organization's resources on strategies that are the most effective in attaining the organization's objectives. Second, the findings will contribute to the reference pool for government policy makers, NGOs and commercial firms engaged in social courses. They (findings) will provide a context for analyzing choices of whether or not to implement health-related social franchises in the quest to decrease the unmet need in family planning services. Third, the findings will help private providers to make informed choices when considering joining any healthcare social franchise, as the findings demonstrate the benefits that the network franchise member derive from their association with the franchise organization. Lastly, the findings add to the knowledge pool of social franchising business model and it's effectiveness in provision of family planning services.

Literature Review

Social Franchising

The widely accepted definition of a franchise comprises 'a contractual relationship between a franchisee (usually taking the form of a small business) and a franchisor (usually a larger business) in which the former agrees to produce or market a product or service in accordance with an overall 'blueprint' devised by the franchisor' (Stanworth *et al*. 1995).

Franchises can either be stand-alone franchises or fractional franchises. A stand-alone franchise exclusively promotes and sells the goods and services of the franchisor such as Nandos (Innscor Kenya). A fractional franchise adds a franchised service or product to an existing business, creating additional income for the franchisee and using existing business assets: building and shared utilities. This is common in social franchises (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008).

Social franchising is a contractual relationship wherein an independent coordinating organization (usually a non-governmental organizations, or private company) offers individual independent operators the ability join into a franchise network for the provision of selected services over a specified area in accordance with an overall blueprint devised by the franchisor. The franchisors offer; professional training, brand advertisements, subsidized or

proprietary supplies and equipment, support services, and access to professional advice. Members also gain beneficial spin-off effects such as increased consumer volume, increased revenues and improved reputation due to brand affiliation (McBride 2001; Stephenson 2003).

According to Ngo *et al* (2010), implementation of social franchising involves three strategic initiatives: improving service quality, increasing service availability and actively promoting the new franchise brand. It is due to quest to achieve these initiatives that a number of international NGOs (Marie Stopes, Population Services International) and governments (Vietnam, India) have adopted the social franchising business model in provision of sexual and reproductive health services (RHS).

Social Franchising for Family Planning Services

Peters, *et al* (2004) conducted a systematic review of literature from 1980 to 2003 to assess the effectiveness of private sector strategies for sexual and reproductive services (SRH) in developing countries. The strategies examined were regulating, contracting, financing, franchising, social marketing training and collaborating. Most literatures were descriptive papers. Using study design to rate the strength of evidence, they found that the evidence about effectiveness of private sector strategies on SRH services is weak. Nearly all studies examined short-term effects, largely measuring changes in providers rather than changes in health status or other effects on beneficiaries. Five studies with more robust designs (randomized controlled trials) demonstrated that contraceptive use could be increased through supporting private providers, and showed cases where the knowledge and practices of private providers could be improved through training, regulation and incentives. Their conclusion was that, although tools to work with the private sector offer considerable promise, without stronger research designs, key questions regarding their feasibility and impact remain unanswered.

Clinical franchising often takes the form of a fractional model where franchised services are added to an existing medical practice, but also can exist as a standalone practice wherein the site exclusively provides franchise supported services or commodities (Koehlmoos, 2009). The Tunza family health network under study, takes the fractional franchising model.

Empirical Evidence of the Benefits Of Social Franchising

Montagu (2002), notes that the primary advantage of social franchising business model, is the potential for fast, low risk expansion through local ownership, backed by a recognized brand with well-established attributes desired by consumers. These are benefits attributed to the franchisor.

For the clients, franchising of reproductive health and family planning services in the private sector improves quality and access which consequently increases utilization as supported by researches by Ngo (2010), Mc Bride (2001) and Koehlmoos (2009). Benefits attributed to the franchise network members (providers) are; training programs, brand and commodity marketing, access of subsidized equipment, medicine and contraceptives, increased range of contraceptives provided and consumed , which consequently broadens the clients' FP choice (McBride,2001 and Smith, 2001), increased FP consumer volumes (Montagu, 2002 and Ngo, 2010) and increased clinic revenues (Smith, 2001 and Stephenson, 2004).

1. Increased Uptake of Contraceptives in Volumes and Range

In a review of client choices among private providers in Kenya, Pakistan and Bihar, India, Montagu (2002) noted that service quality was seen as an important factor for choice, and an association was identified between high estimation of quality and the use of franchised

services. The opportunity therefore exists for franchised networks to increase their client volumes through an investment in the provision of quality reproductive health services (Stephenson et al, 2004).

PSI research on their social franchise in Pakistan, the Green Star, found out that the franchise outlets experienced an increase in the number of family planning clients. During the network's first year, the number of family planning clients seen by franchise providers and paramedics more than doubled, from 1.8 to 4 per day. The total number of clients coming to these clinics (for any reason) increased from 14 to 19 per day (Agha *et al*, 1997).

In other studies by Ngo et al(2010) of a Government Social Franchising (GSF) in Vietnam, the study found positive associations between Government Social Franchising membership and client volumes as reported by the clinics at the end of the evaluation period. All these studies support the presumption that there is a positive relationship between social franchise membership and high FP consumer volumes.

On range of contraceptives, McBride et al (2001) did an evaluation of the Green star Network in Pakistan, in addition to reviewing a wide variety of studies on the network and noted that Green Star had improved the quality of care through increased skill and competency levels of providers. This was backed by the following findings; availability of IUDs and hormonal contraceptives increased by 80 percent in Green Star clinics, the availability of client's choice of method increased from 76 percent to 96 percent and that providers gave information about three or more contraceptive methods to 86 percent of mystery FP clients.

Tsui, (2002) did an evaluation of three family planning franchises; Janani network of India, Green Star Network in Pakistan and Biruh Tesfa network in Ethiopia. He found that these franchises provide more reproductive health services than do other private providers, evidence that supports the assertion that social franchising does increase the number of clients seeking franchised services. These findings point to the conclusion that social franchising increases the range of FP services provided and consumed at franchise clinics.

2. Increased Clinic Revenues

There is evidence that social franchising can be financially and institutionally sustainable. Ultimately sustainability will depend on the users' willingness to and ability to pay. The institutional sustainability of social franchising is greatly assisted where the franchise is fractional, that is, added to an existing financially viable business. Financial sustainability is grounded in the evidence that people are prepared to pay for good quality services (Smith, 2001).

In a review of six health networks, Stephenson et al (2004) noted that, relative to non-franchised private health establishments, franchise membership is also associated with an expanded range of family planning brands and subsequently the potential for increased revenue through raised client volume. The study recommended that franchise networks should capitalize further on their service marketing potential by expanding the range of reproductive health services available through their franchisees, thereby generating higher reproductive health client volumes and hence higher clinic revenues.

Conceptual Framework;

The conceptual framework is based on empirical literature on social franchising of FP services and its influence on consumer volumes. The variables in the study will include; the element mix needed to set up the franchise network (independent variables), the expected yield in terms of services at the provider level (intervening variable) and the final intended outcomes (dependent variables). The relationship of the variables can be schematically conceptualized as follows;

Independent Variables   **Dependent Variables**
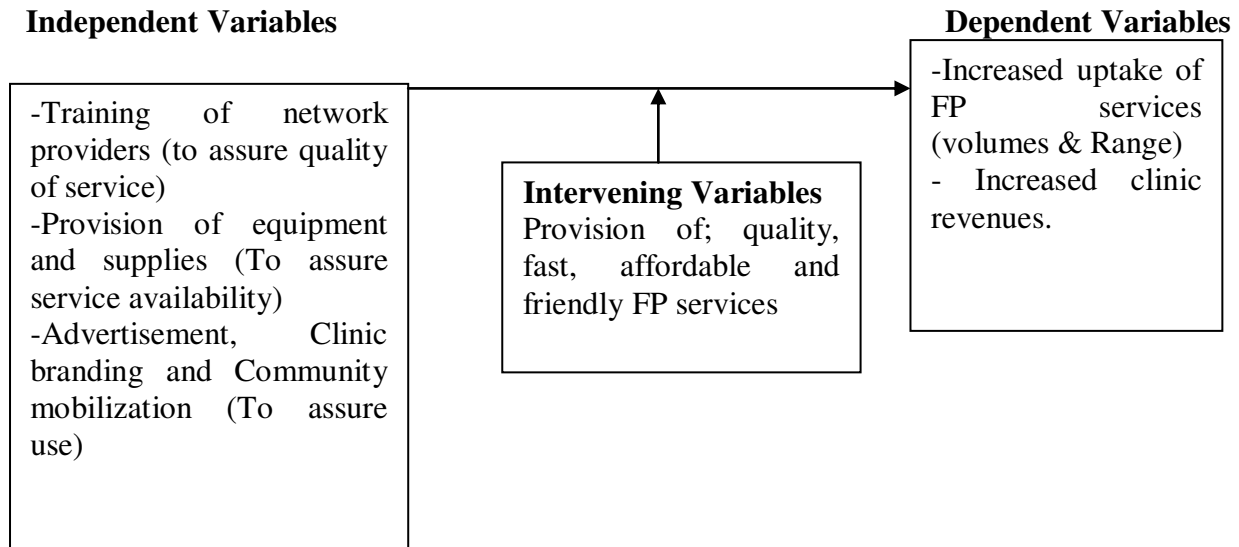

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework Schematic
Source: Self Conceptualization.

This research investigated whether the relationship indicated in the conceptual framework existed and the strength of the relationship if there's any.

Research Methodology
Research design
The study employed a mixed research design, both qualitative and quantitative. to collect and analyze views of the social franchise members (providers), about the impact the business model has had so far on the range of FP products and services consumed, client volumes and clinic revenues. It also focused on the provider perspective, with comparisons between pre-franchising and post-franchising periods. The study was carried out by way of questionnaires and interviews. The results were analyzed into descriptive and inferential statistics.

Target Study Population
The study targeted all twenty eight (28) franchise members under the Tunza Family Health Network in Nyanza (an area estimated to be 16,162 square km with a population of 4,392,196).. These are private clinics in which the providers have been trained, given equipment and FP provisions by the franchisor (PSI) as well as given marketing support in terms of clinic branding and community mobilization.

Sampling Frame and Data Collection
The sample size constituted the entire population of 28 registered private clinics that are fractional franchises in the Tunza network in Nyanza region. Thus representation was 100%. The providers of these clinics were interviewed by the help of structured questionnaires which were administered by the researcher. The study employed purposeful sampling of the entire

population of Tunza Family Health Network clinics (members). This is because; first, the population wasn't too large, hence choosing a smaller sample would have resulted in a huge error margin.

Primary data was collected from the 28 respondents (Tunza Family Health network clinics) using a questionnaire which had both structured and unstructured questions. The questionnaires were administered by the researcher, and the respondents were the clinic owners or administrators in the twenty eight (28) clinics. Secondary data was gathered from clinic family planning registers and annual financial clinic records, for the period from 2007 to 2010, using pre-designed template. This data was corroborated with the data at the Ministry of Health database at the district level.

Instrument Reliability and Validity

Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after trials. The developed questionnaire was administered to a sample of four franchise members who qualified to be included in the population sample, but the outcomes were not included in the final data collected. The pre-test was repeated after a month to determine the consistency of results. The results yielded a Cronbach Alpha test coefficient of 0.87, indicating a high degree of reliability of the data to be collected.

Before the actual data collection took place, the researcher tested how the data to be collected will reflect on the stated variables. This was done by administering the questionnaire to a sample of four franchise members who qualified to be included in the population sample, but the outcome was not included in the final exercise. From the analyzed results of this pre-test, the conclusion was that the data represented the variables under study to a degree of 95%.

Data Analysis

The data generated from structured questionnaires was recorded and coded into SPSS Version 13 Package. Results were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics expressed in percentages and presented using tables, bar charts and graphs.

To test the relationship between the variables, the data was cross-tabulated, using 2x2 tables. Data analysis using Simple table analysis, yielded probability (P) values, that indicated the level of statistical significance of the relationship of the variables. The interpretation of the P values is that, if $P < 0.05$, the level of statistical significance is high, that is, whatever outcomes observed in dependent variables, they have been influenced by the effects of independent variables. This was useful in comparative analysis of the two periods under study, that is, the period of two years (2009-2010) the Tunza program has been implemented, against two years (2007-2008) preceding the Tunza network's implementation. This was useful in determining the whether the implementation of the Tunza network had influenced the observed outcomes in the data analysis.

Data Presentation

Data was presented in form of descriptive statistics e.g. graphs, pie charts, tables and percentages, for all the dependent variables' outcomes. Graphical presentations of performances of the clinics over the two periods was presented, to illustrate the influence social franchising has had since implementation of the Tunza network.

Research Ethics

In this research, the researcher acknowledged authors of any work done before that has been quoted in this report. Secondly, the respondents   were informed to their right to voluntary and informed consent. Also the confidentiality of their responses was assured.

Results and Discussion
Characteristics of the Respondents

The clinic population sampled comprises of all franchisees under the Tunza Health Network in Nyanza province. They constitute the entire population within the province. The respondents were clinic owners who are trained service providers or employees who are trained service providers in the clinic. The majority of the health facilities interviewed were in the urban areas at 39%, 36% were from peri-urban and 25% from the rural areas. The figure 1, below shows the location of the clinics that were interviewed. It was noted during data collection, that all the clinics were located in low income areas. This is in line with the focus of the franchisor on low income women.

Figure 1:Location of facilities interviewed
Source; Survey data (2011)
A big number of the clinics had practiced for more than five years, at 78.6%, with 7.1% for 5 years and only 14.3% of the facilities had been in for less than 5 years. The figure 2, below illustrates the distribution of period the clinics had been in practice.
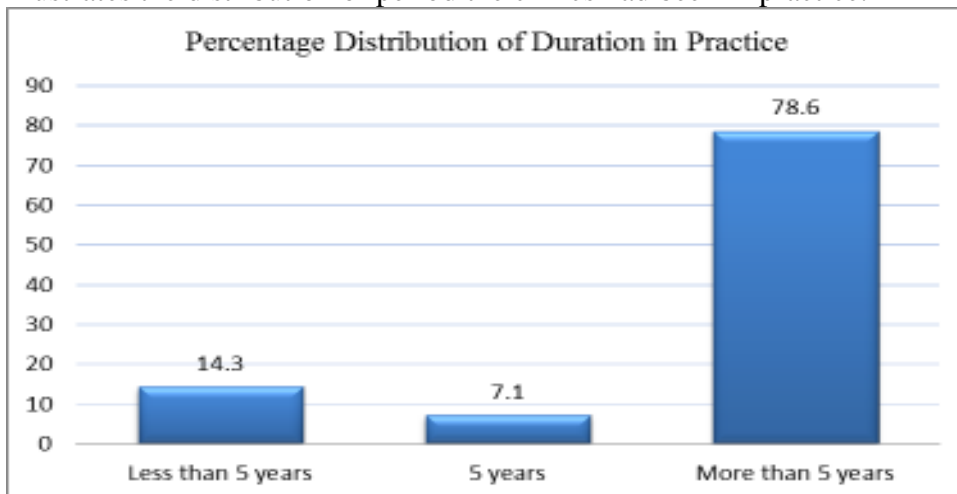

Figure 2: Duration that the health facilities have been in practice
Source; Survey data (2011)
The duration of practice of the facilities, was important to this study as it gives an indication of the stability of the clinic as a business entity as a going concern. The assumption in this study is that the longer the period the clinic has been in practice the stable it is and the better the providers as are equipped to notice differences brought about by a fractional franchise.
Duration of membership in the network was also determined. About half 50% of the interviewees had been members of the TFHN for 2 years and 39.3% been members of the

network for more than 2 years, only 10.7% had been franchisee of less than two years. It was noted that the facilities that had been members in the network for two years and more, could clearly enumerate the changes they've experienced under the network, more than those who have been in the network for less than two years.

The setting up of the Tunza network

This research sought to determine whether the franchisor had instituted all the facets that build a social franchise, whether these were enough to motivate the current members to join and how each facet compares to the others in motivational value.

It was noted that all the providers had received training in the core areas of Clinical Family Planning Skills Update and Client counseling. It was noted that most providers regarded customer service training as auxiliary to the above two. Hence, though only sixty four percent (64%) of the members had received training in customer service, the remaining thirty six percent (36%) didn't feel left out as they didn't regard this as a core factor to the success of their businesses. The table below shows the distribution of the areas of training that the facilities had received.

Table 4.1.1.1: Areas of Training received by the facilities

Areas of training received by the facilities	Frequency	Percentage
Clinical Family Planning Skills Update	28	100%
Client counseling training	28	100%
Customer service training	18	64%

In terms of marketing, it was noted that the franchisor was running mass media campaigns (radio, television and print) in addition to billboards, wall branding and interpersonal communications in the form of community mobilization, which was focused on, since it is not obvious and uniform as the other facets of marketing.

Community mobilization was in the form of a mobiliser attached to the clinic who refers clients clients to the clinic for services. Eighty two percent (82%) had a community mobilizer at their disposal. In terms of monthly supportive visits, provision of family planning equipment, FP products supplies and infection prevention chemicals seventy five percent (75%) of the providers felt they were adequate. In the 'others' category which constituted four percent (4%), forms of support cited were, linkage to the ministry of health (MoH) for FP products support and linkages to other Tunza network members, for purposes of learning from each other . This is shown in table 4.1.1.2

Table 4.1.1.2: Support the clinics receive from the Tunza network

Support the clinics receive from the Tunza network	Number	Percentage
Community mobilization	23	82%
Monthly supportive visits	22	79%
FP equipment provision	21	75%
FP products supplies	21	75%
Infection prevention equipment and chemicals	21	75%
Other	1	4%

Quality of service is a core pillar in the growth of a social franchise as cited in the literature review. Hence the study sought to determine whether the Tunza network strove to maintain the quality standards, that had been set from the onset, through deliberate qualitative actions. Thus the study sought to confirm whether the franchisor was instituting these actions to enforce quality of service.

Seventy nine percent (79%) of the members cited monthly visits by Tunza staff and regular FP updates and provision of FP supplies and equipment. 68% of the respondents stated that monthly franchisee reports are ways of enforcing quality, since at the time of collection, guidance is given on issues where the provider in not proficient, especially on data quality.

Social franchising and the range of contraceptives consumed

The data established that 67% of the facilities started offering an expanded range of contraceptives after joining the Tunza network. Figure 3 below illustrates the percentage distribution of the facilities that were offering the same range of family planning services prior to joining the Tunza health network.
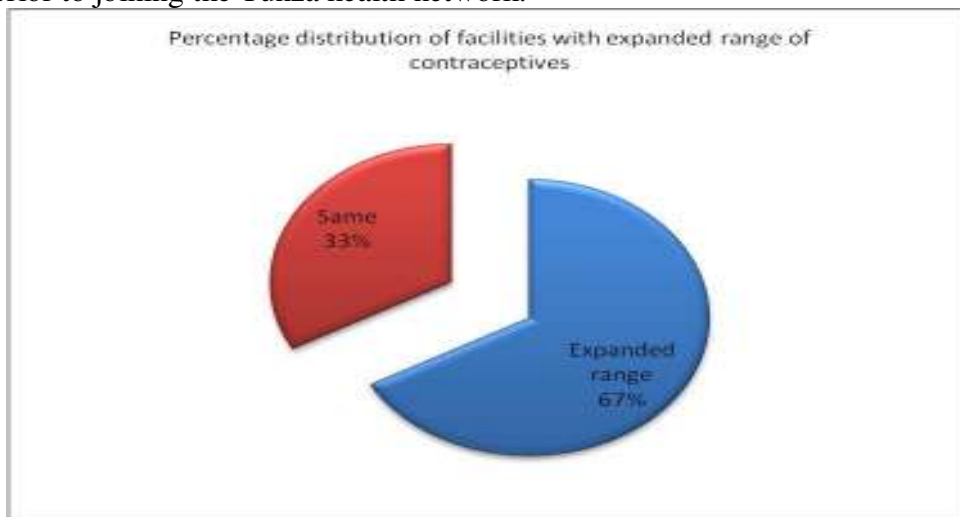

Figure 3: Percentage distribution of facilities with expanded range of contraceptives.

Fifty percent (50%) started offering intra-uterine contraceptive devices (IUCDs), 46.4% more health facilities are now offering implants, while 3.6% more have joined the facilities offering the daily pills and the 3 month injection. This is shown in figure 4.
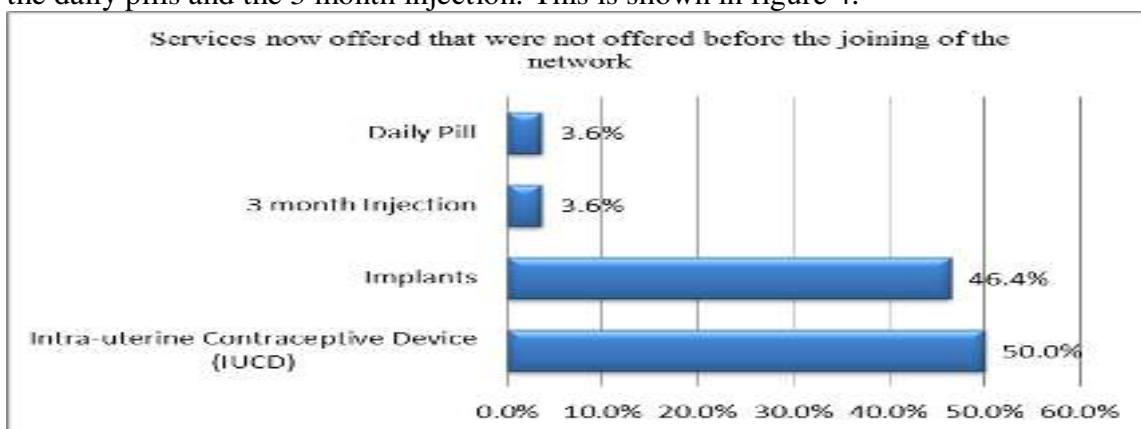

Figure 4: Percentage increment in services now offered

Source: Survey data (2011)

The likely reasons for increased range of contraceptives consumed were; affordability at 75%, the contraceptives offering satisfaction to client at 61%, the contraceptives being viewed as safe and effective at 57%, while 43% stated that the improved marketing and advertisement was a likely reason for the increased range of contraceptives consumed

Social franchising and clinic client volumes

The number of clients seeking FP services, increased throughout the Tunza spectrum as shown in figure 5. The data comprises cumulative data of two years before joining Tunza and two years after joining Tunza network.

Before joining Tunza network, 64.3% of the clinics were seeing less than 10 clients and after joining the franchise only 28% of the clinics were seeing less than 10 clients. Before the Tunza network was developed, there were no clinics seeing more than 50 clients a day, but after the joining the network 10.7% of the clinics were seeing more than 50 clients a day. These findings illustrate that there is a significant increase in the number of clients, for both curative and family planning services, that are visiting Tunza network clinics.
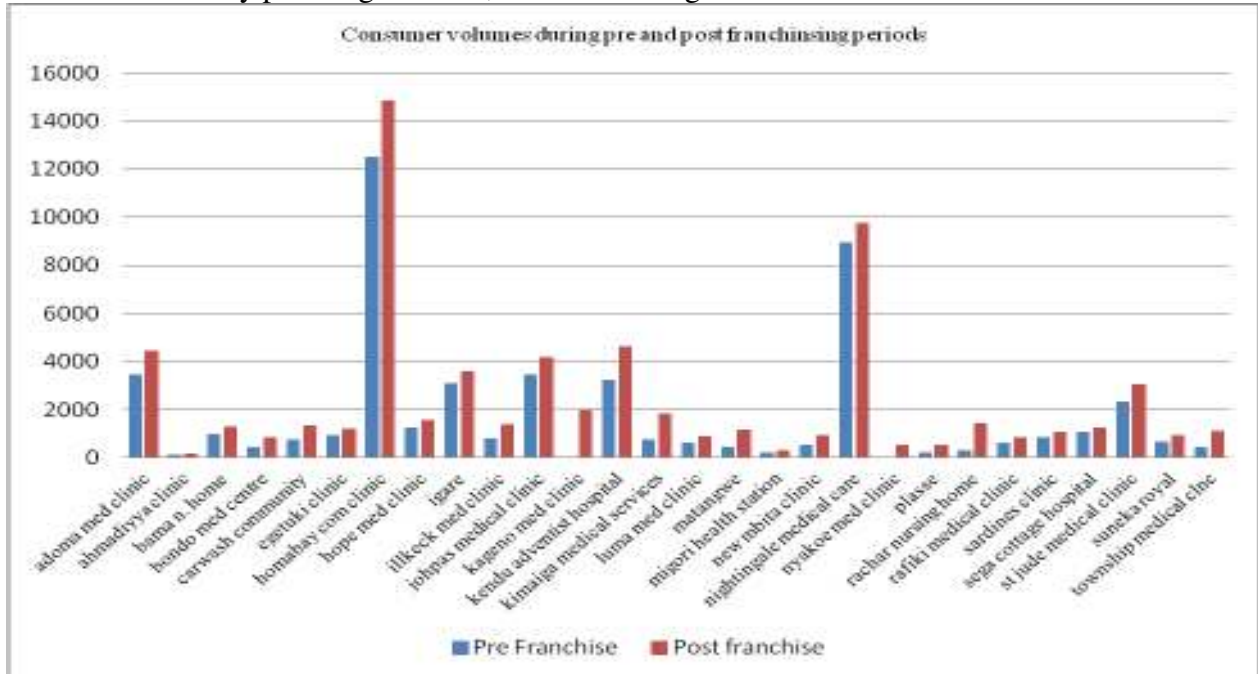

Figure 5: Cumulative FP consumer volumes for pre and post franchising periods
Source: Survey data (2011)

Social franchising and clinic revenues
After joining the Tunza franchise, forty six percent (46%) earned revenues of between KShs 50,000 to KShs 100,000, and another twelve percent (12%) gained into the KShs 100,001 – 200,000 brackets. This gives a combined percentage of 58% of those clinics earning more than KShs 50,000 after joining the Tunza network. However, even those who still earned less than Kshs 50,000 after joining the Tunza network noted that they had experienced an increase albeit a marginal one. This gave rise to 92% of the franchisees who stated that they had realized an increase in revenues after joining the network.

Figure 6, illustrates the percentage of members within the identified categories of earnings.
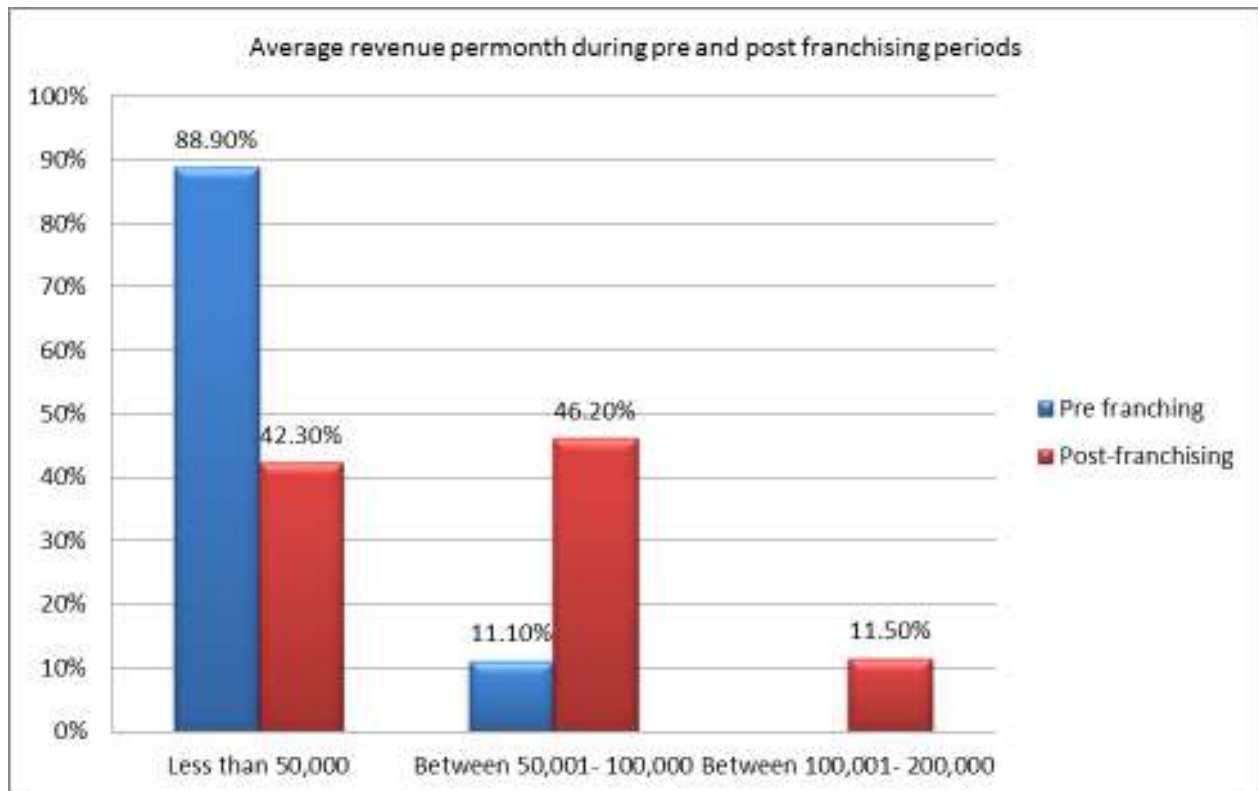
Figure 6: Average revenue per month for pre and post franchising periods
Source: Survey data (2011)

The increase in revenue during the post-franchising has period has helped most providers to institute some changes or generally spurred in the clinics. It was noted that, a majority of the providers (84.0%) used the increased revenues to improve service delivery.

In conclusion, when comparing the pre and post franchising period, 93% of the respondents stated that there was more revenue generated in the post franchising period than during the pre franchising period.

Discussion of the Findings

It was established that for a social franchise, the franchisor implemented all the required fundamentals, such as standardization of services, brand promotion and development, quality assurance and training.

The research established that range of products available in the Tunza network clinics had expanded. In testing the relationship of between expanded range of contraceptives and the franchise model, probability (P) analysis, yielded values for both implants (0.0007) and IUCDs (0.001) that indicated a significant increase in the number of facilities offering these services. These were indicative of a strong relationship between introduction of social franchising business model and the expanded range of contraceptives consumed in these clinics.

On client volumes in Tunza clinics, the research also established that, there was a general increase in the number of clients in the post Tunza period for both FP and curative services Analysing this data yielded a P value of 0.0007, indicating that there is a significant influence of the social franchising on increase of FP client volumes in these clinics. This research also established that, there was a general increase in generated revenues from both family planning and curative services in the franchise clinics after joining the Tunza network. Analysis of the data using Simple Table Analysis yielded a P value of 0.005. This is

indicative that there is a significant positive influence of the Tunza network on the increased income of these clinics.

Summary, Conclusions And Recommendations
Summary of Study Findings
This research established that the franchisor (PSI) instituted all the fundamentals of the social franchise business model; selection and recruitment of facilities, standardizing FP services, training of the service providers, providing equipment and FP products and marketing of the network through the Tunza brand name, as stipulated by Montagu (2002) and Stephenson (2004).

The location of the facilities, 39% are in urban areas, 36% in peri-urban and 25% in rural areas. Of those in urban and peri-urban areas, they are located in in low income areas. This is consistent with the franchisor target population – the low income earners. In the objective of establishing whether the social franchising business model has spurred any changes in the range of contraceptives consumed, this study found that, there is a cumulative 67% improvement in the range of FP products and services accessible and consumed by clients.

The objective of establishing if there is a relationship between the social franchising model and the number of clients seeking family planning services at the franchise clinics was attained by the finding that, there is a general increase of the number of clients seeking FP services as cited by 93% of the facilities. In investigating relationship between social franchising and franchise clinic revenues, the research established that, ninety three percent (93%) of Tunza network members have increased revenues. This is a finding that compares revenues of the clinics between the pre and post franchise periods. These research findings point to a cumulative increase in all the variables under study, thus providing credible answers to the research questions.

Conclusions
The overall conclusion is that, the Tunza Family Health Network, as a social franchise, has been effective in expanding the contraceptive range thus broadening client choice and spurred an increase in the number of FP services consumers. As a result, the franchise members are earning more in terms of increased revenues. The overall impact of the business model, is that, it has increased the general uptake of family planning services

Recommendations
There are only 28 franchise clinics in Nyanza province with a population of 4,392,196 people. Of this population, women of reproductive age who us any contraceptive to control births, are and only 37% (KDHS,2008/2009). On average, 33,697 women of reproductive age, access FP services at the Tunza clinics per year (Survey data, 2011). This indicates that to reach more women, and make a bigger impact in supporting the government in FP services provision, the franchisor needs to scale up in size. The scaling up will also optimize on resources used in establishing, building and marketing of the Tunza brand name .

Suggestions for further research
There is need to conduct a research to determine whether the improvement of quality of FP services is real or perceived. Real quality improvement will ensure growth and sustainability of the franchise in the long-term as opposed to perceived quality improvement which is valuable only in the short-term.

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