



Internet Service Provision in Tanzania: An Examination of User Satisfaction, Package Pricing, and Service Challenges

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the dynamics connected to the provision of internet service in Tanzania. Specifically, the study seeks to systematically analyse user perceptions service quality across different ISPs and identify the factors influencing their preferences and choice of ISPs. Two theoretical models, the Service Quality Theory (SERVQUAL) and the Expectancy Disconfirmation Theory (EDT) were applied to guide the study. A qualitative single case study design was used, with more than 800 user-generated comments extracted from a celebrity's Instagram post. Data were analysed using sentiment analysis, qualitative and quantitative techniques. Our results show that while users acknowledge improvements in reliability of network, still inconsistencies remain, particularly in specific zones of Dar es Salaam and rural areas. T-CONNECT is perceived as having the most reliable network compared to other ISPs. Speed consistency remains a critical issue for all ISPs, with T-CONNECT seen as the most stable, whereas SKT-TZ and TZ-NET struggle, especially during peak hours. SKY-TZ, TZ-NET and TZ-LINK face coverage challenges, especially in rural areas due to infrastructure constraints. Moreover, the study highlights a high demand for reliable service, a push for fiber-optic infrastructure, and a cautious but optimistic outlook on 5G. Generally, the findings reveal that customers' perceptions of internet service quality are influenced by network quality, and customer service and technical support. Challenges such as connectivity and network issues, pricing transparency and service plans, and customer support significantly affect user satisfaction and ISPs competitiveness. The contribution of this paper stems from its use of advanced NLP methods to examine user sentiments toward Tanzania's ISPs from Instagram data, to provide insights and comprehensive understanding to industry practitioners and policymakers in promoting a more sustainable future for the industry.

Keywords: User Satisfaction, Network Quality, Internet Service Providers (ISPs), Package Pricing

I. INTRODUCTION

In the present world, internet has immensely transformed society. To this end, internet has changed how we obtain information, communicate, and perform business (Saflor et al., 2024). The world is interconnected through reliable internet access which is vital for active engagement in the information age (Lee, 2023). Acting as facilitators, Internet service providers (ISPs) play an essential function by availing internet services to users and at the same time serving as gatekeepers to the digital domain (Naji et al., 2023). Several studies have stressed the substantial impact ISPs possess on the internet experience standards, influencing user satisfaction and overall quality of service (Bowman, 2023; Mahardhani, 2023; Saflor et al., 2024).

In African setting, where internet network poses considerable constraints, gaining insight on the working and influence of ISPs is of utmost significance (Ayanwale et al., 2023). The internet landscape in Tanzania is faced with unique impediments, with a few numbers of ISPs serving rural population. Nonetheless, new projects for instance Tanzania's engagement with the Seacom bandwidth consortium illustrates efforts to strengthen Internet connectivity and infrastructure (Bowman, 2023; Makini et al., 2020).

Tanzania has undergone a notable expansion in the number of internet users, demonstrating the nation's increasing dependence on digital connectivity for socio-economic growth and development (Bahia et al., 2023). In this regard, extent of internet penetration has expanded from 10.6% in the year 2015 to 48.5% in 2022. Likewise, the use



of mobile phone has reached 90.1% (Makaro, 2023), calling for the demand for reliable, consistent and adequate internet services to increase. The notable increasing demand underscores the important role played by ISPs in boosting digital accessibility to the masses.

As a result, scholars and academicians, (e.g., Parasuraman et al., 2005; Swallehe, 2021; Lee, 2023), have commenced to take note of the availability of ISP services as well as its impact on user fulfillment. This is particularly taking into account the few choices available to consumers in Tanzania in comparison to citizens in more advanced countries. Understanding the elements that influence user contentment and satisfaction is crucial for ISPs seeking to boost service standards and preserve their customer base.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Advances in technology and the digital transformation have made internet connectivity an essential utility not only for economic development but also for social interaction and access to information. Businesses and individuals in Tanzania are increasingly demanding high-quality internet services. This demand is driven by several factors, including the growth of digital platforms such as for M-PESA electronic payments, Coursera and Udemy for online learning and education, and WhatsApp and Instagram for social media. ISPs in Tanzania have played a critical role in facilitating connectivity; however, little is known about users' satisfaction, the challenges they face, and the determinants of their choice of ISPs.

Recently, a prominent celebrity and business owner in Dar es Salaam posted on Instagram in Kiswahili, "*Msaada nataka kuweka WIFI kwenye migahawa yetu yote ... naomba mnishauri kampuni gani nzuri na yenye fast WIFI na package nzuri*", which literally translates to a request asking for advice on the best ISP that offers fast WIFI and a good package. The post caught significant public attention and garnered numerous comments with diverse opinions, and experiences.

This diversity highlights the variability in user experience across different ISPs and raises concerns about the factors shape their perceptions on service quality. The scattered and largely anecdotal feedback from consumers provide comprehensive data for conducting a systematic analysis to understand how ISPs services are perceived by the public, the challenges users face, the improvements needed, and the key factors that influence choice of ISPs. This study seeks to address these gaps.

1.2 Research Objectives

Based on the abovementioned problem, the objectives of this paper are twofold as follows:

- i. To systematically analyse user perceptions of the service quality availed by different ISPs.
- ii. To identify the relevant factors influencing user satisfaction and choice of ISPs.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Review

Pursuant to past investigations in service marketing (Parasuraman et al., 1985; Thaichon et al., 2014), service quality describes perceptions of users and value-judgment regarding how well the delivered service conforms to their expectations. Customer fulfillment or satisfaction, on the contrary, alludes to the general emotions of pleasure or dissatisfaction stemming from comparing the expected performance with pre-service expectations (Parasuraman et al., 1985). There exists an agreement among scholars that satisfaction of users and perceived service standards are separate constructs, and that quality of service is dependent to customer satisfaction (Hur, et al., 2013; Thaichon et al., 2014; Zhao, et al., 2021). In the same vein, this research was anchored on the Service Quality (SERVQUAL) theory alongside the Expectancy Disconfirmation (ED) theory to analyse user perceptions of service quality and point out key elements affecting their satisfaction.

In 1985, Parasuraman et al., advanced the SERVQUAL theory to aid businesses calculate and oversee their service quality. Ten dimensions were discovered by the authors regarding quality of service: reliability, adaptability, expertise, access, respect, communication, authenticity, security, customer knowledge, and tangibles. All this are considered crucial and relevant by the users (Parasuraman et al., 1985, pp.46–47). At the same time, Parasuraman et al. (2005) established E-S-QUAL which is a model structured to calculate quality of service in the technological advancements setting in the new era of information. Acknowledging the kind of internet services, the E-S-QUAL framework captures privacy concerns, trust and security all which are common when determining service quality of ISPs. This theory is applicable when evaluating user satisfaction with ISPs through measuring the assumed service quality in domains like internet speed, reliability, network coverage, customer service and pricing.



Thaichon et al. (2014) contend that the services availed by ISPs are different from other services offered by telecommunications companies operating through the internet platforms e.g. mobile services. To this end, they opine that standards of service offered by ISPs cannot be measured adequately by SERVQUAL or E-S-QUAL. Taking note of these debates, this research also applied the ED theory, postulated by Oliver (1977). The theory hints that client fulfillment or discontentment influences their choices to repurchase, complain, and establish future investments (Hossain and Quaddus, 2012). The ED theory is dependent on four domains: expectations, assumed performance, disconfirmation of values, and fulfillment. Pursuant to the ED theory, satisfaction of consumer is dependent on the void between expectations and the real product performance, service or technology. When the ISP fulfills or outperforms the original expectations of a consumer, the disconfirmation is positive, resulting in satisfaction. On the other hand, poor disconfirmation giving rise to dissatisfaction.

2.2 Empirical Review

Emerging technological advancements and increased reliance on the internet have reshaped how businesses and individuals used to operate (Chigori et al., 2020; Alarifi and Husain, 2023). ISPs play a vital role in facilitating internet access, which is necessary in performing various activities. However, there remains variability in user experience across different ISPs and raises concerns about the factors that shape users' perceptions of service quality.

Service marketing studies suggests that service quality often reflects customers' propensity and intention to use a product or service. For example, Hur et al. (2013), posits that when the quality of service is higher, customers are more likely to revisit, reuse, or purchase with the firm (see also, Hossain and Quaddus, 2012). Zhao, et al. (2021) reported that service quality was an important precursor to behavioural intentions. Users who are content with an ISP experience have higher tendency to positively recommend the services to others (Hur, et al., 2013; Thaichon et al., 2014).

Numerous studies support the proposition that technological efficiency improves the effectiveness of ISP service delivery and in turn, customer satisfaction. For instance, Chigori et al. (2020) found that the efficiency of banking applications and Unstructured Supplementary Service Data (USSD) services was significantly related to overall service quality and customer loyalty. Likewise, Alarifi and Husain (2023) noted that efficiency in Internet banking is the core determinant of e-customer fulfillment. In the same vein, Mamakou et al. (2024) demonstrated a link between standard of e-service and consumer experience with overall satisfaction. The authors depicted that quality of e-service acts partly as an intervening function between user experience and client satisfaction.

Past studies, has in addition assessed the function of advancements in technology in boosting ISP services (Bowman, 2023; Mahardhani, 2023). Cheruiyot et al. (2023) looked into how fiber-optic networks and deployment of 5G can foster connectivity and curb the digital divide. Outcomes depicted that a strong connection exists between information technology, competition tactics and embracing fiber-optic broadband internet services among law companies in Nairobi city. Research suggest that using new technologies as they come is vital for ISPs to stay in the market and fulfill increasing user demands (Kumar, 2021; Bowman, 2023; Naji et al., 2023).

Within a regulatory scope, extant literature underpins the benefits of establishing an enabling environment for ISP operations. Naji et al. (2023) asserts that regulatory redtape can block the reliable delivery of ISP services and suggest cooperation between ISPs and other stakeholders to boost quality standards. Past research e.g. Mahardhani (2023), encourage policies that facilitate more investment in infrastructure and ascertain equal internet service accessibility.

The impact of socio-economic elements on user contentment and service adoption represents another key domain in the literature (Bahia et al., 2023; Salfor et al., 2024). Parks et al. (2022), for instance, assessed how gaps in socio-economic standards influence technological accessibility. Outcomes revealed that cost factors and poor digital skills are notable impediments to internet adoption. In order to handle these concerns, Parks et al. (2022) posited that mechanisms to foster affordability, boost digital literacy and form strong cybersecurity measures to establish user trust.

In another study, outcomes showed that package price is a core component of customer satisfaction as well as loyalty (Ansah, 2020; Zhao et al., 2021; Salfor et al., 2024). Hur et al. (2013) observed that users assess extensively whether they are getting best value for money when choosing to buy or embrace a service. Naji et al. (2023) asserts that a price model is a critical element that users consider when choosing an ISP. Zhao et al. (2021) further allude that clarity in pricing enables consumers to compare services and opt for more affordable service providers.

Network quality is another stronger predictor of perceived value (Thaichon et al., 2014). The author further asserts that, when evaluating a ISPs service, the primary concerns of customers usually are network strength, reliability and coverage. Naji et al. (2023) reported that network quality had an immediate effect on attitude and loyalty (see also, Parasuraman & Grewal, 2000). They also found that network stability, download and upload speed



are indicators high network quality and have noticeable influence on customer loyalty. However, they reported that these have an indirect impact on behavioural loyalty.

Previous studies, such as Saflor et al., 2024, have also shown that when selecting an ISP, users consider responsiveness, meaning how promptly and adequately an ISP addresses customer concerns. In the same vein, Thaichon et al. (2014) posits that ISP customers perceive online help and information support as important. The authors further argue when selecting an ISP, users assess whether they receive high-quality, tailored information that meets their needs, ensuring they do not incur additional costs in seeking and handling information.

III. METHODOLOGY

This part illustrates techniques such as the Instagram-based methodology embraced by Hausmann et al. (2020) with a particular attention to Tanzanian ISP sentiments. The approaches discussed here entail pre-processing, sentiment analysis, segmentation, and qualitative analysis, all of which are performed while observing ethical concerns.

3.1 Research Design

This study utilises a qualitative single case study design, as described by Yin (2003). The focus is to provide a comprehensive analysis of consumer perception of service quality, preferences, and factors that influence choice of ISPs based on the data obtained from a celebrity's Instagram query in Dar es Salaam. Creswell (2007) highlighted that a qualitative technique is more applicable when the researcher aims to gain in-depth and better understanding of issues through detailed analysis.

3.2 Data Collection

Current research embraced a technique similar to that of Hausmann et al. (2020), who employed Instagram as an instrument for gathering data to understand how users perceive South African national parks. The researchers collected reactions and posts from Instagram and used automated natural language processing methodologies to assess the sentiments recorded in these posts.

In this research, a similar methodology was embraced, although it centered on gathering sentiments of consumers on the issue of ISPs in Tanzania. Through assessing Instagram reactions concerning ISPs in Tanzania, data which was user-generated was gathered. This technique availed vital information into how consumers think and experience ISPs in Tanzania, benefitting from real and varying opinions offered by social media platforms e.g. Instagram.

3.3 Data Analysis

Techniques for analyzing data included pre-processing, sentiment analysis, and categorization as well as qualitative analysis. These factors were valuable in obtaining important insights into user sentiments and perceptions of ISPs in Tanzania.

3.3.1 Pre-Processing

At this stage of data pre-processing, Instagram posts and reactions were derived. They were carefully filtered to delete any unwanted noise e.g. lewd comments or spam. The worded data was then edited e.g. by deleting special characters, emojis and URLs. This process focused on protecting consistency and boost the correctness of sentiment analysis.

3.3.2 Sentiment Analysis

This process used complex Natural Language Processing (NLP) methodology. This employed the Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers (BERT) framework. BERT is the most current NLP structure that translates the meaning of words in a sentence by acknowledging the scope of surrounding words (Mutinda et al., 2023). This approach enabled in-depth evaluation of the emotions displayed in user comments regarding Tanzania's ISPs.

3.3.3 Categorization

This method involved segmenting comments based on the specific ISPs cited in the suggestions availed by the Instagram users. Likewise, comments were arranged into different topics e.g. service standards, pricing and costs,

customer support, and network reliability. This was done to discover the most pressing matters or satisfaction aspect among consumers.

3.3.4 Quantitative Analysis

Quantitative data was analysed by counting the total number of comments connected to each recommended ISP and assessed the frequency of discussions. Similarly, we performed a percentage analysis to assess the proportion of comments linked to each recommended ISP in connection to the total amount of comments gathered.

3.3.5 Qualitative Analysis

In qualitative analysis, the procedure comprised of extensively picking out the content of comments. This was geared to detect recurring themes, patterns, and specific barriers described by users. After analysing similar phrases, keywords, and sentiments described in each segment, valuable data was obtained to gain insight on opinions of clients and experiences with various ISPs.

IV. FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

4.1 User Perceptions of the Quality of Services

The ensuing section presents users' perceptions of the relative performance provided by different ISPs in Tanzania.

4.1.1 Network Reliability

Reliability of SKY-TZ: Network was a main issue among users, as depicted by 45% of the 250 comments analysed handling this concern. For example, one user stated that while SKY-TZ's network has been boosted in urban locations, there are still issues in rural settings. TZ-LINK: Debate revolving reliability of network was evident in 120 comments, representing nearly 20% of the total comments analysed. Despite improvements being observed, there are perennial outages in specific areas that remain a concern. A user reacted on the recent TZ-LINK's network stability in addition to highlighting the occasional outages in particular zones. TZ-NET: Almost 23% of the entire comments analysed, adding up to 140 comments, indicated that network reliability as an important topic. In spite of the growth attained by TZ-NET, intermittent connectivity issues during peak times continue to be experienced. One user observed the improvements in reliability by TZ-NET but stated the persistence of occasional connectivity challenges during peak hours.

T-CONNECT: In comments nearing 160, T-CONNECT's network reliability was debated in depth, accounting for almost 27% of the overall analysed comments. T-CONNECT's network is mainly indicated as reliable, more so in urban areas, with reduced reported downtime. A user observed that T-CONNECT network is largely reliable. This is particularly in urban areas, with occasional periods of downtime. The analysis hinted that there remains areas for improvement in the dependability of networks offered by SKY-TZ, TZ-LINK, TZ-NET, and T-CONNECT. Nonetheless, issues still exist in some areas regarding irregular service disruptions and connectivity problems. Outcomes concur with those depicted by Thaichon et al. (2014), who noted that reliability and trusted availability are vital requirements for internet service. Likewise, the researchers debate that clients prefer network strength and stability when assessing an ISP's service.

4.1.2 Network Consistency

SKY-TZ: 40 percent of the entire 160 comments debated about speed consistency. This demonstrates that this is a considerable issue among users. To illustrate this, one user noted that despite the fact that SKY-TZ's internet speed is notably consistent, it can decrease during peak time. TZ-LINK: Nearly 100 comments focused on speed consistency which made up for approximately 17% of the entire comments analysed. Despite advantages being acknowledged, there are still irregular speed fluctuations that continue to be a concern. One user pointed that although TZ-LINK's internet speed has stabilized, there are still instances of periodical fluctuations. TZ-NET: After analysing 120 comments, nearly 30% of them stressed on speed consistency, hinting that this is a valuable aspect for TZ-NET users. Notwithstanding the gains made by TZ-NET, concerns during peak time continue to be noted. A user reacted that although TZ-NET has made positive improvements regarding its internet speed, there are still concerns observed during peak hours. T-CONNECT: Speed consistency presented a dominant aspect argued in 140 comments. This represented almost 23% of the overall comments analysed. This hints that T-CONNECT is viewed as providing stable and regular internet speeds. One user alluded that T-CONNECT's internet speed is reliably fast, even during peak hours. To summarize, the issue of preserving a consistent and regular speed continues to be a matter of concern for

users of SKY-TZ, TZ-LINK, TZ-NET, and T-CONNECT. However, there is a notable difference regarding how users perceive degrees of improvement and the unresolved issues. The findings echo previous research (e.g., Thaichon et al., 2014; and Mamakou et al., 2024) emphasizing the importance of speed consistency in establishing user fulfilment and their overall ISPs experience. For instance, Thaichon et al. (2014) insists that network quality is one the strong points of differentiation for ISPs.

4.1.3 Network Coverage

SKY-TZ has encountered hindrances in its coverage context in comparison to other telecommunications providers. Out of the analysed comments, 80 of them, constituting nearly 20% of the total, noted about concerns regarding SKY-TZ's coverage. Nonetheless, there have been notable improvements in particular aspects, despite a number of users still experiencing weak signal reception in specific zones.

Regarding TZ-LINK, coverage issue was debated in 100 comments, which accounted for almost 17% of the analysed comments. Various users posited that TZ-LINK provides extensive services in urban localities although they indicated concerns regarding stagnated expansion in rural areas. Specifically, one user alluded that while coverage in urban areas is commendable and fulfilling, there exists room for improvement in far-flung areas.

On TZ-NET, issues to do with coverage were stated in 60 comments which comprised about 10% of the total comments analysed. One user discovered that the coverage of TZ-NET is limited in rural regions, which is a demerit for potential clients. On the contrary, T-CONNECT was praised for its extensive and wide coverage in the comments analysed. Out of the 160 comments, nearly 27% commended T-CONNECT's for its encouraging coverage. One user even appraised T-CONNECT for its stable and dedicated service, observing that they offered coverage even in remote and marginalized areas.

In summary, response from users underscores that there are different degrees of satisfaction/contentment and concerns concerning network coverage among users of SKY-TZ, TZ-LINK, TZ-NET, and T-CONNECT. SKY-TZ and TZ-LINK continue to encounter constraints, more so in rural locations. Nonetheless, improvements in some regions have been observed. TZ-NET, on the contrary, is blocked by limitations in increasing coverage because of infrastructure impediments in accessing remote and marginalized areas. In contrast, T-CONNECT is widely praised by users for its widespread coverage, particularly in rural and marginalized areas. These findings confirm the assertions of Thaichon et al. (2014) that network quality is one of the most key determinants of customers' perception of service quality and value. It is evident from these findings that ISPs need to invest strategically to address coverage disparities and meet diverse connectivity needs of their customers (e.g., promoting agricultural transformation for improving rural incomes, Kitole et al., 2024).

4.2 Factors Influencing User Satisfaction and Choice of ISPs

This section presents users' perceptions of what contributes to their satisfaction with service of providers and how they choose ISPs.

4.2.1 Preferred Providers

Nearly 30% of user comments indicated favourable response for T-CONNECT's reliability. Users commended T-CONNECT for its stable speeds and reliability, with one user positing, "I prefer T-CONNECT as my choice ISP because their service is certainly reliable plus their internet speeds are super-fast" (User 1, comment from Instagram). Almost 25% of the comments noted the demand for fiber-optic facilities. Users acknowledged fiber-optic internet as the future, with ISPs e.g. TZ-NET and T-CONNECT being in the forefront in investing in this domain. One user hinted, "Fiber-optic internet is the future, and ISPs for instance TZ-NET and T-CONNECT are paving the way with their resources and investments" (User 2, comment from Instagram). The theme on 5G deployment got less reaction, with a partly 10% of the comments considering it. Although users appreciated 5G as an exciting innovation, they observed its constrained current availability, with one user positing, "While 5G is a bubbling innovation, it lacks widespread presence. Notwithstanding, I am looking forward to its expansion in the future" (User 3, comment from Instagram).

These outcomes align with past research on ISP preferences and technological patterns. The strong and favourable preference for stable ISPs e.g. T-CONNECT underpins the value of network dependability in forming satisfaction and loyalty of users (Thaichon et al., 2014; Ansah, 2020; Ting et al., 2020; Alarifi and Husain, 2023; Mamakou et al., 2024). In the same vein, the demand for fiber-optic basic facilities concurs with scholarly debates on the benefits of fiber-optic networks in fulfilling ever expanding demand for high-speed internet and boosting digital innovation (Lindsey & Martin, 2021; Gitonga et al., 2022). In addition, the little interest in deployment of 5G reveals literature that stress the initial phase of 5G implementation and the demand for extra infrastructure advancement (Ai et

al., 2020; Barmounakis et al., 2020). At the end, user sentiments are in agreement with existing body of knowledge, stressing the value of network reliability, fiber-optic infrastructure demand, and the shifting effect of 5G deployment on the Tanzanian ISP sector.

4.2.2 Main Technological Issues Facing Clients

Outcomes of study depict the major barriers that ISPs in Tanzania confront, in addition to the core aspects that demand attention to boost satisfaction of users and competitiveness. Users stated their issues regarding issues to do with connectivity, reduced speeds and downtime. All these were illustrated in almost 45% of the total comments analysed, constituting nearly 270 comments. Research outcomes are in agreement with past studies that stress the negative effect of unreliable and unstable networks on experience of users. These underscores the immediate need for ISPs to avail more resources in strong basic facilities and proactive network management. Research also showed that issues revolving pricing transparency and service plans were evident, with nearly 20% of the total comments, amounting to 120 comments. This deduces the value of elaborate communication from ISPs to handle frustrations of users and preserve encouraging experiences. Lack of clear pricing models and provision of services could result to dissatisfaction of clients and eventual loss of consumers, detrimental to ISPs' competitiveness.

One more pertinent matter discussed by nearly 35% of the comments analysed, amounting to 210 comments, was lack of customer support and service resolution. Effective and fulfilling customer service plays an essential function in promoting long-term customer connections and contentment, stressing the need for ISPs to start with improvements in this aspect. Outcomes of this study concur with prior research in the telecommunications sector and client contentment. This underpins the benefits of undertaking technical infrastructure issues, strengthening transparency in communication and boosting mechanisms for client support. Several studies (Pasape, 2022; Marwa, 2023) have similarly emphasized these aspects. By handling these hindrances and fulfilling users' expectations, ISPs can improve satisfaction of clients, establish loyalty, and bolster their competitiveness in the telecommunications sector.

4.2.3 Technological Advancements and Innovations

Evaluation of comments reflects a substantial pattern towards more investment in fiber-optic infrastructure. This gained attention in 30% of the comments analysed. As such, users articulated optimism affecting this investment, expecting faster and more authentic internet services. This agreed with previous research that underline the vital function of fiber-optic networks in fulfilling the increasing demand for high-speed internet and promoting digital innovation (Lindsey and Martin, 2021; Gitonga et al., 2022). The excitement of users regarding these enterprises replicates outcomes that propose fiber-optic infrastructure leads to better performance of internet and client contentment (Ai et al., 2020). Conversely, enforcing 5G technology, indicated by 15% of the comments, accepted relatively less attention in relation to fiber-optic networks expansion and enhancement in network reliability.

Although users embraced 5G as a telecommunications progression, they relayed caution concerning its present phase of development. This conforms to extant literature that illustrates the initial cycle of 5G deployment and urges for additional refinement and development of its basic facilities (Ai et al., 2020; Barmounakis et al., 2020; Kumar, 2021). The curiosity of users manifests scholarly debates that recognize the happening 5G technology evolution. This is alongside the expectation surrounding its succeeding programs and impacts. To conclude, outcomes of the comment analysis endorse existing literature (e.g., Bowman, 2023; Mahardhani, 2023; Cheruiyot et al., 2023), stressing the benefits of availing resources in fiber-optic infrastructure to boost internet services and address demands of users. Even though 5G technology reveals promise for the future, its present phase of development calls for conservative optimism and extra exploration of its possible merits and challenges.

4.2.4 Issues Related to Price of Packages

This study reveals that pricing transparency and service plans plays a crucial role in determining users' preferences and their choice of ISPs. During the evaluation it became evident that price related comments dominated user discussions. About 15 -20% of the total comments which were analysed mentioned specific ISPs prices, with many comments also comparing different ISPs. For example, SKY-TZ's monthly prices range from TZS 70,000 to TZS 200,000. TZ-LINK offers a lowest charge of TZS 55,000 per month for 20Mbps, and a highest of TZS 200,000 for 100Mbps. Charges for TZ-NET and T-CONNECT also fall within this range.

In addition to cost of internet packages, some users mentioned pricing flexibility as an important factor in their decision-making. By flexibility they refer to the ability to switch between packages based on their budget. As one SKY-TZ user wrote, "*kwa mfano mimi nimejiunga na cha 110,000 naweza kurudi cha 70,000*" (meaning, "*I am subscribed to the TZS 110,000 plan but I can switch to the TZS 70,000 package*").

Moreover, the analysed content indicated that users the availability of unlimited bundles influences their decision-making. SKY-TZ, TZ-LINK, and T-CONNET offers unlimited data packages at different price points as mentioned earlier. Customer comments demonstrated also the importance of affordability. For example, TZ-NET and TZ-LINK were mentioned to offer affordable internet services, while others like T-CONNECT whose unlimited package is priced at TZS 120,000 per month, users highlighted as offering good value for money (as one user commented, “*T-CONNECT wana ile device unanunua 600000 alafu unapata unlimited Wifi 120000 per month great speed too*”, which means, “*T-CONNECT offers packages priced at TZS 120,000 per month for unlimited internet, ...*”).

These findings align well past marketing studies (e.g., Ansah, 2020; Zhao et al., 2021; Salfor et al., 2024) which suggest that customers consider price or value when deciding to benefit from the ownership or use of a good or service. Zhao et al. (2021) found that users often feel satisfied when the value of the service they purchase corresponds with cost they pay. Likewise, Hur et al. (2012) asserts that price is the primary driver of customer satisfaction and loyalty, since customers carefully evaluate whether the product or service offers the best value for they spend.

V. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

To conclude, this article offers an in-depth assessment of the internet service provision setting in Tanzania. This study specifically focused on the function of ISPs in forming satisfaction of users. Research adopted a mix of literature analysis, comparative studies, and user sentiment analysis on Instagram. A number of key outcomes have emerged concerning constraints in the sector, trends and patterns, and progress. Study outcomes highlight the critical value of network reliability, consistent and stable speed, and extensive coverage in fulfilling expectations of users and boosting satisfaction.

In addition, new technological trends e.g. fiber-optic infrastructure and deployment of 5G present exciting options for promoting internet connectivity as well as bridging the digital disparity in Tanzania. Promoting competition together with fostering client support systems are important for ascertaining reliable ISP services. By enforcing the suggested strategies and appreciating advances in technology, ISPs can navigate really well Tanzania’s shifting internet terrain, boost quality service as well as contribute to socioeconomic growth of the nation. Collaborative and joint efforts with policymakers, stakeholders, and ISPs are necessary for handling the complex and intricate hindrances and opportunities across the sector.

5.2 Recommendations

This study analysed how ISPs services are perceived by the public, the key factors that influence choice of ISPs and the challenges users face. Based on the findings, this research recommends the following:

One of the most important areas that all ISPs need to focus on is on investment in technologies (e.g., load balance, and bandwidth management) that will enhance network reliability and consistency. Our analysis has highlighted ongoing concerns on frequent outages especially during peak hours and variations in internet speed. These adversely affect users’ expectations and overall satisfaction. These problems are more pronounced in rural areas.

This study recommends that all ISPs strategically invest in expanding network coverage to rural areas. Internet services are no longer a luxury but are essential utilities necessary for enhancing economic growth and human development of any country. The Government of Tanzania has set ambitious targets to increase rural connectivity to 50% by 2025 and ultimately to a minimum of 75% by 2033. Achieving this expansion in rural connectivity requires collective efforts from all major stakeholders. To support this initiative and consistent with the National ICT Policy (NICTP) of 2003, and its 2016 revision, ISPs should continue collaborating with the government to improve connectivity and increase accessibility to services in marginalized areas (Naji et al., 2023). A similar initiative was launched in 2016, where mobile network operators launched an infrastructure sharing initiative to expand rural coverage.

ISPs should invest in robust customer service platforms to enhance customer support and service transparency. This is one of the prominent concerns that users raised, according to our analysis. Additionally, users seem to be not clear about pricing structures and the terms of services. ISPs should communicate with clarity pricing models and service plans to curb frustration of clients and guarantee positive experiences.

To enhance the use of ICT by the entire Tanzanian population, the government constructed a national fibre optic cable network, named the National ICT Broadband Backbone (NICTBB). It is hereby recommended that ISPs

should prioritize investment in fiber-optic infrastructure to address the demand for higher internet speeds and reliability.

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Bride Price Payment and Domestic Violence-Perspectives of Husbands in the Cape Coast Metropolis, Ghana

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relationship between bride price payment and domestic violence from the perspective of husbands. The study focused on auto mechanics operating in the Siwdu light industrial area in the Cape Coast Metropolis in Ghana. The study was grounded in the patriarchy theory and adopted a descriptive research design. Using the Yamane formula for sample size determination, 69 respondents were sampled as study participants from a target population of 173. Data collection procedures involved the use of a questionnaire, after which data gathered was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software. Some of the major findings are as follows: the majority of respondents believed that the payment of the bride price first gives men a certain degree of power, which places them in a domineering and controlling capacity over their spouses; most respondents believed that the power allotted to men as a result of the payment of bride price and patriarchy is often applied negatively by men and this leads to domestic violence. The study concluded by emphasising the critical necessity for interventions focused on dismantling ingrained gender norms and fostering fair relationships within the household. These could be done through educational campaigns and the provision of counselling and other support services for both the abused and the abuser.

Key Words: Bride Price, Domestic Violence, Husbands, Spouses

I. INTRODUCTION

The payment of bride price, a historically significant aspect of African marriage transactions, is the focus of this study. Ngutor et al. (2013) highlight that bride price payment is a prevalent and cherished cultural practice in over 90% of Sub-Saharan African countries. This practice typically involves the presentation of either an agreed sum of money or traditional items such as cloth, livestock and cash crops or a combination of money and conventional items by the prospective groom and his family to the prospective bride and her family (Adjei, 2016). Thiara and Hague (2011) underline that bride price payment is a widely accepted cultural practice which legitimises customary marriages in Africa.

However, in recent times, this cultural practice has undergone significant changes due to modernisation and westernisation. The introduction of non-traditional items such as electronic appliances, parcels of land, furniture, and cars alongside traditional items has sparked a wave of interest in the evolution of the practice (Asiimwe, 2013). At this point, it is important to differentiate between bride price and dowry payment. Unlike the bride price, where the prospective groom and his family present the agreed items to the prospective bride's family, the custom of dowry payment refers to the payment made by the prospective bride to the groom or his family (Mangena & Ndlovu, 2013). However, dowry payment is mainly practised among South Asian cultures (Mangena & Ndlovu, 2013).

The payment of bride price is central in most marriages in the African culture, serving as a crucial component of the marriage transaction process for several reasons. Firstly, it is a financial transaction and a cultural validation of a customary marriage (Thiara & Hague, 2011). In countries such as Ghana, the prospective groom and his family are expected to pay the bride price to the prospective bride and her family to conclude the customary marriage process before the couple can proceed to have a church or court wedding if they wish.

This underscores the cultural significance and societal acceptance of the bride price payment. The payment of bride price is of great importance in the African culture such that among the Fantes of Ghana, if a man cohabited with a woman in an intimate relationship as a household unit without paying the bride price and the woman dies, the man would be obliged to pay the bride price for the body of the deceased female, whether or not they had children

before the final funeral rites can be performed for the deceased person or the groom is allowed to attend the funeral (Acquaah, 2023). In South Africa, if a woman dies while living with a partner who has not paid her bride price, traditionally known as “lobola,” the partner would be required to pay “lobola” to the woman’s family before she is allowed to be buried (Sennott et al., 2021). Secondly, the payment of the bride price legitimises all children born into the marriage and the groom as the children's father, thus making them eligible to be recruited into the groom's kin and giving the children access to their rightful inheritance (Forkuor et al., 2018). In some African cultures, if the groom defaults to pay the prescribed bride price, the bride’s father can claim ownership of the children and seize the bride from the supposed husband until the culturally accepted bride price is paid (Forkuor et al., 2018). Thirdly, the payment of the bride price is deemed to indemnify the bride’s family for the loss of her productive and reproductive labour and formalises the transfer of sexual and reproductive rights from the bride’s family to the groom’s family (Chae et al., 2021).

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The challenge with the payment of bride price by the groom and his family is that it has been linked to the rising incidents of domestic violence, particularly spousal violence. Some scholars have explained that the payment of the bride price by only the prospective groom while the prospective bride and her family remain the recipients serves as the basis for men’s entrenched belief in their ownership of women during the marriage. This ownership mentality leads these grooms to believe that they are at liberty to treat the brides on whom they have paid the bride price in any way they please, hence increasing domestic violence incidence. Kaye et al. (2002) note that in Uganda, for instance, the payment of bride price emerged as one of the major causes of domestic violence, with a prevalence rate of 57% among pregnant women. Furthermore, Heise's (1998) framework for analysing the determinants of domestic violence pointed out the payment of the bride price as a factor that contributes to domestic violence against women. Kaye et al. (2005) argue that the incentives, processes, and consequences of the bride price customs are gendered and that the bride price culture reinforces male dominance and female subordination in intimate relationships such as marriages. Mangena and Ndlovu (2013) are also of the opinion that a woman becomes commoditised by a man who pays her bride price, with such men choosing to treat the women for whom they have paid the bride price in whichever way they please. Therefore, the bride price institution has become a tool for reinforcing patriarchal trends by propagating the low status of women and elevating the high status of men (Adjei & Mpiani, 2018).

Brides for whom bride price has been paid have also expressed their views and opinions about the practice. In a study by Kaye et al. (2005), participants perceived bride price payment as indicating that a woman has been bought into the man’s family, thus reducing her independence and autonomy within the marriage institution. In that study, the women who participated asserted that the payment of the bride price meant that women had limited or no decision-making powers within the household, thus perpetuating unequal gender power relations between married couples (Kaye et al., 2005). Hudson and Matfess (2017) argue that bride price payment reinforces and justifies the underinvestment in the development and well-being of women, resulting in their inability to negotiate safer sex, limiting the number of children they want to have, and unable to go to school because they were “bought.”

However, the literature explaining the relationship between bride price payment and domestic violence largely features the voices of women, while the voices of men are largely absent or limited. Thus, the evidence is largely tilted toward the experiences of women. Therefore, this study sought to find out from men their perceptions of the relationship between bride price payment and domestic violence.

1.2 Research Objectives and Hypothesis

Based on the above, the study's objectives are to (i) determine husbands' perceptions of the relationship between payment of bride price and household power relations and (ii) determine how household power relations can lead to domestic violence.

1.3 Research Hypothesis

The following research hypotheses guide the study.

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between the payment of bride price and domestic power relations.

H₀₂: There is no statistically significant relationship between the husband's use of household power and domestic violence.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Review

2.1.1 The Theory of Patriarchy

According to Haslanger (2020), the term ‘patriarchy’ was historically used to describe an inheritance system in which descent, title, and property were a bequest through the male lineage. Such systems were mostly found in societal groups that allocated greater power to men (Haslanger, 2020). Subsequently, a broader use of the term ‘patriarchy’ includes societies in which men as a social group hold greater power and authority over women and children (Haslanger, 2020). In theorising the term, scholars agree that patriarchy is a complex, multi-dimensional concept with different causal processes shaping the dimensions (Benstead, 2021) and how society is structured to allow men to control, oppress, and take advantage of women (Bonye et al., 2020). Another explanation of the theory of patriarchy, as presented by Sultana (2011), points to the traditional belief that men are born superior to women and that authority is vested in men to dominate while women are relegated, exploited and play the subservient role.

Within the context of this study, patriarchy is relevant in explaining the relationship between bride price payment and domestic violence because the practice is deeply intertwined with patriarchal norms and power dynamics and underscores the dominance of men and subordination of women by creating unequal power relations in the household. Feminists have argued that patriarchy and the payment of bride price commodify and objectify women, a phenomenon which further deepens the existing power imbalance between men and women within the household and domestic space. Such a situation can breed a fertile environment for the perpetuation of domestic violence if those with the greater power, which is usually the men according to the theory of patriarchy, apply this power in an abusive manner on those with the less power, in this case, the women.

2.2 Empirical Review

2.2.1 Overview of Bride Price Payment

Empirical evidence shows that scholars continue extensively exploring the relationship between bride price payment and domestic violence. Many of such scholarly works have found a positive relationship between bride price payment and domestic violence, where the payment of the bride price is seen to affect gender relations, values, expectations and roles within the household context. For example, in a study conducted in the Wakiso district in Uganda on perceptions and experience of domestic violence, bride price payment emerged as one of the major causes of domestic violence in the district (Kaye et al., 2002).

Researchers argue that among cultures that practice the payment of bride price, such as those in Southeast Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, the practice signifies the complete handing over of the bride to the groom in exchange for the bride price items, which may be in the form of money, animals and commodities or a combination of all these items (Ashraf et al., 2020). Once the bride price is presented and accepted by the bride's family, she becomes the property of the groom, who has total control over the bride to be used and treated at the pleasure of the groom. Scholars such as Eves (2019) note that the cultural understanding and motivation for the payment of bride price is that it gives the groom absolute authority over the bride. Again, Adjei (2019) argues that the payment of bride price reinforces negative gender stereotypes, where the man is seen as the more respected partner who comes to ‘buy’ the woman into his household to feed, clothe, and shelter. In return, the woman is expected to be submissive, respectful, serviceable, and attend to the man's every need without complaint to be considered a good spouse (Adjei, 2019). Thus, bride price payment prescribes women's roles in marriages and further subordinates them to men (Dery, 2015). Despite the arguments put forward by such studies, the question remains as to how husbands or grooms perceive the bride price payment and its relationship with household power relations.

2.2.2 Perception of Husbands on the Relationship between Payment of Bride Price and Household Power Relations

Evidence in the literature shows the agreement of men with the assertion that bride price payment gives them power over their spouses. For instance, in a study conducted in the North Western Region of Ghana, which analysed bride price and domestic violence from an empirical perspective, Dery (2015) found that the majority of men who participated in that study confirmed the payment of bride price as their main source of legitimate power and authority over their spouses. In another study conducted in the Democratic Republic of Congo on the payment of bride price and the well-being of women, it was established that both men and women tend to believe that the payment of bride price resulted in more power to the men but for women, it resulted in less empowerment, worse marriages, and lower overall well-being (Lowes & Nunn, 2018).

In their examination of the effects of bride price on domestic violence and reproductive health in Wakiso District in Uganda, Kaye et al. (2005) discovered that bride price payments undermined women's empowerment by fostering unequal power dynamics between grooms and their brides, thereby diminishing the bride's independence and

authority in household decision-making. Indeed, through the payment of the bride price, women are said to relinquish their human rights to make decisions concerning many areas of their lives, such as fertility decisions (Mbaye & Wagner, 2017), reproductive health issues (Kaye et al., 2005), empowerment decisions (Mangena & Ndlovu, 2013) as well as access to, and ownership of property (Pemunta, 2017).

Based on the evidence in the literature, this study takes the stance that the payment of the bride indeed can be a basis for unequal household power relations between men and women, with men being held in high esteem as the most powerful and women as the least powerful. Combined with patriarchal norms and practices, bride price payment can be detrimental to the general well-being of brides and women in general.

2.2.3 The Use of Unequal Household Power by Men and Domestic Violence

While discussing the acquisition of household power by men through the payment of bride price, it is important to note that not all power is expressed negatively. Indeed, positive power, which describes the ability to initiate an activity, can achieve many positive outcomes (Güroğlu, 2021; Zhu, 2024). On the contrary, negative power, which describes the power to resist or stop an activity, can stifle progressive initiatives (Güroğlu, 2021). Thus, this study notes that possessing power does not necessarily threaten the development and well-being of those over whom power is held. Rather, using and possibly abusing that power should be the basis for an inquiry. Within the context of bride price payment and domestic violence, the assertion is thus made based on the above attributes and types of power that the power allotted to men through the payment of bride price may not always demean women and their value and does not create an environment for domestic violence. Indeed, in some cultures, the payment of a bride's price is perceived as an honour (Adjei, 2019).

However, Adjei (2019) posits that bride price payment creates ownership psychology in grooms, which may lead them to see their brides as their 'purchase' over whom they have unfettered authority. This can result in all forms of domestic violence, including physical and psychological abuse, a phenomenon that the theory of patriarchy has expressed. Additionally, the transactional nature of bride price payment contributes to the objectification and commodification of women in a marriage, where they are seen as 'acquired properties' over whom men exercise authority, power and control (Adjei, 2019). This kind of mentality associated with the payment of bride prices can lead to violence within the domestic environment if the power acquired through the bride price payment is applied negatively. Patriarchal theory suggests that the payment of the bride price leads to the commodification and objectification of women, and this can lead to domestic violence if the power acquired through this process is negatively applied.

Evidence in the literature suggests that men continue to apply the power acquired through the payment of bride price negatively, thus increasing cases of domestic violence. Several factors account for this. Among some ethnic groups in Africa, such as the Igbo of Nigeria (Ademiluka, 2021) and the Bakiga, Langi and Baganda of Uganda (Atekyereza, 2001), as a rule, the bride price must be returned in the event of divorce. Thus, Anderson (2007) notes that some women whose bride price have been paid are compelled to remain in abusive marriages because they fear returning to their natal homes because of their inability to repay or return the bride price. These women are, therefore, forced to remain in abusive marriages and endure violence (Falana, 2019). The phenomenon of returning bride prices is compounded by the perception that some women whose bride prices have been paid are privileged compared to their counterparts whose bride prices have not been paid. Adjei and Mpiani (2018) note that women with this ideology are more likely to interpret abuse from their spouses as 'normal' and dismiss or justify any incidents of ill-treatment.

Thus, based on the literature reviewed so far, this paper is grounded on the conceptualisation that bride price payment gives men power and authority over their spouses, giving rise to unequal household power relations. The problem arises when the power is applied wrongly and negatively, subjecting women to human rights abuses and suppressing the general well-being and development of women within the domestic environment, thus leading to domestic violence. These concepts upon which this study is hinged are presented in Figure 1 below.

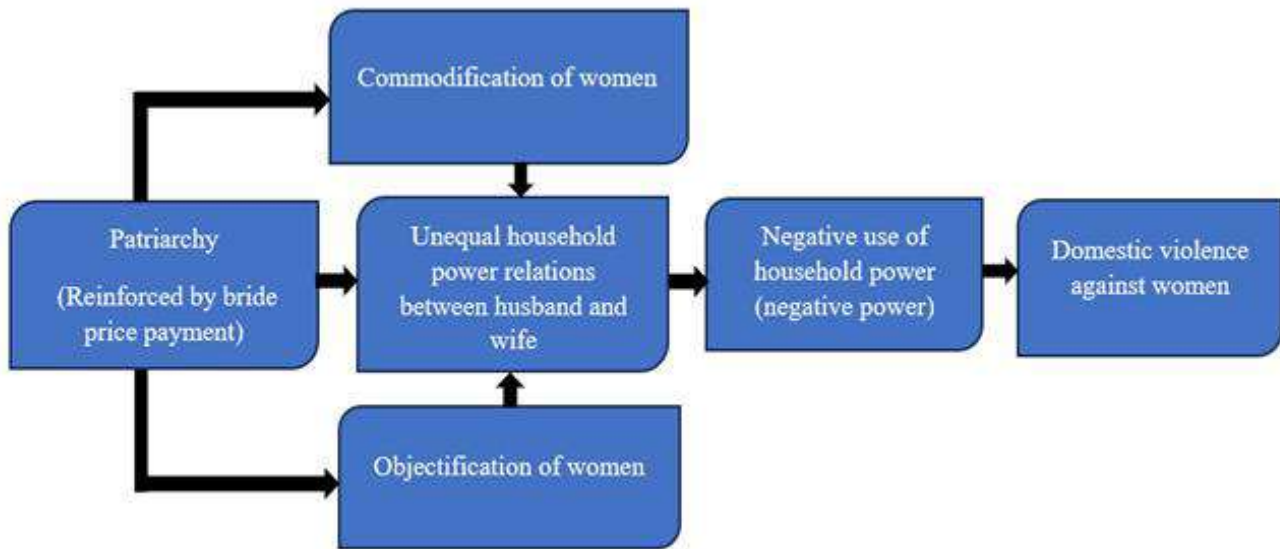


Figure 1

An Illustration of the Relationship between the Theory of Patriarchy, Bride Price Payment and Domestic Violence against Women

Source: Author’s construction (Based on the Relationship between Patriarchy Theory and Domestic Violence)

From Figure 1, it can be interpreted that the payment of bride price, which is a component of patriarchy, leads to unequal household power relations because of the idea of commodification and objectification of women through the process. This unequal household power relations results in the abuse of power by men, hence domestic violence against women. Thus, the payment of bride price can become a tool for oppressing and abusing women.

III. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The study adopted a descriptive survey design for gathering and analysing data. Saunders et al. (2007) describe this survey design as an avenue to employ descriptive and inferential statistics to explain findings and answer the research questions, which is the focus of this study. To this end, the study collected quantitative data to establish a statistical representation of the research findings.

3.2 Target Population and Sample Size Determination

The study targeted registered auto mechanics operating in the Swidu mini-industrial area and fitting shops in the Cape Coast Metropolis. Auto mechanics are mainly considered artisans and, therefore, are grouped with people engaged in occupations such as vulcanising, electrical works, refrigerator repair, and air conditioner repair, amongst others (Afful-Arthur & Filson, 2019). Based on this information and using a 5% margin of error, the researchers arrived at a sample of 69 participants using the Yamane formula for sample size determination and a target population of 173.

3.3 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria for Sampling Study Participants

To be included in the study, sampled participants were expected to be married under any of the three types of marriages recognised in Ghana, namely Ordinance, Mohammedan or Customary marriage. The study also included married men who lived or did not live with their spouse in one household unit at the time of the study. The fact that the couple had children or not was not an inclusive criterion. However, men who were unmarried but living in a cohabitated relationship with a prospective bride were excluded from the study. Also excluded were men who were unmarried and did not have any intimate relationships at the time of the study.

3.4 Data Collection Instrument

To collect data relevant to achieving the objectives of the current study, the researchers developed a unique questionnaire to be administered to the married men sampled for the study. Subsequently, the instrument was shared with five (5) academic faculty members at the University of Cape Coast. The questionnaire was further modified

based on the recommendations and suggestions from the faculty members. The final questionnaire consisted of twelve (12) main question items and nine (9) sub-question items. Additionally, the questionnaire was subjected to a reliability test, where the instrument's internal consistency was calculated using Cronbach's Alpha, yielding a result of 0.873. This result indicates that the questionnaire for this study had a high degree of internal consistency and that it could be relied upon to gather the data required to meet the research objectives.

3.5 Data Collection Process

The researchers administered 75 questionnaires, of which 69 completed ones were successfully received. Giving out more questionnaires ensured that the required sample was received. Data collection was done over three months, after which the results were compiled and analysed to arrive at the rightful conclusions about the relationship between bride price payment and domestic violence from the perspective of husbands.

3.6 Data Analysis and Presentation

Data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), excel packages, and the chi-square test. The results were then presented in descriptive, tabular, and statistical formats.

IV. FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

4.1 Response Rate and Study Variables

A total of 75 instruments were distributed to the study participants, of which 69 were completed and returned, indicating a response rate of 92%. Holtom et al. (2022) state that a response rate of more than 25% is considered adequate in a survey. Based on this recommendation, the researchers determined that the study's response rate of 92% was sufficient. The main variables considered in the instrument are the demographic characteristics of respondents, the perception of the cost of bride price, the relationship between bride price and household power relations, and the perceptions of the linkage between bride price, household power relations, and domestic violence. The results are presented below. Conclusions and recommendations are also offered.

4.1.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Study Participants

The main issues discussed under the demographic characteristics of respondents are age, educational status, number of years respondents have been married, number of children, and types of marriage among the respondents. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Study Respondents

| Age of Study Respondents | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Age | Frequency | Percentage |
| 25-30 | 6 | 9 |
| 31-35 | 4 | 6 |
| 36-40 | 13 | 19 |
| 41-45 | 12 | 17 |
| 46-50 | 17 | 25 |
| 51-55 | 14 | 20 |
| 56-60 | 3 | 4 |
| Total | 69 | 100 |
| Educational Status of Respondents | | |
| Education status | Frequency | Percentage |
| No formal education | 0 | 0 |
| Kindergarten | 0 | 0 |
| Primary school | 9 | 13 |
| Junior High School | 18 | 26 |
| Senior High school | 22 | 32 |
| Tertiary Education (Technical) | 20 | 29 |
| Tertiary Education (University) | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 69 | 100 |



| Number of Years Respondents Have Been Married | | |
|---|-----------|------------|
| Years in Marriage | Frequency | Percentage |
| 0-5 | 10 | 14 |
| 6-10 | 17 | 25 |
| 11-15 | 11 | 16 |
| 16-20 | 15 | 22 |
| 21-25 | 11 | 16 |
| Above 25 | 5 | 7 |
| Total | 69 | 100 |
| Types of Marriage Among Respondents | | |
| Marriage Type | Frequency | Percentage |
| Traditional | 15 | 22 |
| Ordinance | 21 | 30 |
| Mohammedan | 33 | 48 |
| Total | 69 | 100 |
| Number of Children | | |
| No. of Children | Frequency | Percentage |
| 1 | 7 | 10 |
| 2 | 15 | 22 |
| 3 | 18 | 26 |
| 4 | 12 | 17 |
| Above 4 | 17 | 25 |
| Total | 69 | 100 |

Table 1 presents information on the age distribution of study participants. The findings indicate that most participants (25%) were 46-50 years old. The group with the least participants was those in the 56-60 age range at 4%. The results also indicate that the average age of the study respondents is forty-four (44) years. The table also presents the educational status of the study respondents. All the respondents had some form of formal education. Of 69 respondents, 32% indicated they had completed senior high school, 29% had technical education, 26% had junior high school, and 13% had primary education. No respondent had completed university, nor only kindergarten.

Additionally, the results presented in Table 1 show that most study respondents (25%) had been married for 6-10 years at the time of the study. This was followed by those married for 16-20 years (22%). For the respondents who had been married for 11-15 years and 21-25 years, both groups recorded 16%, 0-5 years, 14%, and above 25 years, 7%. Regarding the types of marriage, 48% of respondents reported being married under the Mohammedan law, 30% indicated ordinance, and 22% indicated traditional. Table 1 also reports on the number of children of the study respondents. In all, 25% had 3 children, followed by those with more than 4 children 24%, 2 children 22%, 4 children 17% and 1 child 10%.

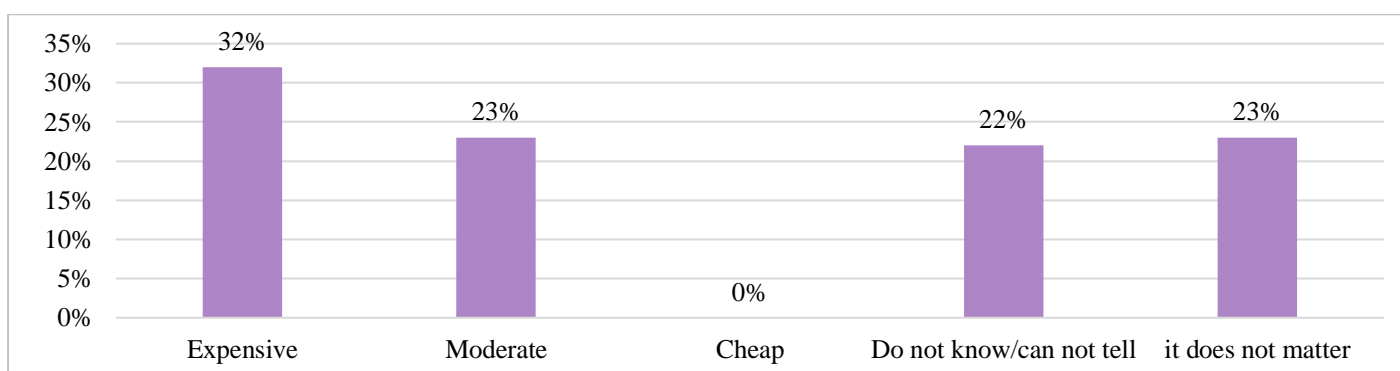


Figure 2
A Description of the Cost of the Customary Bride Price

Figure 2 presents the findings on respondents' experience with the cost of the bride price. Overall, 32% of respondents indicated that the bride price was high, 23% stated that it was moderate, 23% thought the cost did not matter, and 22% did not have an opinion or could not tell. None of the respondents thought that the cost of the bride price was cheap. The fact that most respondents found the cost expensive agrees with some scholarly findings such as those by Harefa (2022), whose research on bride price among the Nias tribe in North Sumatra, Indonesia, found that

bride price tended to be so expensive that it burdened and created intensive economic pressures for the new household of the bride and groom. Other scholars, such as Li and Li (2023) and Ndangoh (2022), have conducted research in which respondents indicated that the cost of the bride price is expensive.

Further, the study sought to find out from husbands whether a high bride price gave them more superior power over their spouses by asking the question, ‘Do you believe a higher bride price gives you more power in your household?’ The responses are presented in Figure 3 below.

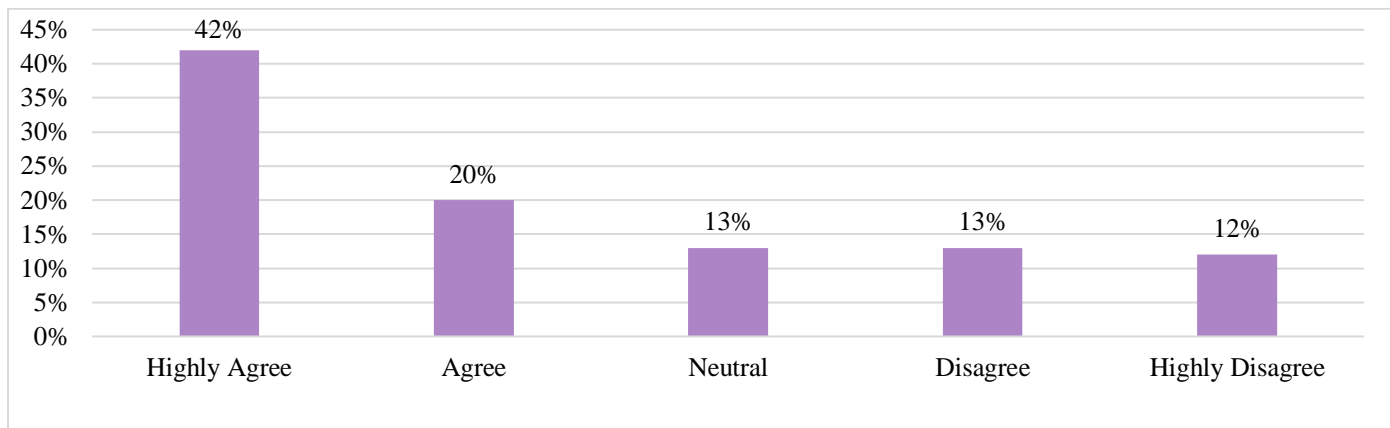


Figure 3
Respondents Description of the Relationship between Bride Price and Household Power Relations

Figure 3 above sought to investigate respondents' opinions on the relationship between bride price payment and power relations. A total of 42% of respondents agreed to a high degree that a higher bride price gives them more power than the women in their households, 20% agreed, 13% were neutral, another 13% disagreed, and 12% disagreed with a high degree.

4.2 The Perception of Husbands of the Relationship between Payment of Bride Price and Household Power Relations

This objective sought to determine from the husbands' perspective whether there is a relationship between the payment of the bride price and the power relations in their households. To achieve this, respondents were first requested to indicate the extent of their agreement or disagreement with the statement, ‘I believe my wife and I should have equal rights in the household even though I paid the bride price’. The result is presented below.

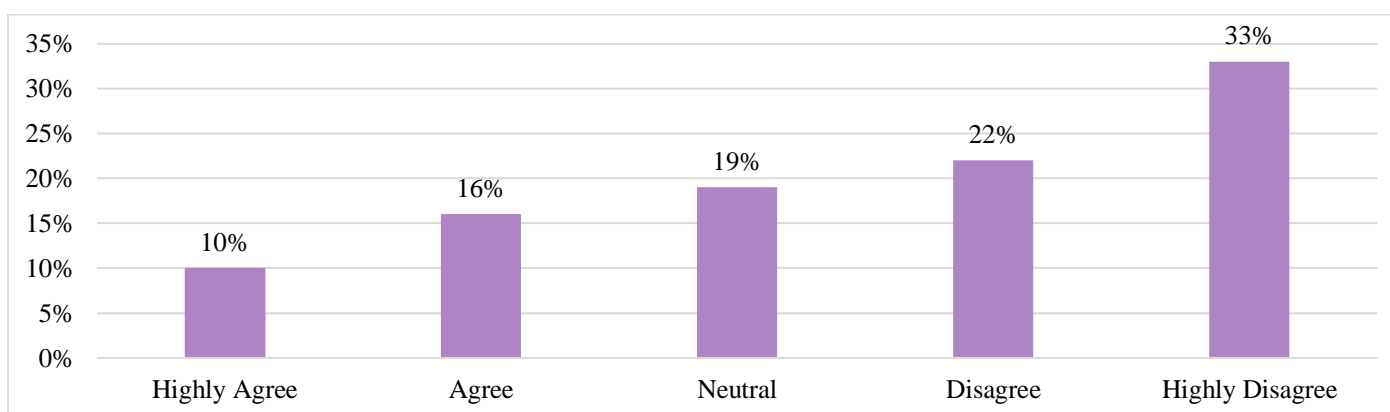


Figure 4
Husbands' Response on Equal Power Share with their Spouses Despite Paying Bride Price

Figure 4 investigated respondents' perceptions of power share and equal rights between spouses regarding the price of the bride's payment. 33% of respondents highly disagreed that there should be equal rights despite the man paying the bride price, 22% disagreed, 19% remained neutral, 16% agreed, and 10% highly agreed.

The objective also sought to establish some behaviours which husbands can exhibit to show that bride price payment gives them power over their spouses by asking respondents to choose their responses from the statement, ‘I



believe the payment of my wife’s bride price may cause me to discipline her when she does something wrong’. This revealed the results presented in Figure 5 below.

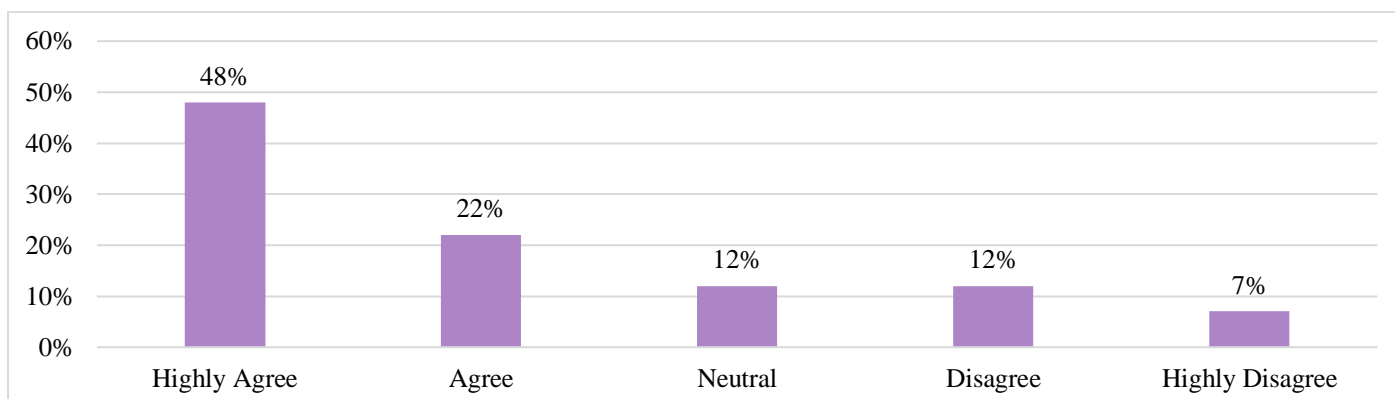


Figure 5
Husbands’ Responses on the Payment of Bride Price and the Act of Disciplining their Spouses

Figure 5 sought to determine if the bride price payment may influence the relationship and power dynamics between the spouses. A total of 48% of respondents agreed to a high degree that their payment of bride price might cause them to ‘discipline’ their spouse when they do something wrong, 22% agreed, 12% remained neutral, 12% disagreed, and only 7% disagreed to a high degree.

Further, the study sought to determine the relationship between bride price payment and domestic power relations by requesting respondents to indicate their agreement or disagreement with several carefully selected variables. These variables and the responses are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2
Bride Price Payment and Domestic Power Relations

| Perception | SA (%) | A (%) | N (%) | D (%) | SD (%) | Total (%) |
|---|--------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-----------|
| The bride price I paid gives me power in my household. | 48 | 36 | 3 | 7 | 6 | 100 |
| Even if my spouse helped me or contributed to the bride price, I still have the power because I am the man. | 43 | 38 | 6 | 6 | 7 | 100 |
| I have power because I am a man, not because of the bride price. | 45 | 35 | 4 | 9 | 7 | 100 |
| If the woman pays the bride price, she should have power in the household. | 7 | 9 | 0 | 35 | 49 | 100 |
| A woman cannot have the power even if she paid the bride price. | 67 | 26 | 0 | 7 | 0 | 100 |
| Even if my wife paid my bride price, I still have the power. | 54 | 29 | 0 | 7 | 10 | 100 |
| Men should have power in the household regardless of who paid the bride price. | 45 | 32 | 4 | 10 | 9 | 100 |
| Power in the house is for men and not women. | 51 | 32 | 0 | 10 | 7 | 100 |

Note: SA= Strongly Agree, A=Agree, N=Neutral, D=Disagree, SD=Strongly Disagree

Table 2 above displays respondents' perceptions of bride price payment and its relations with domestic power relations. Respondents were asked some questions and required to strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, or strongly disagree.

Firstly, when asked about their perception of whether the bride price they paid gives them power in their households, 48% of respondents strongly agreed, 36% disagreed, 7% disagreed, 6% agreed, and 3% remained neutral. Secondly, respondents were asked about their perception of the power dynamics in their households. Even if their wives contributed to the payment of the bride price, 43% of respondents strongly agreed that even in such instances, they still had more power than their wives because they were still men. Again, 38% agreed with the same perception, 6% remained neutral, 7% strongly disagreed and 6% disagreed. Thirdly, respondents were asked about their perception of this assertion: “I have power because I am a man, not because of the bride price”. To this, 45% of respondents strongly agreed, 35% agreed, 9% disagreed, 7% strongly disagreed and only 4% remained neutral.

Fourthly, 49% of respondents strongly disagreed with the opinion that even if a woman pays the bride price, she should have a greater share of the household power. Also, 35% of respondents disagreed with the same assertion,

9% strongly agreed, and 7% agreed. Fifthly, 67% of respondents strongly agree that even if a woman pays the bride, she cannot have the household power. To that same opinion, 26% agreed, and 7% disagreed. On the sixth variable, respondents were asked about their perception that ‘even if my wife paid my bride piece, I still have the power’: 54% strongly agreed, 32% agreed, 10% disagreed, and 9% strongly disagreed. Furthermore, respondents were asked to respond to the idea that “men should have the power in the household regardless of who paid the bride price.” 45% strongly agreed, 32% agreed, 10% disagreed, 9% strongly disagreed, and 4% remained neutral. Lastly, 51% of respondents agreed that power in the household belonged to men, not women. Also, 32% of respondents agreed with the same assertion, 10% disagreed, and 7% strongly disagreed. Further, the study conducted a chi-square test using the following null hypothesis:

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between the payment of bride price and domestic power relations. The result of the hypothesis test is presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Chi-Square Tests on the Relationship between Bride Price Payment and Domestic Power Relations

| Test Statistic | Value |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) | 234.37 |
| Degree of Difference | 28 |
| P-value | <0.05 |
| Critical chi-square value | 41.3379 |
| Conclusion | Reject the null hypothesis. |

The results from Table 3 suggest that there is indeed a significant relationship between bride price payment and household power dynamics. The results of the chi-square tests ($\chi^2=234.37$, $df=28$, $p<0.05$) give enough statistical evidence to suggest that bride price payment significantly influences household power relations among the respondents of this study. In other words, since the chi-square statistic (234.37) is higher than the critical value (41.3379) at a significance level of 0.05, we reject the idea that there is no connection between bride price payment and household power dynamics.

Thus, a statistically significant relationship exists between bride price payment and household power distribution or dynamics. Again, this indicates that because husbands pay the bride price, they become the more powerful members of the African nuclear family.

From all the results gathered from the variables associated with objective 1, there is an overwhelming agreement among the husbands who responded to the questionnaire that the bride price gives them superior power over their spouses or the women for whom the bride price has been paid. This is believed to be the result or a combination of factors. The majority of the respondents (48%) believed that the payment of the bride price in itself gives them power over the women to whom the bride price was paid. Some respondents (43%) believed strongly that even if their brides contributed to the bride price payment, the bigger household power should belong to them as men. Further, most (42%) respondents believed that a higher bride price gives them more power over their spouses. Additionally, most respondents (33%) believed that the payment of bride price should give them more access to household resources. The chi-square test also revealed a statistically significant relationship between the bride price payment and household power relations where men have more power over women and women’s household power is diminished.

These figures show that bride price payment gives men superior powers over their wives, which conforms with what is found in the existing literature. For instance, as indicated earlier, Dery (2015), in his study of bride price payment in the North Western Region of Ghana, found that most men found the practice as their main source of legitimate power and authority over their wives for whom they have paid the bride price. Furthermore, this finding evidenced in the data above and the chi-square test is supported by other studies, such as Bonye et al. (2020), who posit that the payment of bride price increases men’s power over women and diminishes women’s power. Asimwe (2013) further add that bride price payment has negative implications for women’s negotiating power and relations in marriages, resulting in gender inequality.

This phenomenon contradicts goal one target 1.4 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which states that ‘by 2030, all men and women, in particular people with low incomes and the vulnerable, should have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance’ (United Nations [UN], 2015). Many more scholarly works, such as Mbaye and Wagner (2017), Kaye et al. (2005), Mangena and Ndlovu (2013) and Pemunta (2017), support the findings from this current study that payment of bride price gives more power and authority to men over women.



However, it remains that the ideas and strong beliefs stemming from the payment of the bride price create room and avenues for unequal power relations between men and women within the domestic arena. The former assumes the greater share of the power, and the latter assumes the lesser share, assuming there is some power left after the groom has taken hold of the powers he believes should be given to him or to which he is entitled.

Overall, these findings highlight the complex interplay between cultural norms, financial obligations, and gender dynamics within marital relationships in the context of this study’s topic. The analysis suggests that the bride price payment influences power distribution within the domestic and household environment, with husbands typically assuming a more dominant role. This is also supported by the results of the study’s first hypothesis, which suggests a statistically significant relationship between the payment of bride price and household power relations from the perspective of husbands in the Siwdu light industrial area in the Cape Coast Metropolis, Ghana.

4.3 The Relationship between Household Power Relations and Domestic Violence

Once the study established a relationship between bride price payment and household power relations, the researchers further sought to demonstrate how the power is used and its relationship with domestic abuse. For this, respondents were asked some questions to assess their opinions and perceptions about using the power they have acquired through paying the bride price. The results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4
The Use of Household Power by Husbands and Domestic Abuse in African Nuclear Families

| Statement | SA (%) | A (%) | N (%) | D (%) | SD (%) | Total (%) |
|---|--------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-----------|
| I exercise power as a man to keep my wife in check as part of my responsibilities. | 49 | 25 | 1 | 12 | 13 | 100 |
| I am comfortable with the power dynamics between my spouse and myself. | 57 | 20 | 3 | 14 | 6 | 100 |
| My spouse is comfortable with the power dynamics between herself and me. | 19 | 17 | 1 | 29 | 33 | 100 |
| Sometimes, I feel pressured to assert power over my spouse in a manner she does not agree with. | 36 | 26 | 4 | 22 | 12 | 100 |
| Sometimes, my spouse feels that how I exert power over her is harsh. | 39 | 28 | 4 | 16 | 13 | 100 |
| Sometimes, my spouse feels hurt by how I exercise power over her. | 39 | 26 | 3 | 17 | 14 | 100 |
| I have made my spouse cry by exercising my power as the man. | 43 | 19 | 1 | 23 | 14 | 100 |
| My spouse has reported me to her family elders in the past because of the way I exercise power over her. | 42 | 19 | 0 | 20 | 19 | 100 |
| In the past, my wife has hinted at divorce because of the way I exercise power over her. | 25 | 16 | 7 | 33 | 19 | 100 |
| Sometimes, my spouse resists the actions through which I choose to exercise power over her. | 41 | 22 | 3 | 16 | 19 | 100 |
| Exercising my power as the man is important to keep my wife in control. | 36 | 26 | 4 | 17 | 16 | 100 |
| My spouse may not always like how I exercise my power, but I will still do it to save her and my household. | 39 | 26 | 1 | 19 | 14 | 100 |

SA= Strongly Agree, A=Agree, N=Neutral, D=Disagree, SD=Strongly Disagree

Table 4 above presents respondents' perceptions of household power use. Respondents were asked several questions and required to indicate the extent of their agreement by choosing a response that best fits their opinion. The responses ranged from strongly agree to agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree.

Respondents were asked to indicate their opinion on the question, “I exercise power as a man to keep my wife in check as part of my responsibilities”. To this, 49% strongly agreed, 25% agreed, 1% remained neutral, 12% disagreed, and 13% strongly disagreed. Respondents also responded to the statement, “I am comfortable with the power dynamics between my spouse and myself”. According to this statement, 57% of respondents strongly agreed, 20% agreed, 1% were neutral, 29% disagreed, and 33% strongly disagreed. Respondents were also asked to indicate their opinion on the statement, “Sometimes, I feel pressured to assert power over my spouse in a manner she does not agree with.” To this statement, 39% strongly agreed, 28% disagreed, 4% were neutral, 16% disagreed, and 13% strongly disagreed. Regarding the statement, “Sometimes, my spouse feels that how I exert power over her is harsh”, 39% of respondents strongly agreed, 28% agreed, 4% remained neutral, 16% disagreed, and 13% strongly disagreed. Asked about their opinion on the statement, “Sometimes, my spouse feels hurt by how I exercise power over her”, 39% of respondents strongly agreed, 26% agreed, 3% were neutral, 17% disagreed, and 14% strongly disagreed. Respondents were also asked for their responses on the statement “I have made my spouse cry by exercising my power as the man”, to which 43% strongly agreed, 19% agreed, 1% were neutral, 23% disagreed, and 14% strongly disagreed.

Additionally, regarding the statement, “My spouse has reported me to her family elders in the past because of the way I exercised power over her”, 42% strongly agreed, 19% agreed, 20% disagreed, and 19% strongly disagreed. When asked whether their spouses have hinted at divorce in the past because of the way they exercise power over her, 25% of respondents strongly agreed, 16% agreed, 7% were neutral, 33% disagreed, and 19% strongly disagreed. In response to the statement, “Sometimes, my spouse resists the actions through which I choose to exercise power over her”, 41% strongly agreed, 22% agreed, 3% were neutral, 16% disagreed, and 19% strongly disagreed.

For this statement, “Exercising my power as the man is important to keep my wife in control,” 36% of respondents strongly agreed, 26% agreed, 4% remained neutral, 17% disagreed, and 16% strongly disagreed.

Regarding the statement, “My spouse may not always like how I exercise my power, but I will still do it to save her and my household”, 39% of respondents strongly agreed, 26% agreed, 1% remained neutral, 19% disagreed, and 14% strongly disagreed.

A chi-square test to determine whether there is a statistically significant relationship between the husbands’ use of power and domestic violence was conducted and presented in Table 5 using the following null hypothesis:

H_{02} : *There is no statistically significant relationship between the husbands' use of household power and domestic violence.*

Table 5

Chi-Square Tests on the Relationship Between Domestic Power Relations and Domestic Violence

| Test Statistic | Value |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) | 269.46 |
| Degree of Difference | 44 |
| P-value | <0.05 |
| Critical chi-square value | 62.429 |
| Conclusion | Reject the null hypothesis. |

The results, presented in Table 5, show a significant relationship between household power relations and domestic abuse ($\chi^2 = 269.46$, $df = 44$, $p < 0.05$). The chi-square statistic is much larger than expected under the null hypothesis, and the p-value is smaller than 0.05. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is a significant association between household power dynamics and domestic violence from the perspective of the study participants.

In examining the relationship between bride price payment and domestic violence, the study has so far revealed that bride price payment may lead to unequal power relations and subsequently domestic violence within the respondents' households. The challenge is that the issue of gender inequality and power imbalances in domestic relationships have been proven to be the main cause of domestic abuse and violence against women worldwide. Research has shown that domestic violence and abuse against women are often perpetuated by an intimate partner in the form of sexual or physical abuse. For instance, the World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that globally, one in three women has experienced domestic violence, mostly physical or sexual, at the hands of an intimate partner (WHO, 2021).

In this study, an overwhelming percentage (49%) of respondents believed that part of their household power is disciplining or controlling their wives as part of their responsibilities as husbands. The idea of control or discipline connotes a level of superiority, use of violence and dominance of men over women in the domestic environment. The study argues that these patriarchally driven ideas and beliefs tend to result in men's misuse and abuse of household power. In this study, some respondents indicated negative reactions from their spouses as a result of the use of household power, including retaliation, crying, and even hinting at divorce, all indicating a level of abuse and violence against the women, even from the perspective of the husbands. Thus, the results from the study's second hypothesis indicate a statistically significant relationship between the husbands' use of household power and domestic violence.

These findings are not different from what has been discussed in the study's review of related literature, where the evidence pointed to the abuse or misuse of household power by most men who had paid their spouses' bride price. As an example, Hague et al. (2011) note that bride price payment introduces a new dimension to men's unfettered powers over women, which is deeply rooted in the theory of patriarchy and different ways in which men can justify the abuse of women. Further, the commodification of wives has led to toxic social impacts, especially in terms of increased domestic violence and the abuse of male power over women (Hague et al., 2011).

In other studies, researchers have attributed the payment of bride price and the power it gives to men, which is compounded by the cultural practice of patriarchy, to different forms of abuse they and their children experience, including physical, financial and even sexual (Dery, 2015). This supports and confirms the findings from this study that the power designated to men through the payment of bride price is often used negatively, thus leading to increased domestic violence cases. Other studies in the literature which support the finding that men's power and authority

derived from the payment of bride price have been used negatively is shown by Frost and Dodoo (2010), who explored adolescent boys' gendered expectations for bridewealth and marriage among the Akwapims of Southern Ghana. In that study, bride price payment emerged as one of the factors associated with men's power and domestic violence against women (Frost & Dodoo, 2010). The study also concluded that bride price payment does not only give men the power to dominate and abuse women within the domestic arena but also justifies the use of violence against women (Frost & Dodoo, 2010). From the preceding, it is evident that the findings of this current study on the relationship between the use of men's power derived from the payment of bride price and domestic violence are related and supported by existing literature.

V. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

The study has shed light on the perception of husbands on the relationship between the payment of bride price, household power dynamics and domestic violence. The evidence showed that a significant proportion of husbands view the payment of bride price as conferring upon them superior power over their spouses.

This is fuelled by factors such as the cost of the bride price and the traditional beliefs surrounding the practice. The study has further highlighted unequal power relations within the respondents' households, with many husbands admitting to using their perceived power to discipline or control their spouses. Such attitudes fuel and perpetuate gender inequality and create a space where domestic abuse and violence against women thrive.

These findings undoubtedly have deep implications, emphasising the critical necessity for interventions focused on dismantling ingrained gender norms and fostering fair relationships within the home. Taking action to challenge the concept of bride price as a tool for asserting control over women, alongside initiatives to educate husbands on respectful and non-violent methods of wielding household authority, are essential strides toward cultivating healthier and more egalitarian domestic settings. Ultimately, this study highlights the necessity of addressing the deep-seated beliefs and attitudes that fuel unequal power dynamics within marriages. This is crucial to creating environments where both partners can flourish without coercion, abuse or violence.

5.2 Recommendations

Based on the insights gleaned from this study, some recommendations can be made to address the issues surrounding husbands' perceptions of the payment of bride price, its relationship with household power, and attitudes towards its use. The study recommends education and campaigns aimed at challenging the traditional beliefs and norms surrounding the payment of bride price, counselling, and support services for abusers and victims, women's empowerment, and men's engagement programs to encourage reflections on their roles and responsibilities in the household as well promote positive masculinity. This will also contribute to promoting gender equality in relationships, which aligns with calls to dismantle discriminatory gender norms that promote the subordination and dependency of women on men.

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Nexus between Foreign Remittance and Secondary Level Private School Enrollment in Nepal: A Comprehensive Analysis

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the relationship between secondary level private school enrollment and key economic indicators in Nepal, namely per capita GDP and remittances. The research uses quantitative techniques and secondary data analysis, applying a vector error correction model (VECM) to investigate dynamics over both long-term and short-term periods. This study used analytical and descriptive methodologies in a quantitative fashion. The variables were measured, and the effect of independent factors on the dependent variable was quantified, using secondary data. In order to investigate the main goal of the study, the time series method analyses were conducted. The EViews statistical tool, version 10, was then used to analyze and interpret the collected data. The findings reveal significant correlations between economic prosperity and private school enrollment, emphasizing the pivotal role of economic factors in shaping educational choices. While rising per capita GDP suggests improvements in living standards, remittances positively contribute to household income, potentially boosting school enrollment rates. On the one hand, increasing per capita GDP indicates higher standards of living and remittances represent an additional source of household income, which might help increase school enrollment rates. Still, there were also lessons in these data that are relevant today — and the game serves as a reminder of how much work we still have to do to eradicate inequities and make opportunities equal for all children. The findings point to the necessity of targeted policies in favor of the private education sector and towards broader economic growth, focusing on educational equity and access in Nepal. It also highlights the need for more academically rigorous outcome evaluations that investigate underlying mechanisms linking these relationships and for longer-term monitoring of uptake trajectories to better inform educational and economic development interventions.

Keywords: Foreign Employment, Remittance, School Education, Household Income

I. INTRODUCTION

The phenomenon of remittances and school enrollment in Nepal has been researched to a great extent by economists. Remittances, money sent from foreign workers back to their home countries can have both positive and negative effects on an economy and society of a nation, including education (Zhunio et al., 2022). Higher remittances are likely to improve household income and also education investment (Khatri, 2017). Such remittances contribute to payment of school fees and purchase of materials which restore and rise in the enrolment (Bhandari, 2020).

Children who live in homes where remittances make up a significant part of the income may feel less pressure to work and contribute. Thereby, reduce child labor and enable them to go to school (Bhandari, 2020). The funds recipients spend remittances on school transport and other beneficiaries related costs increase access to education. This is particularly relevant in rural areas where schools are usually located far away from homes (Neupane, 2020).

Different households, different communities have unique remittance income allocations. If remittances are skewed towards some groups or regions, it could lead to income inequality and disparities in education (Mishra et al., 2022). Remittances alone can lead to an over focus and lack of investment in critical areas such as education



(Bhandari, 2020). Quezada: But if for whatever reason remittances start coming in less, that could lead the household to no longer be able to afford education. Enrollments records increase due to remittances but there have zero effect on the quality of education (Bhandari, 2020). It does not mean that only an educator who is of quality makes a school good, but there are so many factors like the facilities, change in curriculum which also makes an education more or less effective (Neupane, 2020).

In Nepal, remittances have two major effects: they augment household income and reduce the opportunity costs of education allowing parents to send their children to school. Yet, lawmakers need to account for socioeconomic factors and they must develop an ultimate plan in order to make quality education great again (Bhandari, 2020).

This paper provides a systematic approach to understand the complex link between remittances and private schools' enrollment at the secondary level in Nepal including identification of potential causal pathways, focusing on both its socioeconomic aspects and consequences.

This study addresses the gap in understanding the effects of remittance income and per capita GDP on educational choices in Nepal, specifically focusing on secondary-level private school enrollment. While remittances can elevate household income and ease financial barriers to education, their direct impact on enrollment decisions for private schooling at the secondary level remains underexplored. Additionally, economic growth indicators, such as per capita GDP, may interact with remittances to shape educational access, potentially highlighting disparities across socio-economic groups. This research aims to clarify these relationships by analyzing the influence of remittances on secondary private school enrollment, investigating the role of per capita GDP in educational access, and examining whether remittance income fosters educational equity across different socio-economic groups in Nepal

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Nepal has experienced profound economic transformation evident from remittance and per capita GDP. These economic changes are also said to shape the education sector. Much research has been done on the impact of remittances on household income and consumption, however little attention has been focused around how economic factors i.e. per capita GDP and remittances mold private schooling attendance at secondary level This relationship is important for policymakers to understand because private school enrollment reflects larger trends in education equity and access. With such a framework in hand, it is possible to estimate the effects on private schooling of income from remittances and changes in standards of living due to GDP growth, at the household level during a period when more children were entering primary school. The present study aims to fill this gap by analyzing the linkages between economic aspects to secondary private school enrollment in Nepal, over time and thus provides some insights into how prosperity shapes students' educational choices.

1.2 Research Objectives

- i. To explore the association between per capita GDP and enrollment of private schools at secondary level in Nepal.
- ii. For an analysis of the impact of remittances on household decisions to send children to private schools
- iii. Using a Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) to explore the long-term and short-term dynamic relationships between economic indicators (per capita GDP, remittances) and private school enrollment

1.3 Research Hypotheses

H_{01} : Remittance income has a positive effect on secondary level private school enrollment in Nepal.

H_{02} : There is a significant relationship between per capita GDP and the rate of secondary level private school enrollment.

H_{03} : Higher remittance levels contribute to greater educational access among lower-income households.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

One should study why a house member left the native place and why only some one specific was selected to attend school. The growth is attributed to a larger population of low-income elementary school students. The stratified panel has less bias by weak instruments and omitted variable patterns compared to the annual cross-sectional estimates which makes it more robust.

Al-Islam et al. (2022) has studied on influence of remittances on school attendance in Bangladesh. The researchers examined cross-sectional data from the Household Income and Expenditure Survey conducted in 2016. Remittances and school attendance have a positive correlation, as predicted by probit regression. Furthermore, a parent's level of education positively affects the academic achievement of their child. Families with two or three

children are more likely to enroll their children in school than those with one or four children, according to the study. Urban household location and male child gender negatively impact enrollment. That study suggested that the government could offer additional incentives to children from remittance-receiving families in addition to those already offered to migrant workers. The study recommended that policymakers need to create innovative intervention programs and increase public awareness of the advantages of education to tackle the decreasing participation rates among urban children, boys, and single-child households.

2.1 Empirical Review

Yousaf et al. (2023) examined how remittances and poverty affect GCC economic growth. The study used 2000–2021 panel data. The data analysis methods included panel unit root tests, ARDL models, and Granger causality tests. Over time, the panel ARDL analysis showed several significant correlations with GCC economic growth. Economic growth was positively correlated to labor, gross fixed capital production, and secondary school enrollment. However, the GCC countries' poverty headcount ratios and economic progress are inversely correlated. There were effects on labor, gross fixed capital formation, poverty, and remittances. That study showed that in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) nations, remittances boost growth while poverty hindered it. Thus, GCC nations should take proactive steps to boost remittances and reduce poverty to boost economic growth.

Khan and Khan (2016) examined how remittances affect school attendance and achievement in Pakistani 4–15-year-olds. It was used the 2010/11 Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey, which covered the entire nation. The village-level migrant network variable interacted with household adult numbers to measure remittances. The instrumental variable Probit model indicates that children from households that receive remittances were more likely to attend school. This effect was especially noticeable for girls and children living in rural regions. The study concluded that in Pakistan, remittances contributed to the reduction of gender and regional differences in children's school attendance. The impact of remittances on children's academic achievement was investigated using the IV censored ordered Probit model. The study further found that except for urban children, the estimated impact was mostly negative and statistically significant, lowering the probability of grade advancement.

Joseph and Wodon (2014) used meteorological data, a recent nationally representative household survey, and matching techniques to investigate the relationship between remittances and markers of poverty and human development in Yemen. Malnutrition, vaccination status, and school enrollment were some of factors under study. Estimates were made for the country and for various climates. Based on the study, remittances—especially those from outside that provide recipients with more income—had a significant effect on the indices. In areas with difficult weather, such as higher temperatures or less precipitation, remittances had a greater impact on poverty and hunger. School attendance was more impacted by remittances in climate-friendly areas. The results showed that more affluent households used their remittances toward education, whereas less affluent households utilized them to pay for necessities.

Murakami (2019) examined how international migration affected Tajikistani children's education. A comprehensive household survey that accurately represented the nation was used for this analysis. A switching Probit model addressed endogeneity and self-selection issues in migration, remittance, and school enrollment studies. To investigate the effects of migration and remittances on children in different homes, counterfactual scenarios were developed. According to the statistics, children who lived in homes with migrant relatives missed school by 10%. This study covered remittance-receiving households, those with and without migrant parents, and homes with and without migrants. The movement of parents had a greater effect than that of other household members. Remittances reduced migration's negative consequences by 1-3 percentage points, with the greatest advantages being shown in impoverished homes led by young, illiterate people.

Stanley and Fleming (2019) stressed the importance of migration and remittances for Nepal, but the country still struggles with financial development. The nation's labor movements can boost human capital investments by encouraging more school-aged children to enroll. These gains can be greatly improved by understanding microeconomic processes. The study investigated how children's school attendance in Nepal was affected by remittances from both households and non-household sources. The benefits and drawbacks of migration and remittances were examined independently. 9,335 school-age children's data from the Nepal Living Standards Survey (NLSS III) were used in this research. The marginal impacts of enrollment were estimated by an external approach. Studies revealed that children's school enrollment rises by 2% as a result of remittances. In order to minimize the effects on families while bringing remittance senders and recipients closer together, the study recommended that policymakers promote domestic migration.

Gyimah-Brempong and Asiedu (2015) examined how remittances affected Ghana's educational funding. Families' propensity to enroll their children in elementary and secondary school was influenced by remittances, indicating that remittances encouraged the expansion of education. Remittances from overseas had a big influence on



primary and secondary school admissions. Remittances to families headed by women appeared to encourage education investment more than remittances to households headed by males, according to empirical study. The study showed that via investing in human capital, overseas remittances promoted long-term economic growth and reduced poverty.

Sami and El-Aziz (2018) investigated how remittances impact the educational outcomes of Egyptian children aged 6-21. Schoolchildren and university students were the two age categories in the study. In contrast to other studies that concentrated on school attendance, the one also looked at the impact of remittances on educational success. The Egypt Labor Market Panel Survey (ELMPS, 2012), which offered comprehensive socioeconomic and migratory data on households, was used in the study. The study evaluated the impact of receiving remittances on academic performance using an instrumental variable (IV) method in an Ordered Probit Model. Remittances seemed to have minimal impact on kids, according to the data, but they aided university students in overcoming financial difficulties and advancing their study.

Nguyen and Purnamasari (2011) conducted a thorough empirical investigation to look at the consequences of remittances and foreign migration in Indonesia. Their study looked at how female migration affects the labor supply and child outcomes in the homes that transfer their children abroad. The researchers used instrumental variable estimation to evaluate the data from the Indonesia Family Life Survey. Migration and remittance earnings were calculated using historical movement networks. Research indicated that the impact of international migration on Indonesian families varied according on the gender of the migrants. Household workers' hours were typically reduced by migration. It had less effect in houses when there were female migrants. Meanwhile, child labor was reduced when women relocate and send money home. Remittances and migration did not, however, statistically significantly affect school attendance. Bhandari (2020) used third-generation Nepal Living Standard Survey data to investigate. Quality education using indicators like private school admission rates, tutor use, tutoring service investment, and school tuition fees. Instrumental variable (IV) regression was used to analyze migrant households to address the issues.

The study found that there was no empirical evidence connecting remittance to private school enrollment or tutoring after adjusting for family and child variables as well as a geographical fixed effect. Remittances had a limited positive effect on private and school tuition.

2.2 Conceptual framework of study variables

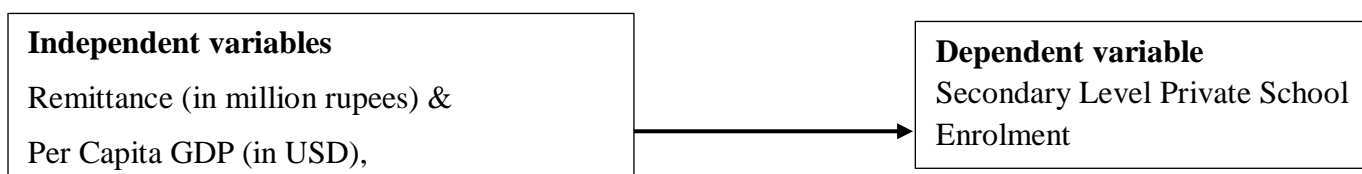


Figure 1
Relationship between Dependent and Independent Variables

III. METHODOLOGY

This study used analytical and descriptive methodologies. The variables were measured, and the effect of independent factors on the dependent variable was quantified, using secondary data. The EViews statistical tool, version 10, was then used to analyze and interpret the collected data.

$$\text{LN PVTESL} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 \text{LNPCGDP} + \beta_3 \text{LNREM} + e_t$$

Where,

LN PVTESL = Natural Logarithms of Secondary Level Private School Enrolment

LNPCGDP = Natural Logarithms of Per Capita GDP (in USD),

LNREM = Natural Logarithms of Remittance (in million rupees)

e_t = error term

β_i = constant coefficient

3.1 Sources of Data

This study solely used secondary data and combined analytical and descriptive methodologies. In line with the goals of the study, the body of existing material from books, journals, and the Nepal Rastra Bank was used. The Ministry of Finance of Nepal's Economic Survey provided statistics on student enrollments from 2000 to 2022. The

Quarterly Economic Bulletin 2023–October of the Nepal Rastra Bank provided data on per capita GDP (in USD) and remittances (in million rupees).

Table 1

Variables, Abbreviations, Units and Data Sources Used in Research

| Variable names | Symbols | Units | Data sources |
|--|---------|----------------|----------------------|
| Secondary level private school enrolment | PVTESL | Head | MoF, Economic Survey |
| Per Capita GDP | PCGDP | USD | QEB 2023, NRB |
| Remittance | REM | Million (Nrs.) | QEB 2023, NRB |

3.2 Econometric Method

In order to investigate the main goal of the study, which was to assess the link between Secondary level private school enrollment, Per Capita GDP (in USD), and Remittance (in million rupees), the time series method analyses were conducted using the following methodologies.

3.2.1 Stationery Test

Most time series econometric methods work under the assumption that the variables in the time series are stationary. As a result, the dynamic time series model was estimated and tested using standard techniques. "Integrated to the order one," or I(1), is the term used to describe a series with a unit root process. Conversely, I(0) process is the name given to a stationary process. Time series are frequently categorized using this terminology according to their stationarity characteristics.

3.2.2 Co-integration Test

The co-integration test determines if non-stationary time series variables share a long-term equilibrium relationship. When these variables exhibit a common stochastic trend, they are co-integrated, indicating a meaningful connection over time (Engle & Granger, 1987). This test is essential for analyzing long-term relationships and ensuring accurate econometric inferences (Johansen, 1991), helping to avoid misleading results from non-stationary data (Stock & Watson, 2007).

3.2.3 Vector Error Correction Model

The Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) analyzes and predicts sets of cointegrated variables whilst also allowing for long-run equilibrium relationships and short-run deviations from them, extending the VAR model. It may be helpful to understand dynamics among variables both short-term and long-term.

3.2.4 Long Run and Short Run Relationship

Given the long-term link between the variables, the vector error correction model may be applied.

3.2.5 Granger Causality Test

Pair Wise Granger Causality Test is used to find the relationship between the variables. Granger-cause theory states that x is responsible for y if past values of x can be utilized to forecast future values of y given past values of y. Granger causality is commonly evaluated by regressing y on both the lagged value of x and its own lagged values. According to the null hypothesis, all calculated coefficients on the x-lag values are 0 collectively. Rejecting the null hypothesis in Granger's model entails rejecting the null hypothesis that x does not cause y.

3.2.6 Autocorrelation Test

Autocorrelation, which looks at the relationship between a variable's past and present values, is also known as lag correlation or serial correlation. Autocorrelation in the model's residuals typically means that the model's specification was incorrect or incorrect in some other manner. One cause might be that a crucial variable, or set of crucial elements, is missing from the model. The Breusch-Godfrey Lagrange multiplier test is used in this instance by the auto correlation test.

3.2.7 Test of Normality

In statistics, normality tests determine whether a data set is suitable for a normal distribution and if a randomly distributed variable underlying the data set would also have a normal distribution. To ascertain whether the data are normal, the Jarque-Bera test is performed. The Jarque-Bera test quantifies the degree to which the kurtosis and skewness of sample data conform to the properties of a normal distribution.



A result of one indicates the rejection of the null hypothesis at the 5% significance level. In other words, the distribution of the data is not normal. The information is considered to be given on a regular basis if the value is zero.

3.2.8 Heteroskedasticity

When the variability of one variable is distributed unevenly over the values of the second variable that predicts it, the phenomenon is known as heteroskedasticity. This example of a violation of a linear regression modeling assumption may affect the validity of an economic study. Because ordinary least squares (OLS) regression assumes that all residuals come from a population with a fixed variance (homoscedasticity), heteroskedasticity is an issue.

IV. FINDINGS & DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Students Enrolments

This pattern emphasizes how important it is to keep funding private schools in order to guarantee top-notch educational opportunities for all students.

Students Enrolments of Private School in Secondary Level

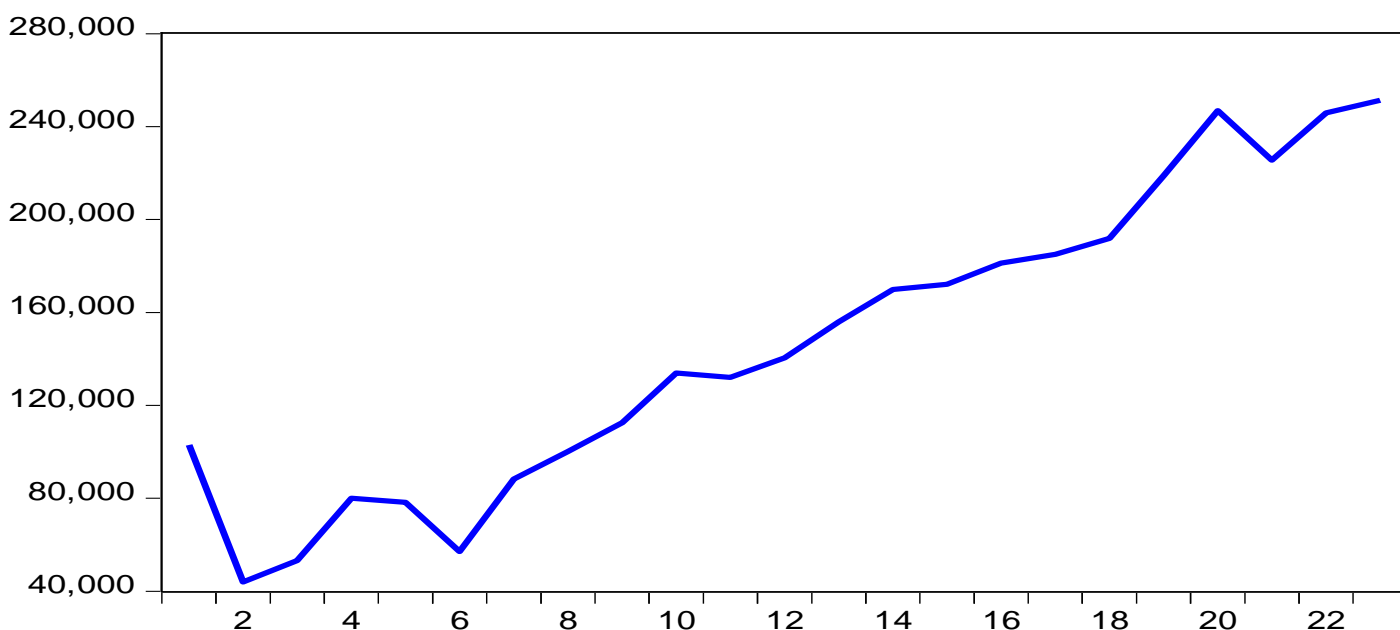


Figure 2
Trend Line of Students Enrolments of Private School in Secondary Level in Nepal

4.2 Per Capita GDP (in USD)

The GDP per person in Nepal has been rising in US dollars. It increases points to a steady rise in Nepal's average living level. It's crucial to keep in mind, though, that \$1399 is still a little amount in comparison to many other nations, suggesting that further economic growth is possible.



Per Capita GDP (in USD)

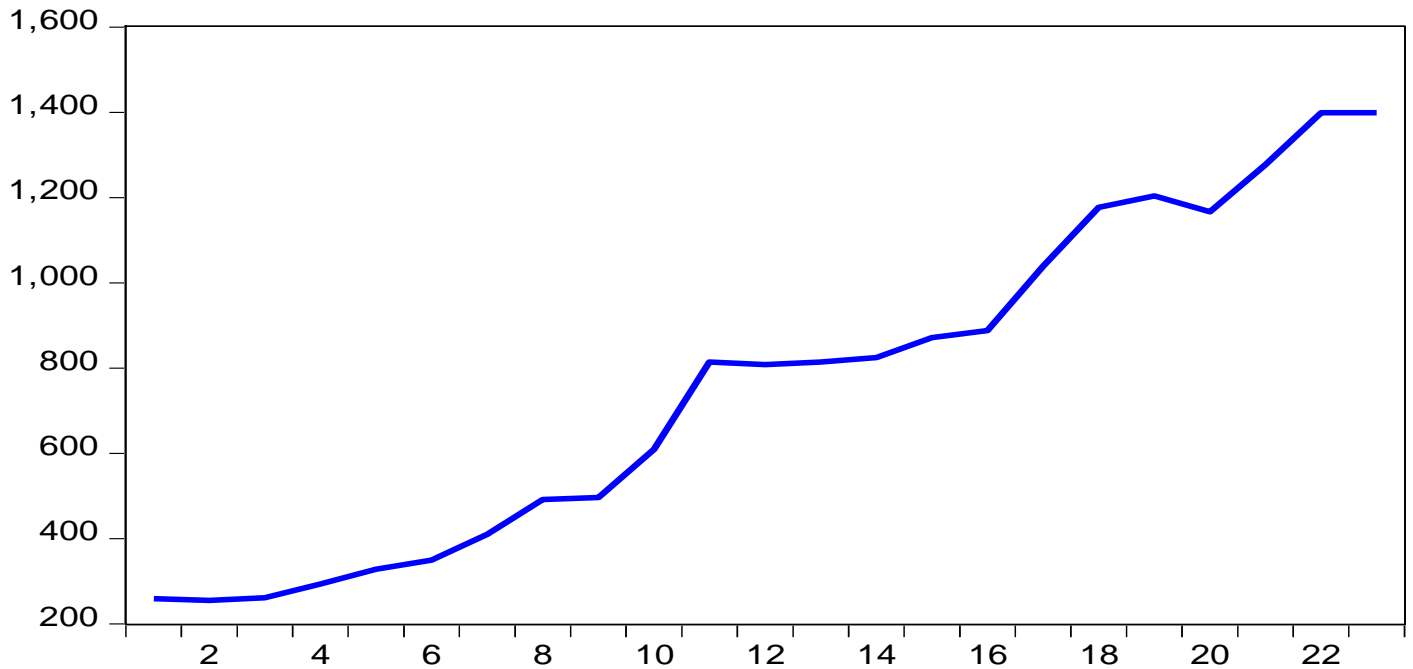


Figure 3
Trend Line of Per Capita GDP (in USD)

4.3 Remittance (In Million Rupees)

While remittances have the potential to boost household income and school enrollment rates in Nepal, there are some potential negative effects as well. These include parental absence and child labor. To mitigate these effects, specific policies and interventions that support equal access to education for all children are needed.

Remittance (in million rupees)

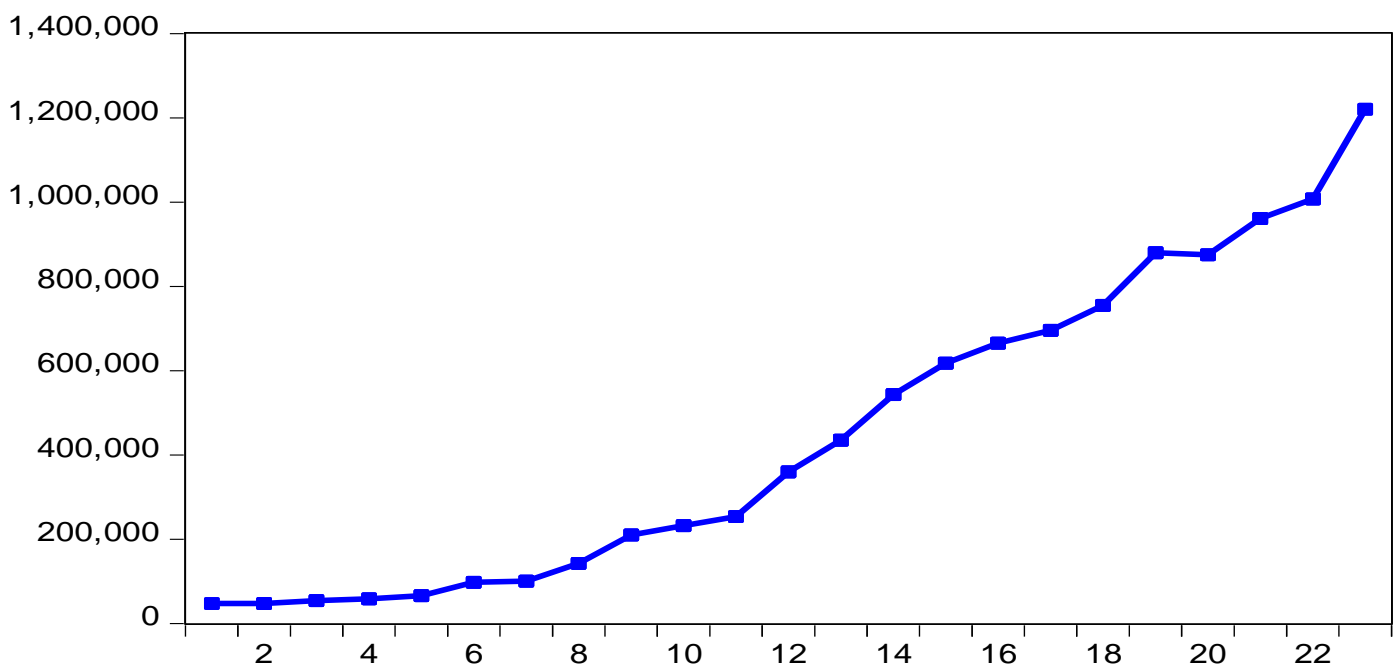


Figure 4
Trend Line of Remittance (in Million Rupees)



4.4 Econometric Analysis

4.4.1 The Unit Root Test

The stationarity of the data is evaluated using the unit root test. The stationarity condition of the variables is tested using the unit root test, or ADF test (Poudel, 2022).

Table 2

Results of Individual Unit Root Test

| Series | On Level | | On First Difference | |
|----------|----------|------------|---------------------|------------|
| | t-Stat | Prob-Value | t-Stat | Prob-Value |
| LNPVTESL | -1.3916 | 0.5655 | -8.4425 | 0.0000* |
| LNPCGDP | -0.9502 | 0.7521 | -3.8814 | 0.0082* |
| LNREM | -1.0067 | 0.7322 | -4.4415 | 0.0024* |

Source: Author's calculations performed using E-Views

* Demonstrates the great importance of the finding at the 1% significance level.

At a significance level of 5%, the results of the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test are as follows: (i) When the variables exhibit their initial difference, the null hypothesis is accepted; but, (ii) when the level series of each variable has a unit root, it is rejected. This implies that all series are integrated of order one since, after being differentiated once, all series become stationary. The fact that the variables are co-integrated suggests that there may be a long-term link between them (Poudel et al., 2024).

4.4.2 VAR Lag Order Selection Criteria

The right lag duration must be established prior to doing the co-integration test. The majority of the factors suggest using two lags, as shown in the table below. As a result, we choose lag (2) for our further testing.

Table 3

VAR Lag Order Selection Criteria

| Lag | LogL | LR | FPE | AIC | SC | HQ |
|-----|----------|-----------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
| 0 | 8.996963 | NA | 0.000110 | -0.599696 | -0.450336 | -0.570540 |
| 1 | 70.00504 | 97.61293 | 6.17e-07 | -5.800504 | -5.203065 | -5.683878 |
| 2 | 84.62694 | 19.00847* | 3.80e-07* | -6.362694 | -5.317175* | -6.158598* |
| 3 | 93.81289 | 9.185953 | 4.57e-07 | -6.381289* | -4.887691 | -6.089723 |

4.4.3 Co-Integration Result

Co-integration is the result of combining multiple time series variables with the same level of integration. The co-integration of LNPVTESL, LNREM, and LNPCGDP indicates a strong relationship and a potential long-term association. It is possible for these variables to exhibit many co-integrating relationships. The number of co-integrating equations is ascertained using the Johansen test, which also offers test statistics and estimates (Mackinnon, 2010). Table 4 displays the results of the Johansen co-integration test.

Table 4

Results of Johansen Co-integration Test

| Unrestricted Co-integration Rank Test (Trace) | | | | |
|---|------------|-----------|----------------|---------|
| Hypothesized | | Trace | 0.05 | |
| No. of CE(s) | Eigenvalue | Statistic | Critical Value | Prob.** |
| None * | 0.669264 | 33.47684 | 29.79707 | 0.0180 |
| At most 1 | 0.328188 | 11.34818 | 15.49471 | 0.1910 |
| At most 2 | 0.156025 | 3.392640 | 3.841466 | 0.0655 |
| Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue) | | | | |
| Hypothesized | | Max-Eigen | 0.05 | |
| No. of CE(s) | Eigenvalue | Statistic | Critical Value | Prob.** |
| None * | 0.669264 | 22.12867 | 21.13162 | 0.0361 |
| At most 1 | 0.328188 | 7.955537 | 14.26460 | 0.3832 |
| At most 2 | 0.156025 | 3.392640 | 3.841466 | 0.0655 |



One co-integrating equation is shown by the trace and max-eigenvalue tests at the 0.05 level. These test findings suggest that there may be more than one co-integrating connection between the variables, if there isn't already one.

4.4.4 Vector Error Correction Model

Now that the long-term link between the variables has been established, we may evaluate and estimate the VECM. All computations employ level data, and the model's variables are immediately translated into their beginning differences. The VECM equation for the dependent variable, secondary student enrollment at private schools (PVTESL), is as follows:

$$D(LNPVTESL) = C(1)*(0.00505*LNREM(-1) - 0.7952*LNPCGDP(-1) - 5.9809 - LNPVTESL(-1)) + C(2)C(3)*D(LNREM(-1)) + C(4) + *D(LNPVTESL(-1))C(5)*D(LNPVTESL(-2)) + C(6)*D(LNREM(-2)) + C(7)*D(LNPCGDP(-2)) + C(8) *D(LNPCGDP(-1))$$

Where, C (8) = Constant / intercept and C (1) = Coefficient of co-integrating equation (long-term causation), C (2), C (3), C (4), C (5), C (6), and C (7) = Coefficient of co-integrating equation (short-term causality).

Table 5
Results of Vector Error Correction Model

| Constant | Coefficient | Std. Error | t-Statistic | Prob. |
|--------------------|-------------|-----------------------|-------------|-----------|
| C (1) | -0.899346 | 0.365557 | -2.460211 | 0.0300 |
| C (2) | 0.323618 | 0.228657 | 1.415298 | 0.1824 |
| C (3) | 0.771052 | 0.184126 | 4.187644 | 0.0013 |
| C (4) | 0.085078 | 0.271289 | 0.313606 | 0.7592 |
| C (5) | -0.231824 | 0.120532 | -1.923331 | 0.0785 |
| C (6) | -0.048947 | 0.151366 | -0.323367 | 0.7520 |
| C (7) | -0.581112 | 0.275998 | -2.105494 | 0.0570 |
| C (8) | -0.012347 | 0.041978 | -0.294132 | 0.7737 |
| R-squared | 0.867077 | Mean dependent var | | 0.077616 |
| Adjusted R-squared | 0.789538 | S.D. dependent var | | 0.157531 |
| S.E. of regression | 0.072269 | Akaike info criterion | | -2.127663 |
| Sum squared resid | 0.062674 | Schwarz criterion | | -1.729370 |
| Log likelihood | 29.27663 | Hannan-Quinn criter. | | -2.049912 |
| F-statistic | 11.18252 | Durbin-Watson stat | | 2.210975 |
| Prob(F-statistic) | 0.000203 | | | |

Table 5 displays the VECM results. The variance of the explanatory components is represented by the R-squared values. It demonstrates how well the model describes the data. With a respectable R-square value of 0.8671 (86.71%), the model demonstrates that it is sufficient and does not exhibit false regression. A long-term relationship between LNPVTESL and the independent components is shown by a substantial and negative coefficient of the VECM.

4.4.5 Long Run Causality

The co-integrating equation (LNPVTESL(-1) - 0.0505*LNREM(-1) - 0.7952*LNPCGDP(-1) - 5.9809) is obtained from the VECM equation. The error correction (EC) term is constructed using the coefficient C(1) of this equation. The long-run causality is then obtained from the EC term. At the 5% significance level, the coefficient of ECM is statistically significant, displays the predicted negative sign, and ranges from zero to one. This emphasizes the importance of the error correcting mechanism and shows that the level of PVTESL and the explanatory variables are in a stable, long-term equilibrium (Gujarati, 2004).

The long-term elasticity is reflected in the ECM, which shows a feedback mechanism of about 89.93% from the disequilibrium created by the explanatory components in the prior year. Stated differently, the coefficient of the error correction term indicates the rate at which the enrollment level adjusts to variations in the explanatory variables to reach long-term static equilibrium. Consequently, one may characterize the pace of adjustment as quick.



4.4.6 Short Run Causality

The short-run causal relationship between remittances and secondary school enrollments at private schools is examined by utilizing the remittances-representative VECM coefficients C (3) and C (6). The correlation between per capita GDP and secondary school enrolment in private schools is examined in further detail using coefficients C (4) and C (7), which represent per capita GDP.

Table 6

Wald Test Results for Short Run Causality

| Null Hypothesis: C(3) = C(6)=0 (two lag of remittances) | | | |
|---|----------|---------|-------------|
| Test Statistic | Value | df | Probability |
| F-statistic | 9.169407 | (2, 12) | 0.0038 |
| Chi-square | 18.33881 | 2 | 0.0001 |
| Null Hypothesis: C (4) = C(7)=0 (two lag of per capita GDP) | | | |
| Test Statistic | Value | df | Probability |
| F-statistic | 2.334634 | (2, 12) | 0.1392 |
| Chi-square | 4.669267 | 2 | 0.0968 |

The study employed the Wald test's chi-square value to determine the short-term causal association between PVTESL and remittances. There exists a short-run causal relationship between remittances and PVTESL if coefficients C (3) and C (6) have a combined effect on the PVTESL. Table 5 displays the Wald test findings. It implies that the PVTESL cannot be simultaneously affected by the H0, or C (3) = C (6) = 0, of lag two. It is possible to reject H0 given that the chi-square value is 18.33881, or less than 1%. This implies that the PVTESL is influenced by the combined action of coefficients C (3) and C (6). So remittances are causally related to PVTESL, in the short run. And the chi-square value between per capita GDP and PVTESL is 4.669267, which is less than 10%, showing a short-run causal relationship between them since C (4) and C (7) jointly affect PVTESL with 90% confident level at least in one direction.

4.4.7 Granger Causality Test

A commonly used method to test this is by using the Granger Causality Test, which can help identify of any way variables in the model are chorological related. A strong result on the Granger Causality Test (examined in Section 3) for (2023), would suggest that autoregressive values of predictor variables could potentially hold information which could be used to forecast the dependent variable.

Table 7

Pairwise Granger Causality Tests

| Null Hypothesis | Obs. | F-Statistic | Prob. |
|---|------|-------------|--------|
| LNREM does not Granger Cause LNPVTESL | 21 | 21.9472 | 3.E-05 |
| LNPVTESL does not Granger Cause LNREM | | 3.08194 | 0.0738 |
| LNPCGDP does not Granger Cause LNPVTESL | 21 | 13.2603 | 0.0004 |
| LNPVTESL does not Granger Cause LNPCGDP | | 1.25049 | 0.3129 |
| LNPCGDP does not Granger Cause LNREM | 21 | 6.71872 | 0.0076 |
| LNREM does not Granger Cause LNPCGDP | | 4.48002 | 0.0285 |

t can be observed from these findings that there may be Granger causality for both pairs from LNREM to LNPVTESL, from LNPCGDP to LNPVTESL but not in the reverse order. There is also a Granger causality from LNREM to LNPCGDP but not the other way.

Model Diagnosis

As diagnostic assessment is a positive and constructive endeavor, researchers may require to revise and update their models due to their findings. It is important to ensure that the selected model remains true to the data economics in practice. In order to do this, several diagnostic tests must be performed such as description of the model parameters, evaluation of the normality, examination of the stability of the model, examining the possibility of serial correlation and an examination of the residuary heteroskedastic.



F-Test

An F-statistic with a p-value of less than 1 percent and an R squared of 86.71 percent indicates a well-fitted best linear model. This F-statistic p value will, therefore be effective in determining the significance of the model fitness since it is less than one percent which is quite impressive.

Normality Test

For investigations of whether the variable distribution of the model follows normal assumptions or not one can use Jarque-Bera test. This test is important as it avers visibility of normal distribution pattern for the variables, and thus is desirable for practice. Thus the test results were:

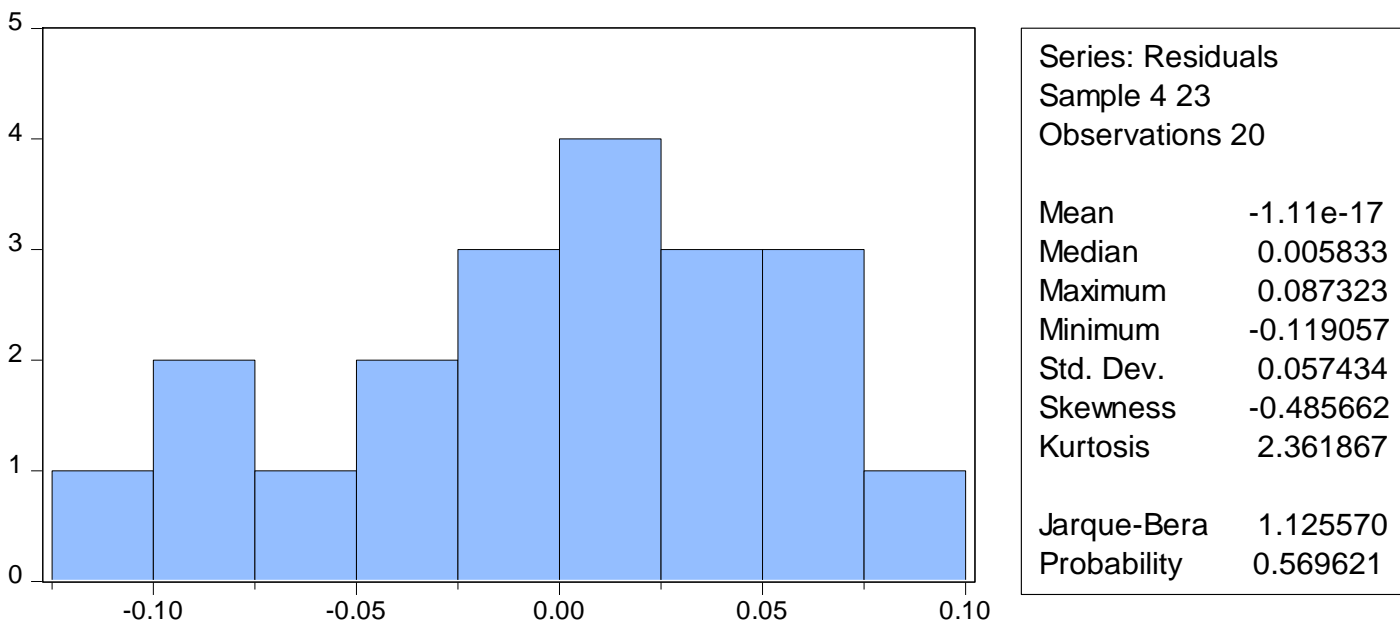


Figure 5
Jarque-Bera Normality Test

Given that the test's probability is greater than the 5% significance level, the Jarque-Bera test result demonstrates that the null hypothesis is upheld. Given that it is greater than five percent, the Jarque-Bera probability value (0.569621) suggests that the model's residuals have a normal distribution.

Heteroskedasticity Test

An issue with econometric regression analysis called heteroskedasticity can be found with the Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey test. This test's outcomes are shown in the table below.

Table 8
Heteroskedasticity Test: Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey

| | | | |
|---------------------|----------|----------------------|--------|
| F-statistic | 3.127976 | Prob. F (9,10) | 0.0451 |
| Obs*R-squared | 14.75778 | Prob. Chi-Square (9) | 0.0978 |
| Scaled explained SS | 3.617665 | Prob. Chi-Square (9) | 0.9347 |

The results of the heteroskedasticity test are shown in Table 7. It is feasible to conclude from the data that the model does not exhibit heteroskedasticity given that the null hypothesis of homoscedasticity was not rejected at a 5% significance level. In other words, if the observed R-squared p-value is more than 5%, the data is homoscedastic.

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test

The serial correlation inside the model is assessed using the Breusch-Godfrey LM test, and the results are displayed as follows:



Table 9

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test

| | | | |
|---------------|----------|----------------------|--------|
| F-statistic | 0.661697 | Prob. F (2,10) | 0.5372 |
| Obs*R-squared | 2.337451 | Prob. Chi-Square (2) | 0.3108 |

Table 9 presents the results of the Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test, which show that autocorrelation is present in the model. Since there is no serial correlation and the probability associated with Obs. R-squared is more than the 5% significance level, we conclude that the null hypothesis is accepted.

Stability Test in VECM

In econometrics, such tests yield more confidence in predictions made with estimations and clear understanding of parameters. Most importantly, a stability test helps in determining whether the estimated relationships actually endure across time. The CUSUM test involves the analysis of cumulative residuals regarding a specific coefficient which is used for reference.

CUSUM Test

The long red lines incident to the upper and lower curves depict the upper and lower bounds of the 5percent confidence limits of the CUSUM statistic. The blue line is the actual CUSUM statistic. It was in this case shown that the practice blue line was enclosed between the red borders which in essence indicated that the parameters of the model were stable.

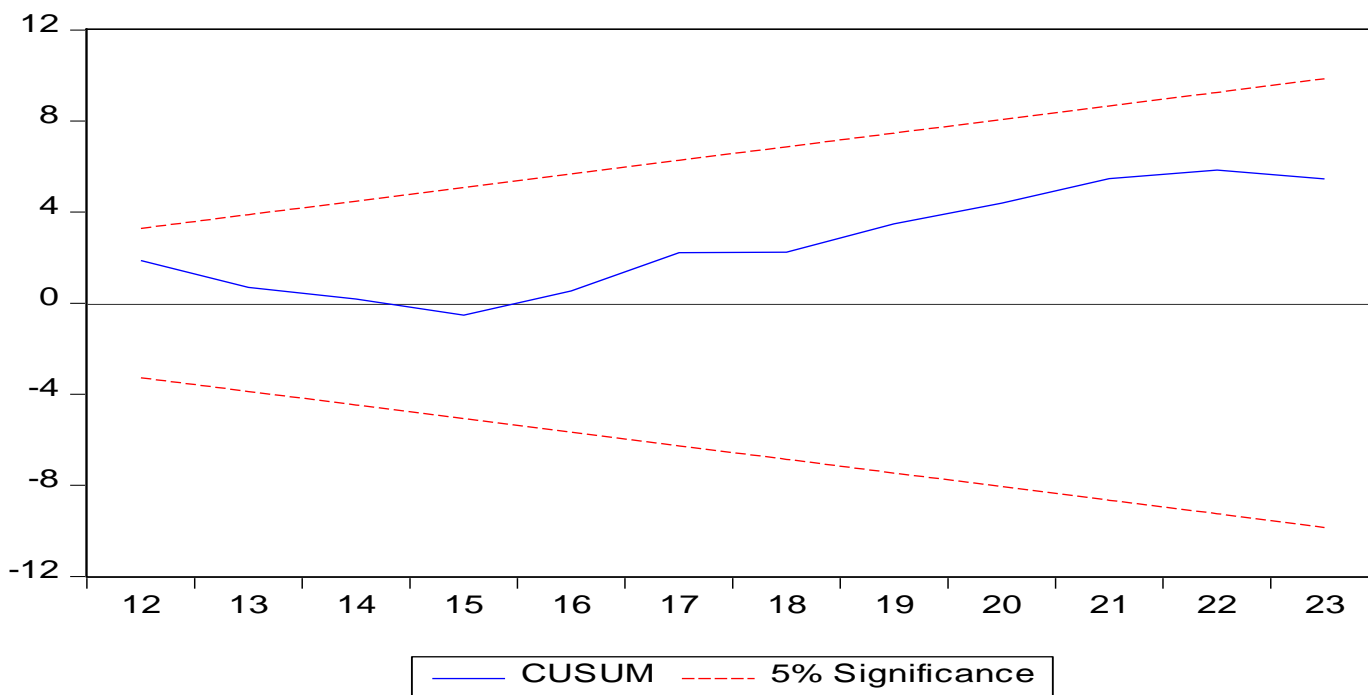


Figure 6
Results of CUSUM Test

CUSUM of Square Test

The Cumulative Sum of Squares test is a statistical measure that helps to detect known types of structural breaks or changes in the variance of the time series model. It does this by observing the cumulative sums of the squared residuals and detecting any temporal volatility and stability changes within the model. This is a test that must be done to ascertain the internal validity of econometric models, especially in changes over factors in the economy.

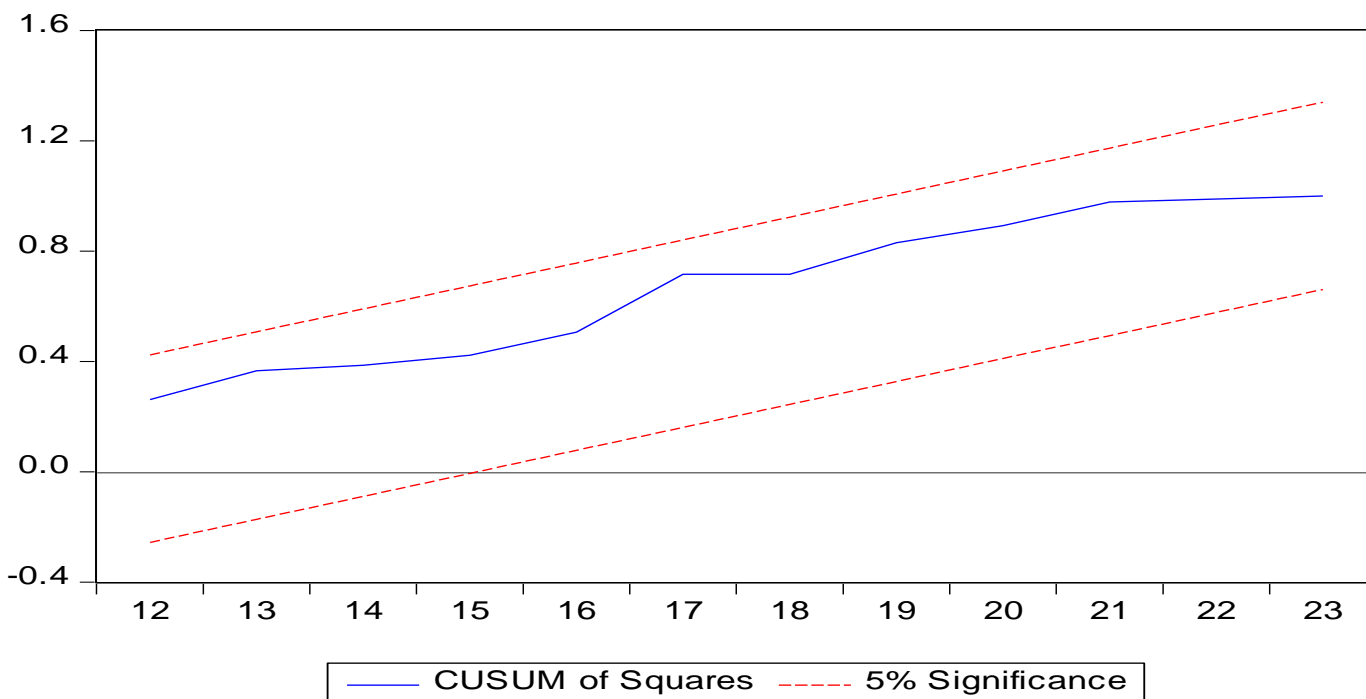


Figure 7
Results of CUSUM Square Test

The red lines are the upper and lower limits of the 5% confidence intervals for the CUSUM statistic. In the figure, the blue line shows the actual CUSUM of squares statistic. In this case the time series demonstrates that the blue line stays within the borders consisting of the red lines. This suggests that the parameters of the model are time invariant.

4.5 Discussion

The paper examines the linkage between remittances, per capita GDP, and the enrollment in private secondary level schools in Nepal to uncover the mixed factor at play influencing educational choices and economic development in one direction. Results of co-integration testing confirm the existence of a long-run equilibrium relationship among these series, thus stressing the need for taking into account the combined impact of these series on educational outcomes. Short-run dynamics indicate that immediate short-run fluctuations of remittances and economic growth have their impact on the immediate short-run dynamics of education. The Granger causality test supports that remittances and per capita GDP influence private school enrollment but not the other way around over the short run.

The relationship between remittances and school enrollment is proved by former research; for instance, Al-Islam et al. (2022), Khan and Khan (2016) and Wodon (2014). The association is positive because, as previously mentioned, remittances positively affect both short- and long-term dynamics involving the enrollment process. These results hold true for our data when we interpret the influence of remittances on private school enrollment in Nepal. The other factors to consider are economic growth and education. The positive relationship between per capita GDP and school enrollment underlines the role of economic growth in making education more accessible. For that reason, the government should channel resources into those policies that will improve economic sustainability to support the education sector. The other necessary interventions comprise targeted programs in financial literacy for the recipients of remittances, scholarships for their households' students, and programs that will stimulate the use and future income of education to maximize remittance impacts on education.

V. CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

In conclusion, this paper provides a detailed study of the relationship between secondary level private school enrollment and key economic indicators in Nepal. Important results have been brought to light wherein economic factors like per capita GDP and remittances prove to significantly influence the choice of education indicating the need to consider socio-economic dynamics as a basis for educational development policy. Private school enrollment is positively correlated with economic welfare, which means that increased investment in economic development would enhance improvements in access to education and quality of education. The government, therefore, should not only



remove disparities but also ensure that education is accessible to all. The outcomes point towards the need for such specific policies that will facilitate not only the private education market but larger economic growth. Future research is also needed to better understand the mechanisms explaining these relationships and to track enrollment changes over time to advance a more nuanced strategy for education and economic development in Nepal.

5.2 Recommendations

Four key policy recommendations can be drawn from the study findings:

- Government should bring some policies in action which can make the growth of economy at par with the removal of inequity from education. As in other words we can say that as the economy will grow, similarly provision and reach of private sector education will also have to broaden and equalize among the general public for which government should make sure that everyone gets fair chances of study.
- Policies should be formulated to stabilize and improve remittance flows. Financial literacy programmes should be initiated for families receiving remittances in order to induce strategic use of these resources for educational purposes, thus helping households invest more efficiently in private schools.
- To bridge the gap between the haves and have-nots in education, government can give subsidy or voucher to the low-income family to support their children enroll into private school so they can have access for higher quality of education as well.
- Promoting public-private partnerships (PPPs) can help reduce the divide between public and private schooling by upgrading resources and infrastructure which will particularly uplift students in rural areas by facilitating greater reach of private education to the areas that need it most.

Conflict of Interest

Authors declare no competing interests.

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Appendix

| FY | PVTESL | Per Capita GDP (in USD) | Remittance (in million rupees) | LNPVTEBL | LNPCGDP | LNREM |
|-----------|---------------|------------------------------------|---|-----------------|----------------|--------------|
| 2000 | 102915 | 258.7799 | 47216.1 | 13.21234 | 5.555978 | 10.76249 |
| 2001 | 44000 | 254.5523 | 47536.3 | 12.76607 | 5.539506 | 10.76925 |
| 2002 | 53213 | 261.2944 | 54203.3 | 12.85553 | 5.565648 | 10.9005 |
| 2003 | 80000 | 293.2073 | 58587.6 | 13.1558 | 5.68088 | 10.97828 |
| 2004 | 78287 | 327.8313 | 65541.2 | 13.26004 | 5.792499 | 11.09043 |
| 2005 | 57050 | 349.5486 | 97688.5 | 12.83079 | 5.856643 | 11.48954 |
| 2006 | 88320 | 410.0724 | 100144.8 | 13.2255 | 6.016334 | 11.51437 |
| 2007 | 100106 | 491.3467 | 142682.7 | 13.37041 | 6.19715 | 11.86838 |
| 2008 | 112586 | 496.5228 | 209698.5 | 13.45504 | 6.207629 | 12.25343 |
| 2009 | 133924 | 609.5348 | 231725.3 | 13.69077 | 6.412696 | 12.35331 |
| 2010 | 132056 | 814.318 | 253551.6 | 13.61621 | 6.702351 | 12.44332 |
| 2011 | 140415 | 808.2408 | 359554.4 | 13.75069 | 6.69486 | 12.79262 |
| 2012 | 155902 | 814.3086 | 434581.7 | 13.79252 | 6.702339 | 12.98214 |
| 2013 | 169905 | 824.1442 | 543294.1 | 13.77618 | 6.714345 | 13.20541 |
| 2014 | 172129 | 871.4402 | 617278.8 | 13.77549 | 6.770147 | 13.33308 |
| 2015 | 181177 | 887.6123 | 665064.3 | 13.76923 | 6.788535 | 13.40764 |
| 2016 | 185056 | 1039.025 | 695452.4 | 13.74748 | 6.946039 | 13.45232 |
| 2017 | 191898 | 1176.696 | 755058.6 | 13.79532 | 7.070466 | 13.53455 |
| 2018 | 218935 | 1203.836 | 879367.1 | 14.44555 | 7.093268 | 13.68696 |
| 2019 | 246791 | 1166.629 | 875027 | 14.22919 | 7.061873 | 13.68201 |
| 2020 | 225607 | 1276.81 | 961054.6 | 14.10026 | 7.15212 | 13.77579 |
| 2021 | 245880 | 1398.851 | 1007307 | 14.18469 | 7.243406 | 13.82279 |
| 2022 | 251292 | 1399 | 1220560 | 14.26988 | 7.243513 | 14.01482 |



Effect of Stakeholders' Management on Programme Performance. A Case of Crop Intensification Programme in Ngoma District, Rwanda (2018-2023)

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ABSTRACT

The study sought to assess effect of stakeholders' management on programme performance. The unit of analysis was the crop intensification programme in Ngoma district, Rwanda from 2018 to 2023. The study guided by Stakeholder theory, Goal setting theory and Theory of Change. The study adopted a descriptive survey and correlational research design. The population size was 2123 comprising of smallholder farmers (688), farmers in cooperatives (850), agro-dealers (450), agricultural extension service providers (120), agronomists (14) and Director of Agriculture and Natural Resource in Ngoma district (1). The total sample size was 336 respondents. The sampling procedure was purposive and stratified random sampling. A five-point Likert type scale questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data. The statistical analysis used for quantitative data were frequencies, percentages, arithmetic means and standard deviations, while the statistical tools employed for inferential statistics were Pearson's Correlation, ANOVA, coefficients test and Multiple Linear Regression. Fisher (F) and P-values were used to test the null hypotheses. The study findings revealed the R value of 0.846 indicating a strong positive relationship between the predictors and the outcome variables, and the R Square value of 0.768 indicates that approximately 76.8% of the variability in the outcome variable can be explained by the predictors in the model. The coefficients of the predictors indicate their individual effects on the CIP performance. Specifically, stakeholders' identification ($\beta_1=0.716$, $p=0.002$), stakeholders' negotiation ($\beta_2= 0.539$, $p= 0.011$), stakeholders' participation ($\beta_3= 0.627$, $p= 0.006$) and stakeholders' M&E ($\beta_4= 0.685$, $p= 0.014$). This indicates that all the coefficients of the predictors are statistically significant, as indicated by their associated Sig. values below 0.05. In short, the four null hypotheses were tested and rejected to accept the alternative hypotheses. The study concluded that all the independent (predictors) variables of the model specification had the greatest effect on the CIP performance in Ngoma district, Rwanda. The study recommends in the form of policy-making and practices that stakeholders' negotiation and stakeholders' M&E should be outlined in a pure and concise blueprint to promote stakeholders' inclusivity in all stages of CIP activities that aims at ensuring food security countrywide and food supply globally.

Keywords:- Management, Project and Programme Performance, Stakeholders

I. INTRODUCTION

The notion of stakeholder management in projects has its origins in social and environmental action. People grew increasingly conscious of how their behaviours impacted the natural environment throughout the 1960s and 1970s (Joanna & Sinclair, 2018). As a result, a movement arose calling for more public participation in environmental decision-making. This trend resulted in the creation of stakeholder theory, which states that organizations have a responsibility to consider the interests of all stakeholders when making decisions. Individuals or organizations having an entrusted interest in the success of a project are referred to as stakeholders (Joanna & Sinclair, 2018).

In the early years of project management in Rwanda, stakeholder participation was limited and often focused on political elites and other influential stakeholders. However, it is important to recognize that engaging stakeholders is an on-going process, and their participation is still very important throughout the project's lifecycle. Including local communities, civil society organizations, private sector actors, and government agencies in the planning, execution, and monitoring of projects can lead to better results, more ownership, and sustainability (Ishimwe & Hategekimana, 2022). Over the years, stakeholder participation in donor-funded projects in Rwanda has changed a lot. People are becoming more aware of how important it is to work with stakeholders to ensure that development projects are successful (Ishimwe & Hategekimana, 2022).



The studies conducted in Rwanda including Amandin and Kule (2016) and other research on Rwandan projects found that poor planning, cost overruns, and delays were major factors in the failure of 65 percent of government projects between 2009 and 2012. The engagement levels and awareness among Rwandan residents regarding initiatives funded by governmental and non-governmental organizations are notably low. This has consistently led to instances where various projects in Rwanda exceed their budgetary and time allocations, and subsequently fail to meet their intended outputs, satisfy stakeholder expectations, or attain organizational objectives (Karambizi, 2023).

In Rwanda, CIP was introduced in September 2007 focusing on distribution of agricultural inputs including improved seeds, inorganic fertilizers and pesticides, coordinating delivery of agricultural extension services, support to post-harvest handling and storage facilities. The CIP in Rwanda was initially concentrating on the six crops, precisely maize, beans, cassava, rice, wheat, and Irish potato; then later included banana, soya bean and vegetables. A number of efforts of stakeholders have increased over time, from Government itself as regulator through the implementing institution, Rwanda Agriculture Board (RAB) which operates under the Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Resources, local governments' institutions such as district, sector and cell, Local government extension agents/agronomists, organized smallholders in cooperatives, individual smallholder farmers. The efforts in stakeholders' management might proportionally lead to the performance of crop intensification programme wherever it is applied to increase production and food security at large (Prete, 2019).

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Many projects often don't meet their initial cost, schedule, and satisfaction goals. In New Zealand, a study in 2017 found that only about 31% of organizations finish projects on time, 29% stay within budget, and 33% meet the original goals, and 34% satisfy stakeholders. Surprisingly, about 70% of projects end up costing more or taking longer than planned, or they don't make stakeholders happy or meet the initial goals. Project failure can happen for various reasons, with complexity being a big one. Complex projects are harder to finish and need extra effort to solve problems. Dealing with complexity requires organized approaches and the factual project management skills to get the best results (Tuan & Sherif, 2021).

Even though projects are crucial in Kenya, those carried out in Nyeri County are often not doing well, and stakeholders are regularly dissatisfied. According to the Auditor-General's report on Nyeri County's finances in 2017, 38 street lighting projects hadn't started even though the contractor was paid 10 months earlier. Similarly, 4 irrigation projects received pipes and fittings but hadn't started implementation after 10 months. Apart from 12 projects working on markets and roads, only 10 out of 41 projects done by Nyeri County from 2017 to 2019 were completed, showing a success rate of less than 25% (Gichimu & Mutuku, 2022).

Despite the point that the Government and private actors are implementing a number of activities to encourage successful project execution, low stakeholders' participation may be ascribed to poor project management cycle performance. According to the findings of prior research, many initiatives in Rwanda fail for a variety of causes, including miscommunication, a lack of supplies, and inadequate risk management. Considering the tools and strategies necessary to prevent project failure, the literature results reveal that focusing on key performance indicators, such as stakeholder participation, monitoring, and decision-making, indicates the effectiveness of project work (Mukeshimana et al. 2021).

Various studies carried out in Rwanda counting on Amandin & Kule (2016) and others found that poor planning, cost overruns, and delays were major factors in the failure of 65 percent of government projects between 2009 and 2012. The engagement levels and awareness among Rwandan residents regarding initiatives funded by governmental and non-governmental organizations are notably low. This has consistently led to instances where various projects in Rwanda exceed their budgetary and time allocations, and subsequently fail to meet their intended outputs, satisfy stakeholder expectations, or attain organizational objectives (Karambizi, 2023).

Nevertheless, no specific study was conducted to assess how stakeholders management plan was done during initiation of crop intensification programme in Ngoma district, if yes, how could it affect the CIP performance; hence, the gap in data availability. Therefore, this study intended to cover this gap by assessing the effect of stakeholders' management on CIP performance. If this study was not done the agricultural policy-makers would fail to adjust the deviations in CIP performance. But, for this research was done the results would help the agricultural top management leaders to guide and craft policies that lead to CIP performance in terms of improved land and crop productivity to move from food security to food supply in the region.

1.2 Research Objectives

The main objective of this study was to assess effect of stakeholders' management on programme performance in Rwanda. Specifically, the study aimed:



- i. To assess effect of stakeholders' identification on CIP performance in Ngoma district, Rwanda;
- ii. To examine effect of stakeholders' negotiation on CIP performance in Ngoma district, Rwanda
- iii. To find out effect of stakeholders' participation on CIP performance in Ngoma district, Rwanda
- iv. To determine effect of stakeholders' monitoring and evaluation on CIP performance in Ngoma district, Rwanda.

1.3 Research Hypotheses

H_{01} : Stakeholders' identification has no significant effect on CIP performance in Ngoma district, Rwanda;

H_{02} : Stakeholders' negotiation has no significant effect on CIP performance in Ngoma district, Rwanda;

H_{03} : Stakeholders' participation has no significant effect on CIP performance in Ngoma district, Rwanda;

H_{04} : Stakeholders' monitoring and evaluation has no significant effect on CIP performance in Ngoma district, Rwanda.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Review

For this study, the theoretical framework is a thorough look at and evaluation of the existing theories and ideas about the topic under study. It is a systematically process of analysing and putting together information from various sources in order to get a full picture of the issue.

2.1.1 Stakeholder Theory

Stakeholder theory, introduced by R. Edward Freeman in 1984, emphasizes that businesses should not solely prioritize shareholder profit but also consider the interests of various stakeholders. Scholars like Thomas Donaldson and Archie Carroll expanded on this theory, emphasizing ethical components and incorporating it into the framework of corporate social responsibility (Freeman *et al.*, 2020).

In essence, stakeholder theory suggests that companies should consider the needs of all stakeholders employees, suppliers, customers, communities, and the environment—when making decisions, not just those of shareholders. This approach aims to create value for all stakeholders, emphasizing long-term benefits for both the business and its stakeholders (Phillips & Freeman, 2021).

Jones (2021) underscores that stakeholder theory emphasizes the importance of participation and communication with stakeholders. Engaging with stakeholders and understanding their needs and concerns fosters deeper connections, building trust, loyalty, and support. Stakeholder theory is gaining prominence in contemporary business practices as organizations recognize the significance of social responsibility, sustainability, and ethical behaviour. Adopting a stakeholder-focused approach not only contributes to financial success but also generates social and environmental value for the communities served.

In the context of the researcher's study on projects and the aim to enhance stakeholder engagement, communication, decision-making, and reputation, the stakeholder theory serves as a valuable framework. A stakeholder-focused approach ensures that project outcomes align with the expectations of all stakeholders, leading to successful projects and heightened stakeholder satisfaction.

2.1.2 Goal Setting Theory

Goal Setting Theory introduced by Edwin, Locke, Gary and Latham in 1968, it has become a widely studied and applied concept across various domains, including business, education, sports, and personal development. Locke and Latham emphasize that effective goals should be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-bound (Latham & Locke, 2019). They also highlight the importance of feedback and support from supervisors and colleagues in helping individuals achieve their goals and enhance their performance.

In essence, the goal-setting theory provides a framework for managing businesses. It suggests that establishing challenging and specific goals can boost motivation, performance, and overall success. The theory posits that both individuals and teams excel when they have clear goals, fostering a sense of purpose and direction. While some critics express concerns about potential unintended consequences, such as unethical behaviour or a focus on short-term objectives over long-term goals, proponents argue that careful goal selection and management can mitigate these risks. The theory has significantly influenced management practices and remains a vital area of study in organizational behaviour (Seijts & Latham, 2020).

In the context of the researcher's project performance improvement study, the goal-setting theory serves as a valuable framework. It ensures that everyone involved in a project shares common objectives, optimizing resource utilization, fostering motivation and commitment, and encouraging responsibility and ownership.



2.1.3 Theory of Change

The Theory of Change (ToC) is an approach to management and planning that outlines the process of achieving specific goals and the necessary actions for bringing about change. While its exact origins are challenging to pinpoint, it is believed to have emerged in the 1960s within the U.S. social science community. Over recent years, the ToC has gained popularity as a valuable planning and evaluation tool, particularly in the realms of international development, social innovation, and philanthropy. This approach assists organizations and communities in clarifying their goals, identifying the required steps for achievement, and measuring progress towards desired outcomes (Connell *et al.*, 2020).

In the context of this study, the ToC is employed to plan, implement, and evaluate projects. This method proves especially beneficial for large and complex projects, where understanding the nature of changes, their reasons, and the mechanisms driving them is crucial. By utilizing the ToC method, project managers gain a deeper understanding of the project's operating environment, enabling them to formulate strategies that align more closely with the project's results and objectives.

2.2 Empirical Review

2.2.1 Stakeholders' Identification and Performance Of Project

Mazimpaka and Irechukwu (2022) studied the model villages' project in Rwanda's Rweru Sector, Bugesera District to determine importance of stakeholders' engagement on the project's long viability. Descriptive, cross-sectional and survey designs with qualitative data were employed for this study's research methodology. The first regression model used to ascertain the impact of stakeholders on project sustainability did not achieve statistical significance ($F=1.975$, $P=0.123$) in the performed regression analysis. The second project planning regression model ($F=3.465$, $P=0.02$) and the third project implementation regression model ($F=7.765$, $P=0.000$) were both determined to be statistically significant with p-values of less than 5%. Stakeholder engagement in the planning process was significantly correlated with a project's long-term viability. Based on these findings, the research advised that Bugesera District's policymakers and other project managers include stakeholder input at every step of project development.

2.2.2 Stakeholders' Negotiation and Performance of Project

Gichimu and Mututu (2022) investigated the impact of stakeholder management on project performance, specifically focusing on contract management, communication management, and conflict management in projects funded by the County Government in Nyeri County. The study, grounded in the theories of performance, expectancy, and stakeholder, reviewed related literature and targeted a population of 53 projects funded by the County Government for the years 2016/2017 and 2017/2018. The sample included 212 respondents from the general public, project officers, project staff, and contractors, selected through cluster sampling. Employing a descriptive research design, data was collected using questionnaires, and reliability and validity were assessed. SPSS software facilitated inferential and descriptive analysis, with findings indicating that all three independent variables positively and significantly influenced project performance, with communication management having the greatest impact, followed by conflict management and contract management. The study recommended increased attention to stakeholder involvement during project feasibility studies, emphasizing transparent and accountable progress reporting to stakeholders, and adopting a proactive approach to conflict resolution.

2.2.3 Stakeholders' Participation and Performance Of Project

Faustin (2017) in his research set out to learn how much of an impact stakeholder participation had on the long-term viability of Plan International's Homa Bay Town Sub-County community development programs. Descriptive statistics were employed for this study. The sample size was calculated to be 153 people, with the researcher selecting three participants from each of the 51 organizations collaborating with Plan International. The 113 participants were selected through a process of pure chance. Analysis of data was made using SPSS. A weak and minor negative correlation between beneficiaries' engagement and the long-term viability of community development initiatives was found ($r=0.043$, $p=0.666$, $CI=95\%$). Faustin (2017) suggested that in order to ensure the long-term viability of their projects, Plan International should reduce the amount of time spent on passively engaging beneficiaries', increase the amount of time spent on interactive participation, and strengthen the participation among stakeholders and promote ideal involvement.

2.2.4 Stakeholders' Monitoring and Evaluation and Performance of Project

Haider *et al.* (2021) study the association between stakeholders' engagement in Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) and project performance in Pakistan. The research emphasizes the need of integrating stakeholders at various



phases of the M&E process, as well as the importance of excellent communication and coordination among project stakeholders to achieve M&E effectiveness. They argue that incorporating stakeholder engagement into project management processes and giving incentives for participation may enhance project results. The paper provides practical advice for project managers and policymakers on how to successfully incorporate stakeholders in M&E operations to enhance project performance in Pakistan.

III. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The study used descriptive and correlation statistics to describe and analyse characteristics of a phenomenon being studied. Descriptive statistics helped to provide a clear and concise data overview from respondents, identify patterns, trends and key insights. While correlation statistics supported to examine the relationship between or among the variables of the overall model. It has also supported to assess the degree to which the changes in one variable are associated with changes in another variable.

3.2 Type and Source of Data

In this study, both primary and secondary data were used. The primary data was collected through the completed questionnaire (5-point likert scale). The basic features of respondents were recorded including gender, age, education and experience. The respondents' points of view were rated by 5-point Likert scale for the five items (stakeholders identification, stakeholders' negotiation, stakeholders' participation stakeholders' M&E, and CIP performance in Ngoma district). The secondary data was collected from Ngoma district- Section of Agriculture and natural resources, published books and articles, records of Ministry of Agriculture and Animal resources, Rwanda.

3.3 Sampling size and technique

Solvin's sample size determination formula was used to obtain a sample of 336 respondents.

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e^2)} \quad (1)$$

Where, n: is the sample size, N: is the population size and e: is the margin error with a confidence interval of 95%. The sample size obtained was 336 from the total population of 2,123 stakeholders.

3.4 Data Collection

The questionnaire was designed according to the objectives and hypotheses of the study. The secondary data was collected from Ngoma district- Section of Agriculture and natural resources, published books and articles, records of Ministry of Agriculture and Animal resources, Rwanda.

3.5 Reliability and Validity of Research Instruments

To find out the ability of the research instrument, a pilot testing was conducted one month prior to the main study to measure the appropriateness, practicality, the quality of phrasing statements to ensure a similar interpretation by the respondents in the further study. Therefore, 33 respondents were selected randomly to help establish the validity and reliability of the research instrument before the actual collection of data for the study.

3.6 Data Analysis

After data collection, data edit and coding, the data were entered into statistical software (SPSS) to be analysed through the produced results in the form of descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviation, and also with the tables of correlation coefficients of the variables.

3.7 Ethical considerations

Before the field study done, the University of Kigali, School of graduate studies approved the no-harm content in the study for safety and contribution to the society and provided the letter of support. The respondents were requested to read and sign a key informant agreement letter in order to make a decisive option of participating in the research. Moreover, privacy and confidentiality of research information would be maintained to protect identity, ideas and thoughts of the respondents.

IV. FINDINGS & DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

The distribution of respondents' Likert scale ratings for various propositions was shown using the mean, and the standard deviation.

**Table 1***Stakeholders' Identification and CIP Performance in Ngoma District*

| Statement n=336 | Mean | Std. dev. |
|--|-------------|------------------|
| Stakeholders' awareness was enforced to identify Individuals working in CIP activities to be invited during planning and setting goals of each agricultural season. | 4.55 | 0.606 |
| Inclusivity of identification facilitated individuals working in CIP activities to be given place and time to state their needs and expectation per agricultural season. | 4.32 | 0.543 |
| Accuracy of stakeholder planning was enforced during each agricultural seasonal planning for individuals cultivating at least one of the crops under CIP. | 3.99 | 0.803 |
| Accuracy of stakeholder planning was given priority during implementation, monitoring and control of each CIP activities for individuals who completed CIP trainings. | 3.87 | 1.001 |
| Stakeholder Influence Perception was given consideration in the process of CIP evaluation for individuals who completed trainings in agribusiness projects. | 4.05 | 0.775 |
| Stakeholder Influence Perception encouraged that every CIP activities to be assigned to the specific trained groups of stakeholders. | 41.93 | 1.002 |
| Overall Mean and Standard Deviation | 3.79 | 0.788 |

The findings show that participants in the study expressed agreement with the assertion that stakeholders' identification has an effect on CIP performance in Ngoma district. This is evident from the relatively high overall mean and standard deviation values of 3.79 and 0.788 respectively. It indicates the general positive agreement among the respondents with heterogeneous responses.

The findings are consistent with Caldwell and Usadolo (2016) study revealed that in a participatory development project, stakeholders' identification should be prioritized as an important process to identify partners who will support in the exploration of the expected development challenges. Menoka, (2014) sees stakeholders' identification as a vital process to predict the divergent expectations from various stakeholders' right from the initial stages of the project.

Stakeholder theory indicates that adopting a stakeholders' identification not only contributes to the project financial success but also generates social and environmental value for the members of communities being served (Phillips & Freeman, 2021). It ensures that project outcomes align with the expectations of all stakeholders, leading to successful projects and heightened stakeholder satisfaction.

Table 2*Stakeholders' Negotiation and CIP Performance in Ngoma District*

| Statement n=336 | Mean | Std. dev. |
|--|-------------|------------------|
| Stakeholder Flexibility facilitated farmers for the choice of the size of land to be used per each type of crop per agricultural season. | 3.74 | 0.949 |
| Stakeholder Flexibility allowed farmers to decide on which type of crop under CIP to be cultivated per agricultural season. | 4.02 | 0.848 |
| Level of Conflict Resolution during planning, execution, and M&E of the CIP activities is significantly high and effective. | 4.29 | 0.643 |
| Level of Conflict Resolution create conducive environment that calms the negative reactions of stakeholders. | 4.27 | 0.599 |
| Stakeholder Feedback Integration reflected input and concerns of various CIP stakeholders. | 4.08 | 0.636 |
| Stakeholder Feedback Integration considered goals-oriented activities as important inputs during farming seasonal planning. | 4.09 | 0.731 |
| Overall Mean and Standard Deviation | 4.08 | 0.731 |

The findings show that participants in the study expressed a strong positive agreement with the assertion that stakeholders' negotiation has an effect on CIP performance in Ngoma district, with the composite mean and standard deviation of 4.08 and 0.731 respectively. This indicates a general positive agreement among respondents with heterogeneous responses.

Sheikh (2010) study found out that the management of development projects or programmes must incorporate stakeholders' points of view to ensure effective implementation that requires at least the minimum stakeholders' efforts and that responds to their needs or expectations. His study also revealed that poor people in the communities are rarely or not at all included during project initiation, planning and/or implementation, they are dominated by those



with strong socio-economic and/or political background. The study done by the Asian Development Bank (2011) revealed that excluding the points of view from one or other part of the stakeholders during project initiation, planning and execution limit the alternatives to addressing problems, constrain benefit distribution and restrict the attainment of the desired outcomes of the project.

The Theory of Change would apply in this study as long as it assists communities in clarifying their goals, identifying the required steps for achievement, and measuring progress towards desired outcomes (Connell et al., 2020). Also, with this theory, management of people, listening to their needs and expectations and planning accordingly helps to outline the process of achieving specific goals and the necessary actions for bringing about change for the common welfare.

Table 3
Stakeholders' Participation and CIP Performance in Ngoma District

| Statement n=336 | Mean | Std. dev |
|---|-------------|--------------|
| Active participation of stakeholders during CIP farming activities is significantly high. | 2.11 | 0.908 |
| Active participation among the stakeholders is a self-made commitment. | 4.17 | 0.679 |
| Access to relevant information about the CIP activities and goals is easily reachable for stakeholders to work accordingly. | 4.12 | 0.685 |
| Access to relevant information enabled stakeholders to have the necessary information to make informed decisions over the series of agricultural seasons. | 4.27 | 0.863 |
| With the mechanisms of Stakeholder Empowerment, CIP empowers stakeholders to actively engage in farming project decisions. | 4.82 | 0.66 |
| Stakeholders actively contribute in terms of ideas, resources and effort to the significant performance of the CIP. | 4.87 | 0.395 |
| Overall Mean and Standard Deviation | 4.05 | 0.698 |

The findings show that the participant in the study expressed agreement with the assertion that stakeholders' participation has an effect on CIP performance in Ngoma district, Rwanda, with mean score value of 4.05 and standard deviation of 0.698.

Nankoris and Gakuu (2019) study sees that stakeholders' participation also known as participatory development is critical especially for the countries aligning national development plans to their visions and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). To implement the plan, there must be a project team and other resources to achieve the goals and meet the needs or expectations of the project's recipients. The project team should ensure that all project stakeholders obtain the necessary information on time (Meredith & Mantel, 2019).

In the context of the researcher's project performance improvement study, the goal-setting theory serves as a valuable framework. It assures that everyone involved in a project shares common objectives, optimizing resource utilization, fostering motivation and commitment, and encouraging responsibility and ownership. Daniel (2021) investigated the link between the project performance and active engagement of the stakeholders involved in Kirehe's community-based watershed management. The study's findings indicate a positive correlation between community involvement and KWAMP's performance.

Table 4
Stakeholders' M&E and CIP Performance in Ngoma District

| Statement n=336 | Mean | Std. dev |
|--|-------------|--------------|
| Monitoring and evaluation sessions for the CIP farming activities were regularly conducted. | 2.44 | 1.159 |
| Monitoring and evaluation sessions empowered smallholder farmers to make self-evaluation at the end of each season. | 1.99 | 0.969 |
| Accuracy and reliability of the data collected during monitoring and evaluation reflect the insights of CIP farming conditions. | 4.49 | 0.632 |
| Accuracy and reliability of the data produced from monitoring and evaluation is valid from one farming season to another. | 3.65 | 0.956 |
| Share reports with stakeholders in a timely manner improved their engagement and performance in CIP farming activities. | 4.07 | 0.617 |
| The process to inform decision-making and project adjustments is based on the perceptions gained from monitoring and evaluation. | 4.74 | 0.496 |
| Overall Mean and Standard Deviation | 3.56 | 0.805 |



The findings show that the participants in the study expressed agreement with the assertion that stakeholders' participation has an effect on CIP performance in Ngoma district, with the overall mean of 3.56 which is high and standard deviation of 0.805 which indicates heterogeneous responses among respondents.

Haider *et al.* (2021) study emphasizes the need of integrating stakeholders at various phases of the M&E process, and prioritizes the importance of excellent communication and coordination among project stakeholders to achieve M&E effectiveness. Hinton *et al.* (2018) study at how the Savelugu Nanton Municipality Assembly (GH), involved its stakeholders in monitoring and evaluating its programmes and projects, found that stakeholders at the community level had a negative view of M&E because they were rarely involved in the M&E of the projects and programmes. The study of Singh and Kaur (2021) analysed how including project stakeholders in M&E improves outcomes in India.

The theory of change proposes that in order to guarantee the effect of stakeholders' M&E, the project should emphasize the need for clear and consistent communication and coordination among project stakeholders. Haider *et al.* (2021) study the association between stakeholders' engagement in Monitoring and Evaluation and project performance in Pakistan. The study recommends that incorporating stakeholder engagement into project management processes and giving incentives for participation enhance project performance.

Table 5

CIP Performance in Ngoma District

| Statement n=336 | Mean | Std. dev |
|---|------------|--------------|
| Stakeholders' management contributed to an effective implementation of CIP activities. | 4.15 | 0.698 |
| Stakeholders' management influenced the ability to meet the timeline of CIP activities per each farming season. | 4.01 | 0.969 |
| Stakeholders' management impacted cost efficiency and resource allocation for CIP farming activities. | 1.97 | 1.143 |
| Implementation of the CIP farming activities is as per quality standards intended. | 2.09 | 1.191 |
| Stakeholders involved in the CIP farming activities due to effective negotiation process. | 4.14 | 0.79 |
| Stakeholders' management contribute to the expected CIP performance. | 4.53 | 0.603 |
| Overall Mean and Standard Deviation | 3.5 | 0.899 |

The results show that the participants in the study expressed agreement with the assertion on performance of Crop intensification programme in Ngoma district, Rwanda, with the overall mean core of 3.50 and standard deviation of 0.899.

The findings align with Shenhar and Dvir's (2017) emphasis on project performance, particularly in how it is defined and measured. Shenhar and Dvir highlight traditional criteria like meeting time, cost, and scope constraints as key aspects of project performance. Also, the findings are consistent with the study of Ndegwa *et al.* (2017) who found that the public participation influences the project lifecycle of the public funded projects.

4.2 Inferential Statistics

For this study, inferential statistics play a crucial role in the study of hypothesis testing by enabling researchers to draw conclusions that cannot be derived from descriptive statistics.



Table 6
Regression Model of the Factors Affecting the CIP Performance in Ngoma District

| Model Summary | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|---------|-------------------|
| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate | | |
| 1 | 0.846 | 0.768 | 0.762 | 0.17500 | | |
| ANOVA ^a | | | | | | |
| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
| 1 | Regression | 27.694 | 4 | 6.923 | 120.299 | .000 ^b |
| | Residual | 18.867 | 331 | 0.057 | | |
| | Total | 46.561 | 335 | | | |
| Regression Coefficients ^a | | | | | | |
| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 4.544 | 0.677 | | 6.712 | 0.001 |
| | Stakeholders' Identification | 0.749 | 0.077 | 0.716 | 9.727 | 0.002 |
| | Stakeholders' Negotiation | 0.562 | 0.172 | 0.539 | 3.267 | 0.011 |
| | Stakeholders' Participation | 0.653 | 0.182 | 0.627 | 3.590 | 0.006 |
| | Stakeholders' M&E | 0.715 | 0.162 | 0.685 | 4.413 | 0.0014 |

Predictors: (Constant), Stakeholders' Identification, Stakeholders' Negotiation, Stakeholders' Participation, Stakeholders' M&E, Dependent Variable: CIP Performance.

Source: Author's computation, 2024

Table 6 presents the findings for the regression analysis. The model included Outcome variable and predictors such as stakeholders' identification, stakeholders' negotiation, stakeholders' participation and stakeholders' M&E. The R value of 0.846 indicates a strong positive relationship between the predictors and the outcome variable (CIP performance). The R Square value of 0.768 indicates that approximately 76.8% of the variability in the outcome variable can be explained by the predictors in the model.

The F-statistic of 120.229 indicates the results of an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the regression model. The associated significance level (Sig.) denoted as 0.000 is less than the typical significance threshold of 0.05. This implies that the overall model of four predictors and an outcome is statistically significant. In simpler terms, there is strong evidence to assume that at least one of the predictors in the model has a significant effect on the dependent variable, CIP performance in Ngoma district.

The findings were supported by Belbin's (2019) emphasis on project stakeholder management by demonstrating that identification, participation, negotiation and M&E of stakeholders collectively play a significant role in explaining Project performance variance, reinforcing the idea of the crucial role of stakeholders' involvement.

The results of significance test indicate stakeholders' identification (p=0.002), stakeholders' negotiation (p=0.011), stakeholders' participation (p=0.006), and stakeholders' M&E (p=0.014). These variables were all significant at p<0.05 and 95% confidence level. A beta value of 0.716 indicates that a unit increase of stakeholders' identification contributed to 71.6% increase in CIP performance; a beta value of 0.539 indicates that a unit increase of stakeholders' negotiation contributed to 53.9% increase in CIP performance; a beta value of 0.627 indicates that a unit increase of stakeholders' participation contributed to 62.7% increase in CIP performance; a beta value of 0.685 indicates that a unit increase of stakeholders' M&E contributed to 68.5% increase in CIP performance. All these coefficients are statistically significant, as indicated by their associated Sig. values below 0.05.

The findings were supported by Kerzner's (2021) emphasis on project stakeholders' management, where he highlighted the individual contributions of stakeholders' identification, stakeholders' negotiation, stakeholders' participation and stakeholders' M&E as the strong predictors of Project performance that align with Kerzner's focus on team dynamics and motivation in achieving project performance and success.

V. CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

This study that aimed at assessing effect of stakeholders' management on CIP performance used the SPSS-version 27 to analyze the data that were collected using stratified random sampling for 336 respondents. The findings of the study show that stakeholders' identification, stakeholders' negotiation, stakeholders' participation and



stakeholders' M&E have both strong positive relationship and significant effect with and on CIP performance in Ngoma district, Rwanda.

5.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, it is evident that there is a need to employ strategic methods for stakeholders' negotiation to improve the level of stakeholders' involvement. The study would like to recommend the government agencies preferably the MINAGRI, RAB, local governments, to develop effective negotiation approaches that encourage farmers to work with and for the CIP to increase the agricultural production.

Based on the findings of the study, even though CIP stakeholders understand the benefit of market-oriented farming under the CIP, many of them do not recognize the effect of consistent good agricultural practices on farming production. Therefore, the study recommends that the monitoring and evaluation mechanisms should be effectively developed and consistently assisted to maintain both land and crop productivity.

The study findings revealed that there is a need for community awareness about stakeholders' negotiation and M&E. This would help to set a level of possible negotiation and level of involvement in monitoring and evaluation to make sure that the right number people from various categories of stakeholders with different skills and knowledge are integrated in the decision analysis and decision-making processes.

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The Church and Violence During Multiparty Elections in Kenya from 1992 to 2017

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ABSTRACT

Violence fastened with the passion of religion predominantly continues cloaking the world at an alarming rate because violence does not only belong to everyone but it is also at the heart of the consecrated. It is no surprise therefore that violence in Kenya recurs virtually during every election resulting into polarization and tensions along religious and ethnic affiliations or both. The purpose of this paper was to examine the relationship between the Church and violence during multiparty politics in Kenya. This paper analyzed the role the church played in specific violent events during multiparty politics since 1992 up to 2017 in Kenya. In this regard the study responded to the question; what was the role of the church in the violent events during elections in multiparty politics since 1992 in Kenya? To answer this question the study investigated the role of the church in the specific violence which occurred during elections in 1992, 1997, 2002, 2007, 2013 and 2017 election years in Kenya inferring that their roles influenced the occurrence of violence from time to time. The study was conducted through qualitative research method using historical research designs. The study established that the churches in Kenya played various roles in the violence; some of the churches kept quiet as violence flourished in their areas of jurisdiction because they conceived it as punitive and ungodly and in that way, they were in coordinated efforts; while some other churches condoned and extenuated circumstances that led to violent acts because they had a passive attitude towards the government authority having been part and parcel of it in calling for social changes; whereas some churches were not only complicit but endorsed and exhorted violence particularly by blessing youth warriors before going to fight in ethnic violence, believing that it was their religious duty to extirpate injustices and subdue evil in the sinful world using strategic acts of violence as necessary means of deterring large acts of violence and that they had the divine authority to legitimize violence so as to uproot the political evils bedeviling Kenya. In view of all these, the study concluded that the churches were metaphysically, morally, politically and criminally culpable for the violence during multiparty politics in Kenya. Consequently the study maintains that the church in Kenya, like it is with religion in general, is intrinsically violent in the version of a raging cosmic battle between "order" and "disorder" akin to the cosmic war theory as advanced by Mark Juergensmeyer. Often it is the boundary between 'this world' and the 'other world' that is blurred by church during electioneering period so that the supposedly cosmic battle becomes a real war when people shed real blood and die. The study recommends that it is important to understand the dynamics of the roles played in violence by other religious organization in multi religious nations like Kenya. The degree to which other faiths influence political views in Kenya with regard to election violence is critical. The issue of how the church can mitigate against the cyclic political violence in Kenya kept on evocating in the study. It is important to understand the remedies that the church can put in place to alleviate violence during elections in Kenya.

Keywords: Church, Elections, Political Authority, Violence

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Religion frequently provides the philosophy, thought, creed, beliefs and organizational structures that serve as the stimulants and driving force for violent perpetrators. This is because, at some point in history, every major religious tradition, including Christianity, Judaism, Islam, Hinduism, Sikhism, and Buddhism, has functioned as resource for violent actors, resulting in escalating bloodshed between religious activists and government security systems (Juergensmeyer, M., 2003; p xii-xiii &5). Hence religion and violence become intricate relatives.



Racial and religious affiliations act as the motivational force behind the political differences and divisions. This perception is reiterated by Kazin, M., Edwards, R., & Rothman, A. (2011, Eds.) in “Religion and Politics in America since 1945”, when they demonstrate that the political divisions in the American politics generally and between the political parties of the Democrats and the Republicans particularly, is affiliated to the Church along denominational lines of Catholicism and Protestantism. The authors further argue that political activities including voting during elections in America are done on the basis of racial and religious affiliations with the church leadership subjecting American political aspirants to religious questions (Kazin, M., Edwards, R., & Rothman, A. (2011, 445-459). This then points to the mutual interdependence between religion and politics regardless of their constitutional separation henceforth making political states to remain both very secular and very religious.

In human communities, religion and politics are inextricably linked and intertwined. Marsden, L., and Savigny, S., (2009) describe how difficult it is to divorce religion from politics or the church from the state in relation to this issue. They illustrate this opinion using the Vatican as both a political and a religious entity that has at different time exerted political influence on the world politics, foreign policy and diplomacy. It has also exerted religious power and influence by using the Vatican radio. This suggests that it is indeed difficult to separate politicians from the clergy. This to some extent may explain the inability of the clergy to engage and resolve political conflicts.

In modern democratic governments, neither religion nor the state has total authority over the other. This interpretation was articulated through political experimentation in the fourth century, during the reign of Emperor Constantine of the Roman Empire, when civil authority was subordinated to religious authority and Christendom, and there was a rejection of absolute power, whether civil or religious.

Therefore religion, democracy, and state secularity coexisted, but with distinct settlements. This is why, despite the French revolution's attempt to subjugate the Catholic Church to the nation and the United States' attempt to achieve separation of religion and politics, they remained largely bound by religions, whereas in Britain, a compromise between religion and politics resulted in a weakened monarchy and a well-established Church. This explains why, in the twenty-first century, the relationship between religions and the secular states, as well as debates about the role of religion in politics and public life, have resurfaced in a variety of contexts. Hurd, I., (2008; p. 1) confirms this, observing that religion in politics is frequently influenced by a notable secular bias, as well as widespread acceptance of the secularist separation of religion and politics in the public arena.

Freedom in exercising religious worship, beliefs and other practices is a constitutional human right that is upheld by many democratic states. However when religious freedom is unchecked and recklessly practiced, it can easily spill to violent acts in the light of self-determination. Martin, J., (2007) emphasizes this defiance, claiming that democratic states are defined by an open conflict between national elements of the political order of liberty, human rights, peace, and justice and a resurgence of the spirit of hatred and violence, as well as its justification and promotion via ostensibly religious means and justifications. As a result, on a national and global scale, violent religious activity is seen as one of the twenty-first century's mega-problems (Martin, J., 2007).

Even when apart from politics, religion can be brutal. The separation of church and state, according to Casanova, J. (2011) does not always lead to peace. He uses the example of the era from 1914 and 1989 in Europe, which was the most violent and brutal in ages, yet the church and the state were kept separate (Casanova, J., 2011: Pg. 70). When religion is divorced from secularization, it poses a significant menace to the public. This is verified by Mavelli, L. (2012) who claims that when the process of secularization is utilized as a mechanism to stop conflict to the extent that security is implicitly associated with secularization, religion is projected as a threat to internal and foreign security (Mavelli, L., 2012: p. 177-178).

The citizenry suffer when church supports state executed violence. In Uganda when the Anglican Church participated and supported the state violence leading to the overthrowing of Milton Obote in 1971 and welcoming the administration of Idi Amin, state terror was unleashed. Archbishop Janani Luwuna was assassinated in 1977 and thousands of other people were killed and displaced from their homes with many others running to the neighboring countries as refugees (Gitari, D. M.; 1996, p. 91 & 96).

During President Daniel Arap Moi's (1978-2002) presidency, the African Inland Church (AIC) participated in making government policies and initiatives in Kenya. During this time the civil society was repressed, forcing professional organizations, political opposition and some other religious organizations (not affiliated to Moi's government) to act as government's watchdog, criticizing the regime's excesses. For example, the Catholic Church, the Kenyan Anglican church, the East African Presbyterian Church, and the Islamic Party of Kenya (IPK) all rejected the one party-system and desired a more open political arena (Ndzovu, H., 2009, p.2).

The following direct events illustrate the link between the church and violence during Kenya's electioneering period: On January 1, 2008, the post-election violence in Kiambaa, Eldoret, people hiding in Kenya Assemblies church (KAC) were attacked resulting into the deaths of twenty eight people; on Wednesday, January 2, 2008, post-election

violence in the Mathare slum in Nairobi, Kenya, resulted in the death of two hundred and seventy-five people, most of whom were burned alive in a church where they had gone to hide and on Monday, October 5, 2020, violence erupted at the African Independent Pentecostal Church (AIPC) in Kenol, Murang'a County, Kenya, where then deputy president of the Republic of Kenya, Mr. William Ruto, and other political officials had gone to fundraise for the AIPC church. Reportedly two people were killed in the incident, while several more were injured.

Religious and political opposition leaders struggled in the call for multi-party democracy in Kenya with some church clergy engaging not only in public debates but also in violent street demonstrations in an effort to appeal for political liberation and freedom in Kenya. The demand for multi-party democracy in Kenya finally bore fruits on 19th of December, 1991, when the National Assembly of Kenya annulled the controversial Section 2 A of the then Constitution. President Daniel Arap Moi's Kenya African National Union (KANU) government bowed to internal and international pressure on multiparty politics at the time hoping that with its re-emergence there would be peace without a series of bloody street demonstrations and picketing that marked the sun set period of 1990s (Brown J. S., & Duguid, P., 2001; Kapinde, S., 2015).

Moi, on the other hand, had cemented his authority through a single party, the Kenya African National Union, prior to the resumption of multi-party politics. With the reintroduction of multi party democracy, Kenyans moved to ethnic politics, perfecting it through corruption, clientelism, and patronage, which served as a predisposing factor for violence in the succeeding electioneering seasons. Kenyan politicians have been renowned for their willingness to use violence when they deem it is required believing the purpose justifies the means (Kapinde, S., 2015). Nevertheless, Kenyans applauded the introduction of multiparty politics in 1991, believing it signaled the start of a new, democratic Kenya, where citizens could govern themselves peacefully according to their democratic constitution.

This new democratic Kenya, however, was now confronted with a number of critical issues that must be handled. The cyclic violence is thus likely to be a disease that threatens to tear apart the civil society, democracy, moral life and possibly the whole of Kenya as a country. Multi-party politics and elections have been marred by violence almost in every democracy. Indeed this history seems to repeat itself when it comes to multiparty politics and elections in Kenya. For instance according to Robert M. P., (1992), in "Tribal clashes in Kenya continue", at least one thousand people were killed while over two hundred thousand people were displaced in the 1992 general elections (Robert M. P., 1993).

According to Leigham, S., (2017) in *Kenya's history of political violence*, there was violence in 1997 general elections in which one hundred and four people were killed while about ten thousand people were internally displaced. In the year 2002 general election violence was unleashed by different dreaded militia groups such as *Mungiki*; a militia associated with Agikuyu ethnic community, who were supporting the Uhuru succession of KANU, the *Taliban*; a militia associated with the Jalu ethnic community and *chinkororo*; a militia associated with the Abagusii ethnic community who were supporting the National Alliance Rainbow coalition (NARC); a multi-ethnic alliance through which former third president of Kenya – Mwai Kibaki contested. In 2007 general elections violence broke out again when the re-election of president Kibaki was contested by Raila Odinga leading to the infamous post-2007'08 election violence (PEV) in which about one thousand and three hundred people were estimated to be killed and over six hundred and fifty thousand people were displaced in the 2007/8 PVE. The violence was experienced chiefly in the rift valley, Nyanza and central Kenya regions (Leigham S., 2017).

In Kenya's multi-party political democracy, the 2010 Constitution established a devolved system of administration. In the devolved system of government there were multi-layered contests (at Counties and National levels) during 2013 general electioneering periods in which pockets of violence were experienced in different counties. The presidential contest between Uhuru Kenyatta and Raila Amolo Odinga at national level set off violence in areas such as Nyanza where the Jalu ethnic group attacked the Agikuyu for supporting Uhuru; in central Kenya where the Agikuyu attacked the Jalu, the Nandi and the Abaluhya ethnic communities for supporting Raila. In the Rift Valley, violence was also experienced between the Kalenjins and the non-kalenjin ethnic groups who live in the region (Leigham S., 2017).

In the 2017 general elections there was further violence. This was as a result of the declaration of Uhuru Kenyatta as the winner of 2017 presidential elections. Nairobi, Coast, Western, Kisumu, Siaya, Migori, and Homabay counties were some of the areas affected by the violence. According to the Kenya Human Rights Commission (KHRC), at least twenty-four individuals were slain and women were raped on the 12th of August, 2017.

In these general elections, some of the church leaders identified, campaigned and supported political camps and leaders from their ethnic communities by not only openly giving prophecies of who would win the elections but also anointing their favorite candidates in the churches to signify that they had been chosen by God. This to a large extent motivated the violence which occurred either during or after the elections (<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/277852937> accessed on 4/5/2019). In this way the faithful were psychosocially brain washed to believe that the anointed persons were God chosen and must win the elections. In the



event the anointed persons lost in the elections or complained about the election outcome, the faithful (of the church which anointed person/s) perceived it as an evil and stood in solidarity anointed leader demanding for justice through violence.

In the history of the violence which wedges Kenya during every multiparty general electioneering periods from 1992 up to 2017, the spirit of national unity and nationhood (which is anchored in the 2010 Kenyan constitutional value systems) is not only fundamentally undermined but also at stake. This insinuates that Kenyans remain vulnerable not only to insecurity, killings, beatings; rape, and displacements but also losing their properties through destruction among other violations of human rights. So far, there is a concern about the problematic interaction between the church, violence and politics during multiparty electioneering periods in Kenya. The study was well aware that discussing the church in the context of violence would bring up a slew of other dimensions and effects of religion that are often overlooked or dismissed outright; but the contribution that the church can make to violence in Kenya, needs to be surveyed and elucidated by scholars. This study therefore investigates the role played by the local churches in the violence during multiparty general elections in Kenya since 1992 to 2017.

1.2 Statement of the problem

In the popular thought, church brings peace and carries colossal aptitude and power for healing, restoration and hope. However credible and renowned scholars have surveyed and elucidated that church is equally capable to stimulate intoxicating acts of violence in human society by supplying the philosophy, the thought, the creed, the beliefs and the organizational structures which act as the stimulus and the driving force for the perpetrators of acts of violence. As a result religiously motivated violence continues to engage the world at alarming rates.

In Kenya for instance, the amorphous relationship between the church and multiparty politics has continued to fuel violence which cloaks the nation during every other electioneering period. This situation demands for an urgent solution or else violence will remain polarizing to the nation of Kenya and most likely split it into irreparable status along lines of ethnicity and economic stratification as ramified by religion. The frequency and severity of violent outbursts in Kenya endanger the country's political stability while also exposing deep social and economic divisions. While Kenya's grievances and tensions are complex and historical in origin, religious-political violence has a detrimental effect on the country's social and economic growth and development, eroding good gains, impeding progress, and causing pain and suffering to its residents.

The main problem of this study was to examine the relationship between the Church and violence during multiparty Politics in Kenya from 1992 to 2017. To this end the study asked, what was the relationship between the local churches and violence during multiparty politics in Kenya from 1992 to 2017?

1.3 Study objectives

The study's objective was to investigate the role played by the local churches in the specific violent events during multiparty general elections in Kenya since 1992 to 2017.

1.4 Research Question

The study responded to the following research question; what role did the local churches play in the violence during multiparty political general elections in Kenya from 1992 to the 2017?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by the "Cosmic war" and the 'Just war' theories which were complementary. The contemporary proponent who have developed and applied these theories is Juergensmeyer, M., (2003, Eds.).

Cosmic war theory is an imagined conflict between metaphysical forces of good and evil; right and wrong; order and chaos; that underpins several instances of religious-related violence in the modern world. This transcendental spiritual imagery has been implanted into the social and political landscape, transforming everyday worldly struggle into a divine encounter. Each religious tradition, including Christianity, Islam, and others, incorporates pictures of great conflicts associated with divinity.

Cosmic war theory as advanced by Mark Juergensmeyer holds that violence is intrinsically bound to all religions. The logic that supports this position is the argument that religious language is often about the tension between 'orders' and 'disorders' that easily translates into violence. Thus there exists an intrinsic appeal of war to religious internal self understanding similar to that generally found in the internal logic of warfare. It is this intrinsic appeal of



war that is often exploited by members of the church when they place religious images of divine struggles in the service of world political battles as is the case during the electioneering periods in Kenya

The idea of "just war" is concerned with the justification for war and the manner in which it must be fought in accordance with the moral norms governing individual or collective behavior. Thus, this theory is about a moral reflection on the war's objectives and tactics, beginning with an ethical understanding of human relationships. The "just war" hypothesis is valid only the following given *jus ad bellum* conditions: - must be declared "just" by a legitimate authority responsible for public order, not by some individuals or private groups; those who wage war must have "just" intentions; the war's outcome must be peace and nothing else; all other peaceful means of resolving the conflict must be exhausted (including diplomacy); those who wage war must have reasonable chances of victory. During a conflict, the "jus in bello" regulations of conduct must adhere to the principles of discrimination and proportionality.

Discrimination is the process of segregating fighters from noncombatants such as innocent people, civilians, women, children, and prisoners. The "jus in bello" principle necessitates that warring parties bear responsibility for their actions. They are prohibited from assassinating civilians or fighters who surrender. The idea of proportionality implies that violence's ancillary repercussions and direct impacts on physical property or human life be minimized. The notion is that the conflict must end before it devolves into a slaughter.

In applying cosmic war theory, Juergensmeyer, M., maintains that all religions are intrinsically bound by violence. He claims that the religious language about tension between order and disorder easily translates to religious violence. Religion's inherent lure to conflict is twisted by violent criminals, who always use religious symbols of heavenly struggle to advance worldly political struggles. As a result, acts of religious violence function as blueprints for political agendas and as harbingers of far greater spiritual clashes. Consequently the Christians have developed regressive interpretation of the biblical scriptures drawn from particular sections that support violent actions hence justifying violence.

According to Juergensmeyer, M., (2003: 25–26), just war theory has been used to legitimize abusive political military interventions and brutal persecutions of heterodox and minority populations when proportionality and legitimacy are met. This is what prompted Thomas Aquinas to restate that war is always immoral, even though it is fought for a worthy cause on occasion. However, the just war theory remains the cornerstone of Christian view of the moral use of violence today. Some contemporary Christian theologians have extended the just war theory to liberation theology to the point where the church endorses just revolution by bloodshed.

Juergensmeyer, M., demonstrates the applicability of just war theory to twentieth-century social battles by connecting the concept to what he views as the Christian need to uphold social justice. He analyzes the world through a realism lens and finds that moral persuasion alone is insufficient to confront social injustice, even more so when it is backed up by cooperation and political force. And it is for this reason that he pushes for the renunciation of nonviolence (peace) in favor of a more coercive option. He leans on Augustine's theory of original sin to argue that religious power is occasionally essential to eradicate injustice and control evil in a sinful world. Additionally, he argues that modest planned acts of violence are occasionally required to dissuade larger acts of violence. Regardless of this position and perception, he appeals that it is important to use violence sparingly, swiftly and as skillfully as the knife of a surgeon.

A contemporary assessment of St. Augustine's principal elements in the just war theory has also been offered by John Langan, S.J. (1984). He contends that a component of the just war theory, or an inherent element of the just war tradition, may be used to describe Christian doctrine on the justification for war and its limitations. A unique aspect of just war theory is based on the long and rich history of conflict. Langan argues that a significant portion of the just war tradition is still employed to explain some of the most perplexing issues (such as violence or conflict) that confront human beings and members of a free political society. When seen historically rather than directly, the Christian history contains crusaders and conquistadors, monarchs and knights, rebels and sheriffs. It should be stressed, however, that equating the church's teaching and experience alone with this theory or strategy would be a mistake, especially in the instance of Roman Catholicism, the church with the oldest and most formal association with just war doctrine.

Christians have historically applied both the just war tradition and philosophy to the problem of violence. However, such a claim may not be entirely accurate; on the one hand, there is a long and significant tradition of Christian pacifism, both as a theological position and as a mode of Christian witness in a world filled with the sorrows and crimes associated with war; on the other hand, there have been instances of violence for which a special religious blessing has been sought or granted. It should be acknowledged that there has also been a recurring mingling of religious and military principles in ways that frequently surpass limitations imposed by Just war on the use of violence.

Nonetheless, a just war perspective on the issue of violence is not exclusive to Christians. The just war method has its origins in Cicero's teachings, as well as in natural law and Greek philosophy's legal and moral theory. However the continued use of this theory in the contemporary works of Michael Walzer and Juergensmeyer, M., (2003), does not



only make it relevant but serves as a source of wealth material from which this study heavily borrowed and applied as a resource for reflection.

However, the study selected particular element of the Just war theory which it used. These elements included the use of divine authorization of war to justify the involvement of Christians (also referred to as the Church in this study) in acts of violence. Thus, it is divine sanction that renders violent behavior, whether undertaken or anticipated, commendable rather than indifferent or justifiable. Other aspects of just war theory which the study espoused in explaining the variables were; relating the social-political struggles to the Christian requirement to fulfill social justice especially when moral suasion is not sufficient to combat social injustice particularly when they are bolstered by politics and state power; the Christian advocating for abandonment of non-violence in favor of a more forceful solution; the Christian religious duty to extirpate injustices and subdue evil in the sinful world using strategic acts of violence as necessary means of deterring large acts of violence and the Christian passive attitude to authority and social change.

This study also applied Biblical texts in seeking for sacred justification for violence on the basis of protecting the freedom and the interests of the individuals or the Kenyan community and in this way; the role of the church was justified in relation to violence in multiparty elections in Kenya. Both of these elements were applied in drawing parallels between the preservation of order and peace in Kenya by the church through use or call for violence.

Cosmic war theory was used in examining how the religious language about tension between order and disorder; good and bad; or God and Satan and the transcendental spiritual images; were used in fighting invisible barbarianism through preaching the gospel; prayers; and praise and worship of God with the aim of establishing peace and harmony among Kenyans by calling for the elimination of social-political; religio-political and economic evils in Kenya and how they were implanted onto the social and political scene, magnifying ordinary conflicts translating them into religio-political violent actions.

2.2 Empirical Review

Juergensmeyer, M., (2003) in *Terror in the Mind of God; The Global Rise of Religious Violence*, holds that religion is innately rough and violent. The author examines the odd fascination and dark connection between religion and violence and further investigates how recent acts of terrorism and violence emerge from the cultures of religion. The author explains why religion is related and connected to acts of terror and violence virtually everywhere in the context of global social and political changes arguing that despite religion providing the mores and symbols that contribute to bloodsheds, destructive acts of violence and terrorism, religious barbarism can be explained and justified by other means in some cases.

Juergensmeyer, M., (2003) questions why religion is identified and associated with dreadful and vicious demonstrations practically all over contending that religious brutality is used as a symbol of strength by desperate communities and other frantic networks. Juergensmeyer exhibits this view by specifically depicting public demonstrations of savagery which have been roused, defended and coordinated by various religious worldviews. In his depiction he explains the insight views of the individuals who execute and support brutality. He does this with the fundamental aim of understanding why fierce demonstrations are related with religious causes and their ethical legitimization. The author likewise contends that religion significantly supports violence since it provides images of cosmic war and ethical support that allow activists of violence to kill believing that they are waging spiritual war or scenario.

To show this, he gives instances of deadly religious savage episodes, for example, the attack of World Trade Center and the Pentagon on September 11, 2001; the emergence of religious savagery among conservative Christians in the US of America; the furious Muslims and Jews in Middle East; the quarrelling Hindus and Muslims in south Asia; the native religious networks in Africa and Indonesia. He pays attention to the fact that people engaged with these demonstrations of brutality depend on religion in giving political characters and in giving permit to wrathful philosophies. Juergensmeyer predominantly gathers information on religious brutal episodes through interviews with culprits and allies of these demonstrations.

In drawing models from religions like Christianity, Judaism, Islam, Hinduism, Sikhism, Buddhism, Juergensmeyer mentions an observable fact that every significant religious tradition is brutal and has supplied entertainers of savage actions and philosophies which work as elective perspectives of public order in the worldwide political tricks and in the new severe worldwide economic depressions. To clarify this point, he draws confirmation from local army gatherings of various brutal entertainers like that of Osama bi Laden, the Aum Shinrikyo, and Christians. Anyway he mindfully takes notes that there is no single religion with the monopoly of brutal thoughts and images.

However Juergensmeyer, M., (2003) not only argues that religion is behind a wide range of public violence but also maintains that in some different occasions religious violence happens because of globalization, lack of trust in western style of legislative issues and government officials, for example, as it was found in the ethno patriot battle in

Kashmir and in some assorted places around the world today. However he insists that religious justifications provide the reasons around which religious savagery is coordinated and executed for instance as in Abraham's demonstration of brutality against Isaac. He noted that besides socio-religious savage commitments turning deadly, damaging and lethal, they are carried out in merciless and sensational ways.

In showing the association between different religions and violence, Juergensmeyer describes violent scenes committed by different religious activists in various parts of the world. Under the title 'soldiers for Christ' he talks about violent episodes rising up out of Christianity by analyzing the deadly demonstration of the actors in the bombings of fetus removal centers in Delaware, Maryland, Virginia and regions of Colombia. Juergensmeyer exhibits how Mike Bray and other Christian activists utilized religious legitimization and theological justifications not only in approving their terrorist acts but also in endorsing, bombarding and conducting deadly attacks on fetus removal facilities and murderous assaults on the staff members who worked in the abortion clinics. The other contextual analysis he utilizes is that of the brutality between the Catholics and the Protestants in Belfast in Northern Ireland and the assault of the burial chamber of the patriarchs in Hebron in Israel by Dr. Baruch Goldstein who believed had been authorized by God to do so.

This study adopted and employed Juergensmeyer's approach of identifying various episodes of violence and used them as case studies in examining the relationship between the church and violence in Kenya. The study searched for the moral justification of each violent episode so as to find evidence on how the church relates to each of the violent acts. While Juergensmeyer examines the relationship between religion and violence in light of global social and political changes, this study examined the relationship between church and violence in the context of Kenya's multiparty politics.

One of the modern authoritative commentators on religion and violence; Sacks, J., (2015) in *Not in God's name: Confronting Religious Violence* handles the peculiarity of religious extremism and violence which is committed in the name of God. Sacks contends that when religion becomes a "zero-sum fallacy," people of differing views view their own religion as the sole road to God, while viewing the religions of others as inherently incorrect. Individuals become driven by "altruistic evil" in this manner, and religious violence becomes inescapable. Sacks analyzes and interprets the Bible to demonstrate that religiously inspired violence stems from misunderstanding scripture texts at the heart of each of the three Abrahamic religious traditions.

Sacks, J., cautiously examines Genesis, with its fundamental accounts of Judaism, Christianity, and Islam, and offers fundamental scriptural accounts of kin competition between Cain and Abel, Isaac and Ishmael, Jacob and Esau, Joseph and his brothers, Rachel and Leah, which portray the holy book as violent. According to him, Islamic violence, like that of Judaism and Christianity, stems from a misreading of sacred texts. Sacks concludes that religious battles are not unique to Islam but also to other Abrahamic religions, and he urges on people of faith and good will from all religious traditions to unite and resist the religious fanaticism that threatens to exterminate us all, as this is the awful reality we face.

This study observed that Sacks' presentation of Scripture is worth of consideration. By delving into the Hebrew Bible and discovering fundamental themes touching both global justice for all peoples and a strong feeling of God's particularizing love for distinct covenant groups, he advocates an inclusive and pacific Abrahamic religion. By demonstrating an ambitious and clever perspective, the author deconstructs the mechanics of religious violence. He says that adherents of all faiths struggle to understand why so many of them persist on using their belief in God to justify violence. Sacks, predictably, rejects the notion that religion is the source of the problem of violence, while he does feel that theology has a role to play in resolving religious conflict.

Sacks, J., makes compelling and essential arguments that it is incorrect to carelessly equate orthodox believers and armchair fundamentalists, because the two approaches to religion are diametrically opposed. This author discusses the connection between religious extremism and the widening divide between the secular West and the religious globe. This author argues that the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (ISIS) is a microcosm of what will occur for an extended period of time in the future, noting that the solution to religious violence is almost certainly going to be found inside religion itself. While reviewing the work of Sacks, J., (2015) the study pointed out and agreed that no religion is more violent than the other, but deviates by conceding unlike Sacks that religion is inherently violent. According to Sacks it is instead the dual nature of religions that build communities of tribal identities that conflict leading to violence.)

The current study applied Sacks' thoughts and contentions in surveying how the Kenyan local churches and the secular state connect particularly on policy driven issues that heighten to violence during electioneering timeframe. Sacks' dismissal of the idea that religion does not causes the problem of violence, was applied by the current study in searching for elective reasons for the cyclic violence other than religious causes and in clarifying why then the church would be utilized as a post hoc in advocating violence in Kenya. More significantly the study applied Sacks' contentions in considering how religion and violence identify with another overly. Anyway it ought to be noticed that while Jonathan Sacks handles the peculiarity of religious fanaticism and savagery which is committed in the name of God, the current



study veers off from that by researching on how the church relates to the violence in multiparty politics more especially during elections in multi party politics in Kenya.

The position taken by Sacks, J., (2015) that religion and violence are not naturally related is tricky when attention is paid to some religious expressions which are full of warfare language and symbolism. Instances of these may incorporate religious sacrifices and teachings such as “Christian life is war”, “we are the soldiers of God,” “I came not to send peace, but a sword.” All these articulations can be argued to affirm the innate relatedness of religion and violence. There is numerous warfare language and symbolism in religion in general and in Christianity particular. In this manner it is conceivable that the Christians can apply these expressions to engage in the violence during elections in Kenya.

In the “New World translations of the Holy Scripture” version of the Bible there are contradicting verses on the subject matter of “peace and violence”. There are verses and teaching in the Bible which cause the controversy over whether Christianity sanctioned violence from its inception or did not. This issue has dogged the church from its inception. But, certain biblical teachings indicate that Christians were required to emulate Jesus' example of unselfish love, as he stated in Matthew 5: 44, "...however, I say to you: continue to love your enemies and pray for those who persecute you" (New World translations of the Holy Scripture; Matthew 5: 44).

This doctrine appears to ban Christians from participating in violence, instead encouraging them to embrace peace. However, proof for Christian violence comes from Jesus' contradictory acts and teachings, such as when he whips businessmen out of the temple and when he says in Matthew 10:34, "Do not think that I have come to send peace on earth; I have come to send a sword." And in Luke 12: 51-52, Jesus asks, "Do you believe that I have come to bring peace on earth?" No, I say; rather division; because from now on, there will be five in one home split, three against two, and two against three" (New World translations of the Holy Scripture; Matthew 10: 34 and Luke 12: 51-52).

The current study was informed by some biblical teachings that the Bible can be a source of cognitive priming of the faithful who easily indulge in violence when they read the Bible literally and applied incautiously. It is from such biblical doctrines that some Christian faithful find divine justification for engaging in violence. This was relevant to the study in examining the biblical teaching and theological interpretations in justifying the indulgence of the church in violence during elections in Kenya.

The study investigated how the Christians use these teachings on violence in the Bible to justify their engagement or application of violence during multiparty politics in the context of Kenya. However it is important to note that the violence talked of in the Bible is different from the violence the study is focusing on in terms of context and circumstances surrounding them. Whereas New World translations of the Holy Scripture version of the bible focuses in violence in the Sacred scripture, the current study focuses on how the church relates with violence during elections in Kenya.

Kazin Michael, Rebecca Edwards and Adam Rothman (2011,) in “Religion and Politics of America since 1945”, postulate that religious freedom in America was used to sharpen the face-off between American democratic capitalism and communism during the cold war in America, with Christian leaders such as Fred Schwartz leading Christian organizations in the 1950s to advocate for anti- communist policies during the cold war. Judaism was used as a sense of pride, identity and unity in gathering American Jews to lobby on behalf of Israel in the six day war between Israel and Arab neighbors in 1967. The Jewish lobby presented their views to the American congress and sent their financial contributions to Israel besides prompting the American government to act in a way that was more beneficial to the Israelites.

According to these authors, when religion and politics were confronted by the issues of moral and social injustice such as abortion in America, Catholics were the first anti-abortion activists who not only lobbied for legal restrictions or constitutional amendments and picketed abortion clinics to persuade pregnant women to carry their babies to full terms but also provided material and psychological support to women and their babies. The authors demonstrate how the evangelical Protestants joined the Catholics and acted side by side through an organization known as “Randall Terry’s operation Rescue Effort” in the 1980s which worked across denominational lines and got its members arrested as a way of bringing attention to the issue of abortion. Christian activists such as Michael Griffin, Paul Hill and Shelley Shannon assassinated abortion providers firmly believing that God authorized them to do so (Kazin, M., *et al*; 2011, 456).

The work of Kazin, M., *et a l* critically resonated with this study especially in reference to; its ideas on how religion and religious ideologies can be exploited in fuelling violence against unwarranted political policies; how American Christians engaged in violence to root out social injustice believing that they had been authorized by God and how when religion becomes partisan in politics easily fuels political violence. These arguments were relevant to the current study in examining violence in religious phenomenon, assessing how the interaction between church and politics



can fuel political violence and in investigating how the church engages in political violence to root out the historical injustices in Kenya believing it's their God given prophetic duty to do so.

The study also found the arguments of Kazin, M., *et al.*; (2011) instrumental in establishing how church has been used in formulating and supporting bad, unpopular and oppressive political ideologies which cause violence in Kenya. Least but not last this piece of work discusses on how various religious identities in America responded to both internal and external political conflicts. These highlights were of great relevance to this study especially when discussing on how Christianity responded to the violent episodes related to crimes against humanity during elections in the Kenyan politics. The current study investigated the church in relation to violence during elections in Kenya thereby deviating from the work of Kazin, M., Edwards R., and Rothman, A.; in "Religion and Politics in America since 1945" which discusses religion and political violence in relation to social injustices in the American context.

Johan, S., and Joram, T., (2017) explore how religion contributes to violence via the lens of several ideas in *The Role of Religion in Violence and Peace-building*. In a restricted sense, the writers define violence as physical injury to people or property; in a larger sense, they contend that violence is the systematic violation of people's rights and dignity, or any interference that restricts people's potential. According to the writers, violence can be direct or indirect, structural or cultural.

The authors' discussion on religious involvement on violence using different theories was relevant to the current study which applied it in understanding how the church relates to violence in various ways during elections in Kenya. Johan and Joram's explanation on the meaning of the concept of violence was used by the current study in examining the concept of violence as a religious phenomenon in general. However Johan, S., and Joram, T., (2017) delved in the *Role of Religion in Violence and Peace-building* in general and therefore differed from the current study which investigated how the church relates to violence during elections in the specific context of multiparty politics in Kenya.

Shore, M., (2009) in *Religion and conflict resolution: Christianity and South Africa's Truth and reconciliation*, maintains that Church leadership and language can play a positive role in contemporary conflicts in South Africa in as much as the news media presents only the dark and violent side of religious involvement. The author also posits that the church, more specifically the Dutch Reformed Church (DRC), whose faithful were dominated by ruling Afrikaners, significantly contributed to the theory of apartheid in South Africa. Nevertheless Shore also argues that in as much as the "Black Churches" raised their voices of protest against colonization and the unofficial separation between the church and the state, these same "Black Churches" were largely based on the philosophy of "Black Consciousness" which led to a polarized church based on racial differences. In this way the local churches in South Africa failed to evolve and sustain a unified voice against evils in South Africa.

Shore's piece of work resonated with the current study in illustrating that politics can use church in promoting unfavorable political ideologies or policies which contribute to the sufferings of citizens and which when resisted culminates to full brown violence. This was insightful to the study in investigating the role of the church in the political policies which culminate to violence during elections in Kenya. However whereas Shore looks at Christianity from the perspective of providing resolutions to conflicts in South Africa, the current study examined violence as a religious phenomenon in general and how the church is engrossed in violence during elections in Kenya.

Huber, W., (2011) examines the relationship between religion and violence in today's globalized world in "Violence in Democratic South Africa," saying that violent religious extremism is one of the century's mega problems, one of the greatest difficulties nations face internationally. Huber argues in his argument that South Africa is confronted with an issue of violence that must be addressed. He begins by stating that an atmosphere of hatred and violence endangers the spirit of democracy, which is supported and fostered by religious considerations. While he emphasizes how monotheistic faiths contribute more to violent inclinations, he also believes that the connection between religion and violence is not automatic and that there is no inescapable and essential connection between monotheism and the justification of violence.

In this regard, Huber makes three propositions about the relationship between religion and violence: first, he believes that violence is not an inherent quality of religion but rather an ascribed or acquired quality; second, he observes that religions frequently accept violence as an inevitable part of reality and even justify its use on religious grounds; and third, he believes that violence in religion is contingent on certain situations, making violence inevitable. According to Huber, the argument that religion is intrinsically violent is corroborated by the fact that religions often embrace violence as an essential aspect of reality and even condone its use on theological grounds, to the extent that religions do give a powerful drive that fuels violence.

Huber emphasizes in the same reasoning that the connection between monotheistic and violence is conditional, and hence neither inevitable nor unthinkable. This is the reason why religious violence, which prevails in the behavior of the faithful (especially in monotheism religious traditions), is related to contingent factors. Huber argues that the contextual relationship between religion and violence necessitates the employment of barbarianism in some

circumstances. Additionally, Huber believes that violence is not an inherent, but rather an acquired or even attributed aspect of religion, arguing against the concept that religion, more precisely monotheistic, inevitably results in bloodshed. He makes the case that religions should abstain from condoning violence and instead take a posture of nonviolence. Huber's arguments were used by the current study in investigating the contingent factors and the situations that prompt the church to be involved in the violence during elections in Kenya. Huber examined "Violence in Democratic South Africa" while the current study explored how the church is embroiled in the violence during elections in Kenya.

In a statement issued by Wabukala Eliud and Karanja Peter (2008) in "Hope for Kenya" on thirteenth of February 2008, on behalf of NCKK, the duo called upon Kenyans to embark upon the difficult task of peace building, national healing and reconciliation after the grievous post- 2007 election chaos, in which over thousand people were killed and over three hundred thousand internally displaced people (IDPs). The NCKK leadership apologized and acknowledged on behalf of other church leaders that the church had not only been partisan in the political process but also lacked in offering necessary leadership to the faithful and Kenyan politicians by omitting performing its prophetic role of providing the required spiritual and social guidance to her faithful. Thus the NCKK leadership admitted that the church did provide the necessary motivation and space that allowed the post-election violence of 2007-2008 to occur.

The study paid significant attention to the fact that the National Council Churches of Kenya (NCKK), publicly apologized to the nation for lack of spiritual leadership before and after the elections. This informed the study in examining how the church related to violence during elections in Kenya. Wabukala Eliud and Karanja Peter concentrated in calling Kenyans to embark upon the difficult task of peace building, national healing and reconciliation; this study was concerned with investigating how the same churches under the umbrella of NCKK related to the violence acts before, during and after elections in Kenya.

The study concurred with the perspectives of the various researchers and construed that religion and violence relate differently depending on the discernment and point from where they have been seen. However the study maintained that if religion is inherently violent, then Christianity like other religions is inherently violent too. Therefore these being the case then the local churches were assumed to be intrinsically connected with the violence in the years of 1992, 1997, 2002, 2007, 2013 and 2017 during elections in Kenya. This position called for an investigation so as to place the local churches in their rightful position in regard to how they related to violence during elections in multiparty democracy in Kenya.

III. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Study Area

This study was carried out in Kenya. Kenya is located in the eastern region of the African continent. Kenya is bordered on the south by Tanzania, Uganda on the west, Sudan and Ethiopia on the north, and Somalia on the east. Kenya is multi-religious country with forth-four ethnic communities. Kenya being a multi-party democracy whose 2010 constitution provides for freedom in the practice of ones religious convictions and political choices, experience political violence based on negative ethnicity, bad politics and misinformed religious convictions. The one-third rule according to the 2010 constitution of Kenya was considered while composing the FGDs. Special attention was similarly paid to gender, age, sex and disabilities.

3.2 Research Design

The study was a qualitative research and therefore narrative and descriptive in nature. The study applied historical research design in carrying out investigations. The historical design was used in inquiring and uncovering the lived experiences of the victims of violence. Through this design, the study focused on the victims' past memories on violence which assisted in articulating and amplifying their experiences of loss and suffering. This method of inquiry elicited data by conducting investigation of how violent events occurred in the electioneering years of 1992, 1997, 2002, 2007, 2012, and 2017.

A historical design was also employed to investigate, explain, and comprehend the causes, trends, involvement, and link between church and violence. This enabled the study to comprehend the multifaceted interactions between religion and violence generally and interactions between church and violence in particular. To examine how the church and violence relate with each other, it was imperative to read secondary sources which generating the secondary data through critical analysis and interpretation with particular reference to chronology. The information gathered was used objectively in examining church in relation to violence as a phenomenon and in assessing the interaction between the church and politics in relation to violence in Kenya from a historical perspective respectively.

To collect secondary data, the study critically assessed secondary sources. The researcher visited the libraries at Masinde Muliro University of Science and technology, Maseno University, Moi University, Egerton University, University of Nairobi, government national libraries in Kakamega and Kisii Counties and church archives in various

churches such as Christ the King Cathedral library in Nakuru town and Presbyterian Church of East Africa in Nakuru town and Anglican Church of Kenya (ACK) in Kisumu town and Chadwick library in Butere ACK. In these libraries, most of the relevant secondary study materials such as text books and copies of the pastoral letters of the respective churches to the government were found. Major archives in this respect were; articles on church and politics, elections and violence in the daily Nation, Standard newspapers and the pastoral letters from Kenya Conference of Catholic Bishops (KCCB) and Anglican Church of Kenya (ACK) in response to elections and violence in Kenya. Primary research in this study entailed collecting information from one hundred and twenty leaders of the various umbrella bodies or organizations of churches in Kenya (see included as part of table 3.5.1). Each umbrella body groups consisting of six leaders were interviewed on matters to do with how the churches under their leadership responded and related to violence. This information was interpreted and applied in addressing the roles the church played in the repeated violence which occurred in every election year between 1992 and 2017.

Historical design was similarly used in investigating the attributes of the church that led to violence during multiparty politics in Kenya. The data was used in analyzing the nature of the violence during multiparty politics from 1992 up to 2017 in Kenya and the roles the church played in the violence. The primary data was correspondingly collected by interviewing forty eight internally displaced persons (IDPs-who happened to be the victims of violence) living in formal and informal settlements camps while some had returned back to their homes following “Operation Rudi Nyumbani” by the Kibaki Government. The IDPs were divided into four cohorts consisted of twelve members each. The interviews were held in Kiambaa Eldoret, Rongai IDP Camp, Molo and Mai Mahui in Naivasha. In addition to the forty eight IDPs interviewed in Kiambaa, thirty community elders (who were composed of four elders from the kalenjin community, four elders from the Kikuyu community and two youths for those of Kiambaa and Molo while that of Chebirate four elders were drawn from the Abagusii, four from Kalenjins and two youths) were interviewed. The community elders were subdivided into three cohorts that were interviewed in Kiambaa, Molo and Chebirate locations. The information acquired from IDPs groups of people revealed their experiences of loss and suffering in violence.

Finally discussions were held with twelve members of the clergy for special clarification on matters that needed more explanations and interpretations. A discussion was held with six of these members in Nakuru at Christ the King Cathedral Catholic Church. The other six members of the clergy were interviewed in Kisumu. Among the twelve clergy were one Archbishop of ACK Kisumu and one catholic Bishop in Homa-Bay Catholic Church. In the discussion clarifications on unclear data that was sought. The data gathered was then interpreted in the light of the principles of “Just war” and “cosmic war” theories.

More information on politics, church and violence was amassed from five politicians who were drawn from the communities that are mostly affected by the violence directly. These communities were the Kikuyu, the Kalenjins, the Luos, the Luhyas and the Kisii. One politician was purposively picked from each of these communities. Flexibility of these designs allowed for collection of original data for the purpose of describing how the churches were engrossed with violence during multi-party politics in Kenya which were not possible to observe directly.

3.3 Target population

This study was conducted in a population that was very large and widely scattered such that a sample would not logically be drawn from the whole population. In this regard the researcher had one option of going for accessible population which was hardly determined by numbers but was described after the research (for details see Oso W. Y., & Onen, D., 2005, pg. 33). Thus the accessible population consisted of; secretariat of five umbrella organizations of the churches in Kenya which included: the secretariat of Kenya Conference of Catholic Bishops (KCCB); the secretariat of the Kenya Roman chapters; the secretariat of NCKK at national and in the local chapters in Kakamega, Nakuru, Eldoret and Kisumu; the secretariat of EAK at national and in the local chapters in Kakamega, Nakuru, Eldoret and Kisumu; the secretariat of SDA conferences in Kakamega, Nakuru, Eldoret, Kisumu and South Nyanza; the secretariat and leaders of internally displaced persons (IDPs) and the IDPS and victims of violence in the formal IDP Camps at Rongai and Maai Mahui In Nakuru county and those found in Chebirate along Nyamira- Sotik boarder. The study also included politicians, government officials and community members (elders, youths and disabled) who were members of the communities that were constantly affected by violence and the clergy of various churches as its target population.

3.4 Sample Size

The sample size of the study as established post-priori was two hundred and fifty one respondents. The following table 3.4.1 shows the distribution of the respondents.

**Table 1**

| Name of the group of the respondents | Name of umbrella organization | Number of members in each group | Number of cohorts |
|--|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------|
| Leaders of Church Umbrella Organizations (LCUB) | KCCB | 6 | 1 |
| | KRCP&J | 24 | 4 |
| | NCKK | 30 | 5 |
| | EAK | 30 | 5 |
| | SDA | 30 | 5 |
| GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS (GOKO) | GOK | 36 | 3 |
| INTERNALLY DISPLACED PEOPLE AND VICTIMS OF VIOLENCE (IDPs) | - | 48 | 4 |
| COMMUNITY MEMBERS (CE) | - | 30 | 3 |
| CLERGY (CL) | - | 12 | 2 |
| POLITICIANS (PL) | - | 5 | 1 |
| TOTAL RESPONDENTS | - | 251 | 33 |

A table showing how respondents were sampled (source: field data)

According to Table 1, the respondents were selected from six groups which consisted of: the leaders of church umbrella organizations (LCUB), the government officials (GOKO), the internally displaced people and victims of violence (IDPs), the community members (CM), the clergy (CL) and the politicians (PL). Members of each of the six groups were purposively chosen because the researcher believed that they possess the information that was necessary for this study. The leaders of church umbrella organizations (LCUB) were selected from five church umbrella organizations namely; the Kenya Conference of Catholic Bishops (KCCB), Kenya Roman Catholic Peace and Justice (KRCP&J), National council of churches of Kenya (NCKK), Evangelical Anglican Churches of Kenya (EAK) and Seventy Day Adventist (SDA).

The leaders of church Umbrella organizations were one hundred and twenty members. The members of each cohort were composed of the chairman, vice-chairman, general secretary, organizing secretary, treasurer and the priest/pastor representative who together formed six members of the secretariat that were interviewed. The Bishops from the Kenya Conference of Catholic Bishops (KCCB) formed one cohort of six members in total.

The Kenya Roman Catholic Peace and Justice (KRCP&J) was represented by twenty four members drawn from local chapters as follows: - six members of the secretariat each from Kakamega, Nakuru, Eldoret and Kisumu chapters. NCKK was composed of thirty members who were selected as follows: - six members of the secretariat from their national office in Nairobi and twenty four other members from the local chapters of Kakamega, Nakuru, Eldoret and Kisumu (each made up of six respondents). The EAK umbrella body had thirty members who were selected from the national office in Nairobi and the local chapters in Kakamega, Nakuru, Eldoret and Kisumu (Six respondents were selected from each of these local chapters). The SDA secretariat had thirty members who were selected from their Conference offices in Kakamega, Nakuru, Eldoret, Kisumu and South Nyanza (Six respondents were selected from each this regions). The local chapters of the church umbrella organizations were chosen from the areas in which violence always occurred in the years of election of 1992, 1997, 2002, 2007, 2012 and 2017.

The government officials consisted of thirty six respondents. They were in three cohorts each of which was having twelve members who were selected and interviewed in Burnt Forest, Molo and Chebirate where erratic violent incidents were commonly experienced. The government officials included one chief, four sub chiefs, six village elders and chairman of community policing.

The internally displaced persons (IDPs) and victims consisted of forty eight members. They were interviewed in Maai Mahui IDP Camp, Rongai IDP Camp, in Kiambaa village and in Molo Township. They were in four cohorts. Each cohort was consisted of the following members; the chair person of the IDPs, the secretary of IDPs, four men victims of violence, four women victims of violence and two youths.

The community members were thirty in number. They were in three cohorts. Each group was consisted of ten members who were sampled as follows: - six elderly people (three elderly men, three elderly women), two youths (male and female) and two disabled persons (male and female). These groups were interviewed in Burnt Forest, Molo and Chebirate Nyamira-Sotik boarder.

The twelve members of the clergy formed two cohorts for FGDS. Each group was consisted of six clergies selected from different churches (one catholic priest, one pastor of SDA, one priest PCEA, one pastor from PAG, one fro AIC, one pastor from holy ghost church and one member of KRCP&J). One FGD was held in Christ the King

Cathedral in Nakuru town and the second group discussion was held in Nairobi city which are common centers of violence. The purpose of the FGM was to clarify any unclear issues arising from the interviews previously held with other respondents. This was after the research had reached saturation point after realizing that there was no new data trickling in.

The five politicians were selected from the five communities which were mostly victims or perpetrators of violence. The politicians were from the communities of; the Kikuyu, the Luos, the Kalenjins, the Kisii and the Luhya. All these added to a total of two hundred and fifty one respondents in this study.

3.5 Data analysis Techniques

The collected data, both primary and secondary, were critically analyzed through descriptions. A critical content analysis of secondary data from text books and journals in libraries, Newspapers, internet sources, video clips from YouTube archives on issues regarding; violence during multiparty politics, violence in relation to religious phenomenon, interactions between the church and politics in Kenya and the debates around them was undertaken. This information was used in addressing the first three objectives of the study which examined church in relation to the phenomenon of violence; assessed the historical interaction between the church and politics in relation to violence in Kenya and analyzed the nature of violence during multiparty electioneering periods in Kenya.

The study identified incidents of violence which occurred during multiparty politics in Kenya in the election years of 1992, 1997, 2002, 2007/08, 2012 and 2017 giving a detailed description of each of the incidents. Each violent incident was then analyzed diagnostically in connection to the role the church played in them. The study applied the knowledge and understanding acquired from renowned scholars like Karl Jasper and Mark Juergensmeyer in ascribing culpability of violence to the church and in demonstrating that the church in Kenya had played a role in the violence experienced during multiparty politics in Kenya. The investigations carried out included an examination on the role of the church in the attendant violence; political liberations; struggle for multiparty democracy in 1991 that finally birthed multiparty politics in 1991; political violence before and after in the general elections of 1992; 1997; 2002; 2007; 2013 and 2017 through which the study demonstrated how the church related to the violence which occurred during multiparty politics in Kenya. Data was collected from each of the respondent group by the researcher and was analyzed thematically by describing the findings of study objective. Much of data was collected through interviews. These data were described, interpreted and analyzed qualitatively through descriptions. Then the data were objectively collaborated with secondary views of the experts in the same field and concluded by the study interpretations. Finally logical conclusions were drawn either deductively or inductively as was dictated by the premises of the preceding arguments through the lens of “Just war” and “cosmic war” theories.

IV. FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

4.1 Role of Church in Violence in 1992 General Elections

There was violence in the 1992 general elections though the Moi administration denied that there was no violence at all. While the violence escalated, the three main denominations of the local church; the Church Province of Kenya (CPK), the Catholic Church, and the Presbyterian Church of East Africa (PCEA), made statements holding the government responsible claiming it was their God given responsibility to uproot such social evils. Bishops David Okullu and Alexander Muge of the CPK as well as Reverend Elijah Yego of the Eldoret Diocese and Reverend Sospeter Abuto of the CPK's Maseno South Diocese and several other local CPK clergy, continued to press the Moi government to pay attention to the violent collisions. Both the opposition and government were accused by the CPK clergy of encouraging the confrontations for their own personal gains (Weekly Review, 20 March 1992, p. 5).

Cleric respondents indicated that the Catholic Church, led by Nakuru Diocese's Justice and Peace Commission, warned the public about the violence in the Rift Valley, particularly in Molo. The government officials rejected the bishops' call towards the end of 1991, accusing them of stirring up instability in a tranquil society. In response, the CPK issued a pastoral letter to the press in April 1992, portraying the conflicts as political persecution that began with the attempted coup in 1982, the manipulation of the 1988 general election, and the prolonged detention of political prisoners.

The pastoral letter was signed by Archbishop Kuria Manassas, Bishops Gitari and Okullu, and it accused the government for failing to prevent the confrontations. They said that the Rift Valley Province authorities were to blame for the riots and should be arrested and convicted for their crimes. If the government continued to act in ways that were forbidden in the light of the Bible, the Bishops exhorted their adherents to engage in civil disobedience (CPK Pastoral Letter, 26 April, 1992).

In the Weekly Review, of 1st May 1992, p. 12, it was pointed out that ‘if the government worked against justice on a systematic and deliberate basis, then the Christian was no longer compelled to acquiesce to such injustices’. The



CPK, the Roman Catholics, the PCEA and the NCKK collectively released and officially gave President Moi an official report in May 1992, in which serious allegations were leveled against the Moi administration. The report's key point was that the violence was politically coordinated and managed by powerful people with the government's silent knowledge and support (Weekly Review, 15 May, 1992). The Catholic Bishops went even further, describing the ethnic clashes as a "real war initiated and encouraged by top government officials," accusing Mr. Wilson Leitich, the then Nakuru District KANU chairman, of encouraging Kalenjins to "freely keep arrows and even use other people's property" (The Standard, 7 August 1992; downloaded from 41.89.195.2 on Thu, 28 Nov 2019 11:15:47 UTC All use subject to <https://about.jstor.org/terms>).

In the Standard Newspaper of 7th August, 1992, the then Vice President George Saitoti, former Cabinet Minister Nicholas Biwott, Local Government Minister William Ole Ntimama, and KANU official Shariff Nassir were particularly named as knowing and supporting the clashes. Furthermore, the Church openly accused the government for creating instability in order to stifle the political and social changes by killing innocent wananchi (citizens) to sabotage the multi-party process. The Most Rev. Okoth, the then Chairman of the Kenya Episcopal Conference and the then Catholic Archbishop of Kisumu, the Rev. John Njue of Embu and the Most Rev. J. Njenga of Mombasa read the Catholics' accusing statement at the Catholic Holy Family Minor Basilica in Nairobi (The Standard, 7 August 1992; downloaded from 41.89.195.2 on Thu, 28 Nov 2019 11:15:47; <https://about.jstor.org/terms>).

The government of Moi appointed Reverend George Wanjau, a former moderator of the PCEA and chairman of the NCKK at that time, to chair a task team. This was in response to mounting pressure on the ruling KANU party and Moi's dictatorship over the country's rising violence in some areas. The task force's main mission was to, "investigate the causes of land/ethnic clashes and the most effective measures to address them" (CPK/ARCH. Synod Committee Report, April, 1992). President Moi received the task force's findings, which were similar to those in the NCKK's prior report. Despite this, the government established a third fact-finding body, this time a Parliamentary Committee overseen by a judge, to "expose the truth" (The Standard, 7 August 1992). When this report agreed with the NCKK and Wanjau reports, President Moi made a 180-degree reversal and accused the Parliamentary Committee of being swayed by the opposition and the church (Abuom, A., 1992; p. 28).

The cleric respondents argued that because of believing in the Christian requirement of fulfilling social justice by combating social injustice which was bolstered by politics and state power, the church continued to raise her voice about the horror in Rift valley despite the Moi government's restrictions on the churches. For example, the church was forbidden from providing aid to the victims of violence and from entering strife-torn communities in Rift Valley. However, the Catholic Church in Nakuru town continued to provide sanctuary for ethnic conflict victims as well as legal assistance in the restitution of their lands. For instance, it was revealed by a respondent that when the kiosks of the victims of violence were dismantled by city council authorities of Nakuru town, the Catholic Church allowed victims of violence who were traders to erect new kiosks in the Church yard. Abuom, A., (1992) argued that around that time, the Moi government accused the Church of practicing tribalism and expressing anti-unity sentiments, as well as serving foreign masters. Several bishops were instructed outright to leave the pulpit and join resistance parties (Abuom, A., 1992; p. 28).

The clerics further indicated that according to President Moi, the church leaders were to blame for the unrest. However according to the Daily Nation of 3rd and 8th January, 1992 the churches, on the other hand, accused the government of fomenting ethnic violence in order to back up Moi's allegations that the country was not ready for multi-party democracy (Daily Nation, 3 and 8 January, 1992 and Daily Nation, 12 March 1992). This plainly suggested that the ethnic skirmishes and the narratives surrounding them were a political struggle over the multi-party elections and the church's and opposition demands for political changes in the country. The church and the state had disagreements over the ethnic conflicts.

The politician respondents argued out that the debate about the character of Kenya's political system was founded on the fight between the church and government. As a result of believing that religious force was sometimes necessary in eliminating injustices and subduing the evils in this world, the church pressed the state to create an environment favorable to social-political change by speeding up the ongoing political transformation processes. Political liberalization, according to Nicolas Van de Walle et al (1993) can only occur when existing processes are accelerated (Nicolas Van de Walle, 'Political Liberalization and Economic Policy reform in Africa', 1993; pp. 34, downloaded from 41.89.195.2 on Thu, 28 Nov 2019 11:15:47 UTC All use subject to <https://about.jstor.org/terms>).

The politicians claimed that in the general elections of 1992 and 1997, the majority of churches and their members voted against Moi. Ben (2009; 13-14) furthered this observation by positing that ninety-eight percent of the Agikuyu in central Kenya voted against Moi in the presidential elections in 1992 and 1997, making it not only a religious but a tribal affair. This was especially aggravating in 1992, when the churches had played a key role in introducing multiparty democracy to the country. Through maneuverings of government and political authorities, Moi was

proclaimed the winner despite not receiving the required twenty five percent in at least five of the eight provinces, as required by the constitution. The politicians argued that regardless of these frustrating deeds, Archdeacon of Kabare presented a bland sermon in kikuyu language on the Sunday following the elections, considering the highly sensitive political climate and the strict injection that everyone should chill down. In 1997 presidential elections, the identical responses were communicated.

The clerics argued that, “The church’s God given role of being the conscience of the government had little impact on the Kenyan political setting”. He said ...evidently when the majority of the church clergy failed in their primary goal of cooling down their flocks when they become enraged in order to prevent possible disruption and violence. Churches were the coolant for politics’ sweltering rage. Thus, the Agikuyu expected the church to play a similar role in calming down their political opponents mainly the Jalu and the Nandi after 2007 general elections, but the opposed happened, leading to a different reaction, which resulted in the deadly post-election violence of 2007/08

The church had a passive attitude to the political authority having been part of it in calling for social change. The church failed to use holy texts in calling for peace among her faithful and by extension in combating social injustice which were bolstered by politics and state power especially when moral suasion would have worked better.

4.2 Role of Church in Violence in 1997 Elections

The violence that erupted in 1992 Election after the introduction of multi-party democracy was repeated in 1997. The clergy argued that a series of clashes between the clergy and the government culminated in a show down between bishop Gitari and president Moi. Furthering this notion is Knighton (2009) who posited that following ethnic violence over land in the Rift valley and coast province in 1992 and 1997 general elections in which no change in government, ruling party or presidency occurred, Bishop Gitari of Anglican Church of Kenya (ACK), along with NCKK and the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Nairobi, Raphael Ndingi Mwana’a Nzeki, called for a constitutional review and a limit on presidential terms that had become unstoppable. The NCKK initiated a meeting in Ufungamano house which called for constitutional reforms (Knighton, B., 2009; 31-33).

Accordingly the clergy pointed out that in the incident of violence which occurred on 7th of July 1997, Gitari responded by informing the global Anglican family and community; who together with their respective governments expressed displeasure to the republic of Kenya in general and the government of Moi in particular. On the Sunday that followed the violent incident, Gitari conducted a service to cleanse the Cathedral by removing the faint of the men of violence. In that sermon Gitari said:

Moi permitted the desecration of the All Saints' Cathedral when his police entered it to disperse pro-democracy demonstrations. As the writing appeared on the wall when king Belsassar defiled the sacred artifacts in Daniel's book, this alone is sufficient to bring divine wrath down on him... I am not a prophet, but I believe Moi's days are numbered and that his kingdom would crumble if he refuses to repent and accept constitutional reforms (Anglican Communion News Service, 21 July 1997, "Kenya primate says Moi's kingdom will crumble").

The clergy used biblical texts to declare the state structured violence illegitimate calling for repentance of sins and acceptance of social change. Two days later Bishop David Gitari, five members of NCKK, five Roman Catholic Archbishops and two Muslims met with President Moi. Knighton, B., (2009) revealed that while in the meeting the clergy put a lot of pressure on the president Moi asking him to call for constitutional reforms without which there would be chaos and a lot of trouble. A day later after the meeting, Moi announced that all licenses for public political rallies would be issued automatically. He also agreed to meet with the opposition leaders to discuss on democratic reforms in which he consented that that was his last term in office. “It took the readings of Prophet Daniel to remove President Daniel Arap Moi from office”, claimed Gitari (Knighton, B., 2009; 34).

Further discussions revealed that the clergy used their God given authority and confronted the politicians directly on issues that were antisocial and evil. The clergy respondents unveiled that on 20th July 1997 there was a face to face confrontation between President Moi and Gitari, other bishops and NCKK Secretary General in Kitale stadium. It was reported that that confrontation almost brought the church-state relationship into rapture. This is because Mutava Musyimi, the secretary general of NCKK called for the need of dialogue between the state and the government of Moi. To which Moi was peeved and replied;

You cannot impose your will on us when it comes to politics and discourse. I was in politics before you were born, fighting for Kenya’s independence. You cannot teach us history about dialogue. This is Sunday, a holy day and I don’t want to engage in politics (Knighton, B., 2009; 34).

The president acknowledged that God is holy and that secular issues should not be mixed with politics. President Moi, who was very vexed, seemed not to be happy with the church leadership because they were giving his government direction on how to develop a cohesive society that included all citizens. He was speaking in Kitale during the enthronement of Bishop Stephen Kewasis by Archbishop Gitari on 20th July 1997. In this particular incident the

necessity of religious force in eliminating political injustices and subduing the evils was demonstrated. In requesting for dialogue, the church leadership strategically applied moral suasion in calling for the abolition of the unnecessary acts of political violence that were experienced in the Moi regime.

4.3 Role of Church in Violence in 2007–08

In 2002 Mwai Kibaki, a Roman Catholic took up government of Kenya as President elect. President Mwai Kibaki had declared during an annual meeting of NCKC, in 1971 (while he was a minister for education) in Limuru that:

Because other groups in society must be careful, a modern church is expected to be forthright. We need at least an organization that stands up for the right of the people regardless of the consequences...an active organization that addresses the issues face now. I cannot think of a better organization other than the church to fulfill this function (Okullu, H., 1974 & Knighton B., 2009; 34).

The church has the legitimate authority from God to stand for the moral and rights of the people in society by articulating and calling for the elimination of the moral evils in society. Thus the church should keep the government checked to do what is right. In 1984, Kibaki who was by then the vice president of the republic of Kenya repeated this stance while addressing member churches of NCKC, by saying:

Church leaders should desist from praising politicians; who already have enough people praise them. The church's role is to rebuke the politicians when they make mistakes and to remind them of God's justice, as well as to pray for them (Gitari, D. M., 1986b: 125, Knighton, B., 2009: 34-35).

The church should avoid having passive attitude toward the political and government authority. The roles of the church in government are to warn it from engaging in moral evils but not to be compromised by condoning the wrong political ideals.

However according to Knighton, B., (2009) the church lost what Gitari calls its "critical distance" during Mwai Kibaki's era as soon as he was elected President of the republic of Kenya. The church was co-opted by the government by appointing the church leaders into senior government positions and luring them to join politics. For instance the Kibaki government appointed Mutava Musyimi (general secretary NCKC) to a high level government position of chairing the National Ethics and Anti-corruption campaign steering committee (EACC). Mutava later joined the ruling party of PNU (Party of National Unity) and contested for a parliamentary seat in Gachoka constituency which he won (Knighton, B., 2009; 35). This is how NCKC had become politically partial. This explained why Kofi Annan, the UN secretary, would not find any senior churchmen of integrity and courage to negotiate for peace in Kenya during Post-Election violence of 2007/2008 because the current church leaders were not only compromised but were silent about the violence.

It was revealed in an argument that while the then Catholic Archbishop John Njue of Nyeri sided with Mwai Kibaki who was a catholic faithful. In opposed view, his contemporary counterpart Archbishop Zachaeus Okoth of Kisumu blamed Njue for supporting Kibaki. This indicated that the Catholic Church was divided along tribal lines as the 2007 elections were drawing nearer (Munene, Mugumu, "Church split as poll draws nearer" Nation 16th December 2007). On the other hand, Bishop Abiero of Anglican Church Kisumu, anointed Raila Amolo Odinga for presidency (Otieno, Daniel and Kiragu, "Clerics anointed Raila for the top seat", Nation 29th July 2007). When Raila entered into a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) with the Muslims, the Evangelical Alliance of Kenya opposed it while some four Luo bishops supported it. This showed how divided the church was on the basis of ethnicity and her passive attitude to the political authority and social change.

It was indicated that some clerics not only joined politics, but supported political leaders, and contested for political positions leaving the government to go unchecked of its excesses. The clergy from the neo-Pentecostal churches stood and contested for various political seats. For example Bishop Margaret Wanjiru contested for a parliamentary seat and won in Starehe constituency as she drummed support for Raila while Bishop Pius Muiru of Maximum miracle Centre contested for presidency in 2007 general elections (see details refer to Barasa, Lucas, Thuku, "Keep off politics" Gitari tells clergy, Nation 19th July 2007). In this way the church was coopted into government. By becoming part of the government the church failed in carrying out their Christian requirement of fulfilling social justice by combating social injustices which were bolstered by politics and state power. The church did not only fail to critic but also kept silent as evils committed by government escalated. Gitari put it;

You are the nation's conscience. Please say a prayer for the country. Maintain vigilance over the government... you must be brave to criticize it ...the Christians should appeal for peace of God and avoid leading the country into violence and instability (Mwangi, Alex, "Keep an eye on government, Gitari tells church", Nation 4th December 2006).



The function of the church is to use God's legitimate authority and courage to monitor the government actions and in appealing for peace so as to establish a stable society. Focused group discussion held with clergy yielded data revealing that the biblical teachings influenced decisions of the faithful. Knighton, B., (2009) persuasively shows how at one time while delivering a sermon, Gitari expounded on Exodus 18 where Jethro advises Moses on the four qualities to check before choosing of good leaders; Capable; God-fearing; trustworthy and incorruptible. He was advising the voters on whom to elect as a leader from the pulpit but was quick to point out that as much as it is wrong to advise people on who to vote for from the pulpit they can advise the qualities to look for while electing political leaders.

Knighton, B., (200) also claims that Gitari, D. M., shared with him that before 1997 general elections a reformist political party had offered to donate millions of money to the church if Gitari would endorse that party. Kenyans were convinced that in 2007 a number of churches had taken such bribes in the name of fundraising presided over by candidates vying for political positions. In this way the church i.e. the people of God benefited from the national proceeds of corruption and became interactive in government activities. Hence the church was corrupted and coopted as it watched violence beckoning.

The culpability of the church in the PEV of 2007/08 was recognized when the clergymen owned up to have been partisan in the political elections and even advocated for violence as reported in the Nation of 23rd August 2008 thus: "Clergyman blessed warriors to engage in violence and invited politicians to disseminate hate messages inciting one community against members of other communities (Knighton: 2009, 39; Nation 23rd August 2008). On the contrary, views of the community members and IDPS identified lack of independence as the major obstacle facing African Instituted Churches and hence were easily sucked into crises of violence, poverty and morality. In March in 2008 shortly after the violence, Mr. James Bett, the chairman of EMO Foundation, an international Christian organization whose aim was to promote the Kalenjin unity, while in African Inland Church read from the book of Ezekiel 47:21-23 thus

You are to distribute this territory among Israel's tribes. You are to divide it up as an inheritance between yourself and any aliens who have settled in your community and have offspring. You are to regard them as native-born Israelites; they are to share an inheritance with you among the tribes of Israel. Wherever the foreigner settles, you are responsible for distributing his legacy (Ezekiel 47:21-23).

In this case, Bett used Biblical text to counter "majimbo" rhetoric which was used in agitating for violence and justifying the expulsion of Agikuyu community who are considered as foreigners or alien in Rift Valley. The Kalenjins were in this case referred to as the Israelites. Bett was reinforcing the Agikuyu right of inheritance of land in the Rift Valley Province. However drawing from the book of Numbers 15:13-16, he read

For future generations, if a foreigner or anyone else who lives among you makes a fire offering as an aroma pleasing to the LORD, he must do exactly what you do. The community's regulations must be the same for you and the alien who lives with you (Numbers 15:13-16).

Bett applied biblical texts further in calling for the Agikuyu people to impress the same values; such as the same political preference as those of the Kalenjins when they are living among them. He urged the Agikuyu to integrate with the Kalenjins and live as one community by agitating for and promoting the same political agenda for the sake harmony and peace.

It was revealed by the community members that prior to the general elections in 2002, Archbishop Gitari asserted in a sermon that those who do wrong have to be challenged regardless of their position (whether your brother or tribesman). He went ahead to question why there should always be political violence in the Rift Valley? He concluded saying that a government in power has the prerogative to protect its people otherwise it had no reason to be in power and warned that those who ascend to power through shedding blood of the voters are sinners. Klopp, J. M., said

As a moral issue, the campaign against ethnic conflict always invokes religion and religious commitment. At its most fundamental level, the deepening politics of violence makes a mockery of religious principles of love and tolerance, which are frequently preached in churches and mosques and publicly professed by politicians who are intimately involved in funding, organizing, and encouraging violence in their mother tongues. Additionally, a sizable portion of the church's flock has become victims of the violence and supplicants for help. Others have participated. Some, like the marginalized early members of Mungiki in the early 1990s, were both victims and perpetrators. They abandoned Christianity entirely, developing their own religious understanding of their painful reality and reconstructing their kikuyu identities in new ways that provide a measure of coherence (Klopp, J. M., 2009; 141).

The church is urged to fulfill her social duties by struggling against ethnic violence using Christian principles of love and patience and by calling upon her church members to desist in participating and engaging in violence either as perpetrators or as victims. On the same line of argument Wamue, G. N., (2001a) and Kagwanja, P. M., (2003) noted that the Mungiki were manipulated by PNU side to attack innocent people in the name of revenge which perpetrates



politics of violence. Politics of tribal dominance and manipulation of ethnicity for political gains over religious principles of love and tolerance was utilized in the 2007/08 post-election violence.

In 2007 election many of the opposition leaders utilized anti-kikuyu strategy and made the PNU side of the political camp look like kikuyu solidarity, chauvinists and ant-nationalists that were determined to hold onto political power. Hence the supporters of the opposition were meant to believe that that the kikuyu want to dominate them. This suspicion led to tremendous degree of polarization which was made worse by religious organizations like EMO Foundation, the African Inland churches, the NCKK and the Roman Catholic who played partisan politics thereby weakening the religious network against violence. This eroded the religious civil society damaging the image of churches as places of sanctuary as signaled by the burning of the Kenya Assemblies of God church in Kiambaa in Eldoret in which over thirty five women and children who had gone to seek refuge died.

During post-election violence of 2007/08, more other churches were set on fire elsewhere. Examples included Redeemed Gospel Church and the Miracle assemblies of God church in Mathare slums-Nairobi and the Kenya Assemblies of God church in Kiambaa in Eldoret. The NCKK leadership led by Rt. Reverend Eliud Wabukala and Reverend Canon Peter Karanja responded to this unbecoming behavior condemning it as lack of respect and fear before God.

This happened not only because politics was morally corrosive and characterized with mass impunity but also because the civil society including many churches played partisan politics. Therefore the public including their own church members no longer viewed the church leadership as neutral arbiters and negotiators for peace. The exodus of a record of twenty three clergy into politics, who were vying for various posts ranging from parliamentary seats to presidency, reinforced this perception of mistrust (Klopp J. M., 2009; 140-141).

During an interview with some of the victims of the 2007/2008 Post- Election Violence which was held on 20th of February 2021 in Kiambaa in Eldoret, they confessed that they were attacked by their neighbors some of whom they went to the same church with. One of respondents among those interviewed identified herself as Jane Muthoni said

We saw them. They were singing songs of war as they ran towards the church compound where we had gone to hide from the violence. I picked my children and ran inside the Kenya Assemblies of God Pentecostal church thinking we would be safe inside. The few kikuyu men who were with us tried to defend us by fighting with the Kalenjin warriors but they were easily overpowered by the huge number of Kalenjin youths who were armed with bows, arrows and machetes who then turned against us, women and children. We were on our knees praying as they started breaking into the church by cutting the door with machetes. We despaired knowing that was our end (Jane Muthoni; on 20/02/2021 in Eldoret).

When asked if they knew those who attacked them; Muthoni said, "They were from around here, our neighbors. We know them and they also know us by our names." Another victim who identified himself as Francis Mwangi described the attack which took place in the Kenya Assemblies of God Pentecostal church as follows;

The kalenjin attackers sprayed paraffin on the church building and poured some petrol into the church building through the windows. They then threw fire into the church building. As the fire consumed the wooden building, the women who were inside the church tried to get out of the burning church with their children by jumping through windows. Nevertheless the charged Kalenjin youths who were waiting outside were cutting them like wild animals as they emerged (Francis Mwangi on 20/02/2021 in Eldoret).

"They snatched my daughter from me and threw her back into the fire," said Wangaci Janniffer, as she broke into tears wailing terribly as if it had just occurred. She confessed having pushed her two elder children out of the window, and as she climbed out holding her three-year-old daughter, Miriam, in her arms, the attackers grabbed her from her hands and threw her back into the burning church. Another woman, who identified herself as Margaret Wangari, forty eight years old, said that her niece, known by the name of Karen Ngendo was also killed in the church. She confessed, "I was carrying her out of the church, but she fell," Wangari continued to say. "I had my six children with me and we had to run for safety. I could not go back for Karen." When Wangari went back to that same church a few days later she found policemen guarding the place as Red Cross workers were removing the death bodies. She saw several corpses lying side by side and all of them were children. She was prompted to think that one of them was probably Karen. She once again broke down into tears while narrating this ugly incident.

During another separate interview which was held with five elderly members of the kalenjin community, it was revealed that in 2007 general elections, hundreds of angry youths and men from community of the Kalenjin felt that they had been cheated in the dubious election results in which President Mwai Kibaki was declared as the winner over the chief opposition leader Raila Odinga. They were revenging against the Agikuyu ethnic group to which Kibaki belongs. Asked if they knew about the Kenya Assemblies of God Pentecostal church massacre most of the attendants said yes. "We do," said one man who identified himself as Koeh Peter. He continued to say, "There was a message that the Kikuyus were hiding in the church compound and warriors moved there." Another man carried on to confirm:

"The men and women had babies and small children, but they carried weapons to defend themselves. Is not someone with a weapon prepared to attack? It is not Kalenjin custom to kill women and children but they attacked them after they refused to come out of the church by burning them inside." This narration confirms how disproportionate and indiscriminate violence was.

When the researcher enquired why they attacked the people who were seeking refuge in the church which is God's Holy sanctuary, one of the youths among the community elders, who was in the meeting replied, "They were not worshipping in the church. They went there to hide after cheating in the elections. That made the church a cave and den of thieves not God's Holy sanctuary. They wanted Kibaki to come and rescue his people because they had voted for him. They were to go back to their homes in central province or die." Several more men confirmed that the youths and men who carried out the violence were Christians by faith.

Xan Rice, a British reporter for *The Guardian*, who was among the people who arrived in Eldoret, in western Kenya, where mostly women and children were killed during the 2007/08 post-election violence, made the following observation:

Fear and hostility spread across a large portion of the Rift Valley region. In Baraton, a young Kikuyu student speaking on a cell phone from the University of Baraton East Africa stated that she has been unable to leave her room since Election Day. Kalenjin youngsters, including some of her classmates, had begun threatening all the Kikuyu and Kisii on campus, accusing them of supporting Kibaki. According to the Kikuyu student, the Kalenjins had lit bonfires outside the main entrance and were demanding identity cards from everybody passing through. "We urgently require police protection," the student stated (Xan Rice, Wed 2 Jan 2008, 19.26 GMT, www.theguardian.com/world/2008/jan/02/kenya, accessed 1/3/2021).

Among those who were accessed and interviewed were Moses Maina who is fifty four years of age and a Kikuyu by ethnic origin. He said that before the violence broke out, he had already sent his wife and children by air to Nairobi after suspecting that things would not be good. He said, "I was born in Eldoret. My father came here in 1950. This is my home, and now I am was running away from it. Where was I supposed to go?"

In the years running from 2002 up to 2017, some churches were ethnically politicized and divided. The Roman Catholic was perceived as pro-kikuyu while African Inland church was perceived to be pro-Kalenjins. One reason why Roman Catholic and NCK were perceived to be pro-kikuyu was because some of the key leaders of these churches were appointed to serve in senior government positions such as chairing the Resettlement Task Force and the Ethics and Anti-Corruption Commissions (EACC). The Roman Catholic Church was also blasted as partisan after making a statement in opposition of federal system of government. Leaders of NCK leadership acknowledged their failure to be neutral in politics thus

We regret that, as church leaders, we were unable to address these concerns effectively due to our partisanship. Our efforts to avert the current situation were unsuccessful because we, the NCK leadership, did not speak in unison. We were divided on how we viewed election administration; we associated with our people based on ethnicity; and we were divided on how to deal with the issue following the elections (Klopp: 2009; 141).

Klopp, J. M., (2009; 143) argues that political violence in Kenya is rarely based on religious analogy or text but on redressing hoarding of power, economic injustice and ethnic divisions. In this regard violence has been used as a means of redressing; abuse of power by those in leadership (i.e. the Agikuyu or Kalenjins), marginalization and abuse of human rights and use of police violence. It is on this basis that religious worldview and language have been used in challenging violent political actions as illegitimate. Contrary to 2007, in the 1990s NCK was thrust into the central role and core function of fighting against political violence by not only criticizing the government but by providing relief to the victims of violence. The NCK also promoted peace and reconciliation between the victims and the host communities.

Throughout the 1990s NCK was the first religious organization to document the politically motivated violence; its nature, dynamics and consequences both in urban and rural areas. NCK disseminated information exposing those who were displaced and countered the government propaganda about the clashes as tribal warfare to the press. By this means NCK leadership used first hand evidence to courageously criticize and resist the government's involvement in ethnic clashes through prayers. For instance on 31st March 1992 NCK called for a country wide prayer day in which the national attention was drawn to the violence. NCK demanded in press statement for the government to withdraw from the unnecessary spilling of innocent people's blood and the wanton destruction of property (Klopp, J. M., 2009; 143).

Similarly the Roman Catholic bishops; Zacchaeus Okoth of Kisumu diocese, the late Ndingi Mwana'a Nzeki of Nakuru diocese and the late Cornelius Korir of Eldoret diocese demanded that the government support victims of violence that were internally. In a pastoral letter released in March 1992, the Roman Catholic bishops condemned the government for failing to protect her citizens and asked for reconciliation and assistance for the victims of the violence

claiming that it was only the churches and nongovernmental organization that had been involved in caring for the victims of violence while the government was not committed.

Klopp, J. M., (2009; 143-144) observed that the Roman Catholic Church marshaled resource from local and international communities which it used in feeding and settling the victims of violence. It was noted that the number of deaths from wounds, malnutrition and diseases of victims of violence staying in the makeshift camps would have been much greater if NCKK and the Roman Catholic had not intervened. In 1993, NCKK was spending sixteen million Kenya shillings monthly in feeding those who were internally displaced by the violence.

4.4 Role of Church In Violence in 2017 General Elections

There was violence once again in the 2017 general elections. In a pastoral letter issued on 20th June 2017, at Waumini House in Nairobi, the Kenya Catholic Bishops petitioned to the country's political leaders and aspirants to conduct themselves peacefully and to ensure that whatever they do was in the interest of Kenyans and promotes peace and unity. They urged political leaders and aspirants to foster a unified nation by refraining from drumming up tribal and ethnic sentiments. The Bishops urged politicians to desist from inflammatory and irresponsible utterances which stir up revulsion towards specific candidates. The Bishops called for Kenyan politicians to conduct themselves with utmost sobriety to ensure that the 2017 General Elections are free, fair, peaceful and credible. The Bishops called on Kenyans to resist and reject any form of incitement that would lead to violence.

On September 26, 2017, the Kenya Conference of Catholic Bishops (KCCB) urged the ruling Jubilee party and the opposition National Super Alliance (NASA) to accept the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission (IEBC) invitation to dialogue in order to chart the a path forward in the re-run Presidential election set for October 26, 2017. The conversation would avert imminent war and violence that was being fanned and orchestrated by both Jubilee and NASA politicians. On the Tuesday of September 26, 2017, the Catholic Bishops while in a press conference that was held at Donum Dei in Karen, Nairobi, called upon relevant agencies like Director of Criminal Investigation (DCI), Director Public Prosecution (DPP), EACC, the Police Service and the NCIC to take up their responsibilities and ensure that the independence and accountability of institutions and the rule of Law, justice, and fairness was upheld.

After reviewing the country's political climate, the Catholic Bishops concluded that unless the country engaged in conversation to agree on common national initiatives towards stability and good governance, the country risks devolving into full-fledged violence. The Bishops called on the country's political rivals to stay away from violence at all cost. The prelates praised the IEBC for making necessary reforms to ensure that the re-run election would be free, fair, peaceful and credible:

On the IEBC, there have been demands from both sides of the political divide, which the IEBC is attempting to meet. We, the Catholic Bishops, believe that the proposed dialogue meeting will provide an opportunity to discuss current issues related to the elections, (they said in the pastoral letter).

President Uhuru Kenyatta was being urged by the Bishops to emerge as a symbol of national unity and to provide the needed leadership at this time. The Bishops also urged all Kenyans and people of good will to refrain from violent rallies, name-calling, hate speech and threats which would only add to the heightened tensions surrounding the re-run election. Kenya's Presidential election was re-run after the country's Supreme Court overturned the initial results (CISA in Nairobi).

The Kenya Conference of Catholic Bishops (KCCB) urged all Kenyans to obey and respect the Supreme Court's decision to annul the presidential election results, as well as to follow the court's directions. On September 6, 2017, KCCB Chairman and the Bishop of Homabay, Philip Anyolo spoke to the media at Waumini House in Nairobi, saying that Kenyans should defend the Supreme Court 's independence, dignity, and integrity, even if they disagree with their decisions. He stated

While any individual has the right to criticize any institution with which he or she disagrees, attacks against the judiciary and any other public institution should cease. We demand an end to open intimidation of the judiciary and the Supreme Court (interview responses by KCCB Leader, held on 6th September 2017).

The KCCB Bishops thanked Kenyans for voting in record numbers on 8 August 2017 and urged them to do so again on 17 October 2017 to elect their favorite presidential candidate. He urged the public to engage in only peaceful and respectful activities that support national values and contribute to the election's credibility, fairness, and peaceful conduct. On November 26, 2017, Archbishop Anthony Muheria of the Nyeri Archdiocese urged young people in Kenya to reject prejudice and tribalism and instead respond to Christ's compassion. Archbishop Muheria presided over the National Catholic Youth Convention held at Machakos Stadium. Bishops John Oballa of Ngong Diocese and David Kamau, Auxiliary of the Archdiocese of Nairobi, served as concelebrants.



Archbishop Muheria, who served as the Apostolic Administrator of Machakos, exhorted young people to be positive in the face of several obstacles in life. "We must reject hate messages; we must not succumb to the crocodile of hatred. Today, my young ones, we are being told to open our hearts, not to harden them. Your hands are intended for blessings, not for violence," Archbishop Muheria stated.

Bishop Cornelius Korir, the late Bishop of Eldoret and Chairman of the Kenya Conference of Catholic Bishops-Catholic Justice and Peace (KCCB-CJPC), urged religious leaders and the news media to work together to unite Kenyans as general elections approach. "Religious groups should treat their adherents with dignity and without division. Simultaneously, the media must manage the voting process effectively and without causing havoc. At times, we are unaware that we are wreaking havoc. We do not want to see this country divided again along ethnic lines," he stated. The Bishop, addressing at a religious leaders and media engagement at Nairobi's Sarova Stanley Hotel, expressed sadness that certain segments of the media and religious groups were instrumental in inciting animosity during the 2008 General Elections. He underlined the importance of never repeating past errors. He stated the following:

In 2008, several media organizations were actively inciting hostility... Certain Bishops were not recognized in certain locations due to their views. The Bishop continued, "We would like to express our gratitude to all Kenyans, regardless of ethnic origin." In Kenya, we have 44 communities. How do we connect these 44? We must recognize each group's ethnic origins. We must recognize God's gift to each group.

Fr. Lucas Ong'esa, the KCCB's Deputy Secretary General, urged the Kenyan media to do a better job of guaranteeing peaceful elections. "The media's involvement is critical during (the) electioneering period...it is for this reason that we request that the media and one of Kenya's institutions participate in the process that can ensure free, fair, credible, and peaceful elections," he said. The religious gathering brought together representatives from the Kenya Conference of Catholic Bishops (KCCB); the Seventh-Day Adventists; the National Muslim Leaders Forum (NAMLEF); the Evangelical Alliance of Kenya (EAK); the Hindu Council of Kenya; the Interreligious Council of Kenya; the Supreme Council of Kenya Muslims (SUPKEM); and the Organization of African Instituted Churches (NCKK). Bishop Cornelius Korir was well-known in Kenya for his involvement in bringing peace to northern Kenya's feuding pastoralist groups (CISA in Nairobi).

The Bishops of the Anglican Church of Kenya (ACK) spoke out against planned amendments to the election laws, stating that the action will "...mutilate the constitution and erode the independence of government institutions." In a statement read on 27th September 2017 at All Saints Cathedral in Nairobi by Archbishop Jackson ole Sapit, the church's thirty-five bishops urged politicians to respect the Supreme Court's and Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission's independence (IEBC). "We take notice with grave concern of the plan to modify the constitution in response to independent decisions made by several independent government organizations," the bishops stated.

The proposed bill, which was introduced by the Jubilee Party's majority leader in the National Assembly, sought to amend election regulations through the Election Laws (Amendment) Bill 2017, which they claimed would settle uncertainties before to the repeat presidential election on 26 October 2017. On the other side, members of parliament from the National Super Alliance (NASA) characterized the move as suspicious, malicious, and unneeded. Additionally, the Anglican Bishops appealed for the expulsion of electoral authorities responsible for the 8 August elections, which resulted in the Supreme Court nullifying the Presidential election results. According to Ole Sapit

To avert another botched election, the IEBC must cleanse itself and take corrective measures, including the exclusion of individuals who failed in their duties during the last elections.

The Bishops urged the IEBC to reclaim public trust by being transparent and communicating with the public on a continuous basis. They also urged the IEBC to listen to and address any legitimate concerns expressed by presidential candidates. Archbishop Sapit also urged Uhuru Kenyatta and Raila Odinga to engage in talks in order to resolve the impasse over the rerun presidential elections scheduled for 26 October. He stated

The Anglican Church is willing to lead these initiatives alongside other religious leaders. As a result, we urge Jubilee and NASA presidential aspirants to embrace dialogue in order to avert approaching calamity, he added. (In Nairobi, CISA)

In September 26, 2017, the Kenya Conference of Catholic Bishops (KCCB) head Philip Anyolo and other bishops conducted a media briefing. In October 25, 2017, the KCCB urged for peace and discussion in connection with the upcoming presidential election recount. Additionally, the bishops urged President Uhuru Kenyatta and Mr. Raila Odinga to engage in discussion to resolve the impasse. President Kenyatta stated that the election must proceed as planned, but Mr. Odinga stated that no election would be held without reforms.

As Kenyans prepared for a new presidential election on Thursday, 26/9/2017, Catholic bishops pleaded for peace. On that Wednesday, the priests also decried the police's use of excessive force to disperse protesters. President Uhuru Kenyatta and opposition leader Mr. Raila Odinga have been tasked by the Kenya Conference of Catholic Bishops (KCCB) with advocating for peace among their followers. "As religious leaders, we are urging the government and



residents of Kenya to ensure that the right to life is respected in accordance with the Constitution," KCCB chairman Philip Anyolo read in the statement. The bishops urged leaders to exhibit prudence and restraint in exercising their influence, cautioning that they would be held accountable for their acts.

V. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

In reference to the discussions held in this paper, the study established that the churches in Kenya played various roles in the violence; some of the churches kept quiet as violence flourished in their areas of jurisdiction because they conceived it as punitive and ungodly and in that way, they were in coordinated efforts; while some other churches condoned and extenuated circumstances that led to violent acts because they had a passive attitude towards the government authority having been part and parcel of it in calling for social changes; whereas some churches were not only complicit but endorsed and exhorted violence particularly by blessing youth warriors before going to fight in ethnic violence, believing that it was their religious duty to extirpate injustices and subdue evil in the sinful world using strategic acts of violence as necessary means of deterring large acts of violence and that they had the divine authority to legitimize violence so as to uproot the political evils bedeviling Kenya.

5.2 Recommendations

This study has raised the issue of role of Islam and other non-Christian organizations in the political violence during multiparty general elections in Kenya. It is important to understand the dynamics of the roles played in violence by other religious organization in multi religious nations like Kenya. The degree to which Muslim faithful influence political views in Kenya with regard to election violence is critical. It is my hope that researchers with interest in Islam, violence and politics in Kenya will pursue this area further.

The issue of how the church can mitigate against the cyclic political violence in Kenya kept on evocating in the study. It is important to understand the remedies that the church can put in place to alleviate violence during elections in Kenya. It is my expectation therefore that scholars interested in this area will engage in it.

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Impact of Risk Management on Success of Livestock Production Project: A Case Study of the Kageno Rwanda Project

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to assess impact of risk management on the success of livestock production project with a case study of Kageno Rwanda Project. The specific objective of the study was Assessing the Risk Management Process for Livestock Production in the KAGENO Rwanda Project. Risk Management Theory guided this research. This study employed descriptive research design The data was collected by using questionnaires, interview and documentation techniques with a sample size of 500 which stratifies into 15 Staffs of Kageno Rwanda Project, 480 Farmers and 5 Veterinaries Doctors for interview. The findings showed that identifying risk is the first stage in risk management (Mean=4.13 and std.=0.96). The second process of risk management within Kageno Rwanda Project is risk assessment which confirmed by (mean=3.94 and std=1.09), the third process of risk management is risk mitigation which presented by (mean=2.26 and SD=1.58). The study concluded that the bulk of the low-income farmers in the Kageno Rwanda Project reside in a region where crop diseases, floods, sickness among family members, and crime are common. The researchers recommend that the government has to be aware that risk management techniques are a flexible project tool, particularly for livestock and agricultural projects. The farmers should improve the living condition of livestock employees in order to overcome labour shortage and the farmers should try to eliminate all risk by insuring their livestock.

Keywords: Livestock, Project Success, Risk Management

I. INTRODUCTION

Every commercial company has risks, and the agriculture industry is no different. Farmers confront a variety of risks and uncertainties, including those related to production, marketing, finances, and institutions, among others (Anderson, 2003). If these risks are not appropriately controlled, farmers may experience greater losses in their producing operations. Numerous studies have discussed productivity losses brought on by illnesses, pests, and unfavorable weather conditions (Alessandri, 2019) as well as the substantial costs that farmers bear while trying to prevent situations that endanger their ability to make a living from farming.

For the majority of the main grain-producing regions in China, the likelihood of a 10% loss in grain output as a result of flood calamity is assessed to be above 90%. For instance, controlling herbicide-resistant wild oats with an alternative herbicide is thought to cost grain producers in Saskatchewan and Manitoba more than \$4 million yearly. Farm owners must deal with erratic weather patterns, fluctuating input and product price variations, and necessary technological improvements entailed in the farming industry. Farm profitability varies from season to season and year to year as a result of this instability and drastic changes (Pinto, 2012).

The methods used for raising cattle, a region's climate, supportive governmental regulations, and the sorts of farms all affect the sources of risk and the intensity to which they are present. This implies that perceptions of farmers' importance in terms of risk kind and degree differ depending on location. Since they lack complete information to predict events like input prices, output prices, and weather conditions that may impact the profitability of the farm company, livestock farmers are particularly concerned about risk.

Farmers, according to Hillson (2002), are subject to a particular set of production and economic risks, including drought, excessive moisture, frost, hail, pests, and disease, as well as rising operating costs, low profit margins, and high fixed costs. These risks cause fluctuations in farm income and endanger the viability of the agricultural sector. Grain and oilseed are two important products that Saskatchewan produces, and the majority of these products are exported

As a result of the dangers they confront, farmers employ numerous risk management techniques. In reality, a number of studies have looked at the methods farmers use to control risk. These studies have discovered that among the techniques used by farmers to manage and lower risks include crop insurance, futures contracts, vertical integration, spreading of sales, diversification, off-farm investments, producing at low cost, and preserving financial reserves (Turner, 2018). The majority of risk analysts, as stated by Shepherd (2009), assume a connection between the kind of risk and the management plan that should afterwards be employed to handle such risk.

Parker (2016) noted that although the different risk management techniques are logically tenable, it is up to farmers to choose the precise set of risk management techniques that best fits the unique traits of their farm. Farmers' understanding of the risk involved, their capacity for managing risk, and their level of risk aversion all influence the range of management techniques they use. Focusing only on one strategy or class of methods, as the authors noted, misses the "whole farm context in which farmers manage risk." As a result, it may be difficult to grasp how farmers could respond to shifting risk scenarios and to provide an accurate picture of the risk environment they face. As a result of the aforementioned arguments, farmers' risk management techniques may not always be uniform (Shepherd, 2009).

Shrnhur (2017) asserted that the risks that farmers specifically confront vary from nation to country and from area to region, and the risk management solutions employed to control hazards are not fundamentally the same. Farmers across the world encounter a variety of risks in productive agriculture. Depending on a farm's and a farmer's characteristics, risk management solutions within the same industry may vary. When it comes to risk, farmers may perceive it differently depending on their experiences, marketing circumstances, weather, or even the institutional system in which they operate (Shrnhur, 2017).

According to Shenhar (2018) the ability of farm managers to distinguish which of these risks can be controlled internally from those that are outside their internal control is a key component of whether or not the transfer of risk through strategic partnerships throughout the supply chain will prove to be an effective strategy. In order to better inform farm advisors and provide the necessary information to guide policy directions, it is important to look into the perceived sources of risks faced by grain and livestock farmers as well as the types of risk management strategies that farmers believe are crucial in controlling risk.

Financial, safety, communication, and decision-making efficiency are other advantages of risk management. By 2035, Rwanda wants to move from its current agricultural growth rate of 5% to an annual growth rate of 10%. While not yet accomplished Approximately 1,371,828 cattle heads, 2,387,898 goats, 541,416 sheep, 1,385,769 pigs, 5306,524 chickens, and 688,788 rabbits are present in Rwanda, according to the Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Resources' 2019 report (MINAGRI, 2019 to potentially contribute to agriculture-led growth and the socioeconomic transformation of the population) (Turner, 2018).

In order to increase productivity, some projects, like the KAGENO Rwanda Project, participate in livestock production by distributing cattle to disadvantaged communities. The researcher evaluated the role of risk management to the Kageno Rwanda Project's success in cattle production in order to define success.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

To reduce the length of the shock-recovery-shock cycle, controlling agricultural risk is more important in light of long-term developments like globalization and climate change. Globalization is uniting the world like never before through commerce, financial markets, and politics, while climate change is making people more vulnerable and causing protracted crises. According to some observers, the fundamentals of supply and demand for agricultural commodities have changed, creating weak commodity markets that are inherently more susceptible to unfavorable occurrences (Hillson, 2019).

The Kageno Rwanda Project's agricultural sector relies heavily on rain-fed agriculture and raising cattle in the wild, hence its economic performance is typically unpredictable due to its biological makeup. Because of the unpredictable nature of rainfall, animal mortality from livestock diseases, and changes in output prices, this type of production is inherently risky. However, farmers who have adopted the practices of zero grazing will perceive the risk of a labor shortage as being less than other farmers, highlighting the potential of this method.

According to Alessandri (2019) the majority of environmental features in low-income nations include crime, floods, family member illness, and crop illnesses. They all result in uncertainty. In low-income countries like Kenya, a number of individuals experience food insecurity and poverty due to a confluence of several factors. They are exposed to a range of dangers and uncertainties due to the ecological, economic, and sociopolitical environments. Food shortages, a deterioration in nutritional health, and poverty can occur as a result of these risks and unknowns very fast.

1.2 Research Objectives

Assessing the Risk Management Process for Livestock Production in the KAGENO Rwanda Project



II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Review

2.1.1 Risk Management Theory

This theory was postulated by Markowitz in 1952. It provided a foundational basis on portfolio selection and risk mitigation. This theory was first established within financial investment settings. Markowitz's theory points out the benefits of diversification and strategic risk minimization with an aim of enhancing project outcomes (Markowitz, 1952). It posits that optimal management of risks enables a business project to preserve its key goals by eliminating adverse effects while maximizing opportunities. In livestock production settings, where projects are prone to shifting market conditions, disease outbreaks, and environmental constraints, adopting risk management theory can offer a structured technique to identify, evaluate, and prioritize these risks, hence boosting sustainable success.

Regarding the situation at Kageno Rwanda Project, applying this theory lies in its emphasis on proactive risk evaluation and the establishment of a balanced "risk portfolio." Through handling risks, the project can point out particular hindrances e.g. livestock diseases or resource shortages and establish mitigation tactics. This includes diversifying livestock breeds or initiating emergency response mechanisms. Effective and sustainable risk management, as opined by Markowitz's model, does not eliminate risks in totality, rather equips project managers with instruments to adapt and be resilient, ascertaining continuity in production and realizing long-term objectives in the wake of uncertainties.

2.2 Empirical Review

A research by Silva (2016) investigated practices in risk management in livestock production in the Netherlands. Research focused on how Dutch farmers managed risks linked to climatic changes, disease outbreaks and economic fluctuations. Outcomes of research alluded that risk management practices for instance enforcing insurance policies, expanding income streams from farm projects as well as adopting current health protocols, considerably boosted stability and revenue from livestock production projects. The study highlighted the value of government support and advancements in technology in fostering resilience and curbing risks.

In Ethiopia, a study conducted by Gilligan (2017) evaluated risk management techniques particularly in livestock production. The country confronts challenges like water scarcity and extreme temperatures. The investigation illustrated how Ethiopian livestock producers incorporated technological solutions, for example up-to-date cooling and hydration systems, to curb environmental stresses. At the same time, collaborating with local state agencies in risk-related financial support and subsidies proved vital in fostering livestock production. The research findings indicated that enforcing tailored environmental risk strategies was instrumental in preserving livestock health and boosting productivity in arid conditions.

In Botswana, research by Shrnhur (2017) assessed how local livestock producers controlled risks arising from extreme droughts and decreasing grazing fields, which consistently risked survival and productivity of beef cattle. Farmers adopted different risk management strategies, e.g. investing in drought-resistant cattle. Another tactic employed is practising rotational grazing to curb land degradation. In the same vein, collective action through farmer cooperatives enabled pooled resources and sharing of knowledge. This enhanced resilience against environmental risks and uncertainties in the market. This collaborative methodology underpinned the efficacy of community-based risk management in bolstering livestock production.

A research performed in Kajiado County by Galvin (2016) focused on the risks linked to disease outbreaks and market shifts in livestock production projects. Research outcomes hinted that Nigerian farmers often lacked consistent risk mitigation resources. However, they embraced strategies such as informal savings groups and community health initiatives to cope with disease risks. Procedures in disease management e.g. vaccination initiatives enabled by regional veterinary services are critical in decreasing mortality rates of livestock. Findings from the research also stressed need for bolstered government involvement and formal training in risk management. This is because they were found to be paramount for long-term growth and viability in livestock sector projects

III. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

This study employed descriptive research design encompassing quantitative and qualitative methods to address the research topic. A quantitative approach is used to gather data and analyze it. This can be done by questionnaires or statistical representation, and the results are numerical. The respondents are picked for this approach from the study's field. In contrast, the information gathered utilizing a qualitative approach—often through concentrated group or individual interviews—is not measurable (Baikey, 2000).



In this inquiry, both primary and secondary data were employed. A variety of data collecting techniques, including surveys, interviews, and documentation, was used to directly gather primary data from the livestock projects in the Nyamasheke District. Secondary data was gathered from a variety of sources, including textbooks, publications, and the internet, in order to offer enough and trustworthy information on the impact of risk management to the performance of the livestock production project.

3.2 Target Population

Research should be done on the target population because it is an optimum research approach to collect data from the whole population since this would provide the group under investigation the broadest possible coverage (Barnett, 2008). All Nyamasheke District residents, including farmers who participate in the Kageno Rwanda initiative's local livestock initiative and veterinarians who operate in the Rangiro Sector, will make up the research population for this study. In this way, the target population was 500 persons.

Table 1

Classification of Population

| Classifications of elements of Sample size | Total elements |
|--|----------------|
| Staff of Kageno Rwanda Project | 15 |
| Farmers | 480 |
| Veterinaries Doctors | 5 |
| Total | 500 |

3.3. Sampling Procedure

Sampling methodology is the process a researcher uses to choose a sample from the entire population. The sample method adopted in this research was purposive sampling. This is a sampling strategy whereby the researcher utilizes his/her judgment to select respondents who most closely match the study's objectives. As such, the investigation solely focused on the staff farmers working on projects in Nyamasheke District.

For accurate information on how risk management affects the success of cattle production projects, staff farmers were involved in the research. The Farmers of Kageno Rwanda Project in the Rangiro Sector of the Nyamasheke region were chosen as the representative sample using the Yamane’s algorithm from the entire population of 495.

The following formula determine the sample:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2} = \frac{495}{1 + 495(10\%)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{495}{1 + 495(0.1)^2} = 83$$

n = Sample size = 83

N= Population = 495

(e)²= Sampling error = 10%

3.4 Data Collection Techniques and Tools

The followings are the instruments used in data collection:

3.4.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire as a set of inquiries designed to elicit information from the respondents. It can also refer to a set of questions that you administer to yourself. Both closed-ended and open-ended questions were included in the questionnaire for this study to allow respondents to express their general ideas as well as their specific responses to the questions (Grawitz, 1995). All participants in the Kageno Rwanda Project were given a series of questions to answer as part of this study.

3.4.2 Interview

The purpose of an interview is to collect information from a respondent through a face-to-face conversation (Williams, 1998). The researcher asks questions verbally during interviews, which can be performed in-person or over the phone. Interviews were carried out with the intention of obtaining information on the contribution of risk management to the project's success in livestock production. The local leaders and veterinarians of the Rangiro Sector in the Nyamasheke district were interviewed.



3.4.3 Documentation

In order to gather background knowledge and learn about other studies on the same topic, (Cooksey, 2008) state that reading books and other resources including text books, the internet, reports, and brochures is one of the data collection approaches. The pertinent literature was reviewed for the sake of this investigation. This was done in order to find out more details on the issue.

In order to get secondary data that aided in the accomplishment of the study's goals, the researcher utilized documentation to examine the influence of risk management on the success of the livestock production project. Using this approach, the research began by asking questions based on investigations, analyses, and illustrations of existing written materials, electronic resources, and particularly the records and yearly reports of the Kageno Rwanda Project.

3.5 Validity and Reliability Tests

The degree to which an instrument measures what it claims to measure is known as validity.

3.5.1 Validity Tests

The extent to which a research tool measures what it was designed to assess is what is meant by validity (Rongere, 1999). In this study, content validity was used to evaluate validity, and expert judgment was enhanced. The questionnaire was subsequently modified, with bias removed and the proper items added. This was accomplished through reconstruction in order to meet the goals of the study.

3.5.2 Reliability Tests

The degree to which a research tool can produce consistent results after several tests is known as its reliability. The questionnaire underwent pretesting before the actual research. The reliability of the questionnaires and internal consistency of the data collecting tools were then evaluated using Cronbach's alpha. According to Margret (2007), a score above 0.7 was regarded to be acceptable.

The following Table 3.2 lists the reliability findings:

Table 2

Reliability Results

| Variable | No of Items | Cronbach's Alpha | Remarks |
|------------------------------------|-------------|------------------|----------|
| Risk Identification | 6 | 0.865 | Reliable |
| Risk measurement | 5 | 0.704 | Variable |
| Risk mitigation | 6 | 0.728 | Variable |
| Risk implementation and monitoring | 2 | 0.722 | Variable |

Risk Identification had a Cronbach alpha of 0.865, Risk measurement 0.704, Risk mitigation 0.728 and Risk implementation and monitoring 0.722. All the variables had a Cronbach alpha of greater than 0.7 and thus they were measured in a reliable way.

3.6 Data processing

3.6.1 Editing

Editing is the process of finding and correcting errors in questionnaires and interview schedules that have been completed. To make the data complete, accurate, consistent, and intelligible, the researcher updated it.

3.6.2 Coding

Coding is the process of grouping replies into meaningful categories to expose their essential patterns (Cooksey, 2008). The data that was easy to understand was coded by the researcher. According to the provided questions, code frames was created. It was possible to generate coding frames by using the coding patterns that are produced as a consequence of logging the responses to the specified queries. Once the coding frames had been created, frequency counts were done to facilitate tabulation.

3.6.3 Tabulation

Tabulation is the process of organizing data into statistical tables, such as the percentage and frequency of answers to particular inquiries (Grawitz, 1995). The tabulation process involved putting data into statistical tables, computing the frequency answers for each variable, and displaying the number of right answers to common questions and their projected percentages. The updated and processed data was then be added to tables for statistical analysis. These tables, frequencies, and statistics were produced using Excel 2013 and SPSS 22.0 software.



3.7 Methods of Data Analysis

The variables that will be included will be those that are most crucial to achieving the study's objective. After being edited and tabulated, the data are gathered in various table formats and may also be used in other formats for statistical analysis. The qualitative analysis was applied in this investigation. Making observations on the respondents' perspectives on certain occurrences was necessary for this.

3.7.1 Mean

By dividing the total number of all recognized trial outcomes by the total number of occurrences, the mean is determined. The formula for calculating the mean was as follows: (\bar{x}) indicates the mean and x represents the trial's observed outcomes. According to Pinto (2012), $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$

Table 3

Evaluation of Mean

| Mean | Interpretation |
|-----------|-------------------|
| 1.00-1.49 | Strongly disagree |
| 1.50-2.49 | Disagree |
| 2.50-3.49 | Neutral |
| 3.50-4.49 | Agree |
| 4.5-5.500 | Strongly agree |

3.7.2 Standard Deviations (σ)

The standard deviation is a statistical number utilized to know the quality of the data that are distributed to the average. By formula, the standard deviation is computed as follows:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{N} (x - \mu)^2}$$

Table 4

Evaluation of Standard Deviation

| Standard deviation | Quality of data |
|-------------------------|--|
| Standard deviation <0.5 | Low dispersion of data (homogeneity) |
| Standard deviation >0.5 | Big dispersion of data (heterogeneity) |

3.7.3 Correlation

In this study, correlation was employed to demonstrate the statistical association between two variables. As a result, we were able to determine how risk management and the project's success for livestock production in the Nyamasheke region are related. The statistical rules on which the correlation coefficient is displayed are as follows.

Table 5

Evaluation of Correlation

| Correlation coefficient | Interpretation |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|
| $r=1$ | Perfect linear correlation |
| $0.9 < r < 1$ | Strong linear correlation |
| $0.7 < r < 0.9$ | High correlation |
| $0.5 < r < 0.6$ | Moderate correlation |
| $0 < r < 0.5$ | Weak correlation |
| $r=0$ | No correlation |

Source: (Rongere, 1999)

Apart from the methods stated above the following methods were also used in data analysis and interpretation;

3.7.4 Regression Analysis Description

In this investigation, a multiple regression model was used:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \epsilon$$

Project success = Dependent Variable - Constant ϵ = Error = Beta Coefficient: This determines how many standard deviations shifted for a dependent variable for each extra standard deviation of the independent variable.



- X1: Risk Identification
- X2: Risk Assessment
- X3: Risk Mitigation
- X4: Risk Management Implementation and Monitoring

Where Y: is Success as determined by Quality, Time, Budget and Client satisfaction

3.7.5 Analytical Method

This is a technique set of concentrated actions carried out in order to achieve one or more objectives (Williams, 1998). They are a set of guiding principles for any structured research and will aid in the interpretation of the data gathered. The researchers utilized this technique to conduct a more thorough examination of any data pertaining to the impact of risk management on the accomplishment of the Kageno Rwanda Project's livestock project.

3.7.6 Statistical Method

A set of mathematical techniques known as statistics may be used to create probabilistic models from the gathering and analysis of actual data. The statistical technique provides the possibility to assess and quantify the outcomes of study by permitting predictions (Grawitz, 1995). Data is integrated in some form of tables, bar graphs, and pie charts for statistical analysis using SPSS version 20.0 after it has been modified and coded. The study's findings will be counted and quantified using this technique. This approach uses a formula for adding together frequencies and percentages to evaluate quantitative data and show it in tables.

IV. FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

4.1 Identification of Responders

Investigating the socio-demographic details of survey respondents is important. They discuss the respondents' ages, marital statuses, levels of education, and jobs held by the respondents.

4.1.1 Respondents' Age

When a researcher examines the responses of the respondents, this variable is crucial. This variable enabled him to understand how a phenomena under investigation is experienced by various age groups, and this table provides extra information.

Table 6

Age of Respondents

| | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Less than 25 years | 5 | 6.0 |
| 25 – 30 years | 10 | 12.0 |
| 31 – 40 years | 25 | 30.1 |
| 41 – 50 years | 20 | 24.1 |
| Over 50 years | 23 | 27.8 |
| Total | 83 | 100.0 |

The majority of respondents said that the ages of the Farmers was less than 25 years with indications of 6% of respondents, the second range was between 25 – 30 years old with an indication of 12% of respondents above of 50 years old. This showed that the farmers of Kageno Rwanda Project were classified into different ages.

4.1.2 Respondents' Gender

In order to know how many men and women made up the sample size and to get their opinions on the research subject, the sex of the respondents was classified. As a result, the responders were listed according to sex as follows:

Table 7

Gender Distribution of Respondents

| Gender | Frequency | Percent |
|---------------|------------------|----------------|
| Male | 63 | 75.9 |
| Female | 20 | 24.1 |
| Total | 83 | 100.0 |



The table above shows that 75.9% of respondents were male and 24.1% of respondents were female. This table above shows that male respondents constituted a big part of the farmers of Kageno Rwanda Project which is represented by 75.9% while the female respondents were 24.1%. This shows that all gender participated in livestock project of Kageno Rwanda Project.

4.1.3 Level of Education of the Respondents

This part identifies the different categories of respondents who know well the livestock within Kageno Rwanda Project's activities. The following table provides a detailed explanation of how the respondents' education level affected the impartiality and accuracy of the information they supply.

Table 8

Level of Education

| Level | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------|-----------|--------------|
| Primary | 15 | 18.1 |
| O level | 20 | 24.1 |
| College | 25 | 30.1 |
| University | 18 | 21.7 |
| Post University | 5 | 5.0 |
| Total | 83 | 100.0 |

The table above shows that 18.1% of livestock project of Kageno Rwanda Project attended primary school, 24.1% of livestock project of Kageno Rwanda Project attended ordinary level, 30.1% of livestock project of Kageno Rwanda Project attended secondary education, 21.7% of livestock project of Kageno Rwanda Project while 6% of livestock project of Kageno Rwanda Project. This shows that the most farmers are educated.

Table 9

Length of Working with the Project

| Length | Frequency | Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Less than 3 years | 12 | 14.5 |
| 3 – 5 years | 28 | 33.7 |
| 6 – 10 years | 30 | 36.1 |
| Over 10 years | 13 | 15.7 |
| Total | 83 | 100.0 |

The above table presents that 14.5% of respondents works livestock project less than 3 years especially in Kageno Rwanda Project, 33.7% of respondents works livestock project for 3-5 years in Kageno Rwanda Project, 36.1% of respondents works livestock project for 6-10 years in Kageno Rwanda Project while 15.7% of respondents works livestock project over 10 years within Kageno Rwanda Project. This shows that farmers are experienced within the livestock project.

4.2. Assessment of the Risks Management Process to Livestock Production in KAGENO Rwanda Project

The research also requested information on the different risk management techniques used by the livestock project in the Nyamasheke District. In order to determine the extent to which risk management strategies were adopted by the Livestock project in the Nyamasheke District, the respondents were required to indicate their level of agreement with statements demonstrating the extent to which various risk management techniques were applied in their respective businesses.

Table 10

Risk Management Process of Kageno Rwanda Project

| Indicators | Mean | Std. D. |
|---|------|---------|
| Risk Identification | 4.13 | 0.96 |
| Risk Assessment | 3.94 | 1.09 |
| Risk Mitigation | 2.26 | 1.58 |
| Risk Management Implementation and Monitoring | 2.82 | 1.10 |



Table 4.5 shows that the respondents agreed that identifying risk is the first stage in risk management (Mean=4.13 and std.=0.96). The second process of risk management within Kageno Rwanda Project is risk assessment which confirmed by (mean=3.94 and std=1.09), the third process of risk management is risk mitigation which presented by (mean=2.26 and SD=1.58), finally the Risk Management Implementation and Monitoring is considered as process of risk management within Kageno Rwanda Project which confirmed by (mean=2.82 and std=1.10). One the respondents said that

"Farmers must master risk management skills and take precautions to protect themselves against decisions that are made today without taking the future into account. To reduce the possibility of "bad" outcomes, risk management techniques are used. A separate set of practices should be used by farmers who want to reduce risk. They need to identify possible risk factors, foresee prospective outcomes, make decisions from a range of options, evaluate the impacts of each potential outcome, and weigh trade-offs between potential benefits and potential costs of risk".

This shows that farmers were willing to accept, manage and monitoring the risk. Outcomes align with research by Silva (2016) investigated practices in risk management in livestock production in the Netherlands. Research focused on how Dutch farmers managed risks linked to climatic changes, disease outbreaks and economic fluctuations. Outcomes of research alluded that risk management practices for instance enforcing insurance policies, expanding income streams from farm projects as well as adopting current health protocols, considerably boosted stability and revenue from livestock production projects. The study highlighted the value of government support and advancements in technology in fostering resilience and curbing risks (Silva, 2016).

4.3 Types of Risk which Affect Livestock Project

The following table presents the different types of risk management.

Table 11

Types of Risk Affect Livestock Production Project

| Risk | Mean | Std. D. |
|--------------------|------|---------|
| Production risk | 3.06 | 1.265 |
| Price risk | 2.43 | 1.061 |
| Financial risk | 2.86 | 1.323 |
| Technological risk | 2.61 | 1.288 |
| Human risk | 2.98 | 1.164 |

The table above revealed that (mean=3.06 and SD=1.265) of respondents confirmed that the risk that affect livestock project is Production risk where one of the respondents said that “

"Biological processes that are impacted by the environment, including the weather, pests, and disease, determine how well crops and cattle function. Low yields may result from drought or inadequate rainfall. Crops may be harmed or destroyed by hail or severe rain. Significant production losses in crops and animals can also be brought on by pest or disease outbreaks. Farmers fertilize their soil with seeds without knowing how much rain will fall or if a hailstorm would develop. They are unsure of whether pests or infections will be a problem. However, they still have to decide between rearing cattle and farming crops. The expenses related to starting, cultivating, and fertilizing their crops as well as caring for their livestock could not be recoverable. There is a risk as a result. Farmers plant without having complete knowledge of what would happen to their crop. Equipment is a further source of production risk. During the growing season, a farmer's tractor may break down, delaying the harvest and reducing production.

The (mean=2.43 and SD=1.061) of respondents said that the risk that affect livestock project is marketing risk for prices and costs of milk and meat (beef, pork or poultry) where

"The price of agricultural goods is influenced by a variety of factors, including the cost of production, the availability of a commodity, and consumer demand. Price changes may follow cyclical or seasonal patterns that are predictable. Supply and demand, however, have the potential to change swiftly and impact market pricing. Farmers have no notion what prices they will receive for their products whether they raise crops or buy animals. Typically, low rainfall leads to decreased agricultural output and higher commodity prices. One of respondents confirmed.

The mean which is equal 2.43 and standard deviation 1.061 confirmed that the financial risk which occurs when money is borrowed to finance the farm business. One of respondents said that;



“This risk may result from future interest rates, the lender's willingness and capacity to continue making loans when necessary, and the farmer's capacity to provide the revenue required for loan payback. Smallholder farmers who borrow money at high interest rates may find it particularly difficult to pay back the debt. If yields are poor and prices are lower than planned, it can be necessary to sell the farm”.

The (mean=2.61 and Sd=1.288 of respondents revealed that Risk which affect livestock production project is technological risk for that sometimes the risk may be very great and the farmer will need to give it careful consideration. For example, being the first farmer to adopt a new seed or livestock variety may create a wide range of risks, each of which could potentially bring about losses or gains.

One of the respondents said that

“The farmer should take the time to learn about the hazards and how much risk is involved before determining whether to employ the new technology. Decisions are generally simpler when there is little to no danger involved. Making an educated decision is more difficult the bigger and more complex the risk is. It's crucial to keep in mind that farmers don't always choose to take preventative measures. Refusing to choose or make a decision is a choice in and of itself, with consequences. Thus, it is essential that the farmer understand risk and how it applies to his farming business. With increased control over the variables influencing the family, agricultural, and subsistence systems, the farmer benefits”

Human risk was identified as the risk that has the greatest impact on cattle production projects (mean=2.98 and std=1.164).

“Human risk” refers to both the family's personal circumstances and the hazards that illness or death pose to the agricultural business. Farm operations may be impacted by incidents such as death, disease, and accidents. The emigration of employees from rural regions is a typical phenomenon in many nations. Farms could lack laborers due to migration. Social and political instability may have an effect on the job market. In some places, the spread of HIV/AIDS has had a considerable negative impact on productivity and labor availability. When farmers invest in rearing livestock or planting their crops, they cannot be sure that they will have enough workers to run the agricultural activities”. One of the respondents confirmed.

These findings agree with Risk Management Theory in that it provided a foundational basis on portfolio selection and risk mitigation. Markowitz's theory points out the benefits of diversification and strategic risk minimization with an aim of enhancing project outcomes (Markowitz, 1952)... It posits that optimal management of risks enables a business project to preserve its key goals by eliminating adverse effects while maximizing opportunities. In livestock production settings, where projects are prone to shifting market conditions, disease outbreaks, and environmental constraints, adopting risk management theory can offer a structured technique to identify, evaluate, and prioritize these risks, hence boosting sustainable success.

4.4. Source of Risk that Affect Success of Livestock Production within Kageno Protect Rwanda

The following table presents the different problems that influence the success of livestock production problems.

Table 12

Source of Risk

| Source | Mean | Std. D. |
|-----------------------------|------|---------|
| Poor feeding storage | 3.89 | 0.91 |
| Lack of Drinking Water | 3.95 | 1.105 |
| Low production | 3.22 | 1.215 |
| Low use veterinary drugs | 3.70 | 1.150 |
| Diseases for livestock | 3.94 | 0.974 |
| Low qualified veterinarians | 3.85 | 1.363 |

The table above presented that shortage of feeding are source of risk which affect success of livestock production with confirmation of the (Mean=3.89 and Std=0.91), the source of risk is drinking water is a source of risk which affect success of livestock project with confirmation of (Mean=3.95 and Std=1.105), the problem of Low production is a source of risk which affect success of livestock project with confirmation of (Mean=3.22 and Std=1.215), the problem of Low use veterinary drugs is a source of risk which affect success of livestock project with confirmation of (Mean=3.70 and Std=1.150), the problem of Diseases for livestock is a source of risk which affect success of livestock project with confirmation of (Mean=3.85 and Std=1.363).

One of the respondents said that



"Buying medicines from wholesalers without any input from manufacturers is the biggest source of danger. The majority of medication classes are available in the agro-veterinary stores, including vaccines, agro-chemicals such fertilizers, antibiotics, and acaricides. The pharmacy carried mostly antibiotics and acaricides as veterinary medications. The majority of anthelmintic, including Iodine solution and iodine ointment, Hydrogen Peroxide solution, antibiotic intra-mammary tubes, injectable Tetracycline or Penicillin solution, sulphonamide powder for oral administration, crushed charcoal, drug against ticks (Acaricide), and many others, were readily available in all of the stores we visited with the exception of the pharmacies. The majority of respondents stated that their primary sources of information on veterinary pharmaceuticals were veterinarians and animal health workers. According to respondents at the agro-veterinary store, the biggest obstacle to selling veterinary pharmaceuticals was a lack of understanding about the proper dosage and distribution of medications based on needed body weight. There have also been allegations of the funding of drug retail businesses and the abuse of pricey pharmaceuticals bought by livestock producers that are beyond their financial means.

Study results concur with Gilligan (2017) who evaluated origin of risks particularly in livestock production. He observed that issues like water scarcity and extreme temperatures were the main sources of risks. The investigation illustrated how Ethiopian livestock producers incorporated technological solutions, for example up-to-date cooling and hydration systems, to curb environmental risks. At the same time, collaborating with local state agencies in risk-related financial support and subsidies proved vital in fostering livestock production. The research findings indicated that enforcing tailored environmental risk strategies was instrumental in preserving livestock health and boosting productivity in arid conditions.

4.6 To Identify the Relation between Risk Management and Success of KAGENO Rwanda Project

Correlation is a statistical term describing the degree to which two variables move in coordination with one another. If the two variables move in the same direction, then those variables are said to have a positive correlation. Findings in Table below shows the correlation coefficients between risk management and success of KAGENO Rwanda Project;

Table 13
Correlations Analysis

| | | RI | RA | RM | RMIM | S |
|-------------|---------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-------------|-----------|
| RI | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .789 | .654* | .805 | .889** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | 0.000 | 0.00 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| | N | | 83 | 83 | 83 | 83 |
| RA | Pearson Correlation | | 1 | .861** | .713** | .884** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| | N | | | 83 | 83 | 83 |
| RM | Pearson Correlation | | | 1 | .490** | .734** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | | | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| | N | | | | 83 | 83 |
| RMIM | Pearson Correlation | | | | 1 | .807** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | | | | 0.000 |
| | N | | | | | 83 |
| S | Pearson Correlation | | | | | 1 |

Key

- RI:** Risk Identification
- RA:** Risk Assessment
- RM:** Risk Mitigation
- RMIM:** Risk Management Implementation and Monitoring
- S:** Success

The correlation table shows a significant correlation between RI and success, with a Pearson correlation of 0.889 between the two variables. You can see that it is significantly below the thresholds of 0.05 and 0.01. This demonstrates that, out of the criteria taken into account, only the Livestock Production Project as measured by RI have a substantial impact on its success.



The correlation table's findings demonstrate a strong 0.884 link between Risk Assessment and success. It is evident that it is significantly below the thresholds of 0.05 and 0.01. According to this analysis, the only factor that significantly correlates with success is a Livestock Production Project's size as determined by Risk Assessment.

The data of the survey reveal a total p-value of 0.000, which is much lower than the 0.05 level of statistical significance because only 83 respondents participated.

It was found that the Risk Mitigation of a few particular livestock production project in Rwanda affected how well they were successful. The Pearson Correlation value of 0.743 was found to be the most significant, and it indicated that some Rwandan Livestock Production Project' Risk Mitigation and success were moderately positively correlated.

Risk Management Implementation and Monitoring and success are strongly correlated, with a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.807, according to the correlation table. It is notable that it is significantly below the thresholds of 0.05 and 0.01.

V. CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Conclusion

Farms that have embraced the techniques of zero grazing will view a labor shortage as less of a concern than other farms, indicating the potential for this strategy to reduce risk. Because of the unpredictable nature of rainfall, the death rate of animals from livestock illnesses, and changes in output prices, this sort of farming is inherently dangerous. The bulk of the low-income farmers in the Kageno Rwanda Project reside in a region where crop diseases, floods, sickness among family members, and crime are common.

Many farmers in the Nyamasheke District, particularly in Kageno, have lost a lot of cattle as a result of lethal attacks by the RVF, a viral illness spread by mosquitoes that may infect both humans and animals. It causes a serious disease in animals that is characterized by fever, weakness, abortions (loss of pregnancy), and a high rate of severe illness and death, especially in young animals, so we advise the livestock farmers from the Kageno Rwanda Project to vaccinate and insure them against such risks. The insurance company compensated them for the loss.

5.2 Recommendations

The government has to be aware that risk management techniques are a flexible project tool, particularly for livestock and agricultural projects

Farmers should apply the new technology in order to minimize the risks to increase the livestock production. They should improve the living condition of livestock employees in order to overcome labour shortage and try to eliminate all risk by insuring their livestock. The study recommends farming companies to adopt appropriate product pricing in line with estimated risk which will eventually increase project success. The report advises livestock projects to use caution while reducing risks by assigning them to insurance providers. The report advises livestock projects to collaborate with veterinarians in order to reduce animal mortality brought on by livestock illnesses.

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The Influence of Private Security Companies' Infrastructure on the Provision of Services for the NGOs in Juba city, South Sudan

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ABSTRACT

The protection of the public and their property is a significant global concern. Security issues are an inherent aspect of human habitation, and the safety of individuals and their belongings has consistently been of paramount importance across cultures, regardless of their level of development. This holds true whether the culture in question is relatively simple or complex. In South Sudan, numerous private security firms are operating; however, attacks and looting of NGO facilities in Juba City have continued unabated. The rationale of this research is to assess the factors that disrupt the performance of private security companies in providing security services to NGOs in Juba City. The objective of the study was to establish the influence of private security firms' infrastructure on their performance concerning NGOs. The research was supported through the two theories namely resources-based theory and expectancy theory. The target population was 500 employees and sample size included 222 respondents, and the study employed a descriptive research design. The research was guided using interviews and questionnaires for data collection or gathering. Respondents were selected using systematic random sampling and simple random sampling techniques. Data analysis was conducted using SPSS version 23 statistical software, with results presented in tabular form for clarity. The findings from this study aim to inform NGOs decision-making in implementing security measures that mitigate risks while protecting operations within limited resources. It also seeks to foster cooperation and improve security arrangements among humanitarian sectors. Ultimately, the findings will guide policy development and establish guidelines to enhance effectiveness and accountability in conflict zones. The study concluded that there is a significant relationship between private security infrastructures and the provision of security services within Juba City. This is evidenced by small p-values, less than 0.05, indicating statistical significance. The study recommends that private security companies in Juba prioritize investment in advanced security infrastructure—such as CCTV cameras, mobile patrol vehicles, security dogs, and forensic systems—to enhance the security of NGO offices and facilities. Additionally, involving staff in decision-making processes and providing leadership and management training is essential to ensure operational integrity and reliability.

Key Words: Factors Influencing, Performance, Private Security Companies, Providing Security Services, NGOs

1. INTRODUCTION

The protection of the public and their property is a global concern, driven by the universal need for safety and security (Jorge and Jean, 2016). Historically, safeguarding individuals and their belongings has always been central to societal development. Security concerns have been instrumental in shaping social structures, from simple tribal societies to complex urban environments. These concerns remain a constant across different cultures and societies throughout history.

Fischer (2012) emphasize the significant role of private security companies (PSCs) within the U.S. and internationally. These companies tackle various societal issues, extending beyond traditional security roles. Among the most pressing concerns addressed by private security are violence prevention, fear reduction, and victim protection—factors critical to personal well-being, economic stability, and social progress.

According to Abrahamsen and Williams (2011), a widespread misconception persists that public security and crime prevention fall solely on government bodies and law enforcement agencies. However, the United Nations Crime Prevention Guidelines stress the importance of recognizing and integrating various stakeholders in the security sector. Security is a collective effort involving individuals, governments, Non-Governmental Organizations, civil society, and the private sector. The private sector, particularly PSCs, plays a crucial role in enhancing community safety and

combating crime, not as a supplement but as a vital part of the security landscape. Effective collaboration between the public and private sectors is essential to prevent crime and apprehend offenders.

The private security industry (PSI) has expanded significantly, partially due to increased violence and insufficient public security resources. This growth highlights the need for a more inclusive approach that integrates private security with public initiatives to ensure a safer society. Spearin (2014) explores the proliferation of private security firms in China, which now surpass the number of police officers. These firms provide a wide range of services, from law and order maintenance to safeguarding commercial establishments and transporting high-risk items. These companies often fill gaps in the public law enforcement system, and their increasing authority within legal frameworks raises important questions about the governance of security.

In Africa, the Private Security Institutions has grown significantly, especially in South Africa. The expansion began in the late 1970s and 1980s when the South African police shifted focus away from political authority, leading to the growth of private security companies (Abel, 2021). According to Abel (2021), inefficiencies within the South African Police Service (SAPS), including understaffing, low wages, and increased legal challenges, led many individuals and businesses to rely on private security firms. These firms now play an essential role in compensating for perceived shortcomings in public law enforcement.

In other emerging countries, private security companies have become more prevalent. For example, Tanzania experienced a proliferation of PSCs after transitioning from the restrictive Ujamaa policy to a more market-oriented approach in the early 2000s (Mnyawami, 2022). By 2011, there were over 495 registered PSCs in Tanzania, employing around 1.7 million workers, compared to only 29,918 police officers (Chakupewa & Japhace 2022), and the increasing reliance on private security is similarly observed in Kenya, where high-profile terrorist attacks in the late 1990s and early 2000s exposed weaknesses in the existing public security framework. This led to a demand for private security services, attracting international clients.

According to Global Humanitarian Assistance (2015), in South Sudan, the emergence of PSCs was a response to rising insecurity following periods of unrest. Although private security companies have become increasingly necessary, concerns have been raised about their practices. Allegations of illegal activities and underpayment of employees working in high-risk environments have surfaced. According to the Ministry of Justice, Juba City currently has 26 licensed private security companies. However, despite the significant presence of these firms, incidents of robbery, car hijacking, and organized theft have increased, highlighting potential shortcomings in the private security sector.

The reliance on PSCs in South Sudan is further complicated by the rising number of attacks on NGOs, businesses, and individuals (Keku, 2013). Despite the widespread presence of private security, NGOs in Juba City continue to face security deficiencies. Efforts to improve safety have not resulted in the expected outcomes, raising concerns about the ability of PSCs to meet the security needs of these organizations. Moreover, while the demand for private security services has increased, there is a lack of research on the effectiveness of PSCs in protecting NGOs in Juba City. This gap highlights the need for further investigation into the performance-related challenges faced by PSCs in South Sudan, with the goal of improving security services and enhancing stability in the region.

This research aims to fill that gap by examining the challenges faced by PSCs in South Sudan and their ability to meet the security needs of NGOs. By addressing these challenges, the study hopes to provide insights that can improve the provision of security services and contribute to the long-term stability of the region.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

A thorough examination of existing literature underscores the critical significance of security for individuals across the globe, highlighting a pervasive and ongoing struggle with inadequate safety measures. This ongoing concern transcends geographical boundaries, affecting populations in various contexts. Numerous studies (Jorge and Jean, 2016, Fischer, 2012, Abrahamsen and Williams, 2011, Spearin, 2014, Abel, 2021, Abel, 2021, Mnyawami, 2022), both at the global scale and within localized frameworks, have illuminated the substantial role that private security companies (PSCs) fulfill in safeguarding individuals and properties. These entities have become increasingly integral in maintaining safety, especially for Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) operating in regions plagued by conflict and instability.

Specifically, in Juba city, South Sudan, private security companies are tasked with the crucial responsibility of protecting NGOs personnel and their assets amid a challenging environment characterized by violence and uncertainty. Despite their essential contributions, these companies face a multitude of persistent obstacles that impede their operational effectiveness. Factors such as insufficient resources, lack of training, and inadequate regulatory frameworks significantly challenge the capacity of PSCs to ensure the safety of those they are tasked with protecting. The performance of these security providers is directly correlated with the well-being of NGOs staff and the continuity of humanitarian operations, making their performance a vital focal point.

Each of these challenges will require an analysis of the various elements that influence or hinder the operational performances of private security companies in Juba. Their identification will point out not only the existing deficiencies but also highlight a way forward for developing specific strategies aimed at their improvement. The study aspires to deliver an in-depth analysis of the factors that influence the performance of PSCs in Juba, thus contributing to a more secure operational environment for NGOs

1.2 Research Objective

- i. To determine the demographic factors of employees of private security Companies for the provision of services for the NGOs in Juba city
- ii. To examine the influence of private security companies' infrastructure on the provision of services for the NGOs in Juba city

1.3 Research questions

- i. What are the demographic factors of employees of private security Companies for the provision of services for the NGOs in Juba city?
- ii. How does the infrastructure of private security companies influence the provision of services to the NGOs operating in Juba city?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Review

The research is based on the resource-based theory and the Expectancy theory. Both theories suggest that the use of equipment and improvement of skills by security firms is crucial in enabling them to execute security operations for NGOs in Juba city more efficiently (Dempsey, 2003).

2.1.1 Resources Based Theory

In order to enhance the achievement of competitive advantage, Resource-Based Theory (RBT) advocates for crucial resources and their significant and dynamic combination. Human Capital, an intangible asset, is one such resource (Barney, 2001). RBT helps organizations in affirming that the significant personnel and resources they nurture at work are essential components of organizational success (Armstrong & Taylor, 2023).

Ahmed et al (2016) suggest that a robust and consistent workplace culture supports creativity and nurtures staff development. To ensure private security corporations and NGOs achieve their objectives, the availability of resources is crucial for efficient execution. Penrose (2009) introduced the first resource-based theory (RBT) that included a model for successful resource management, diversification planning, and production prospects. The theory of a company as a network of interconnected resources that is focused on achieving its objectives and behaviors was first introduced in Penrose's book (Penrose, 2009). In the 1980s, RBT was established, with the corporate growth hypothesis as its founder. As a result, throughout the 1990s, Jay Barney's work played a significant role in the development of RBT, which ultimately became the main framework for strategic performance and forecasting. RBT aims to create unique company resources that can offer long-term viability advantages. It presents a set of guidelines for determining and anticipating the nature of organizational performance and competitive advantage (Barney, 1991).

As per Resource-Based Theory, a business is more likely to achieve long-term success when it possesses valuable, rare, distinctive, and non-substitute resources. These strategic resources can establish the groundwork for developing organizational skills that result in superior performance over time. Proficiency is necessary to merge, administer, and exploit resources to benefit clients and gain an advantage over rivals.

2.1.2 Expectancy Theory

Victor Vroom developed the Expectancy Theory in 1964, stating that clearly defined performance goals, sufficient resources, support, and substantial rewards are essential for improving employee motivation and attaining high performance within the organization. Communicating employees' roles guarantees that everyone is aligned and comprehends their duties. According to Expectancy Theory (Rehman, et al. 2019), individuals are motivated to perform when they believe their additional effort will be acknowledged and rewarded. Thus, it is essential to remunerate staff for their extra exertions.

In conclusion, the expectancy theory and the resource-based theory offer valuable insights into the factors that affect the performance of independent security companies that provide security services to non-governmental organizations in Juba City, South Sudan. Expectancy Theory assists in understanding individual motivation, incentives, training, and goal alignment, while Resource-Based Theory prioritizes strategic resource allocation,



investment in human capital, organizational flexibility, and access to critical resources. By synergizing these theories, PSCs can develop effective strategies to enhance their performance and effectively safeguard NGOs and their operations in this challenging environment. Expectancy Theory emphasizes the importance of motivation and belief in achieving desired outcomes, while Resource-Based Theory highlights the significance of resource allocation and adaptability in achieving superior performance. Following these theories enables Private Security Companies (PSCs) to make informed decisions and better meet the security requirements of Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in this intricate and constantly evolving environment.

2.2 Empirical Review

2.2.1 To Determine the Demographic Factors of Employees of Private Security Companies for the Provision of Services for the NGOs in Juba City

Employee performance is known to be significantly impacted by demographic factors. George (2010) asserts that demographic factors, which include details like color, ethnicity, and family size, are personal traits.

According to Adio (2010), demographic features are individual data on things like gender, age, sex, income, education, marital status, occupation, religion, birth and death rates, average family size, and average age at marriage. For instance, given their age, one should be eager and vivacious from the start of their career. Up until a certain age, when their energy levels decline and performance slows, their performance is expected to improve as they mature within the company; this is why a retirement age must be established (Adio, 2010).

As Fletchl (2010) notes, demographic traits have an impact on whether or not workers will be dedicated to their jobs. He notes that the degree to which enterprises address the demands associated with their demographic characteristics has a significant impact on how well employees perform, how long they are willing to serve, and how well they act in the best interests of the company's goals. He does not, however, highlight how the same can be implemented.

2.2.2 To Examine the Influence of Private Security Companies' Infrastructure on the Provision of Services for the NGOs in Juba City

Golwal and Kalbande (2013) conducted an assessment of security protocols aimed at reducing vandalism in Engineering College Libraries within the United States. Their research highlighted that the utilization of biometric identification systems and CCTV proves to be the most efficacious security measures influencing operational effectiveness within security firms. Technology encompasses an array of tools, methods, and innovations, ranging from weapon detection and biometric tracking devices to alarm systems, all harnessed through technical expertise. This technological integration ensures vigilant monitoring and detection of criminal activities within a complex environment, thus fortifying security infrastructure and impacting the performance of Private Security Firms (PSFs). Therefore, it is imperative to establish robust security infrastructures to safeguard NGOs premises, property, and personnel.

Investing in technology, as posited by Akers (2008), enables firms to streamline their operations. Modern technology empowers workers to uphold security quality. Moore's law underscores the rapid evolution of technological capabilities in the security domain over the past decades, a response to the escalating crime records, ensuring heightened performance of security personnel. The utilization of internet-connected networks for triangulating information before dissemination to relevant stakeholders has streamlined the tasks of security personnel. This transformation has fundamentally reshaped the performance landscape of PSFs in the realm of guarding and protective services.

According to Kagame and Ndahiriwe (2021), the realm of information technology facilitates a multitude of surveillance tasks. Additionally, it can enhance and extend established security measures such as closed-circuit television (CCTV) systems, leveraging facial recognition technology for crowd identification and monitoring undesirable behavior. The efficacy of these strategies is further augmented when integrated with other approaches like Internet of Things (IoT) device monitoring. Lee and Kusumah (2020) on the influence of supervision on employee performance with work motivation as an intervening variable indicating that good security infrastructures promotes provision of security among private security companies. However, Jaba (2012) study on the private Security Industry in Tanzania: Challenges, Issues and Regulation contradicts this argument by stating that, having infrastructure is not the ultimate measure for a security company to achieve and enhance providing of security services as this depends on other factors including having competent human resource which is highly motivated in terms of remuneration and working environment.

Akoch (2021) study on the effectiveness of private security companies in the provision of security to commercial enterprises in Juba city, South Sudan. The findings indicate that NGOs that decide to engage private security firms can improve outcomes by anticipating specific factors. Furthermore, the use of technology by private

security firms is highlighted. However, the endeavors of NGOs to improve their security protocols have not significantly affected their reliance on private security services. The investigation demonstrates that successful cooperation between private security firms and other security actors can improve the effectiveness of outsourced private security services for NGOs. However, the efficacy of private security services offered by NGOs has scarcely been influenced by the augmented security measures adopted by NGOs. However, the efficacy of private security services offered by commercial banks has scarcely been influenced by the augmented security measures adopted by NGOs. Similarly, the effectiveness of security services rendered by NGOs has not been notably impacted. The study advocates that private security companies can enhance their efficiency by collaborating with other security entities and subcontracting security duties to NGOs. Furthermore, the study highlights the adverse effects of depending on private security services for the security of NGOs.

III METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the methodology used in the study, detailing the research design, sampling methods, sample size, research instruments, reliability and validity testing, data collection processes, and data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

The study employs a descriptive survey design to investigate factors influencing the performance of private security companies (PSCs) in providing services to non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in Juba City. This design allows for the collection of data from a wide range of respondents, supporting the evaluation of multiple scenarios. According to Cresswell, (2017) incorporating both qualitative and quantitative data via questionnaires, it enables the computation of correlations between variables, as recommended.

3.4 Sampling Procedures and Techniques

The study focuses on 26 private security companies operating in Juba City, all of which provide security services to NGOs. A systematic random sampling method was applied to select eight of these firms, with the selection based on their existing records. These eight firms collectively employ around 4,000 personnel, averaging 500 employees per company. The systematic random sampling technique ensures that the sample accurately represents the broader population while considering the interests of specific subgroups.

3.5 Sample Size

To determine the sample size, the study applies Yamane's (1967) formula, which accounts for a 5% margin of error. The total workforce of the eight selected PSCs is 500 employees per firm, resulting in a sample size of 222 respondents after calculation. The sample is distributed as follows:

Operations Managers: 8 (4%)

Guard Force: 160 (72%)

Field Supervisors: 54 (24%)

This distribution ensures that each subgroup is represented proportionally in the study.

3.6 Construction of Research Instruments

Data collection involved the use of questionnaires for security personnel and field supervisors, while interview guides were used for operations managers. Additionally, secondary data were obtained from academic journals, textbooks, and reports to provide background information.

3.6.1 Questionnaires

The questionnaire, distributed to the guard force and field supervisors, was structured to gather both qualitative and quantitative data. Coded and processed using SPSS version 2024, the questionnaire included open-ended and closed-ended questions. Closed-ended questions were based on a 5-point Likert scale, which helped minimize bias and allowed for the efficient collection of data from a large number of respondents. Mugenda and Mugenda (2008) advocate this approach to ensure comprehensive data collection.

3.6.2 Interview Guides

An interview guide was used to collect qualitative data from operations managers. The questions, designed in collaboration with the selected Security organizations, focused on gathering detailed information on the management's perspective. The interviews were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed to supplement the quantitative data gathered from the questionnaires.



3.7 Reliability and Validity of Research Instruments

Two weeks before the main research study, a pilot study was conducted at a private security firm in Juba City. This pre-test evaluated the reliability, validity, and practicality of the research instruments. The pilot study helped refine the structure of the questionnaire, clarify the questions, and improve the overall survey process. Although the findings from the pilot study were not included in the final research results, it played a crucial role in enhancing the effectiveness of the data collection process (Alvi, M., 2020).

3.8 Reliability of Research Instruments

According to Amin (2015), reliability, which refers to the consistency of a measurement tool, was assessed using the test-retest method. Twenty staff members from the Private Security Companies (PSCs) in Juba City completed 26 questionnaires across multiple testing sessions, ensuring consistent results. This approach confirmed the reliability of the research instruments, allowing for similar conclusions to be drawn in different instances.

In conclusion, the study employs a robust methodology that includes systematic sampling and the use of reliable and valid research instruments. It incorporates both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods to examine the factors influencing the performance of PSCs serving NGOs in Juba City.

IV. FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

4.1 Demographic Factors of Employees of Private Security Companies for the Provision of Services for the NGOs in Juba City

Table 1

Demographic Information of Respondents

| Character | Response | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Gender | Male | 152 | 70.4 |
| | Female | 64 | 29.6 |
| Age | Below 25 years | 46 | 21.3 |
| | 26-35 years | 119 | 55.1 |
| | 36-45 years | 31 | 14.4 |
| | 46-55 years | 19 | 8.8 |
| | Above 55 years | 1 | .5 |
| Education level | Primary | 5 | 2.3 |
| | Secondary | 63 | 29.2 |
| | College | 21 | 9.7 |
| | University | 93 | 43.1 |
| | Postgraduate | 34 | 15.7 |

N=216,

Table 4. above presents descriptive information in terms of frequencies/percentages regarding respondents' demographic information in terms of gender, age, and education level.

4.1.1 Gender of the Respondents:

The findings presented in Table 4 reveal that a significant majority of respondents, 70.4%, were male, while 29.6% were female. This denounced male predominance may be linked to the challenging working conditions in the study area, which has been affected by conflict, leading many women to be reluctant to work in such an environment. Nevertheless, the perspectives of both men and women were incorporated into this study, effectively addressing the issue of gender representation in research and data collection.

4.1.2 The age of the respondents:

As shown in Table 4, the findings reveal that most respondents (119, 55.1%) were aged between 26 and 35 years, while only a small fraction (1, 0.5%) were over 55 years old. This suggests that the majority of study participants are relatively young. This trend may be attributed to the nature of the work performed by most firms, which requires individuals with higher energy levels to effectively serve the affected populations in and around the capital city of Juba.



4.1.3 The Participants' Educational Backgrounds

The findings, as shown in Table 4, indicate that all study participants were literate, meaning they could read and write. This literacy facilitated their understanding of the study content and allowed them to provide relevant data. Regarding their education levels, nearly half of the participants (93, or 43.1%) had completed a university education, while a smaller proportion (5, or 2.3%) had only attained a primary education. This illustrates that the study included participants with a range of educational backgrounds, highlighting the diversity of education levels among employees in the private security companies in Juba City. According to key insiders or informants, installing CCTV cameras, tracking devices, alarms, and X-ray equipment considerably enhances the security services given to non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in Juba city. These technologies discourage crime, allow for faster reactions, improve investigations, and make the world a better place. They also give crucial evidence for law enforcement and allow non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to focus on humanitarian operations. While these technologies are critical, other aspects such as human resources and leadership are also essential for providing successful security services. These findings are consistent with prior study by Golwal and Kalbande (2013), Te et al. (2016), and Motlagh et al. (2017).

4.2 Quantitative Results on the Influence of private security companies' infrastructure on the provision of services for the NGOs in Juba city

Table 2: Quantitative Results on the Influence of private security companies' infrastructure on the provision of services for the NGOs in Juba city

| Companies' Infrastructure on Provision of Services | Mean | Std. D | Interpretation |
|--|-------------|--------------|----------------|
| Use of biometric identification enhances the services offered to NGOS | 4.84 | .365 | High |
| Installation of CCTV cameras in the PSFs enhances the services. | 4.13 | .895 | High |
| PSC use of tracking device and alarms enhances the security offered to NGOs. | 3.62 | .947 | High |
| PSC use of X-rays enhances the security services offered to NGOs. | 4.63 | .779 | High |
| Grand Mean and Std. D | 4.03 | 0.748 | High |

N=216,

The study findings will focus on the one objective as described below.

4.2.1 The Biometric Identification

The study indicates that biometric identification significantly enhances security services for NGOs in Juba City, achieving a mean rating of 4.84 with a standard deviation of 0.365. Key informants noted that this technology improves both access control and response times. One informant highlighted how biometric systems streamline the screening and verification of personnel, allowing for the early detection of security threats and facilitating quick interventions. This finding is consistent with research by Golwal and Kalbande (2013), which concluded that biometric identification systems are among the most effective security measures for enhancing operational effectiveness in security firms.

4.2.2 The CCTV Cameras

The study reveals that installing CCTV cameras significantly enhances security services, achieving a mean rating of 4.13 and a standard deviation of 0.895. Key informants confirmed that CCTV effectively improves the capacity of private security companies (PSCs) to protect NGOs by deterring criminal activity, facilitating rapid responses, and enhancing the quality of investigations. One interviewee mentioned that CCTV footage is invaluable for law enforcement in identifying suspects and reconstructing incidents. These findings align with Golwal and Kalbande's (2013) research, which identified CCTV as one of the most effective measures for improving security operations in organizations.

4.2.3 The Tracking Devices and Alarms

The study indicates that tracking devices and alarms significantly enhance service delivery to NGOs, with a mean score of 3.62 and a standard deviation of 0.947. Key informants supported this finding, explaining that these technologies deter criminal activity, facilitate quick responses, and reduce risks for NGO personnel. One respondent emphasized that real-time location monitoring, combined with intrusion detection, provides comprehensive security solutions, allowing NGOs to focus on their missions with increased confidence. These findings align with the work of Abbas et al. (2017), which highlights the importance of investing in technology to improve security operations.

4.2.4 The X-Rays

The study found that X-rays significantly enhance security services for NGOs, achieving an average rating of 4.63 with a standard deviation of 0.779. Key informants indicated that X-rays are effective in detecting concealed threats, such as weapons and explosives, thereby ensuring the safety of NGO personnel and assets. The use of X-ray scanners allows for non-intrusive and efficient inspections, which minimizes disruption to NGO operations. This enables private security companies (PSCs) to offer improved security while fostering a welcoming environment.

These findings align with the results of Te et al. (2016), who emphasized the importance of effective security infrastructure in enhancing service delivery. However, Motlagh et al. (2017) argued that infrastructure alone is not sufficient for improved service provision; having skilled and motivated human resources is also essential. In conclusion, key technologies such as biometric identification, CCTV, tracking devices, alarms, and X-rays play a vital role in enhancing security services for NGOs in Juba City. Nonetheless, as Motlagh et al. (2017) suggest, the effectiveness of these technologies largely depends on the presence of competent and motivated personnel. Key informants emphasized the need of various security technologies in improving the protection of NGOs in Juba city. CCTV cameras increase access control, reaction speed, and investigative skills, resulting in a safer environment. Biometric systems improve screening and verification procedures, allowing for early danger detection. Alarms and tracking devices curb crime, enable quick responses, and reduce threats to NGO staff. X-ray machines improve security by identifying hidden dangers, therefore protecting workers, assets, and operations. Overall, these technologies contribute to a more secure environment, allowing NGOs to function successfully and provide critical services.

4.3 Qualitative Results

4.3.1 The Biometric Identification

The first key informant indicated that biometric identification strengthens security measures for NGOs in Juba City, improving response times and access control and the second key interviewee lamented that in Juba City, implementing biometric identification systems for NGOs enhance security by streamlining personnel screening and verification processes which make easy detect any security threat at the early stage for quick intervention by the officer in charge.

4.3.2 The CCTV Cameras

The first key informant indicated that CCTV cameras enhance the security services of private security companies (PSCs) in Juba city and significantly enhances their ability to protect NGOs. This technology can deter crime, facilitate swift response, enhance investigations, and optimize operations, ultimately creating a safer environment for NGOs and their personnel. Therefore, PSCs employ this technology to ensure better security services for their clients and the second interviewee heightened that in the event of a security incident, CCTV footage provides valuable evidence for law enforcement investigations. Recordings can help identify perpetrators, reconstruct events and support investigations

4.3.3 The Tracking Devices and Alarms

The initial key informant asserted that collaborative efforts involving alarms and tracking devices serve to deter criminal activity, facilitate prompt responses, and minimize the risk to NGO personnel, thereby enabling them to pursue their humanitarian missions with greater confidence. The second interviewee indicated that the utilization of tracking devices and alarms represents a robust security solution for NGOs. By integrating real-time location monitoring with intrusion detection, PSC can implement a comprehensive security framework that significantly reduces risk. This allows NGO personnel to focus on their core humanitarian work with greater confidence.

4.2.4 The X-Rays

The first key informant stated that X-rays help to detect hidden threats such as weapons, explosives or contraband that could be smuggled into NGO premises or deliveries. This strengthens overall security and protects everyone involved, including NGO staff, beneficiaries and valuable assets while the second key informant reaffirmed that the use of x-ray scanners allow for quick and non-intrusive inspections, minimizing disruption to NGO operations and beneficiaries. This is particularly important in situations where maintaining a welcoming environment is crucial, so by incorporating X-ray technology into their security protocols, PSCs can significantly enhance the services they provide to NGOs.



V. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

Basing on the study objective, it was concluded that the use biometric identification machines, CCTV cameras, tracking devices, alarms and x-rays by private security companies significantly enhances NGO service delivery in Juba City. These security infrastructures not only promote security and reduce theft, but also contribute to a safer and more conducive working environment for NGOs, thereby improving their operational efficiency in delivering humanitarian services to the community

5.2 Recommendations

Based on the study results, the study recommends that; Private security companies in Juba city should prioritize investment in advanced security infrastructure such as CCTV cameras, mobile vehicles, security dogs and forensic systems to enhance the security of NGO offices and facilities. It's crucial that these companies meet the infrastructure requirements to obtain government licenses.

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The Home-Work Interface as a Predictor of Work Stress and General Wellbeing Among Higher Education Administrators in Ghana

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ABSTRACT

The well-being of employees is a vital resource for the survival and success of any organisation. However, empirical research regarding work stress and general wellbeing of employees in the context of higher education in low and middle-income countries, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa is missing. Drawing on the Job-Demand Resource Model and the Social Role theory, this study investigated the extent to which home-work interface predicted work stress and general well-being of administrative staff of public universities in Ghana. A sample of 334 administrative staff was involved in a cross-sectional survey to assess the levels of home-work interface, stress at work, and general well-being and the nature of interaction among these variables. Data were obtained using adapted standardised measures and analysed with Hayes PROCESS in the SmartPLS 4.0 software. The administrative staff reported moderate levels on all three variables. Home-work interface significantly predicted work stress and wellbeing, but stress did not predict wellbeing. In addition, work stress did not mediate the relationship between home-work interface and general wellbeing. We conclude that home-work interface is a significant element that can adversely affect the stress levels and of wellbeing of workers. Moderate level of stress at work, however, is less likely to adversely impair the wellbeing of the worker. The findings have been discussed in the light of the Job-Demand Resource model and the Social Role theory, and implications for policy and practice offered. We recommend that management of public universities in Ghana should implement policies and programmes to help administrative staff manage the challenges of balancing work and family responsibilities.

Keywords: Administrative Staff, General Wellbeing, Home-Work Interface, Stress at Work

I. INTRODUCTION

Significant socio-demographic changes have affected the various aspects of work and family in developed as well as developing countries. These socio-demographic changes have made it impossible to perform work and family responsibilities synchronously (Bobbio et al., 2022; Milledzi, 2017). For instance, the traditional gendered division of work has drastically faded out in order to pave way for dual-earner couples in which partners combined paid work with family responsibilities. This engenders a conflict when role incompatibility arises that makes the performance of both roles difficult. According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1995), this conflict takes place at the work life interface.

Conceptually, work-family conflict is bi-directional in nature. In view of this, researchers have made a distinction between what is termed work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict Bobbio et al. (2022). For example, work-to-family conflict is linked to the experiences and commitment at work such as work overload, inflexible work hours and extensive travels. On the other hand, family-to-work conflict takes place as a result of the experiences and commitment in the family interfering with work life with regard to unsupportive family members, interpersonal conflict within the family unit and the presence of young children (Bobbio et al., 2022; Lu et al., 2005). However, we



measured home-work interface as a uni-dimensional construct comprising the two directions of the conflict or interference in this study.

Empirical investigations regarding the nuances of home-work interface and general wellbeing in different context and work settings is imperative because different work settings present different dynamics. Khatri and Shukla (2024) observed that work-life interface research has seen a significant upsurge but “shows no sign of saturation” (p. 287). Khatri and Shukla further noted that almost all employees struggle with how to balance the home-work roles, and that imbalance in this regard is a primary occupational health challenge. We investigated within a higher educational setting with a sample of administrative staff because in recent years, higher education institutions have changed due to socio-economic and political systems that affect both the operations and management bodies of higher education institutions (Milledzi, 2017).

There also seem to be upsurge in telecommuting and COVID-19 also brought some changes in the way work is done within higher educational institutions. Given the dynamics with regard to the nature as well as conditions of work in higher education institutions in recent times, it is imperative to investigate the nature of home-work and well-being of workers within various work settings. The degree to which individuals experience role conflict has long-term effects on their health, performance and general well-being (Fellows et al., 2016; Reichl et al., 2014;). There is limited empirical research, especially within the Ghanaian higher education context on the extent to which work-family interface and work stress influence the general well-being of university administrators. This paper therefore investigated the extent to which the work responsibilities of public higher education administrators interfere with their family responsibilities, and how the nature of the home-work role conflict relates to work stress and general wellbeing of administrative workers in public universities.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Universities are often described as professional bureaucracies because their internal organisational structures are highly compartmentalised (Webber, 2016). In order for universities to be relevant to societal needs and adjust to the dynamic complex situations, administrative staff of universities need to demonstrate professional competencies. These competencies include the ability to devise strategies in managing financial and human resources as well as academic facilities that influence teaching and research (Balyer & Ozcan, 2017). Given the continuously evolving socio-political context of universities where administrative staff need to develop their own creative thinking and decision making, it is possible that administrative staff of universities in an attempt to combine family roles with their work roles may experience work-family conflict that may affect their general wellbeing.

Available evidence has shown that work interference with family and family interference with work have been viewed by scholars and researchers as having a distinct antecedents and outcomes (Zhao et al., 2014). However, within the Ghanaian higher education context, it seems we do not have enough empirical evidence to substantiate the argument that work-family conflict affects employees’ work stress and general wellbeing particularly among administrative staff of public universities. Additionally, results of previous studies in other context domains such as industrial and organisational settings have been inconsistent. In the higher education setting, it appears there is limited empirical investigation with regard to the contention that work stress plays a mediating role in the relationship between work-family interface and general wellbeing of administrative staff of universities.

Drawing on the Job Demand Resource model (JD-R), and the Social Role theory, we explored the mediating role of work stress in the relationship between work-family interface and general wellbeing of higher education administrators within the Ghanaian context. Using the JD-R model, the paper argues that stress may be viewed as a demand in the domains of work which may trigger the process of deterioration in employees’ health and general wellbeing particularly, administrators of universities (Cole & Secret, 2012). In addition, Social role theory, posits that the link between work-family conflict and general wellbeing is primarily based on the fact that any increase in work-family conflict tends to reduce the levels of general wellbeing (Frone et al., 1992; Kopelman et al., 1983). This hypothesised negative relationship has been found in most prior studies reviewed in the domains of industrial and organisational settings but not in higher education settings (e.g., Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Netemeyer et al., 1996).

The prime objective of our study was to find out the extent to which the work responsibilities of public higher education administrators interfere with their family responsibilities, and ascertain how the nature of the role conflict relates to the level of work stress and general wellbeing of the workers. Specifically, the study answered one research question and tested three hypotheses:



1.2 Research Question and Hypotheses

1.2.1 Research Question

What are the levels of home-work interface, work stress and general wellbeing among public higher education administrators?

1.2.2 Hypotheses

HO₁: Home-work interface will not significantly predict (a) stress at work, and (b) general wellbeing of public higher education administrators

HO₂: Stress at work will not significantly predict general wellbeing of public higher education administrators

HO₃: The relationship between home-work interface and general wellbeing will not be significantly mediated by stress at work.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Review

Theoretically, the Job Demand Resource model (JD-R) and the Social Role theory have been used to substantiate how work can negatively influence family responsibilities as well as how family responsibilities can influence work responsibilities (Fellows et al., 2016; Milledzi, 2017; Peeters et al., 2020). Additionally, it has been established through research that work-family conflict has negative outcomes on the wellbeing of both the individual and the organisations in which they work. Also, empirical studies have revealed that work can negatively influence the fulfilment of family roles and vice versa (Ballout, 2008; Fellows et al., 2016; Milledzi, 2017; Peeters et al., 2020; Warner & Hausgorf, 2009). For example, Warner and Hausgorf (2009) in their study have reported a strong association between work-family conflict and the wellbeing of the individual, including drinking alcohol, emotional exhaustion, work stress, depression, anxiety, and physical health problems. A comprehensive literature review has identified the extent to which the work-personal life interface factors have been studied with job-related outcomes in cross-sectional and longitudinal designs. However, majority of these studies focused on industrial workers with only few studies focusing on the wellbeing of higher education workers (Milledzi, 2017). The relationship between work-family interface and general wellbeing appears not to have been widely investigated especially with regard to employees in the education sector such as administrative staff of universities in Ghana.

The theory of role-strain argues that people encounter certain demands in discharging their responsibilities, but they would not be able to meet all of them and this tends to put stress on them (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1995). Similarly, strain-based conflict occasions when stress from one responsibility influences the ability of an individual to discharge another responsibility effectively. Strain-based conflict could be due to ambiguity within the work roles of an individual. Finally, when time pressure from one role demand frustrates the discharge of other responsibilities, time-based conflict is the result. Time-base conflicts are prevalent in universities and this form of work-family conflict may have negative effects on workers in the form of stress. The work-family interface literature has shown stress linked to work and family responsibilities may result into health challenges such as depression, low morale, low productivity as well as higher absenteeism and turnover (Duxbury & Higgins, 1994).

2.2 Empirical Review

Work-life literature is based on the scarcity hypothesis, which stipulates that exhaustible resources must be managed well and shared appropriately across multiple roles that an individual occupies (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). These exhaustible resources include energy and time. Subsequent research has expanded to recognise the positive aspects of multiple role engagement, such as facilitation (e.g., Frone, 2003), and enhancement (Ruderman et al., 2002). This perspective, which could be conceived as expansionist perspective (Barnett & Baruch, 1985), however, posits that resources such as energy or time are abundant and renewable, based on the commitment that is given to a particular role (Marks, 1977). More recent literature has adopted a global approach to conceptualising the balance between home and work demands, and views it as a unidimensional as well as integrated construct that includes holistic appraisal of how the home and work expectations interplay (Casper et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2019). For example, Liu et al. (2019) assert that this global approach differentiates balance from conflict and enrichment, and goes further to emphasise the gestalt conception of balance as the overall evaluation of the role experiences. This assertion is also supported by Wayne et al. (2017).

There are rising concerns regarding health and wellbeing in the university communities in recent times. Studies have shown that one-third of university staff and faculty members, experience symptoms of depression, anxiety and or stress (Halat et al., 2023). Similarly, stress at work is considered as a significant health outcome that is associated with the work-family interface. This may eventually affect the wellbeing of the individual (Davis, 2020). Empirical



investigations have shown that stress at the work place may be due to heightened expectations in the workplace. For example, Wajcman (2018) in a study reported that work life in advanced countries is based on the fact that employees in organisations at any given time are expected to work faster in order to be more productive. Similarly, Sayin et al. (2021) in a study indicated that symptoms of stress could be associated with a negative intrinsic job satisfaction.

Gleaned from the literature that stress at the work place has become a significant variable of study in the domains of occupational health psychology, industrial psychology as well as sociology of work. However, it seems that in spite of the plethora of studies, the association between work stress and general wellbeing has not been fully explored, especially, among higher education institutions workers, particularly in low- and middle-income countries. Additionally, there seems to be contradictory findings regarding how work stress is related to the wellbeing of employees. While some studies found positive relationship (e.g., Halat et al., 2023; Wajcman, 2018), other studies, on the other hand, have shown weak or non-significant negative relationships in other context domains (e.g. Haslam et al., 2013). It is essential for studies to be conducted in various contexts in order to broaden our understanding on the antecedents and effects of work stress on the wellbeing of employees, so as to initiate appropriate context-specific interventions and strategies to mitigate its negative effects.

Literature suggests that home-work interface has implications on several occupational related variables including job dissatisfaction, lower work-life balance, job performance, work engagement, higher emotional exhaustion, and stress (Elahi et al., 2022). However, prior research has primarily paid attention to the direct association between work-family interface and general wellbeing outcomes of employees (Cho & Tay, 2016). Also, previous studies on family and work seems to have focused only on the direct impacts of social support in decreasing work-family conflict (Allen, 2001; Kossek et al., 2011). We also observe from the literature that limited studies have so far been conducted with regard to the mediating effect of work-family interface on organisational support and work stress with contradictory results. For instance, Mansour and Tremblay (2016) indicated that work-family conflict partially mediated the association between work load and job stress. Similarly, Barnett et al. (2012) also found a partial mediation of work-family conflict in the association between social support at work and psychological distress. Their study concluded that social support at work could be used to reduce psychological distress, because higher levels of social support lead to lower levels of work-family conflict, and subsequently, lower levels of psychological distress.

In the literature, some empirical studies, on the other hand, have reported significant mediation effects of work-family conflict in the relationships between job demands and burnout among employees (Geurts et al., 2003; Karatepe et al., 2010; Peeters et al., 2005). For instance, Karatepe et al. (2010) in a study found that work-family conflict significantly mediated the relationship between work overload and burnout. However, Leonard (2014) in a study did not find any significant mediation effect of work-family conflict with regard to depression and work synergy. We observe that prior studies have reported contradictory findings such as significant mediation, partial mediation, as well as no mediation in the work-family interface literature, hence, we need further research.

III. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

We used the cross-sectional survey design to examine the extent to which the work responsibilities of public higher education administrators interfere with their family responsibilities, and ascertain how the nature of the role conflict relates to the level of work stress and general wellbeing of the workers. Cross-sectional surveys, it should be noted, gather data at a particular point in time when there is an intention of describing the nature of existing conditions as well as providing descriptive, inferential and explanatory information that can be used to ascertain correlations and relationships between items and the themes of the survey (Creswell, 2014). Cross-sectional survey was chosen for this study because judging from the main thrust of the study where data was collected just at one point in time on a sample of administrative staff of universities, it was deemed the most appropriate design.

3.2 Population

The target population for the study was administrative staff of public universities in Ghana. The accessible population was administrative staff of universities in Southern Ghana. Given that we used a priori power analysis to obtain the required sample size for the study, the size of total population was not determined.



3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

The respondents were obtained through convenient sampling, using online survey, together with in-person administration of the questionnaire. Memon et al. (2020) indicated that factors such as research approach, analytical approach, number of variables, among others, are important considerations in determining the appropriateness of a given sample. Hair et al. (2018) indicated that 100 respondents is considered sufficient for most social science investigations. Another consideration is the ratio of sample to number of variables in the study, with a ratio of 20 respondents to one variable being the most stringent and favoured (Hair et al., 2018). There are three variables in this study (two predictors and a criterion variable). Using this approach, a minimum of 60 respondents would be required.

A recent development in sample size determination is the power analysis approach, which takes into consideration the number of predictors, effect size, and level of significance expected (Hair et al., 2018; 2019; Kline, 2016; Ringle et al., 2018). This study involved two predictors; therefore, using a large effect size of .35, significance level of .05 and expected power of .95, the minimum sample recommended was 48, using the G*Power 3.1.9.4 sample size determination software. The number of respondents in this study satisfied any of these recommendations to produce meaningful results.

3.4 Data Collection Tools and Procedure

We adapted general well-being, stress at work, and home-work interface from the Work-Related Quality of Life (WRQoL) scale by Easton and Van Laar (2018). This scale measures the quality of working life of individuals across six psychosocial sub-scales. Responses to items on all the sub-scales are rated on a six-point Likert-type agree-disagree scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree). Sub-scale scores are obtained by adding ratings across the items, or averaging the ratings of the item scores of that subscale, making scores range from 1 to 6.

The personal profile sheet of the scale permits interpretation of sub-scales into Higher, Average, and Lower ranges (Easton & Van Laar, 2018). We adopted a class width of 1.67 (33.33%) to categorise the scores into low, moderate and high. Thus, low scores range from 1.00 to 2.66, moderate scores range from 2.67 to 4.33, and high scores range from 4.34 to 6.00. Specific descriptions of the three sub-scale are presented below.

3.4.1 General Well-Being

We measured general wellbeing with the six-item sub-scale that reflects the both general physical health and psychological wellbeing of respondents. We used five items in this study because one of the items did not load adequately and was omitted from the analysis. Composite scale score therefore, ranged between 5 and 30. When this composite score is divided by 5 (i.e. the number of items), the scores range between 1.00 and 6.00, and the higher the scores the better the general wellbeing. Reported scale reliability of .82 (Easton & Van Laar, 2018), and we obtained .801 in this study.

3.4.2 Home-Work Interface

The Home-Work Interface was measured using the six-item subscale that evaluates the extent to which an individual feels the organisation understands and takes steps to help them deal with expectations and demands from source external to the workplace. This measure the extent to which the individual feels he has control over when, where and how to work. Previous studies reported good reliability coefficients of .82 (Easton & Van Laar, 2018) for this dimension, and for this study, it was .692.

3.4.3 Stress at Work

We measured stress at work with the six-item sub-scale. The extent of stress is obtained by summing the responses across the items. Scores therefore range between 6 and 36, or average scores of 1.00 to 6.00. The higher the score, the higher the stress perceived. The scale has a reported reliability of .82. We obtained .771 in the present study.

3.5 Data Analysis and Presentation

The study answered one research question and tested three main hypotheses. Data were screened to eliminate influential cases and incomplete responses. We also checked relevant conditions and assumptions as appropriate the analyses. We used to mean and standard deviation to answer the research question, using the SPSS version 27. The levels were categorized into low, average, and high scores on the three variables. Subsequently, determined the frequencies and percentages of staff in each of the levels. The hypotheses were tested using the PROCESS algorithm in the SmartPLS 4.0 software.

IV. FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

We run preliminary analyses to explore and describe the nature of the data before testing the hypotheses. The preliminary analyses include normality test, test of common method bias, multicollinearity of the predictors and linearity of the predictors and the criterion.

Data were obtained and analysed from 334 administrative workers of public universities in Southern Ghana, with ages ranging from 20 to 59, and an average age of 33.63 (SD = 8.05). One hundred and seventy-three (51.8%) were males, with most (207; 62.0%) being diploma certificate holders, and only 1.5% were master’s degree holders. Table 1 presents the highest levels of education and job ranks of the respondents.

Table 1
Level of Education and Job Designation of Respondents

| Level | Frequency | Percentage |
|------------------------|-----------|------------|
| MSLC | 6 | 1.8 |
| GCE 'O' / 'A' LEVEL | 13 | 3.9 |
| SSSCE | 25 | 7.5 |
| Diploma | 207 | 62.0 |
| HND/First Degree | 78 | 23.4 |
| Masters | 5 | 1.5 |
| Total | 334 | 100.0 |
| Job Designation | | |
| Admin. Asst. | 131 | 39.2 |
| Snr. Admin. Assist. | 100 | 29.9 |
| Prin. Admin. Asst. | 87 | 26.0 |
| Chief Admin. Asst. | 16 | 4.8 |
| Total | 334 | 100.0 |

Table 2 presents the means, standard deviation (SD), possible score ranges, skewness and kurtosis statistics of the main variables and the age of the respondents. The skewness and kurtosis statistics indicated that the data did not deviate significantly from the normal distribution, especially, the general wellbeing (criterion measure). This is supported by the shape of the distributed presented in Figure 1.

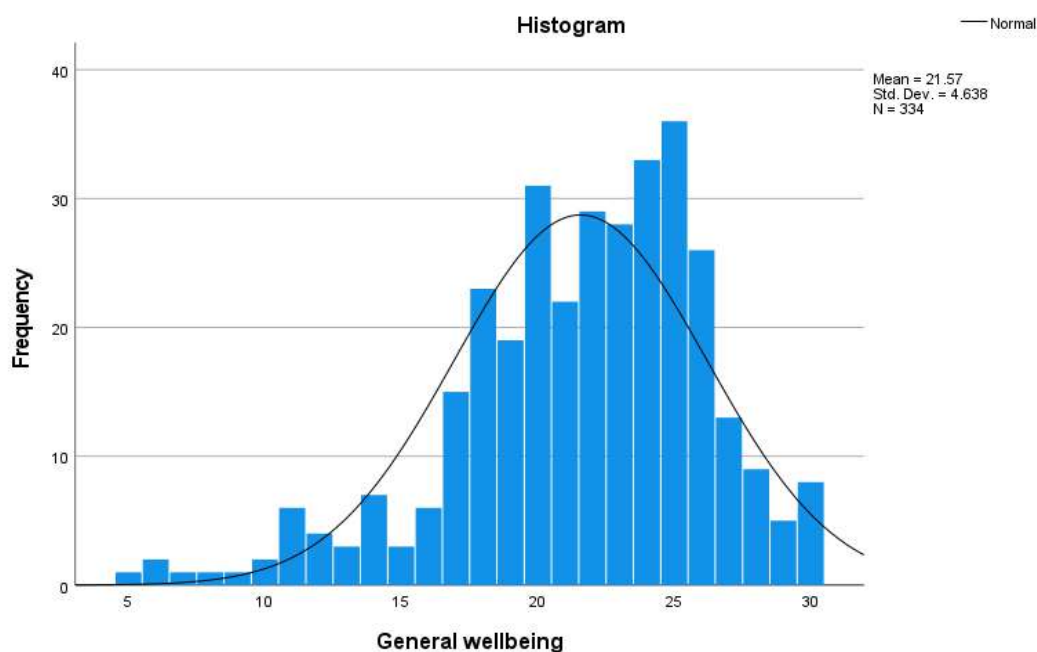


Figure 1
Histogram Depicting Normality Curve of General Wellbeing

Table 2*The Means, Standard Deviation, Skewness and Kurtosis*

| Variables | Mean | SD | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|---------------------|------|-------|----------|----------|
| General wellbeing | 4.31 | .927 | -.831 | .946 |
| Home-work interface | 3.31 | .930 | -.064 | -.128 |
| Stress at work | 3.51 | 1.033 | -.098 | -.321 |

4.1.2 Linearity and Multicollinearity

Table 3 presents the correlation coefficients between the main variables. The predictors had significant relationships with the dependent variable. Meanwhile, the relationship between the two predictors ($r = .609$, $p < .01$) suggests that there was no issue with multicollinearity.

Table 3*Pearson's Correlation Coefficients Depicting Linear Relationship between the Variables*

| Variable | GWB | HWI | SAW |
|---------------------------|---------|--------|-----|
| General wellbeing (GWB) | | | |
| Home-work interface (HWI) | -.306** | | |
| Stress at work (SAW) | -.180** | .609** | |

***. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).*

4.1.3 Common Method Bias

Kock and Lynn (2012) suggested the use of the variance inflation factor (VIF) to test the presence, and a VIF value greater than 3.3 indicates common method bias (Hair et al., 2019; Kock, 2015). The VIFs between the predictors in this study was 1.59, indicating no issue with common method bias.

4.2 Presentation of Main Results

4.2.1 Levels of Home-Work Interface, Work Stress and General Wellbeing among Public Higher Education Administrators

We assessed the levels of general wellbeing, home-work interface, and stress at work among the administrative staff. Average scores ranging from 2.67 to 4.33 (See Table 2) represent moderate level scores on each of the sub-scales. The mean scores indicated that they reported moderate levels on all the three variables.

We further obtained the frequencies and percentages of the workers who reported high, moderate and low level of scores on each of the variables. The results represented in Table 4 showed that while majority of the workers (57.8%) and (66.8%) reported moderate levels of stress at work, and home-work interface respectively, the majority (56.0%) reported high level of general wellbeing. Only 6.3% reported low level of general wellbeing, with 19.2% and 22.5% reporting low levels of stress at work and home-work interface.

Table 4*Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents' Levels of Reported Stress at Work, Home-Work Interface and General Wellbeing*

| Levels | Stress at Work | | General Wellbeing | | Home-Work Interface | |
|----------|----------------|---------|-------------------|---------|---------------------|---------|
| | Freq | Percent | Freq | Percent | Freq | Percent |
| Low | 64 | 19.2 | 21 | 6.3 | 75 | 22.5 |
| Moderate | 193 | 57.8 | 126 | 37.7 | 223 | 66.8 |
| High | 77 | 23.1 | 187 | 56.0 | 36 | 10.8 |
| | 334 | 100.0 | 334 | 100.0 | 334 | 100.0 |

4.2.2 Test of Hypotheses

The hypotheses tested in the study sought to ascertain the extent to which work-family interface predicts general wellbeing through stress at work. We tested the hypotheses using the PROCESS path modelling algorithm in the SmartPLS 4.1.6. The path model (Figure 2) and Table 5 show the direct relationships.

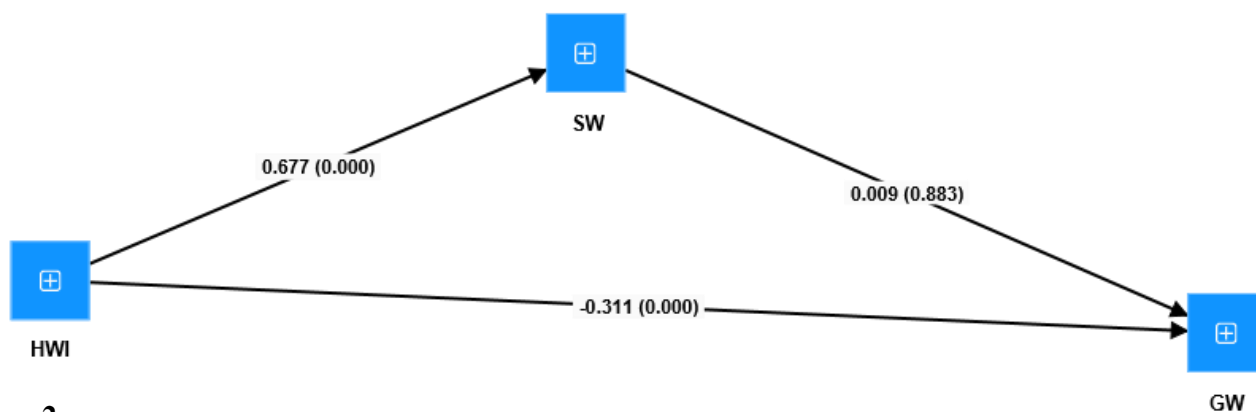


Figure 2
Direct Paths of Predictive Relationships and Corresponding Levels of Significance between Variables

Table 5
Direct, Indirect and Total Effects (Predictive Relationships)

| Paths | Total effect | | | Direct effect | | | Specific indirect effect | | | f ² |
|-----------|--------------|--------|------|---------------|--------|------|--------------------------|------|------|----------------|
| | B | T stat | Sig. | B | T stat | Sig. | Specific | β | Sig. | |
| HWI -> GW | -.305 | 5.117 | .000 | -.311 | 4.627 | .000 | HWI -> SW -> GW | .006 | .884 | .068* |
| HWI -> SW | .677 | 13.9 | .000 | .677 | 13.9 | .000 | | | | .590** |
| SW -> GW | .009 | 0.147 | .883 | .009 | 0.147 | .883 | | | | .000 |

The results (Table 5) showed that work-family interface positively predicted work stress ($\beta = .677, p < .001$) and negatively predicted general wellbeing ($\beta = -.311, p < .001$). Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b) were therefore supported. Stress at work, however, did not significantly predict general wellbeing ($\beta = .009, p = .883$), and did not also significantly mediate home-work interface and general wellbeing ($\beta = .006, p = .884$) of the administrative staff of public universities. Hypotheses 2 and 3 were accordingly not supported.

4.3 Discussions

We investigated the levels and extent to which home-work interface and stress at work predicted general wellbeing of administrative staff of public universities within the Ghanaian higher education context. The findings show moderate levels of general wellbeing, home-work interface, and stress at work among administrative staff. Home-work interface had a significant positive relationship with stress at work, but related negatively with general wellbeing of the administrative staff of public universities in Ghana. Stress at work, however, did not significantly predict general wellbeing of the respondents.

The wellbeing of individuals is an important resource for their daily lives and functions, which is influenced by social, economic and environmental conditions (Babbio et al., 2022). Feelings of wellbeing, it should be noted are fundamental to the health of individuals that may help them to successfully overcome challenges in order to achieve their goals and objectives in life. The respondents reported moderate level of general wellbeing in this study. This suggests that individuals need emotional, psychological, social and physical wellbeing which are prerequisites to be able to survive and cope with work and family life.

Further, the study reveals moderate levels of stress among administrative staff. Theoretical literature indicated that moderate stressors are typically events such as conflict with or neglect by family or peers as well as difficult living conditions (Babbio et al., 2022; Carlson & Perrewé, 1999). The moderate levels of stress further suggest that administrative staff of public universities may experience conditions that trigger stress quite often but not to the extent that could be detrimental to their health and wellbeing. Babbio et al. (2022) observed that work pressure and role demands could influence work experience positively and provide challenge and stimulation at work. However, when individuals perceive the extent of work pressure as very strong and overwhelming beyond what they can handle, they become stressed and can affect their wellbeing.

We also found a moderate level of home-work interface reported by the administrative staff. This suggests that their home and work responsibilities moderately interfere with each other. High level of interference between these two critical facets of human existence can be a great source of stress, and could negatively have effects on the health and wellbeing of the individual. Our finding also reveals a significant strong positive relationship between work-family interface and stress at work among administrative staff of public of public universities. This finding suggests that higher level of home-work interface is associated with higher stress at work. The current finding agrees with the broader



findings in the existing literature reported by (Davis, 2020; Sayin et al., 2021; Wajcman, 2015), but in contrast with few studies that reported weak or non-significant negative relationships between work-family interface and work stress (Haslam et al., 2013).

The current study tested the predictive relationship between home-work interface and stress at work and found that home-work interface had a significant negative relationship with stress at work. Theoretical literature suggests that work and family life roles demand physical and psychic efforts and time on task (Ballout, 2008), and this may cause stress at both home and work, as the individual may find the simultaneous demands from the two important spheres of life beyond his or her ability to cope (Karkpnlian et al., 2016). For instance, an administrative staff, who is a father or mother performs parental roles according to the social role theory. In a similar vein, being a spouse is a demand especially, if an administrative staff employment as well as emotional availability is combined with the physical and mental time on task given to family life (Elliot, 2008).

We also found that home-work interface negatively predicted the general wellbeing of the administrative staff of Ghanaian public universities. Extant literature has shown that poorer wellbeing is a major concern for managers in higher education. For example, Milledzi (2017) observed that poorer wellbeing has become a critical issue in the present Ghanaian psychosocial work environment especially among academic staff of public and private universities. The finding of the current study indicates that higher level of home-work interface is associated with poorer general wellbeing of the administrators, which is also in line with the findings in earlier research works (e.g., Davis, 2020; Sayin et al., 2021). This has implications for productivity among administrative staff of public universities.

Meanwhile, our finding did not show a significant relationship between stress at work and general wellbeing. Extant literature indicated that work stress has implication for the wellbeing of the individual (Maddock, 2024). Work-related stress is suggested to be the most inherent psychological outcome that leaps beyond the surface pressure in any occupation, affecting mental wellbeing and physical health (Maulik, 2017). However, empirical evidence also indicates that the impact of stress on wellbeing depends on the extent or level of stress experienced (Schneiderman et al., 2005). Low to moderate levels of stress are usually tolerable and so do not have adverse impact on the wellbeing of the individual (Sapolsky, 2004). However, stress becomes troubling when the level is high and beyond the ability of the individual to cope with. In the current study, the respondents mostly reported moderate level of stress at work, which could be within their ability to handle, without adversely affecting their wellbeing.

A further goal of our study was to explore the mediating role of work stress in the relationship between work-family interface and general wellbeing. The finding shows that work stress did not significantly predict general wellbeing, and did not also mediate the relationship between work-family interface and general wellbeing. We expected home-work interface to result in stress at work, with stress in turn affecting general wellbeing. However, this is not the case as our current finding suggests with regard to administrative staff of public universities within the Ghanaian higher education context.

The non-significant mediation role of stress at work in the relationship between home-work interface and wellbeing could be due to the generally moderate level among the university administrators. This suggests that the association between home-work interface and wellbeing could be explained through other contextual variables and mechanisms. In a similar study, Leonard (2014) found that depression did not significantly mediate the relationship between work-family interface and wellbeing especially with regard to work synergy. It is therefore important to situate and explain our current finding by using the settings approach. This is because according the settings approach, the social context and places that workers live is important in determining their perceptions of levels of stress and general wellbeing (Dooris et al., 2007). Therefore, linking general wellbeing of administrative staff to the psychosocial work settings or organizational as well as other contextual factors in the university communities of public universities in Ghana could be important.

V. CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

The paper highlights the extent to which work responsibilities of public higher education administrative staff interfere with their family responsibilities and ascertained how the nature of the role conflict relates to their level of work stress and general wellbeing. We can conclude from the findings that combining work and family responsibilities is a major source of stress which adversely influences the general wellbeing of administrative staff of public universities in Ghana. The time administrative staff devote in discharging their family responsibilities is associated with higher stress at work. This may be contextualised within the Social Role theory which argues that the individual is likely to encounter tensions and high stress due to incompatible roles. Conflict between family responsibilities and work may lead to occupational burnout, job stress, and low performance among administrative staff of public universities. We can also

conclude from our finding that interference of family responsibilities with work among administrative staff can be a major challenge in the Ghanaian higher education landscape.

5.2 Recommendations

The findings imply that the relationships between work-family interface and general wellbeing have become crucial in recent times as societies are becoming more complex as well as being modernised with administrative staff of public universities performing multiple roles. The consequences of the role conflict may lead to stress and poorer general wellbeing which may lead to reduction in productivity at the work place. Therefore, we recommend that management of public universities in Ghana should roll out policies and programmes to help administrative staff manage the challenges of balancing work and family responsibilities. To this end, we recommend adequate provision of resources to enable university administrative staff to be innovative on the job. In a similar vein, social support from co-workers is highly recommended. This is because lack of adequate resources and social support from colleagues at the work place could lead to stress which tend to affect the general wellbeing of workers. We also call for intervention programmes on re-socialisation, orientation and sensitisation as well as encouragement of administrative staff with regard to balancing work and family responsibilities.

5.3 Declarations

Conflict of Interests: The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Financial interests: The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare that are relevant to the content of this article.

Consent to Participants: Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

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The Effect of Procurement Contract Monitoring on Performance of Gicumbi District, Rwanda

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ABSTRACT

The study evaluated the effect of procurement contract monitoring on performance of Gicumbi District in Rwanda. Gicumbi District, forming part of the Northern Province, is composed of 21 sectors. These sectors further divide into 109 cells and 630 villages. Positioned in the eastern region of the Northern Province, its geographical boundaries are adjacent to Burera district in the North, Nyagatare, Rwamagana, and Gatsibo in the East, Rwamagana and Gasabo in the South, and Gasabo Burera and Rulindo in the West. This study used Stakeholder Theory. The researcher conducted both descriptive and correlational studies. The population of this study was 127 people including Executive committee, Finance unit, administrative unit and Human Resources, Procurement Unit, Planning Unit, Agriculture and Natural resources Unit, Bureau of District Engineers (BDE) Unit, Good governance unit, social unity, One stop Center Unit, Health unit, Executive Secretary and Corporate services and Contractors of Gicumbi District. The study used a census inquiry method instead of sampling. This decision is based on the small size of the target population. Therefore, data were collected from every single individual or unit within the entire target population of 127. The researcher relied on document analysis and questionnaires to collect data. The statistical analysis of the collected data was conducted using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) which is a widely used tool for statistical computation in research. The researcher employed descriptive and correlational analysis in this approach. Descriptive and correlational research designs were used. Model Summary indicates a robust positive relationship, where effective contract monitoring is likely to enhance overall performance outcomes. The R Square value of 0.687 means that approximately 68.7% of the variance in performance explained by procurement contract monitoring activities. More crucially, the coefficient for procurement contract monitoring is 0.849, indicating a strong effect every one-unit increase in contract monitoring is associated with an increase of 0.849 units in performance. The t-value of 15.804 with a p-value of .000 further establishes the significance of this predictor, indicating clear evidence that enhanced contract monitoring is essential for improving performance of Gicumbi District. The significance level (Sig.) of 0.000 confirms that the procurement contract monitoring on performance of Gicumbi District in Rwanda is statistically significant. It is recommended that Gicumbi District conduct regular evaluation meetings with all stakeholders involved in contract execution, promoting accountability and enabling timely identification and resolution of any issues that arise.

Keywords: Contract Monitoring, Performance, Procurement, Stakeholder Theory

1. INTRODUCTION

In today's highly competitive global business environment, effective contract management is essential for companies to thrive and expand. Contract administration encompasses all aspects of a contract, from its creation to its termination, as well as the relationships involved, implementation, monitoring, and payment calculation (Mariko, 2021). A study conducted in the United Kingdom illustrates the challenges faced by public institutions in managing procurement contracts amid austerity measures. The outcome emphasizes the role of effective contract management in fostering a collaborative environment that allows public institutions to navigate budget constraints while maintaining service quality (Blasi *et al.*, 2022).

The successful execution of contracts and the achievement of expected project outcomes are also integral components of procurement performance. Contract management involves the tasks undertaken by a buyer throughout the duration of a contract to guarantee that all parties involved fulfill their obligations as agreed. According to Nsereko, *et al.* (2022), it contains activities such as inviting and assessing bids, awarding and carrying out contracts, measuring performance, and calculating payments. Additionally, it involves overseeing contract relationships, addressing related issues, and implementing necessary changes or amendments to ensure that all parties meet or surpass each other's expectations and work together to achieve the contract's objectives. Maina and Osoro (2020) further elaborate that contract management includes preparing procurement documents, processing and approving

these documents, monitoring contract execution, authorizing and managing alterations to contracts, and potentially terminating contracts when necessary.

Matto *et al.* (2021) investigated how contract management influenced value-for-money procurement in Tanzania. According to the findings, well-managed contracts could make Tanzanian public procurement more cost-effective. Contract structure and quality control were highlighted as important value-for-money drivers. There was no significant correlation between value for money and features such as contract management, time management, or cost control. Dusabimana (2022) conducted research in Musanze District to assess the performance of procurement and disposal authorities within Rwandan local government in terms of contract management. According to the findings, the success of entities engaged in purchasing and selling is dependent on effective contract administration. Similarly, Jolly (2022) investigated the effect of contract management practices on procurement performance and found that contract management practices influenced procurement performance in Nyarugenge District.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Despite various reforms and initiatives by governments in developing nations such as Rwanda, along with support from organizations like the World Bank aimed at enhancing the effectiveness of the procurement process, public procurement continues to be affected by substandard contracts and the provision of low-quality goods and services (Kakwezi & Nyeko, 2019).

During the year 2019, The Government of Rwanda assesses and ranks decentralized entities based on several interconnected criteria, including the level of accomplishment of Imihigo targets, performance in joint Imihigo assessments, accuracy of supporting documentation for implemented activities, satisfaction levels of citizens, effectiveness of collaboration between district leadership and stakeholders, and teamwork among staff. Furthermore, performance contracts prioritize the attainment of good governance and enhancement of citizens' social welfare. However, the Imihigo for the 2018/2019 period were put on hold to ensure proper integration of the methodology used for measuring local government performance and to ensure that district scores accurately reflect procurement performance, service delivery, and tangible impacts on people's lives (Dusabimana, 2022).

One of the significant issues observed in contract management and performance within local government entities in Rwanda includes disruptions in contract execution, non-compliance with contract terms and conditions, neglect of employment duties, and managing expenses. These factors collectively impact procurement performance. The report identified delays from suppliers, delays in payment execution by government procuring entities, disputes stemming from poorly defined specifications and terms of reference, and inadequate day-to-day monitoring of obligations by the government procuring entity as the primary root causes of poor contract management. These challenges seem to stem from a lack of contract management tools and underscore the necessity for increased accountability and training for legal officers (Kyarisiima, 2022).

While Umunezero (2022) looked at how the Rwandan Ministry of Environment's procurement performance was affected by contract management. This research set out to fill this knowledge gap by studying how Gicumbi District's performance was affected by procurement contract monitoring.

1.2 Research Objective

The objective of this study was to examine the effect of procurement contract monitoring on performance of Gicumbi District.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Review

2.1.1 Stakeholder Theory

Stakeholder Theory first developed by Edward Freeman in the 1980s, revolutionized management perspectives by advocating for the consideration of diverse stakeholder interests in organizational decision-making processes (Freeman *et al.*, 2020). According to stakeholder theory, a stakeholder is any individual or group of individuals who can influence or be influenced by the operations of a company. In project management literature, stakeholders have been traditionally defined according to their connection to the project. In public entities, Stakeholder Theory highlights the importance of recognizing and addressing the needs of various stakeholders, including government officials, taxpayers, citizens, contractors, and regulatory bodies (Corazza *et al.*, 2023).

The core premise of Stakeholder Theory is that organizations do not exist in isolation; they are part of a complex web of relationships and interactions with various groups that have a vested interest in their operations. This



theory encourages public institutions to consider not only the interests of shareholders but also the broader community, advocating for a more inclusive approach to governance. Implementing Stakeholder Theory in public administration has several advantages. First, engaging stakeholders in the decision-making process can lead to better outcomes, as it provides insights into the diverse perspectives and needs of the community. This participative approach can enhance transparency and accountability, thereby increasing public trust in government actions. Involving stakeholders also helps to identify potential conflicts early, allowing for more effective conflict resolution and a smoother implementation of policies and projects.

However, applying Stakeholder Theory is not without its challenges. One significant hurdle is the difficulty in balancing the often-competing interests of different stakeholders. Public entities must navigate these conflicting priorities carefully to ensure that decisions are fair and equitable. Moreover, the dynamic nature of stakeholder relationships requires ongoing engagement and communication, which can be resource-intensive. Furthermore, the reliance on stakeholder input may sometimes lead to decision paralysis, where too many voices can complicate and slow down the decision-making process. Public administrators must develop effective strategies for stakeholder engagement that ensure inclusivity while maintaining efficiency.

Stakeholder Theory helped this study to assess how diverse stakeholder interests in procurement contract management influence the performance of public institutions, focusing on Gicumbi District's planning, negotiation, execution, and monitoring processes to enhance overall effectiveness and accountability.

2.2 Empirical Review

García and Kim (2021) investigated how contract monitoring affects the performance of public educational institutions in Spain. A mixed-methods approach was used, incorporating quantitative surveys from 50 school administrators and qualitative interviews. The data were analyzed using SPSS for regression analysis to assess the relationship between contract monitoring and educational performance indicators. The findings indicated a significant positive relationship ($r = 0.65$, $p < .01$) between contract monitoring and educational outcomes, including a 20% improvement in student performance and a 15% increase in resource efficiency. The study recommends that schools focus on strengthening contract monitoring processes, invest in training for administrators, and use data-driven decision-making to optimize contract performance and educational outcomes.

Gamariel and Egide (2021) conducted the study to determine the effects of contract monitoring, contract negotiations, and relationship management on construction projects Performance with the case of water treatment plants for WASAC. The research team employed an explanatory design, and they polled 110 workers (including contractors and consultants) to get their take on things. One hundred and ten people participated in the survey, selected at random. The data was examined using SPSS after being acquired through a questionnaire. Results showed that the independent variable (building project performance) explained 32.6% of the dependent variable (performance). This is supported by the coefficient of determination (R-square) of 0.326. As shown by a p-value of $0.004 < 0.05$, a statistically significant F-value of 14.829 was also discovered. It follows that the success of WASAC building projects hinges on the management of the relationships between agencies and contractors, as well as the processes for negotiating and overseeing contracts. The study suggests that in order to improve project performance in terms of time, money, and quality, WASAC management should put more effort into contract negotiations, monitoring, and relationship management. They should also establish internal rules and procedures for contract management to ensure consistency, and train their staff to continuously build their capacity and transfer knowledge.

III. METHODOLOGY

The researcher conducted both descriptive and correlational studies. Descriptive research design used surveys to collect information on a variety of issues and correlational study research design examined at the links that exist between variables under the study.

The study used a census inquiry method instead of sampling. This decision is based on the small size of the target population. Therefore, data were collected from every single individual or unit within the entire target population of 127. By doing so, the researcher obtained highly accurate and comprehensive data, ensuring that the findings are directly applicable and potentially generalizable to the entire population without the need for sampling techniques.

Participants were sent a survey with short, Disagree/Agree answers for this research. With response options, the responders were presented with a number of options from which to choose an answer. For this study, participants were given the questionnaires and expected to fill it out independently, before returning it to the researcher through the same method and in the specified time frame.

The researcher used Cronbach alpha technique as a measure of dependability. Cronbach's alpha, α (or coefficient alpha)'s values range from 0 to 1, and higher values imply more dependability. In speaking, a rating of higher than or equivalent to 0.7 is appropriate.

Table 1
Reliability

| Variables | N of Items | Cronbach's Alpha | Decision |
|-----------------------------------|------------|------------------|------------------------|
| Procurement contract monitoring | 6 | .751 | Acceptable Reliability |
| Performance of public institution | 6 | .827 | Acceptable Reliability |

The researcher more easily displayed the findings in the form of numbers and statistics, giving the reader a more holistic understanding of the findings. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 was used in the study.

The researcher followed the freedom of expression by respecting the rights and privacy of the respondents. For instance, asking permission and informing concerned persons of these research objectives were applied. Humble request of participant's time and willingness to respond, addressing to them in appropriate approaches to gain people's respect was practiced. Selecting respondents was conducted freely and fairly with no discrimination based on religion, sex, race, etc. The researcher protected the privacy of the participants and make certain that their participation in the study does not affect their personal or professional lives.

IV. FINDINGS & DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Response Rate

The researcher performed the response rate for the survey. Out of a total of 127 questionnaires distributed, 116 were returned, resulting in a response rate of 91.34%. Additionally, the results show that only 11 questionnaires, or 8.66%, were unreturned, indicating that the outreach efforts to public institutions were largely effective. The data collected through this survey is crucial for understanding the effect of procurement contract monitoring on performance of public institutions, as it reflects the perspectives of those directly involved in or impacted by procurement processes within the public sector.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

For each proposition, researcher displayed the distribution of participants' ratings on the Likert scale along with their means, and standard-deviations. On a 5-point scale, where 1 signifies Strongly Disagree and 5 means Strongly Agree, participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistic on Procurement Contract Monitoring of Gicumbi District

| Statements | Mean | Std. Dev. |
|--|------|-----------|
| Compliance monitoring is effectively conducted during contract execution. | 4.32 | .812 |
| Risk monitoring mechanisms are strong and practical. | 4.30 | .846 |
| Financial monitoring during contract execution is detailed. | 4.18 | .974 |
| Performance reporting during contract execution is comprehensive. | 4.43 | .877 |
| Compliance monitoring is a standard practice in contract monitoring. | 4.50 | .775 |
| The organization effectively identifies and addresses risks during monitoring. | 4.38 | .787 |
| Overall | 4.35 | .845 |

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics on procurement contract monitoring of Gicumbi District. A notable number of respondents strongly agreed with the statement that compliance monitoring is effectively conducted during contract execution. The very high mean score of 4.32 indicates a very strong positive agreement among respondents, while the standard deviation of 0.812 shows some heterogeneity in their responses. Also, the statement that risk monitoring mechanisms are strong and practical, a significant number of respondents also expressed a very strong positive agreement, as reflected by a very high mean score of 4.30 and a standard deviation of 0.846 (heterogeneous), indicating a favorable view on the effectiveness of risk monitoring. Furthermore, the statement that financial monitoring during contract execution is detailed, there was strong positive agreement as well, with a high mean score of 4.18, although the standard deviation of 0.974 indicates a wider heterogeneity in opinions.



Moreover, a significant number of respondents strongly agreed that performance reporting during contract execution is comprehensive, demonstrated by a very high mean score of 4.43, with a standard deviation of 0.877 indicating some heterogeneity in how participants perceive the completeness of reporting. For the statement that compliance monitoring is a standard practice in contract monitoring, the very high mean score of 4.50 reflects very strong positive agreement, while the standard deviation of 0.775 shows heterogeneity among responses. Lastly, the statement regarding the organization's effectiveness in identifying and addressing risks during monitoring received a very high mean score of 4.38, indicating a very strong positive agreement, and a standard deviation of 0.787 indicates heterogeneous perceptions among respondents.

Overall, the very high mean score across all statements was 4.35, indicating a very strong positive agreement among respondents on the effect of procurement contract monitoring on the performance of Gicumbi District, with a standard deviation of 0.845 highlighting some level of heterogeneity in the responses.

The findings are consistent with García and Kim (2021), who emphasized that procurement contract monitoring, is vital for enhancing the performance of public institutions. This aligns well with the experiences in Gicumbi District, where respondents highlighted the effectiveness of compliance monitoring and risk management during contract execution. Participants noted that thorough monitoring allows for the timely identification of potential issues, which can significantly impact project outcomes. Both studies underscore that strong monitoring processes are essential for facilitating timely adjustments, improving resource efficiency, and ultimately ensuring that public institutions meet their strategic objectives and deliver quality services to the community.

This study utilized Stakeholder Theory to examine the effect of procurement contract monitoring on the performance of Gicumbi District. By addressing the needs and concerns of various stakeholders, this theory underscores the importance of continuous oversight in fostering transparency and accountability, ultimately enhancing the effectiveness of public procurement practices.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistic on Performance of Gicumbi District

| | Mean | Std. Dev. |
|--|------|-----------|
| Gicumbi District consistently achieves its goals and objectives. | 4.31 | .869 |
| Gicumbi District demonstrates high levels of efficiency and effectiveness in activities. | 4.16 | .874 |
| Gicumbi District exhibits a strong track record of delivering quality goods and services through its procurement processes. | 4.46 | .817 |
| Stakeholders perceive Gicumbi District procurement performance as satisfactory or above expectations. | 4.30 | .915 |
| Stakeholder satisfaction and cost-effectiveness in procurement reflect the high quality of services and effectiveness in Gicumbi District. | 4.41 | .875 |
| Accountability and transparency are integral aspects of Gicumbi District operations. | 4.20 | .944 |
| Overall | 4.30 | .882 |

Table 3 presents the mean scores and standard deviations for statements related to the performance of Gicumbi District, indicating clear agreement among respondents regarding the effectiveness of the district's operations. The statement that Gicumbi District consistently achieves its goals and objectives received a very high mean score of 4.21, reflecting a very strong positive agreement that the district meets its intended targets. Following closely, the statement that Gicumbi District demonstrates high levels of efficiency and effectiveness in activities has a high mean of 4.16, indicating strong positive agreement regarding the district's operational efficiency. Meanwhile, the statement that Gicumbi District exhibits a strong track record of delivering quality goods and services through its procurement processes holds a very high mean of 4.46, highlighting that, participants feel the procurement practices contribute significantly to overall performance. The statement that stakeholders perceive Gicumbi District's procurement performance as satisfactory or above expectations is also affirmed with a very high mean of 4.30, demonstrating a very strong positive agreement about the perceived effectiveness of the district's procurement. The statement that stakeholder satisfaction and cost-effectiveness in procurement reflect the high quality of services and effectiveness in Gicumbi District achieved a very high mean of 4.41, reflecting participants' very strong positive belief in the quality of services provided. Lastly, the statement that accountability and transparency are integral aspects of Gicumbi District operations showed a very high mean of 4.20, emphasizing that participants agree with strong positive agreement on the importance of these principles in the district's operations.

In terms of standard deviation, all statements have values above 0.5, ranging from 0.817 to 0.944, indicating that the data is heterogeneous for most of these aspects, highlighting varied perceptions among respondents.



The overall very high mean score for the performance of Gicumbi District stands at 4.30, further supporting the notion that participants view the district's performance positively.

The findings are consistent with Dusabimana (2022), who emphasized that the performance of public institutions is significantly influenced by effective procurement practices and good governance. This aligns well with experiences in Gicumbi District, where respondents highlighted the importance of timely execution, accountability, and collaboration among different units. Such practices not only ensure that projects are completed efficiently but also foster community trust and satisfaction, ultimately contributing to enhanced service delivery and sustainable development in the region.

4.3 Regression Analysis

Regression analysis is a statistical method used to examine the relationship between one dependent variable and one or more independent variables.

Table 3

Model Summary

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .829 ^a | .687 | .684 | .37219 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Procurement contract monitoring

The findings presented in Table 3 indicate a strong correlation between procurement contract monitoring and the performance of Gicumbi District, as evidenced by an R value of 0.829. This suggests a robust positive relationship, where effective contract monitoring is likely to enhance overall performance outcomes. The R Square value of 0.687 means that approximately 68.7% of the variance in performance explained by procurement contract monitoring activities. The results of this study repeat the effect of procurement contract monitoring as it relates directly to organizational performance, aligning with findings from the broader literature. García and Kim (2021) identified a significant correlation ($r = 0.65$) between contract monitoring and improved educational performance indicators in Spain, highlighting a 20% enhancement in student outcomes. This study emphasizes monitoring as effective practices to ensure accountability and optimize results, a premise which is mirrored in the Gicumbi District findings where a 68.7% variance in performance can be attributed to contract monitoring.

Table 4

ANOVA

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|---------|-------------------|
| 1 | Regression | 34.600 | 1 | 34.600 | 249.782 | .000 ^b |
| | Residual | 15.791 | 114 | .139 | | |
| | Total | 50.392 | 115 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), Procurement contract monitoring

Table 4 provides significant statistical insight through its ANOVA results. The F-value of 249.782 along with a p-value of .000 confirms that procurement contract monitoring significantly influences performance. This implies that the regression model is more effective than a model with no predictors, and the contribution of procurement contract monitoring is statistically significant. Similarly, Gamariel and Egede (2021) explored the interdependence of contract monitoring, negotiations, and relationship management within construction projects. They observed that these factors collectively explained 32.6% of performance outcomes, underscoring the necessity of effective contract management to foster project success.

Table 5

Coefficients

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
|-------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | .692 | .186 | | 3.728 | .000 |
| | Procurement contract monitoring | .849 | .054 | .829 | 15.804 | .000 |

a. Dependent Variable: Performance



In Table 5, the coefficients reveal key insights into the impact of procurement contract monitoring on performance. The constant term is 0.692, indicating that even absent of procurement contract monitoring, a baseline performance level exists. More crucially, the coefficient for procurement contract monitoring is 0.849, indicating a strong effect every one-unit increase in contract monitoring is associated with an increase of 0.849 units in performance. The t-value of 15.804 with a p-value of .000 further establishes the significance of this predictor, indicating clear evidence that enhanced contract monitoring is essential for improving performance of Gicumbi District. The insights from this research contribute to the ongoing discourse on public sector efficiency and the necessity of rigorous contract monitoring frameworks. Scholars like Nsereko, Tait, and Oosthuizen (2022) advocate for comprehensive contract management practices that encompass the selection of bidders, performance evaluations, and resolution of disputes, aligning with the practices observed in Gicumbi District. The empirical evidence laid out through the regression analysis supports the assertion that effective procurement contract monitoring is not only critical but central to enhancing performance, affirming that investment in such monitoring can yield substantial dividends in public service delivery.

V. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

The research revealed the effect of procurement contract monitoring on performance of Gicumbi District. By systematically overseeing contract execution and fostering collaborative relationships among stakeholders, effective contract management not only ensures that all parties fulfill their obligations but also optimizes overall project outcomes. This study supports existing literature, demonstrating that improved contract monitoring practices lead to significant advancements in service delivery and operational efficiency of Gicumbi District.

5.2 Recommendation

Gicumbi District should implement strong performance monitoring systems during contract execution, which track adherence to timelines and quality standards, ensuring that all contractual obligations are met efficiently. It is recommended that Gicumbi District conduct regular evaluation meetings with all stakeholders involved in contract execution, promoting accountability and enabling timely identification and resolution of any issues that arise.

Gicumbi District is recommended to develop and utilize structured monitoring tools and metrics that can systematically assess procurement processes and outcomes, ensuring compliance and effectiveness in contract execution.

Additionally, Gicumbi District should integrate feedback mechanisms that allow stakeholders to report on contract performance regularly, facilitating the identification of best practices and areas for improvement in future procurement activities.

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Influence of Risk Acceptance on Implementation of KeRRA Road Construction Projects in Migori County, Kenya

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ABSTRACT

Implementation of Government of Kenya (KeRRA) road construction projects face high levels of risks, but often these risks are not dealt with adequately, which is reflected in low quality of work as well as cost and time overruns. The purpose of this study was to determine the influence of risk acceptance on implementation of KeRRA road construction projects in Migori County. Implementation was measured as a function of project completion within the set time frame and being within budget. This study was anchored on Risk Management theory which offer a foundation for interrogating the influence of the variables under study. The research philosophy was based on pragmatism. Concurrent triangulation research design was used as it factors in the qualitative and quantitative aspects of research study. The target population for the study consisted of 92 contractors, 459 constituency roads committee members (CRCs) and 2 Consultant Engineers. Through a sampling size formula, a total of 39 contractors and 193 CRC members were selected using simple random sampling technique. Primary data was obtained through self-administered questionnaires to contractors and CRC members. Validity of research instruments was obtained through piloting and expert evaluation while reliability was tested using test retest method. Inferential statistics of Multiple Linear Regression was applied to determine the influence of risk management strategies on implementation of KeRRA road construction projects by testing the hypotheses for the study. Statistical significance was assessed at $p < 0.05$. Qualitative data obtained from the interview schedules was analysed using content analysis. The study found out that risk acceptance accounted for 70.0% of change in implementation of KeRRA road construction projects. The study concluded that risk acceptance influenced implementation of KeRRA road construction projects significantly ($p < 0.05$). The study recommends that there is need for effective system for risk based identification, analysis and management needs to be activated and KeRRA should ensure that all manpower and machinery used in road constructions are insured and properly certified in accordance with occupational health and safety standards policies.

Keywords: Implementation, Risk Acceptance, Road Construction

I. INTRODUCTION

Implementing roads inherently involves various risks, making the establishment of a risk management strategy in road construction projects essential (Silva & Ricardo, 2019). According to Tyrrel (2020) risk management strategy is an important discipline in project management especially the road construction industry. A robust risk management strategy can help contractors to lessen their exposure to risks, and enhance the rate of their project implementation success (Tyier & Frost, 2021). Sylwia (2022) term a risk strategy as the trend and scope of an organization to manage uncertainties over the long run, which achieves advantage for the project by its alignment of resources within a perplexing environment, to meet market needs and achieve project objectives.

Tserng et al. (2021) opined that a risk management strategy is the unifying element that brings consistency and course to activities and decisions in projects, they further note that for a strategy to be effective, it has to be simple, steady and of a long term nature (Segal, 2019). With the increase in competition in the road construction industry, firms need to evaluate both their internal and external environment where they operate. It's also critical to appraise the resources accessible as opposed to what is necessary. Effective implementation is critical in all infrastructure development endeavours and it is also the most challenging, yet the most important phase of any strategy (Norazian et al., 2021).

It is generally evident that road construction projects is vital for economic growth and poverty reduction since it plays a key role in enhancing competitiveness, facilitating trade and integrating countries to the rest of the world (Miller et al., 2021). In the United States of America, targeted efforts to improve implementation of road projects led to

significant reductions in highway fatalities by use of risk management strategies at the planning stage of road construction projects. This resulted in improvement in the road grade from D to A in 2019 (Joao & Batista, 2019). However, forty-two per cent of America's planned major urban highways remain unimplemented, costing the economy an estimated 101 billion dollars in wasted time and fuel annually (Fan et al., 2020). While the conditions have improved in the near term especially in the states where risk acceptance, avoidance and reduction has been practiced, hence federal, state, and local capital investments increased to 91 billion dollars annually in those states, that level of investment is near sufficient though, it is still projected to result in a decline in conditions and implementation rate in the long term especially in states yet to embrace risk management strategies in their road project implementation operations (Keller & Shrar, 2021). Currently, the Federal Highway Administration estimates that 170 billion dollars in capital investment could be needed on an annual basis to significantly kick start the unimplemented road projects hence the need to rope in more road construction firms to embrace risk management strategies (Baierlein, 2019).

In China implementation of Roads and Highway Construction industry has been growing rapidly, driven by China's urbanization, increases in automobile ownership, freight and passenger road transportation turnover volumes hence increasing government investment and involvement of risk management strategies (Shubina et al., 2020). In 2020, industry revenue is expected to amount to 263.2 billion dollars, up 12.1% from 2018. Over the past five years, revenue has been growing at an average annualized rate of 17.0%. The rate of road project implementation has increased twofold from 35% to 74%. The total length of road in China increased from 3.7 million kilometres in 2016 to an estimated 4.3 million kilometres in 2020. Meanwhile, the total length of highway in China rose from 60,300 kilometres to about 108,600 kilometres. By 2019, there were 46 industry enterprises operating 423 establishments and employing 739,696 workers with a payroll of 14.1 billion dollars, however the sector is faced by time and cost overruns (Mishra & Adhikari, 2019).

A study that focused on project risk management practice of Oromia roads construction Enterprise in Ethiopia showed that risk acceptance is very crucial in the implementation of the road projects and maintenance of the completed roads in the country (Teshome, 2021). This view is supported by Vukawanadi and Mkandawire (2021) who carried out an investigation into risk management practices on road maintenance projects under roads jurisdiction in Malawi and found out that with an increased emphasis on project risk management systems, specifically risk acceptance most construction firms have been meeting the project targets in terms of budget, time and quality.

A study by Shah (2020) in Tanzania looked at the myth of community participation in development in Shinyanga and affirmed that risk participation of leaders, farmers, traders and civil servants influences the implementation of various development projects. In this study, respondents were drawn from five projects. These projects were the infrastructural projects implemented in the water and sanitation sector, transport sector, hospitals, schools and communication infrastructure. The contractors (line workers like project managers and consultants) formed the members who were interviewed. In the study, other tenets of risk management strategies were also studied, 80% of the respondents strongly agreed with the idea that the risk management strategy adopted was very important since they provided a forewarning for the projects, 87% of the respondents said that the risk transfer was very crucial in alleviation of risk impact on the overall project implementation success. Indeed, risk acceptance in road projects implementation is not a new thing in Tanzania and Zanzibar Island (World Bank, 2021). The Tanzanians after independence were motivated by their leader Mwalimu Julius Nyerere to adopt a number of concepts that compelled every community member to participate in one way or the other in bettering their community by engaging themselves in various community development projects implementation, risk acceptance was a common feature of Government policy by then (Shah, 2020).

In Kenya, a PwC research that covered 1,640 road projects in six counties in the lake region in 2020, found that in Kakamega County the rate of implementation and completion of road projects was at 80%, Kisumu County was at 70%, Busia County 74%, Kisii County 71%, Nyamira County 65% Homabay County 49% and Migori County 43%. Only three Counties completed their projects with a 100% on time and within budget success rate (PwC, 2020). In this category Kakamega County again led with 100% success rate while Migori was last with 49% the rest of the Counties either failed to meet the objectives and/or scope or did not meet the deadlines and budget. In another similar research study, KPMG carried out an analysis of road infrastructure in Migori County and the Neighbouring Kisii County in 2021, both Kenya Urban Roads Authority (KURA) and Government of Kenya (KeRRA) roads were included in the study. According to the report, approximately 70% of KeRRA roads had suffered at least one project implementation failure within the year of study, on the other hand KURA road projects implemented had posted 98% completion rate (KPMG, 2022). So, the question is, why do the KeRRA road projects fail? Major studies conducted and done based on critical success factors of project management (Fan et al., 2020; Fapohunda and Stephenson, 2019; Dwivedula, 2019) have shown that risk management strategies are an important part of project implementation success.

The current study was anchored on risk management theory. A review of risk management theory brings this study into perspective as it discusses the assumptions of the theory and its relevance to this study. The theory of risk

management is based on three basic concepts: utility, regression and diversification (Ajupov et al., 2019). This approach was initially recommended by Daniel Bernoulli (1738), resulting in the decision making process where individuals had to pay more attention to the magnitude of the success of project implementation. They referred to implementation as a series of steps taken by responsible organizational agents to plan change process in order to bring out compliance needed to install changes. Construction management, as a field of research, has tended to focus on planning and managing the complex array of activities required in delivering a successful implementation of a construction project, such as a road or building (Odeck, 2021). Successful completion of construction projects is therefore dependent on meeting the expectation of Stakeholder. The area of risk management strategies and its relationship with road construction projects implementation have largely been ignored. It is on this backdrop that this study aimed to establish the influence of Risk acceptance on implementation of KeRRA road construction projects in Migori County, Kenya.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Klynveld Peat Marwick Goerdeler (KPMG) research consultants carried out an analysis of road infrastructure in Migori County and the neighbouring Kisii County in 2021. Both KURA and KeRRA roads were included in the study. According to the study report, approximately 75% of KeRRA roads in Migori County had not been completed. Moreover, 70% of KURA roads also stalled. On the other hand, the study reported that 80% of KeRRA roads in Kisii County were completed and KURA road projects implemented had posted 98% completion rate. According to Government of Kenya (GoK, 2022) Ministry of Transport and Infrastructure report on implementation of selected roads in the devolved unit of Migori, road networks in the county is made up of 1,928 kilometres out of which 25% is gravel and 75% is earth. The report estimated that 69.9 % of the roads in Migori County are in poor condition. A recent report by Kenya Roads Board (2021) in Machakos County revealed that when risk acceptance strategies were put in place by the county government, the rate of KeRRA project implementation recorded a growth of 71.8% and that few road construction projects fell behind implementation schedule when risk acceptance strategy was infused in the planning and execution of the projects. There is need to empirically ascertain the most appropriate risk management strategy to steer road construction projects to successful implementation so as to spur economic growth otherwise there would be continued stagnation of overall economic development in the counties.

Studies on risk management strategies done in other countries (Blok, 2021; Teshome, 2021; Vukawanadi, 2021 & Brabhaharan, 2022) indicate that several models have been developed in recent years; but the majority of these models have produced differing results. This dissimilarity is an indication that no consensus has been reached on the essential elements that should constitute a good risk management strategy model. The dynamics of road projects implementation has not been adequately addressed as most empirical literature has largely focussed on building constructions with few addressing road constructions vis a vis risk acceptance. Further, extant studies (Hemant, 2022; Kieya, 2020; Omondi & Muchelule, 2022) have largely focused on urban roads, hence the constructs of rural roads has not been adequately addressed, and these studies also ignored the contribution of risk acceptance on the dynamics of rural road project construction. It is against this backdrop that the current study wishes to establish the influence of risk acceptance on implementation of KeRRA road construction projects in Migori County, Kenya.

1.2 Research Objective

To determine the influence of risk acceptance on implementation of KeRRA road construction projects in Migori County;

1.3 Research Hypothesis

H_{01} : Risk acceptance has no significant influence on implementation of KeRRA road construction projects in Migori County.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Review

2.1.1 Risk Management Theory

This research study is based on risk management theory, this is because risk management theory attempts to explain the rationale behind organizations putting in place the right level of controls for all material models supporting their project and decision-making processes for successful project implementation (Kirira et al., 2019). Considering this classification, risk is created by the dynamic change in the economic environment and depends on both, the evolution of external variables - the economy, competitors, industry membership and consumers and the decisions taken internally by the organization (Osman and Kimutai, 2019). Nevertheless, dynamic risk could affect a great number of individuals

and they would believe to be less predictable than static risks, because they do not occur with any extent of regularity. Unlike dynamic, static risks are predictable and would occur with some regularity (Perrow, 2020).

Risk management theory is based on three basic concepts: utility, regression and diversification (Ajupov, et al., 2019). This approach was initially recommended in 1738 by Daniel Bernoulli, resulting in the decision making process where individuals had to pay more attention to the magnitude of the effects of different project outcomes. Secondly, use of regression approach began at the end of the 19th century. Later it was proved that the rule of regression operated in a variety of situations ranging from the calculation of the probability of risks, and ending with the prediction of project cycle fluctuations. Mathematical justification of the risk management strategy was introduced by Markowitz (2020). Markowitz showed the intelligent application of risk strategies such as acceptance, transfer, reduction and avoidance minimises the deviation from the expected rate of project implementation. Risk management is the process of adaptation and its implementation is often aimed at reducing the possibility of adverse effects afflicting projects (Maxcy, 2020).

This theory is relevant in this study as it assists in explaining how the contractors and those providing oversight manage risks they come across during implementation of road construction projects. KeRRA road construction projects are prone to many risks and it is the responsibility of the contractors and Constituency Roads Committee members to find ways of assessing the risks, controlling them as well as strategizing on how to mitigate those risks. Risk management strategies help the contractors and project management committee to mitigate the risks hence enhancing the implementation of road projects. According to (El-Sayegh, 2019), risk management theory is inadequate in explaining implementation of risk controls that can involve externally triggered changes to operations, orders, standing operating procedures and external Stakeholders, hence there is need to infuse other theories. However, the theory has strength on static risks that are not dependable on the evaluation of the competitive environment in which the organization operates but would rest merely on the internal factors of the entity. The results of the risk management strategies can be seen in the successful implementation of rural road construction projects which is the main focus of this study.

2.2 Empirical Review

Schumacher et al. (2019) defines risk acceptance as a method of dealing with the consequences if and when the risk event occurs. Kitsios, Chatzidimitriou and Kamariotou (2022) defines it as accepting the risk, especially when no other suitable risk management strategy is available to eliminate the risk. She further states that Acceptance can be passive or active. Passive acceptance requires no other action except to document the risk and leaving the team to deal with the risks as they occur and in an active acceptance approach, a contingency reserve is designed to recover the losses of time money or resources. These definitions agree that Acceptance is one of the alternatives an organization can adopt in deciding how to address risks; however, they have not given the definitions in the context of projects. In view of this shortcoming, the definition of acceptance adopted for this study is derived from Razi and Ramli (2019) who defines it as when a number of risks present in a project are of a relatively minor nature, and due to the likelihood of their occurrence being so small or the consequences of their impacts so minor, they may be judged acceptable and consequently ignored. In this case the decision to 'do nothing' (Accept) is a reasoned calculation, not the result of inattention or incompetence. Jakowski (2019) reinforces this definition in another study which concluded that in many types of road projects, certain risks are simply part of the equation and must be factored in, for example in the drugs manufacturing industry he details the extraordinary lengths that the Pharmaceutical manufacturers must go to and the high percentage of failures they accept in order to get a small percentage of commercially successful drugs in the market place. Hence, a high degree of commercial risk is embedded in the systems themselves and must be accepted in order to operate in certain projects or industries.

In risk acceptance, the management takes advantage of the positive risks as it happens but not actively pursuing it. It is just like an opportunity coming and being accepted without much pre-planning. Risk acceptance is a key component of robust project management framework (Seyed et al., 2020). El-Sayegh & Mansour (2019) did a study of the risks associated with highway construction projects in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Thirty-three risks were identified through detailed literature review and categorized into six categories; technical, site, commercial, political, environmental and socioeconomic factors. A questionnaire was developed to solicit the opinion of construction professionals as to the probability and impact of those risks in addition to their proper allocation. Fifty-one questionnaires were completed and analyzed. The priority of each risk was calculated by multiplying the probability with the impact for each risk. The relative importance index (RII) for the risk priority was calculated based on all responses for each risk. The most vital risks were quality and integrity of design, inefficient planning, delays in expropriations, unexpected ground utilities and delays in approvals. Internal project risks were identified to be more significant than external risks due to the political, economic and cultural stability in the UAE and their acceptability had to be weighed. In the mainstream research, the relative importance index (RRI) which was used in analysing the risk priorities is inappropriate for use in risk analysis of such magnitude and especially in road projects, in addition the target population used in the study was rather small for accurate empirical results, in view of the above inconsistencies the

current research study to use both qualitative and quantitative approaches in its analysis for accurate results and the target population used was 553 which is representative enough.

Many researchers (Moshesh et al., 2019; Al-Ajmi & Makinde, 2019) believe that few contractors practice formal risk management systems with analytical approaches such as acceptance in mitigating risks. In their study, the 'human problem' was identified as the initial hindrance for risk management. They mainly used qualitative approach in their study. Furthermore, in examining the impact of projects' characteristics on risk mitigation measures in road construction enterprises, Baloyi and Ozumba (2020) in another study stressed that the time commitment is related to many aspects of risk acceptance and analysis, they too used qualitative approach. In the same way, Fernando et al. (2019) concluded that contractors in the road construction industry irregularly practice formal risk management owing to the projects' just-in-time characteristics. Similarly, Renault et al. (2020) found out that Lack of time and indifference by managers were also identified as significant hindrances to adoption of risk acceptance as a strategy. Shabbab et al. (2021) in another study asserted that the development of a risk management framework is a time-consuming process that is, at times, inconsistent with projects' allocated budgets. Recent research within the context of developing economies indicated that lack of experience, inadequate information, and awareness of risk management processes are the most significant challenges which affect the implementation and practice of risk management in the road construction industry (Jaskowski & Biruk, 2019; Rwelamila, 2020; Firmenich, 2020). Omer and Adeleke (2019) found that the low level of familiarity with techniques and the inability to recognize the benefits of the process were the most influential factors which impact the adoption of risk management strategies by most contractors. Teuma (2019) stated that due to the manpower size of most road construction projects, they mostly suffer from inadequacy of facilities to provide training in risk mitigation methods. In view of the above literature review there was need for an empirical study to determine the level of adoption of risk acceptance as a strategy in risk management in the Kenyan road construction industry. These studies however failed to address the actual place of risk acceptance in project implementation which the current study intend to examine. As opposed to qualitative research design which was adopted in these studies, the current study is both qualitative and quantitative in nature, this was intended to bring out a clear picture of what exist in reality through description of the state of affairs as they are on the ground in implementing road projects in Migori County.

A recent review of road construction projects in Machakos County revealed that when risk management strategies were put in place by the county Government few road construction projects fell behind implementation schedule (Wandiri, 2020). According to the budget policy statement, 2018, Machakos County was allocated 10.5 billion shillings from the county revenue allocation fund in the 2017/2018 financial year. The statement notes that in 2016/2017, the county spent 44% on personnel, 29% on operations and maintenance and 37% on development. The development plan for the 2018/19 financial year for Machakos County states that between 2013 and 2017, over 950 km of roads were graded; over 56 km of roads upgraded to bitumen standards; 1,060 metres of drifts (vented and non-vented) constructed; approximately 365 metres of culverts installed and approximately Ksh. 12.5 million allocated annually per ward for road maintenance and development. Most road construction projects were well implemented when measured against the time taken, cost and quality. For instance, in the KeRRA annual report for 2016/2017, the Tala-Donyo Sabuk road was expected to cover 70 kilometres in length and be completed in 2018 and was at 60.29% completion rate and with only 51.3 kilometres of road length done during the launch year which was the 2016/2017 financial year, the project launch year. This became possible after risk mitigation was done at the planning stages (Wandiri, 2020). This is confirmed by Rambo and Okech (2020) in a study on influence of Risk assessment on implementation of SME projects in Machakos County, the study concluded that risk mitigation at the initial stages of the SME projects would in most instances guarantee good implementation in the undertakings. The study further stated that in this loop, project planning accounts for about 8% of the total work scope while risk acceptance accounted for about 85% of the total work scope and therefore these two practices form a big part of the project implementation success. Though the results may seem similar, these studies were conducted in business settings of SME's world which has a complete different set of operational environment from road construction hence deductions from their findings might be misleading. The current study focused on risk acceptance as a risk management strategy and their influence on KeRRA road project implementation.

Within the lake region of Kenya, Ocheng (2021) carried out a research on effects of project management practices on implementation of road infrastructure projects done by local firms, he discovered that efficient implementation of road infrastructure projects is essential for economic growth and development and that implementation of road infrastructure projects in the Lake Basin Region constructed by local firms is poor in terms of completion of the projects within the budgeted cost, time schedule and attaining the desired quality. One of his objectives was to examine the effect of risk acceptance on implementation of road infrastructure projects by local firms in the Lake Basin region in Kenya. Sule (2021) in another study findings in Kisumu East Sub County hold the view that there is more to successful project outcome than just focusing on the triple dimensions time, cost, and quality and tying them to acceptance and the attending risk mitigation strategies as an aspect of risk management strategy; this opens this area for further research. From literature reviewed, previous studies have found an inconclusive relationship between adoption



of risk management strategies and enhanced construction firm project implementation, this is too general and as such, there is need to narrow the scope to determine how risk management strategies influenced implementation of road construction firms in a selected county in Kenya. The findings also revealed that the risk acceptance as a strategy could have led to enhanced implementation of the road construction projects but did not consider highlighting on how this improved implementation time schedule and minimization of cost overruns which was the key focus of the current study.

According to KeRRA (2020) report on routine maintenance of selected roads in Migori County, in total there are eighty box culverts done, fifty one earth roads spread in all the eight Sub-Counties which have been graded and gravelled and seven crucial roads namely Muhuru bay-Kehancha, Rapogi-Ogwedhi, Rongo- Riosiri, Toku bridge and approach roads, Homabay-Ranen and Uriri-rapogi-Oria roads have been earmarked for upgrading to bitumen standards. Out of these, Rongo-Riosiri is complete, Kuja Bridge and approach roads project was abandoned at Kolenya market, Uriri-rapogi-Oria road is still in progress, and the rest have not started. Indeed the completed roads have improved accessibility to market centres resulting in fresh produce reaching market centres and even ease of access to Public Schools and health centres has gone up (Ochenge, 2021). In Migori County Roads falls in the docket of the Department of Roads, Transport and Public Works. According to the Department, road network in the County is made up of 1,928 kilometres out of which 25% is gravel and 75% is earth as at February 2019 (KeRRA, 2020). Apart from the A1 road that traverses the county and joins Kenya to Tanzania via Isebania town which is done by the National Government through its partners to international standards, the county Government has improved to Bitumen, the Posta – Ombo ring road which is about 4.2 kilometres. The County through the World Bank support has also upgraded to Bitumen 3.2 km in Rongo town and 3.6 km in Awendo town (KeRRA, 2020). According to NTA (2019) some of the roads in Migori County meet set quality standards; however, others are below the standards. This study therefore sought to find the answers as to why some of these roads are below standards and what the difference would be if risk acceptance as a mitigation strategy is employed at the initial phase of the projects.

III. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

A research design is the plan or the overall strategy for conducting a research (Segal, 2020). Based on the pragmatism philosophical foundation of this study and the diversity of the target population, a concurrent triangulation design is adopted. Concurrent triangulation method is where the researcher converges or merges quantitative and qualitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. In this design, the investigator collects both forms of data at the same time and then integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results. Triangulation of data is where data are collected through multiple sources to include interviews, observations and document analysis; thereafter, results from qualitative data are compared to the outcomes from quantitative data and merged into the text (Creswell, 2023). This can be diagrammatically represented as shown in Figure 1

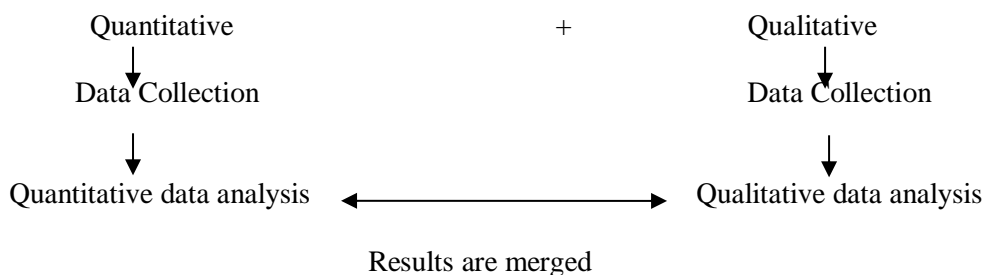


Figure 1

Concurrent Triangulation

Source: Creswell and Creswell (2023)

Data for this study were collected through use of a questionnaire and an interview schedule. These two data sets are then analysed and compared to determine convergence or divergence between the independent and dependent variable and also the moderating role of stakeholder participation on the influence of risk management strategies and implementation of KeRRA road construction projects in Migori County. The results are then merged into the text.

3.2 Target Population

The target population for this study was 551 respondents. Out of this 92 comprised of 51 road contractors and 41 sub-contractors whose construction firms are listed in the Department of Roads, Transport and Public Works register



as having been awarded contracts between 2019 and 2023 in Migori County. Also targeted were sub county roads committee members who normally carry out monitoring of roads projects. There are nine members per project hence, the 51 projects give a total of 459 respondents, and therefore, the accessible target population for the study involved 551 respondents. Most of the road projects targeted for study take between 1 to 5 years to complete hence, the choice of the 5 year period maximum (Republic of Kenya, 2020). According to information obtained from County Public Works Offices in Migori and confirmed from available reports, a total of 300 road contractors were prequalified and registered to perform road works in the county, though only 92 have been awarded contracts within the specified period, 51 of them to work on roads as main contractors and 41 as sub-contractors (CIDP, 2020).

Table 1
Target Population

| No | Respondent | No. * Sub Counties | Total |
|----|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|------------|
| 1 | Road contractors (companies) | 51 Contractors and 41 Subcontractors | 92 |
| 2 | Sub County Roads Committee members | 51 projects * 9 members of SBRC | 459 |
| | Total | | 551 |

3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Procedures

Yesemin and Dan (2020) explain that sampling size is the process of selecting individuals from the target population to act as representatives in a research study. Considering the population of CRC and contractors is high, a sample was selected from the target population; however, consultant engineers were purposively selected to participate in the study. The study employed Yamane (2023) formula for sample size determination. The sample size was calculated based on 5% margin of error/ level of precision and 95% level of confidence. The formula is as follows:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e^2)}$$

Where,

- n is the desired sample size
 - N is the finite population, which are 551 respondents
 - e is the margin error/ level of precision taken as 0.05
- The formula gives:

$$n = \frac{551}{1 + 551(0.05^2)} = 231.75$$

The breakdown of the sample size per contractors and members of CRC based on their proportion in the population is provided in Table 2 below.

Table 2
Sample Size

| No | Respondent | Target | Computations | Sample size |
|----|------------------------------------|--------|--------------|-------------|
| 1 | Road contractors (companies) | 92 | 92/551*232 | 39 |
| 2 | Sub County Roads Committee members | 459 | 459/551*232 | 193 |
| | Total | | | 232 |

The respondents were sampled as follows; 39 road contractors, 193 Sub County Road committee members.

3.4 Sampling Procedures

Sampling is the process of choosing a section of the accessible population from which the study is done through use of various techniques (Saunders et al., 2020). The sampling procedure guarantees that the inferences of the study can be generalized to the whole population, which was not selected (Segal, 2020). In selecting respondents for the investigation, probability and non-probability sampling methods were used. Simple random sampling method was applied in selecting Sub County Roads Committee members and KeRRA road contractors. This sampling technique allows each object or element in the sample frame to have an equal chance of being selected based on the proportion of their number in the target population. This design involved identifying a suitable sample frame, deciding on a suitable sample size, choosing the most appropriate sampling method and ensuring that the sample represents the whole population under investigation (Hodges, 2020).

With reference to Table 2, each category was selected. In order to select 39 out of 92 contractors, simple random sampling method was applied to select the respondents through use of lottery technique. This involved writing the contractors codes in sheets of paper (92) and thoroughly mixing the codes after which only 39 selections were made as



representatives of the whole population. The procedure was repeated for CRC members. The advantage of this method is that it allows the researcher to obtain a sample that best represents the entire population under study (Lincoln, 2020). This method ensures that each respondent has equal chance of being selected based on the proportion of their representation in the target population.

IV. FINDINGS & DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Risk Acceptance Practices for KeRRA Roads in Migori County

There are risk acceptance practices that have been acknowledged by respondents and that, their chronic occurrence may have significant impact on road construction projects. Nine statements given on a Likert scale of five were provided to respondents who were expected to indicate how they believed that the risks posed by certain threats have been understood and handled in the construction of KeRRA roads in Migori County. The results are provided in Table 3.

Table 3

Risk Acceptance Practices for KeRRA Road Construction Projects in Migori County

| Items | N | Mean | Std. Dev. | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|--|-----|--------|-----------|----------|----------|
| We are aware of number of expected risks in this project and measures of controlling them | 229 | 3.9170 | 1.04173 | -1.665 | 2.472 |
| Sometimes we are aware that a number of risks that may affect the project do happen but we do nothing about them since they are prone to occur with minimal impact | 229 | 2.2140 | 1.30538 | .504 | -1.472 |
| We take no action unless the risk is triggered frequently during road construction | 229 | 1.7511 | .91482 | 1.381 | 1.429 |
| Every party in the contract is fully aware of kinds of risks one is likely to face and are expected to put into consideration insurance for the loses that may occur | 229 | 2.5502 | 1.38708 | -.020 | -1.866 |
| KeRRA undertakes some insurance activity (for small risks) to make sure that the road project is properly implemented | 229 | 2.2489 | 1.02771 | .292 | -1.065 |
| Appropriate technology is used in monitoring and insurance processes to ensure effective road project construction | 229 | 2.7904 | 1.44783 | .030 | -1.508 |
| We are aware of KeRRA recommends use of alternative plans when risks occur in order to ensure proper implementation of road projects | 229 | 3.4803 | 1.13006 | -.880 | -.124 |
| We are aware of other alternative ways in which risks are managed | 229 | 3.5371 | .98438 | -1.468 | 1.053 |
| We have adequate information on alternative risk identification processes | 229 | 3.1834 | 1.24305 | -.768 | -.993 |
| Valid N (Listwise) | 229 | 2.8525 | 1.1647 | -0.2882 | -0.2304 |

Result show that most respondents agreed ($M=3.91$, $SD=1.04$) that they are aware of number of expected risks in roads projects and measures of controlling them. This implies that all road projects being implemented are aware of the risks that they may encounter and put in place appropriate measures to address them in case they occur. However, the respondents disagreed ($M=2.21$, $SD=1.30$) that at times they are aware a number of risks which could affect the roads project but they do not do anything about them because they are likely to occur with minimal impact on the project. This implies that all type of risks are accepted and not considered inconsequential during roads projects implementation.

When asked as to whether they take no action unless the risk is triggered, majority of respondents denied this ($M=1.75$, $SD=0.91$). This suggests that the parties involved in rural roads construction projects take actions on risks that occurs during the implementation process. Findings show that respondents were neutral ($M=2.55$, $SD=1.38$) on the statement that every party in the road contract is fully aware of all types of risks one side is likely to encounter and are expected to put into consideration insurance for the loses that may happen. The standard deviation values are high which suggests that there are areas of the roads contracts that are not clear on the risks the different stakeholders may face when implementing the project and this could result to cost overruns or even delays in the implementation of projects. This means that openness in the contract documents detailing the kinds of risks to be experience during construction is not open to all parties in the contract.

It was also found out that as the implementing agency for rural roads in Migori, respondents disagreed ($M=2.24$, $SD=1.02$) that KeRRA does undertake to cover small risks involved in the projects to ensure that the project is effectively implemented. This means that the burden of risks identified are passed to the contractors who in turn factor it in their contract documents hence increasing the costs of roads projects. Further, study result reveal that respondents

were divided ($M=2.79$, $SD=1.44$) that appropriate technology is used in monitoring and insurance processes to make sure the road project is implemented effectively. This means that technology appears not to have been fully embraced in monitoring of risks associated with rural construction projects in Migori County.

The respondents appeared to agree ($M=3.48$, $SD=1.13$) that they were aware that KeRRA suggests the application of alternative plans when risks happen so as to ensure that roads projects are implemented properly. However, the statistics shows that despite more than half agreeing, there are some who disagree that there are alternative plans that KeRRA recommends to address risks when they occur during road construction projects in Migori County. Further, respondents tended to agree ($M=3.53$, $SD=0.98$) that they are aware of other alternative means in which risks are managed. This means that stakeholders involved in rural construction projects are aware of alternative ways of risk management in KeRRA rural roads projects implementation.

When asked as to whether they had adequate information on alternative risk identification process, respondents appeared neither to agree nor disagree ($M=3.18$, $SD=1.24$). This implies that at least half of the respondents appear to be aware of alternative risks identification process while others do not and may end up suffering the consequences of risks when they occur when implementing road construction projects. On summary, it appears that most respondents appear to show that on average ($M=2.85$, $SD=1.16$), they are aware of the application of risks acceptance aspects in construction of rural roads under KeRRA in Migori County, Kenya. This means that there are risks that are acceptable and therefore not much resources and money are directed to them as a way of managing the risks.

The study discovered that in many KeRRA road projects, CRC and contractors were aware of the number of expected risks and devised methods of controlling them. The understanding of expected risks helped the road project implementers to develop alternative ways of managing them hence improved level of implementation of KeRRA road projects. However, the respondents indicated that rarely took action unless the risk was triggered regularly during road construction. The application of risks acceptance strategies during implementation of road projects was found to be on average ($M=2.85$, $SD=1.16$). Different from the study findings, Mukamwezi (2022) found out that as part of risk acceptance, the following techniques were used in road infrastructure projects; having contingency plans, use of work plans in project implementation, utilisation of regular inspections and implementation of safety systems.

Regression statistics showed that there was no significant relationship ($\beta=0.092$, $t=1.044$, $p=0.298$) which resulted to acceptance of the null hypothesis ($p>0.05$) resulting to the deduction that risk acceptance strategies had no significant relationship with implementation of KeRRA road construction projects in Migori County. This meant that the risks acceptance measures adopted by parties involved in KeRRA road projects do not influence implementation of road projects in the county. In contrast to the study findings, Obade (2019) found out that risks acceptance was associated with probability of timely road projects completion in Nairobi County. Even in Muranga County, Kimani (2017) risks retention strategies influenced performance of construction projects in Murang'a county public secondary schools. However, when stakeholder participation (moderating variable) was introduced in the model, the significant changed ($\beta=0.219$, $t=3.15$, $p=0.02$). This means that stakeholder participation moderates the relationship between risk acceptance strategies and KeRRA road projects implementation in Migori County. Mukamwezi (2022) research in Rwanda also found out that risk retention (acceptance) had significant positive effect on road construction project performance.

These findings are in agreement with Al-Ajmi & Makinde, 2019 conclusion that few contractors practice formal risk management systems with analytical approaches such as acceptance in mitigating risks. In their study, the 'human problem' was identified as the initial hindrance for risk management. Though, Renault et al. (2020) identified lack of time and indifference by managers as significant hindrances to adoption of risk acceptance as a strategy, Shabbab et al. (2021) in another study asserted that the development of a risk management framework is a time-consuming process that is, at times, inconsistent with projects' allocated budgets. Further, a recent research within the context of developing economies indicated that lack of experience, inadequate information, and awareness of risk management processes are the most significant challenges which affect the implementation and practice of risk management in the road construction industry and not risk acceptance (Jaskowski & Biruk, 2019; Rwelamila, 2020; Firmenich, 2019).

This study finding contradicts a recent review of road construction projects in Machakos County which revealed that when risk management strategies like risk acceptance were put in place by the county Government few road construction projects fell behind implementation schedule (Wandiri, 2020). According to the budget policy statement, 2018, Machakos County was allocated 10.5 billion shillings from the county revenue allocation fund in the 2017/2018 financial year. The statement notes that in 2016/2017, the county spent 44% on personnel, 29% on operations and maintenance and 37% on development. The development plan for the 2018/19 financial year for Machakos County states that between 2013 and 2017, over 950 km of roads were graded; over 56 km of roads upgraded to bitumen standards; 1,060 metres of drifts (vented and non-vented) constructed; approximately 365 metres of culverts installed and approximately Ksh. 12.5 million allocated annually per ward for road maintenance and development. Most road construction projects were well implemented when measured against the time taken, cost and quality. For instance, in the KeRRA annual report for 2016/2017, the Tala-Donyo Sabuk road was expected to cover 70 kilometres in length and



be completed in 2018 and was at 60.29% completion rate and with only 51.3 kilometres of road length done during the launch year which was the 2016/2017 financial year, the project launch year. This became possible after risk mitigation was done at the planning stages (Wandiri, 2020). This is confirmed by Rambo and Okech (2020) who also did a study on influence of Risk acceptance on implementation of SME projects in Machakos County, he concluded that risk mitigation at the initial stages of the SME projects would in most instances guarantee good implementation in the undertakings. He further stated that in this loop, project planning accounts for about 8% of the total work scope while risk acceptance accounted for about 85% of the total work scope and therefore these two practices form a big part of the project implementation success.

The study findings are also similar to another one done within the lake region of Kenya by Ochenge (2021) which was carried out on effects of project management practices on implementation of road infrastructure projects done by local firms, he discovered that efficient implementation of road infrastructure projects is essential for economic growth and development and that implementation of road infrastructure projects in the Lake Basin Region constructed by local firms is poor in terms of completion of the projects within the budgeted cost, time schedule and attaining the desired quality, the study concluded that risk acceptance had no significant influence on implementation of road infrastructure projects by local firms in the Lake Basin region in Kenya. Further, Sule (2021) in findings in a research study in Kisumu East Sub County hold the view that there is more to successful project outcome than just focusing on the triple dimensions time, cost, and quality and tying them to acceptance and the attending risk mitigation strategies as an aspect of risk management strategy.

4.2 Hypothesis Testing

The study used multiple regression model to test the hypothesis. The decision to reject or accept the hypotheses was based on model 1 that has the effect of the interaction between the independent variable and the dependent variable Model 1 examined the following:

H₀₁: Risk acceptance has no significant influence on implementation of KeRRA road construction projects in Migori County.

$$\text{Implementation of KeRRA road construction projects} = f(\text{risk acceptance, random error})$$

$$\text{Model 1: } y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 RA + \epsilon_1$$

Table 4

Coefficients^a of RA, and IP

| Model | | Coefficients | | t | Sig. |
|-------|------------|--------------|------------|-------|------|
| | | β | Std. Error | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | .052 | .034 | 1.514 | .131 |
| | RA | .131 | .035 | 3.784 | .000 |

a. Dependent Variable: IP

The result in Table 4 show that there exist significant relationships between risk acceptance ($\beta=0.131$, $|t|=3.784$, $p=0.001$) and implementation of road construction projects by KeRRA in Migori County. The estimated t-statistic values for risk acceptance (df = 228, $|t| = 3.784$), are higher than the critical t-statistic value ($|t_{05}| = 1.943$). Therefore, the first (H₀₁) null hypothesis is rejected, resulting to the rejection of the null hypothesis hence the conclusion that there is significant relationship between risk acceptance and implementation of KeRRA road projects in Migori County.

Table 5

Coefficients^a of IP and RA

| Model | | Coefficients | | t | Sig. |
|-------|------------|--------------|------------|-------|------|
| | | β | Std. Error | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | .052 | .034 | 1.514 | .131 |
| | IP*RA | .096 | .037 | 2.584 | .010 |

a. Dependent Variable: IP

With respect to the interaction of the road construction project implementation [IP] and Risk Acceptance [RA] in Table 5, it can be seen that the interaction is significant ($\beta=0.096$, $|t| = 2.584$, $p = 0.010$). The estimated t-statistic value (df = 225, $|t| = 2.584$) is higher than the critical t-statistic values (df = 225, $|t_{05}| = 1.943$). This implies that implementation increases as risk acceptance is employed at the planning stages of road projects. The relationship between risk acceptance strategies and implementation of rural road projects is positively significant.

4.3 Discussion

The study has established that in many KeRRA road construction projects, Constituency Roads Committee members and contractors are aware of the number of expected risks and that they devise methods of controlling them. The understanding of expected risks helps road project implementers to develop alternative ways of managing them so as to achieve improved levels of implementation of KeRRA road projects, and one of the ways of managing the risks is through risk acceptance. Regression statistics show that there is a significant relationship ($\beta=0.131$, $|t|=3.784$, $p=0.001$), which results to rejection of the first (H_{01}) null hypothesis resulting to the deduction that risk acceptance strategy have a significant influence on implementation of KeRRA road construction projects in Migori County. This means that risk acceptance measures adopted by parties involved in KeRRA road projects do positively influence implementation of road construction projects in the County.

This study finding is in conformity with Al-Ajmi and Makinde (2020) conclusion that many road contractors practice formal risk management systems with analytical approaches such as acceptance in mitigating risks. In their study, the 'human problem' was identified as the initial hindrance for implementing risk management in projects. To get the real reason behind this, Renault et al. (2020) in a study identified lack of expertise and indifference by managers as significant hindrances to adoption of risk management strategies in projects, however, the study upheld the core function risk acceptance plays in successful implementation of projects, the study argues that were it not for the inherent assurance and comfort that risk acceptance affords project managers, most of the projects would be prone to time and cost overruns.

Findings by Carr and Tah, (2020) in a study of fuzzy approach to construction project risk assessment and analysis in South Africa is also in agreement with the results of this study. The study discovered that risk acceptance is very important in project management as it allows contractors to concentrate on delivering the project mandate, knowing very well that risks are anticipated and there is a definite way to deal with it if and when it occurs. The study further confirms findings by Rehacek (2020) that established road contractors applying regular use of risk management strategies find it important to understand and employ formal process of risk acceptance in major projects. Diversity in parties' perceptions in a construction project invites undesirable biases in decision making, which makes the process of risk acceptance as a risk management method in road construction projects more appropriate (Naji & Ali, 2020). This lends credence to the views of (El-Sayegh, 2020) which posit that risk management theory is adequate in explaining use of risk acceptance that can involve externally triggered changes to operations, orders and standing operating procedures in road construction projects. Further, the theory has strength on static risks that are not dependent on the evaluation of the competitive environment in which the organization establishing it operates but would rest merely on the internal factors of the entity.

The current study findings also support scholars such as Mukamwezi (2022) in a study in Rwanda argue that as part of risk acceptance, several techniques are used in road infrastructure projects; having contingency plans, use of work plans in project implementation, utilization of regular inspection and implementation of safety systems to ensure successful implementation of road construction projects. The study found risk acceptance a significant determinant and that early infusion of risk acceptance during project planning phase had a significant positive effect on road construction project performance.

According to the budget policy statement, 2022, Machakos County was allocated 10.5 billion shillings from the county revenue allocation fund in the 2019/2020 financial year. The statement notes that in 2019/2020, the county spent 44% on personnel, 29% on operations and maintenance and 37% on development. The development plan for the 2019/2020 financial year for Machakos County states that between 2019 and 2022, over 950 km of roads were graded; over 56 km of roads upgraded to bitumen standards; 1,060 metres of drifts (vented and non-vented) constructed; approximately 365 metres of culverts installed and approximately Ksh. 12.5 million allocated annually per ward for road maintenance and development. Most road construction projects were well implemented when measured against the time taken, cost and quality. For instance, in the KeRRA annual report for 2019/2020, the Tala-Donyo Sabuk road was expected to cover 70 kilometres in length and be completed in 2020 and was at 60.29% completion rate and with only 51.3 kilometres of road length done during the launch year which was the 2018/2019 financial year, the project launch year. When risk management strategies like risk acceptance were put in place by the county government, few road construction projects fell behind implementation schedule (Wandiri, 2020).

This view is supported by Rambo and Okech (2020) in a study on influence of risk acceptance on implementation of Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) projects in Machakos County. The study concluded that risk acceptance at the initial stages of the SME projects would in most instances guarantee successful implementation in the undertakings. The study further stated that in this loop, project planning accounts for about 8% of the total work scope while risk acceptance accounts for about 85% of the total work scope and, therefore, these two practices form a big part of the project implementation success. Similarly, Odimabo (2020) found out that risk acceptance was associated with

probability of timely road projects completion in Nairobi County. Additionally, findings by Kimani (2020) in Muranga County also supported this study when it revealed that risk acceptance strategies influenced successful implementation of construction projects in Murang'a County Public Secondary Schools. Whether risk acceptance is a significant risk management strategy, therefore, no longer remains an empirical question (Amoah, 2020).

On the contrary, Shabbab et al. (2021) in a study asserted that the development of a risk management framework is a time-consuming process that is, at times, inconsistent with projects' allocated budgets, which reveals why risk acceptance is rarely practiced. Further, studies within the context of developing economies indicate that lack of experience, inadequate information, and lack of awareness of risk management processes are the most significant challenges which affect the implementation and practice of risk management in the road construction industry and not risk acceptance. As such risk acceptance is not a core determinant of success of a construction project (Miller et al. 2021).

Other scholars (Jaskowski and Biruk, 2019; Rwelamila, 2020; Firmenich, 2019) also hold contrasting views. In a recent research within the context of developing economies their study indicated that lack of experience, inadequate information, and awareness of risk management processes are the most significant challenges which negatively affect successful implementation of road construction industry in most African countries, even though the sector is emerging as a crucial cog in the wheel of development in recent times. Similarly, Omer and Adeleke (2019) in another study discovered that low level of familiarity with techniques and the inability to recognize the benefits of the process of risk application were the most influential factors which impact the adoption of risk management strategies by most contractors and not solely the technicalities of risk acceptance. In another contradictory study, Teuma (2019) study results revealed that due to the manpower size of most road construction projects, they mostly suffer from inadequacy of facilities to provide adequate training in risk mitigation methods. Those trained, on the other hand are incapacitated by lack of funds and obsolete technology in the road construction industry. These necessitates an empirical study to determine the level of adoption of risk acceptance as a strategy in risk management in the Kenyan road construction projects.

A study done within the lake region of Kenya by Ochenge (2021) carried out on effects of project management practices on implementation of road infrastructure projects done by local firms discovered that efficient implementation of road infrastructure projects is essential for economic growth and development. However, implementation of road infrastructure projects in the Lake Basin region constructed by local firms is poor in terms of completion of the projects within the budgeted cost, time schedule and attaining the desired quality. All in all, the study concluded that risk acceptance has no significant influence on implementation of road infrastructure projects by local firms in the Lake Basin region in Kenya. Further, Sule (2021) in a study of road construction projects in Kisumu East Sub County holds the view that there is more to successful project outcome than just focusing on the triple dimensions; time, cost, and quality and tying them to risk acceptance and the attendant risk mitigation strategies as an aspect of risk management strategy.

V. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

It was found out that there existed a significant influence ($p > 0.05$) of risk acceptance strategies on implementation of KeRRA roads construction projects in Migori County. Considering that it was the least ranked risk management strategy, results suggest that the risk acceptance strategies should be featured more during KeRRA roads construction processes. They agreed that they were aware (accepted) the number of expected risks and measures to counter them in addition to finding alternative means through which such risks can be managed. Despite them acknowledging the existence of various types of risks, they did little even in securing insurance for small risks as way of ensuring that the project was properly implemented. Hence, the first null hypothesis was rejected resulting to the conclusion that there existed significant influence of risk acceptance strategies on implementation of KeRRA road construction project in Migori County.

5.2 Recommendations

In order to ensure that risk acceptance strategies are properly implemented, there is need for all parties in the contract to be made aware of all risks they are likely to encounter and take appropriate insurance policies for the losses that they may occur. There is also need for all stakeholders in the road projects to develop a system of monitoring of risks and identify alternative ways of managing them. All risks whether small or big need to be taken seriously, take action if it happens and insured where possible.

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Evaluating Objectives of TVET in Kenya in Light of Pragmatic Theory towards Lifelong Learning: A Holistic Approach to Competency Training

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ABSTRACT

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), World Bank and different countries including Kenya have placed education and training as a central tool towards youth employability and realization of the industrialization agenda. Despite the dying industries and increase in demand for employability skill in training, TVET graduates lack employability skills. The study was tasked to evaluating objectives of Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Kenya in light of pragmatic theory towards lifelong learning: A holistic approach to Competency Training. The study sought to answer the following research question; what are the objectives of TVET in Kenya in light of pragmatic theory towards lifelong learning. The study was a literature review and both Primary and secondary sources were used, this overruled the adoption of quantitative tools and methods towards data collection and analysis. Since the study was a qualitative review, constructivism paradigm and a philosophical design were adopted. The methods were philosophical analysis and synthesis. Philosophical analysis method was used in reviewing commissions, presidential taskforce reports, acts of parliament and policies. Synthesis method was adopted in developing arguments and searching for the findings of the study. The study found out that education and training in Kenya has been polished by Policy documents and Taskforce reports towards realizing the country's development agenda. The study also found out that the objectives of TVET have not been explicitly stated in the past documents it is after the TVET Act 2013 that clearly reorients TVET as an engine of attaining The Kenya Vision 2030. The objectives of TVET are; committed in training for skill development, social efficiency and democratic participation however skill development has been overemphasized. Implications of the study identify TVET as an engine of national development that has been all along given a low profile, lowly funded and a level of training that accommodates majority of the secondary graduates. The study recommends promotion of holistic competency training that promotes lifelong learning whereby emphasis is on the competencies for the world of work and not only for employability and economic development.

Keywords: Objectives, Lifelong Learning, Pragmatic Theory, TVET

I. INTRODUCTION

Globally, Sustainable development (SD) paves way as a means towards mitigating social, economic and environmental challenges of development. Education and training have been taken as prerequisite for sustainable development globally (UN, 2021). However, UNESCO identifies that reaching and teaching sustainability is a dominant challenge each institution has to work with. In an attempt to realize this dream, UNESCO proposes integration of Education for Sustainable Development in every education level and greening TVET towards availing relevant skills, attitudes and knowledge for national development (UNESCO, 2012). Thus lifelong learning has become an explicit or implicit ideal of either general or technical education for majority of the states that adopt a humanistic approach in training (Cronholm, 2021; Guven, 2020).

The convention on Technical and Vocational Education (1989) article 2(1) identifies TVET as a level of training additional to general education that is responsible of giving trainees required skills, attitudes and knowledge related to occupations towards self-empowerment and lifelong learning (Darol *et al.*, 2020). TVET being a major supplier of workforce that facilitates implementation of development, there is need for adopting a holistic approach in education training that links training and labour markets (Hanushek *et al.*, 2017), inclusive and aligned to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (Muigua, 2020) and achieve national development agenda and vision (Ikenga, 2022).



In 2015, with the launch of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) the revised goals of TVET read: to empower individuals and promote employment, decent work and lifelong learning, to promote inclusive and sustainable economic growth, to promote social equity and finally to promote environmental sustainability (Paryono, 2017).

Globally, each country has adopted its own approach in training its citizens towards sustainability (UNESCO, 2020). However, two TVET models that adopt formal sector firm based and non-formal training interested the study;

The German model is the most advanced and outstanding model that adopts a shared responsibility in training of its citizens among the stakeholders and levels of government (Wang, 2011). Training is dual since the companies and vocational centres share in the training session of the skill development plan (Solomon, 2016). In addition, the curriculum formulation and assessment is moderated by the educators and industrial practitioners hence making the system labour market popular (Osawa *et al.*, 2023). This system demands strong stakeholder collaboration and adequate funding policy. This model cannot be easily applicable in developing nations due to the internal efficiencies of the technical training centres and the limited industries (Afeti, 2018).

Japanese model consists of vocational tracks in regular schools and enterprise – based training. Vocational education is built on strong links between the educators and the employers. The employer prefers to recruit general education graduates in order to train them for lifetime within their premises thus enhances production. Japan Industrial and Vocational Training Association (JIVTA) is the main organ that is concerned with placement of trainees within the enterprises and place strict requirements on the enterprises to facilitate required skills for the enterprise (Wang, 2011).

In Africa, according to Ahadzie (2003), social, economic and political conditions in African countries have made TVET systems in Africa to be different. However, apprenticeship has a long tradition in Africa and this can be traced in African Indigenous Education (AIE) (Ahadzie, 2003). The influence of western industrialization and in company approaches in technical training has had significant impact in Africa TVET systems (African Union, 2007). However the growth of industry in Africa has greatly relied on the first class and G 8 Countries in terms of funding and even operations (Allais, 2020). According to Kerre (2017) TVET has a great role in changing Africa's pathy towards development despite the challenges of under resourcing, low image and insufficient training of TVET teachers among others.

Despite the challenge of funding (Onwusa, 2021), mismatch in training (Kigwilu *et al.*, 2016), and unpreparedness in handling Competency Based Education and Training (Osawa *et al.*, 2023, Musau, 2023), African states have adopted a Competency Based Education and Training (CBET) to facilitate development in the context of the national needs of each country (AU, 2018). According to Tambwe (2019) Tanzania adopted CBET and the major challenge has been demotivated trainers Some states have adopted apprenticeship approach while others in company approach (Allais, 2020). Therefore, the combination of apprenticeship and in company approaches can lead to standardization and formalization towards a sound TVET that can facilitate national and sustainable development (Palmer, 2020).

In Kenya, according to Kisirkoi (2019) the acts of parliament and commissions of inquiry contributed in the modeling of TVET system in Kenya. Sessional paper no 10 of 1965 on African socialism and its application to planning in Kenya aimed at alleviation poverty, hunger and disease (GOK, 1964) while the Ndegwa's Commission (1970) recommended expansion of TVET in general education and also creation of post-secondary institutions (GOK, 1976).

The presidential party on the second university in Kenya recommended the establishment of Moi University, expansion of vocational education to train the increased numbers of school leavers and finally enrich school curricula with technical subjects (GOK, 1981). The presidential party on education and manpower training for the next decade and beyond focused on education financing, quality and relevance and the major objective was to enrich the curriculum with technical subjects towards providing vital skills for self-reliance (GOK, 1988). The above commissions tasked the education system to adopt education for self-reliance modeled as 8.4.4 and technical subjects in the curriculum towards providing skills for the world of work. TVET institutions on the other hand were not prepared towards attaining the goal due to the challenge of funding, resources and equipment (Osawa *et al.*, 2023).

The Sessional paper no 1 of 2012 on a reformation of Education, Training and research places TVET as a key element to provide access, quality and relevant skills to the youth for Kenya's development agenda. In line with this paper, the Constitution of Kenya 2010 places education and training as a right for every Kenyan citizen thus education and training is for all (GOK, 2010).

These policies have had effect on enrolment (Kamar, 2022), resource allocation (Arunga, 2018) and even curriculum implementation in TVET thus causing internal inefficiency in Technical Training Institutions (Okinyi *et al.*, 2021), weak monitoring and evaluation of TVET system heavily supply driven rather than demand driven (Onsumu *et al.*, 2009) with a low image and stigmatization (Osunyani 2014). Despite the above, political goodwill has facilitated TVET curriculum towards empowering youths towards employability and lifelong learning by embracing competency training (GOK, 2018). Competency education and training has raised concerns among scholars in terms of the cost (Odada & Kariuki, 2023) preparedness (Osawa *et al.*, 2023) and reality indicates few institutions have presented trainees



for summative assessment and attained competent status for the world of work demands and produce demand compliant graduates (Federation of Kenya Employers, 2023). The few that have presented, there is still a gap between the required skill and what the industry is demanding this is evidenced by the still skyrocketing unemployment rates (Musau, 2023). The study, therefore is tasked to assess whether Dewey's educational thought can provide a sound foundation for CBET implementation in Kenya towards availing lifelong learning among trainees to fix the training industry gap that exist at the moment.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) has been viewed by society as the most important agent of empowering trainees in employability skill, knowledge and attitudes towards lifelong learning (United Nation, 2021). The government of Kenya through policy framework and funding has tried to reinvent and position training to produce a skilled human resource by implementing Competency Based Education and Training that aims at skilling by availing necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes towards industrialization of society and towards realizing development agenda (Republic of Kenya, 2019).

Related literature has hinted that there exist a skills mismatch between training and industry (Federation of Kenya Employers, 2023). The mismatch is as a result of inadequate, poorly motivated, unskilled trainers, obsolete nature of training equipment, difference in training equipment with the ones used in industry, limited industrial involvement in training due to a rigid policy framework (Osabwa et al., 2022). The study therefore is tasked examine the Objectives of TVET in Kenya in light of pragmatic theory towards lifelong learning.

1.2 Research Objective

The Specific objectives of the study were to; Evaluating Objectives of TVET in Kenya in light of pragmatic theory towards lifelong learning: A holistic approach to Competency Training.

1.3 Research question

The study sought to answer the following research questions: What are objectives of TVET in Kenya in light of pragmatic theory towards lifelong learning: A holistic approach to Competency Training.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Review

The study adopted pragmatic theory. This theory is also known as pragmatism, vocationalism or progressivism theory (Cordeiro, 2020). According to Yamuchi (2017) a theoretical framework is an essential component of research that shapes the quality and scope of investigations. It facilitates the making sense of observations by providing an overarching structure of the studies (Lois Yamauchi., 2017). The word pragmatism originates from the Greek word "Pragma" which means activity (Jia, 2005). Thus, the spirit of pragmatism is to emphasize what is practical, efficient, fruitful and satisfying. Pragmatic thought holds that one view is judged to be true and another false based on the consequences within human experience (Kaur, 2019).

This theoretical orientation is concerned with human experiences as human beings encounter or face dynamic situations that require reflective action towards positive change (Kalolo, 2015). In education for instance, since change is inevitable, there is need to revise the goals of education, teaching methods, role of the teacher, curriculum and finally the content for effective training. Dewey's Social Constructivism- Dewey felt that the curriculum should in the long run produce individuals' who can deal effectively with the contemporary world. To this end, curricula should include learner's preconceptions and take into account how the learner views his or her own world. Curricula should be ecologically oriented to reflect the world where the child lives. To characterize learners' behaviour, Dewey uses four instincts, or impulses: social, constructive, expressive, and artistic and hoped to use occupations to connect fundamental activities of life with classroom experiences. The theory gives emphasis to continuous participatory and experiential learning to make learning practical. The same practical approach is emphasized in the curriculum reforms in Kenya.

The study adopted pragmatic theory in this research objective to facilitate the examination of the objectives of TVET in Kenya towards realizing lifelong learning. The theory being cognizant with trends, problems of education and training and possible solutions, it guided the analysis of TVET in Kenya from apprenticeship during embracing of socialism, adoption of technical subjects and industry involvement and now competency training using industrial guidelines and occupational standards



2.2 Empirical Review

Literature review in this section was reviewed based on the potential objectives of education and training in Kenya towards attaining lifelong learning.

2.2.1 Trainee Skill Development

Skill development is an objective that has been overemphasized since inception of TVET as an engine of the development agenda of developing nations (International Labour Organization, 2019). A skill therefore is an acquired trait that enable one to perform specific work or trade in the line of study (Allais, 2020). Skills are diverse in nature for instance, employability skills, technical skills, lifelong learning skills competency skills (Guyen, 2020).

From the government reports, the urge for Kenya to realize a skilled labour force started at independence and thus skill development has been central in education and training (Republic of Kenya, 1964). In light of the Ominde report skill development was to help Kenya as a nation solve hunger, disease and poverty. The human aspect of skilling is towards social economic development of country (Shinga et al., 2021).

Industry plays a crucial role in training and skilling and it is the role TVET institutions to facilitate linkages, placement and even assessment of trainees on the skill relevant in the industry (Rufai et al., 2013).

The setting of the institution can also contribute to the skilling and thus exposure to the global world (Darol et al., 2020). Difference in rural and urban setting demand a variety of skills from the trainees and sometimes exposure to the skills can be facilitated by trainers or the nature of training equipment order to achieve uniformity and quality skills (Agrawal, 2014).

Skill development among trainees has not been smooth due to the fact that trainers are unskilled, demotivated, incompetent, inadequate and incapacitated to handle technical courses (Chepkoech et al., 2021). On the other hand, Dawo & Sika (2021) observe that management of TVET institutions have also contributed in the skill development for the world of work.

Contributions of different stakeholders in skilling has been observed however, a phenomenon has been observed in the policy orientation of developing nations that there is a skills mismatch (Federation of Kenya Employers, 2023). The skills that are being trained in technical institutions are at variance with the industry's expectations (Khatete & Chepkoech, 2018). Some scholars have collectively opined that the government has not done much in reinventing TVET in skill delivery in terms of curriculum modification, equipment and modernizing training environment, supply of trained and qualified trainers in TVET institutions (Chepkoech et al., 2021, Kigwilu et al., 2016, Changilwa & Akala, 2018). Others have directed this skills variance to unresponsive industries, limited in nature and lack of fruitful partnerships between training and industry (Ondieki et al., 2018).

2.2.2 Training for Inclusivity

The principle of inclusivity can be viewed in the following perspectives. First and foremost, as a promotion of education for all (People with Disabilities, Women In Technical Education or increased access to all), secondly education and training from a curriculum level to adopt diverse methodologies that allow every child to be involved in learning. The Salamanca Declaration emphasized the aspect of people with disabilities as key in empowering the whole society for economic development (UNESCO 1994). Whereas, the Dakar declaration education for all on the other hand interrogates how African states have embraced education for all policies through a legislative process (Dakar, 2000).

In 2015, the member states of the United Nations adopted 20130 agenda for Sustainable Development which includes seventeen Sustainable Development goals to guide in international development effort between 2016 to 2030. Goal 4 of the SDGs calls upon member states to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all. In target 4, all states are committed at all levels of education and vocational training to promote People with disabilities, women and youth empowerment among others toward lifelong learning.

Kenya as member state in the UN has oriented education through different approaches. For instance, girl child empowerment through sanitary pad and 100% transition policy framework by MOE. This has been possible due to the inclusion of a chapter on Bills of rights in the constitution 2010 tasking all members and statutory bodies to implement the inclusion policy.

According to Chege and Kariuki (2016) increasing women participation in Technical education can only be achieved through ODEL however, how many can access this infrustructure. On the other hand, women in informal settlement are empowered through Technical education by gaining short courses that provide skill for production, service and entrepreneurship skill empowerment (Arunga, 2018).

According to the Kenya Constitution 2010, every Kenyan child is entitled to education and training and TVET as one avenue of training every youth has to be facilitated to access this commodity (Republic of Kenya, 2010).



2.3 Pragmatism and TVET

Pragmatism as a philosophical paradigm and theory emphasize education as a social function and secondly education and training as a real-life experience to the child. Pragmatic trends in TVET can be identified in the following activities:

2.3.1 Apprenticeship

Apprenticeship is a form of training that involve taking initiative as a trainee to be trained hands on within the premises of an artisan or company for a longer period (ILO, 2020). Apprenticeship can be distinguished from internship in terms of timeframe and on relationships. First and foremost this apprenticeship takes a longer duration than internship which takes 3 to 6 months. In addition, training in apprenticeship can be arranged in terms of 50 percent in the instructional college and another 50 percent in the industry (ILO, 2020). Apprenticeship is coordinated by the industry that offers placement whereas internship is managed by the instructional institution (Haasler, 2020). The key objective in dual training is improving the skill and TVET system in correcting skills mismatch (ILO, 2020).

African countries' appraisal of TVET systems finds that the existing status of TVET systems in Africa varies from country to country, college to college and internship centres. TVET being a means towards effective training of the workforce for economic development each state is pumping resources in it towards addressing labour and mismatches at world work (Onwus, 2021).

Some states in Africa like Nigeria have prioritized education and training by putting in place strategies to revitalize TVET towards lifelong learning by placing emphasis on trainee empowerment and skill promotion (Afeti, 2018). However, there are several challenges that hinder Nigeria's TVET from handling unemployment and skill mismatch for instance: Infrastructure, human resource challenge, fixed curriculum, low TVET image just to mention but a few (Onwusa, 2021). According to Ikenga (2022) to curb these challenges adopting a holistic approach in training by bringing on board the private and public agencies in offering internship to polish skills has offered a possible solution or by adopting a competency based Training that focuses on the key competencies required in world of work.

In Kenya, apprenticeship has been equated to the *jua kali* industry and the role this industry is doing to education and training in offering real life training and providing a social role in creating jobs for the graduates is enormous (Republic of Kenya, 2021). However, policy documents observe that there are skills that need to be tapped from industry and equally, there is need for certification of men and women in the industry who by chance former rigid curriculum did not offer opportunity to do so (Republic of Kenya, 2019).

2.3.2 Competency Based Training in Kenya

The growth of technical education in Kenya is traced as early as 1963 at the independence 7-4-3-2 system, the 8.4.4 system and Competency Based Education and Training (CBET) (Republic of Kenya, 2019). Since independence, through commissions, Task forces and Ministerial reports education at all levels has been reorienting its curriculum implementation approaches to deliver specific traits needed for individual training empowerment in terms of skills, attitudes and knowledge and finally the service delivery in the job market thus building a strong economic work force. According to GOK (2007), education in Kenya was meant to preserve and transmit societal norms and values to the upcoming generation thus a conservative approach to education.

The Kenya Education commission (1964) called Ominde Commission was appointed to survey existing education resources and advice government on the formulation of national policies for education. Using Ominde's terms of reference the country education agenda was to address national unity and cohesion, trained a skilled workforce to replace the colonial regime. A critical analysis indicate that conservative theory played a crucial role in orienting education and training but it reveals a limitation of education philosophy to domesticate the goals, aims and objectives of education (GOK, 1964).

Bearing in mind that manpower survey ought to have influenced training, the report was very cautious in expanding TVET since excessive expansion could cause unemployment and thus waste and frustrate human resource (Sifuna, 2020). According to Sifuna (2020) policy framework demanded for a skill survey and data base, course formulation and diversification to train resource that was relevant to offering necessary skills for the country's development agenda.

The glorification of white-collar jobs made many to escape manual and arduous kind of training and thus the commission downplayed the value of practical and creative subjects towards restructuring of the colonial system of education to offer projections towards an expanded education system that values theory and practice (Dawo & Sika, 2021).

The second commission was called the Gachathi commission (1976) with the increased youths who had been prepared for the white-collar jobs, unemployment among the youths was a real phenomenon and thus government required to assess the situation through a commission to reorient training towards employability. The Gachathi



commission had the following Terms of reference; to review education and prepare objectives and policies to be adopted for the second decade of Kenya's independence in the attempt to assess the relationship needs, existing facilities and cost of education (GOK,1976).

To find ways of eliminating the white-collar job syndrome, Gachathi proposed the initiation of production units at training level to facilitate hands on skills.

"Production oriented education and training would mean the installation of production units at education and training institutions in which items would be made under conditions which stimulate real occupations in which students will eventually be productively self-employed" (GOK,1976).

The Mackey Commission report was established in 1981.It is the famous commission that scrapped off A level 7-4-2-3 to adopt 8.4.4 system. The Terms of Reference of the commission were: to prepare detailed plans and recommendations on the establishment of the second university in Kenya and facilitate change of the education system to 8.4.4 (GOK, 1981).

A practical oriented curriculum was design to accommodate Technical subjects at all levels of training. The practical orientation was to avail innovation skills to trainees toward self-reliance and technological advancement of the country (Mackatian et al., 2016). The commission overemphasized higher education above any other level of training with the establishment of the second university in the country (Republic of Kenya, 1981). With the lack of technical vocational teachers, the Technical schools were prioritized as centres of self-reliance and skilling centres which later became Technical training institutes (Sifuna, 2020).

The overemphasis of university education created a view that TVET institutions are of low cadre and some were grabbed to be made full fledge universities for instance Western College of Science and Technology, Kimathi institute currently Dedan Kimathi University and Muranga institutes currently Muranga University ,Kenya Polytechnic currently Technical University of Kenya,Mombasa Polytechnic currently Technical University of Mombasa and Kenya Communications College-Kenya Multimedia University (Sifuna, 2020).This trend contributed in the low image in Kenya and degrading of technical education towards production of sufficient human resource for attaining Kenya's development agenda (Changilwa & Akala, 2018).

The Kamunge Commission (1989) report was chaired by Kamunge and at this time the county was facing a great challenge of increased levels of unemployment. The terms of reference were: to review national education and training for the next decade and beyond. In addition, strengthen technical and vocational education and training in Kenya. It is at this level that Harambee institutes (Institutes of science and Technology) were set up to adopt failures of the 8.4.4 system and drop outs of primary and secondary levels (Sifuna, 2020).

The Koech Commission (1999) as other commissions had its terms of reference that were meant to guide education and training. They include: to review education system and recommend ways and means of enabling it to facilitate national unity; To recommend a possible programme of action to alleviate government from financial constraints. Education system adopted quota system in provincial schools and discriminated students and at the same time hindering national unity. According to Sifuna(2020) this commission contributed in the low financing of TVET institutions despite absorbing the high number of Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) graduates.

The Odhiambo commission established in 2011 with its terms of reference as to analyze the implications of the new Constitution on education and training; to undertake needs assessment gaps in relation to curriculum delivery process and finally to review educational training research to conform to new education. This commission gave rise to the Sessional paper no. 1 of 2012 prioritizing reforms in education and the TVET ACT 2013 (GOK, 2012).

According to the TVET Act 2013, TVET in Kenya is offered in Three levels: Technical universities, Technical Vocational Colleges (TVCS) and Vocational Training Centres (VTCs). These institutions are meant to promote acquisition of skills to the trainees for the labour market and the government has to improve the infrastructure, rebrand and reposition TVET due to its negative perception (Musyimi, 2021).Some of the activities to improve access and participation include: establishment of a printing and publishing unit in TVET, conduct TVET fairs and Technology contests and TVET institutions to offer relevant course (Khatete & Chepkoech, 2018).This has increased enrolment in TVET and thus caused constraints on resources and delivery of TVET curriculum towards effective skilling for the world of work(Kamar,2022). The common elements in the above curricula include:

2.3.3 Trainee Cognitive Development

According to Nasaina (2018) Plato (427-347 BC) is the first philosopher to appreciate the role of the human mind in contemplating the ideal. Plato's understanding of the forms as ultimate truth tasked him to categorize knowledge as both particular and universal based on the methods of acquisition. In addition, sensual knowledge acquired through sense and wisdom acquired though contemplation facilitate an individual towards the ideal truth. The quest for achieving objectives of education and training are within two major rifts: theory and practice. According to Sande (2021) the



concepts of change of curriculum and static use of existing curriculum contribute to the creation and generation of knowledge for the societal use through innovations and research.

According to Aristotle (384-322) creativity can be achieved through bodily training, character formation and intellectual training (Koji, 2012). In exploiting the principles of causality, act and potency Aristotle opines that nature is knowable through observation and cataloguing of phenomena Aristotle's theory thus is applicative and interpretive since it is open to diversified environments and settings in education (Koji, 2012). In addition, the overemphasis on intellectual formation of the learner limits education and training towards technical orientation for lifelong learning (Koji, 2012).

Knowledge creation and development in technical education has been pegged on the quality of trainers and their ability to integrate new technologies in the delivery of curriculum to trainees (Chepkoech et al., 2021). Cognitive development of learners mind improve their ability to create new knowledge, invent items and even share their innovations to the global market (Kintu *et al.*, 2019).

According to Rai and Lama (2020), pragmatic curriculum manifests utility, interest, experience and integration of activity in training. Curriculum should be useful by attending to trainees needs and meet future expectations of life. Stakeholders can be involved in education and training in terms of offering conducive environment for training through placement, construction of learning workshops and even mentorship of trainees and trainers through a provision of an effective curriculum.

The Kenyan CBET curriculum has heavily banked on the industry for the support in preparing training occupational standards, training and even assessment (Miseda & Kitainge, 2021). However, industry prioritizes profits and the skilling sector might be suppressed to meet the world of work demands. Industry is yet to declare the degree to which it shall sustain TVET towards providing a skilled resource for lifelong learning and attaining of the Vision 2030.

Secondly, Trainees have priorities that need to be attained and thus ought to be attended to by curriculum and the content given by trainers for the world of work (Langthaler, 2015). Activities involved in training must create interest in terms of conversation, construction, investigation, and creative expression in order to generate new knowledge (Rai, 2020). Knowledge creation is a concept that provides possible solutions to existing problems (Asha Kanwar, 2019).

Competency education and training is a curriculum that incorporates institutional mode of training, recognition of prior learning and dual training approaches in skilling for the world of work (Republic of Kenya, 2021). With an aim of improving trainees' transition from the colleges to the world of work with requisite skills for lifelong learning (Kithinji, 2022).

According to the CBET policy 2018, the objectives of the CBET are to: establish occupational standards which can be measured, train competent individuals with transferrable skills, link education and training to the skills needed by employers, establish a quality assurance system which will have the confidence of all stakeholders, promote lifelong learning through progression and transfer, encourage individuals to achieve their full potential, develop attitudes and abilities to respond rapidly to change.

And with this in mind, the policy aims at bringing on board the following ;those currently educated and trained who need to update their competences , individuals from the informal sector , individuals from the formal sector ,the unemployed population , out of school youth ,those with little or no education ,those individuals who are made redundant so that they can learn new competences and those who have retired but who would like to develop new skills and competences (Republic of Kenya,, 2018).

The CBET curriculum aims at educating and training all for the world of work and also empowerment for lifelong learning since the curriculum aims at empowerment of youths and old people in the industry through Recognition of Prior Learning (Republic of Kenya, 2021).

2.3.4 Activity Based Learning

Training methods are essential in attaining critical skills for the world of work. Pragmatism prioritizes action against thought and thus the taught or content recipient is at the center of the training process. Methods that promote learning by doing are task based are promoted as opposed to rote learning and memorization (Sande, 2021). Experiences in the training process must promote problem solving, purposeful attitude and vocationalisation. The activity-based learning and integration of work-based learning approaches enable diversification of thought and promotion of new way of approaching reality. New attitudes are shaped and discipline is individual trainee acquired as opposed to traditional imposition of rules and codes of conduct. According to Khasawneh *et al.* (2014), pragmatism is moderately applied in Jordanian schools and this is due to teacher involvement.

2.3.4 Stakeholder Involvement

Education and training as an enterprise that supplies human resource to the world of work demands for the involvement of industrial partners, government and trainers in attaining required. According to Osabwa (2021)



government involvement in realigning education theory and practice can positively facilitate curriculum implementation and orientation of training towards human skilling for the national development agenda. However, education and education has highly been interfered by political parties' manifestos in Kenya and that is why implementation has always been stray and subjective (Mackatian *et al.*, 2016).

Industry on the other hand, absorbs skilled human resource as attaches and workforce in specific areas of production. In addition, the preparation of occupational standards provides a platform for assessing demands by the world of work upon which training ought to attain (TVETA, 2018).

2.4 Gap in Related Literature Review

Literature review indicates that globally TVET has had a struggling phenomenon and the urge to become relevant has been stricken by the globalization agenda. It is also worth noting that, from apprenticeship, human capital theory and now CBET training, skills mismatch is reality among many countries and the need to have home-based solutions in training should be highly encouraged.

Skill development and stakeholder engagements have facilitated TVET system in realizing some of the milestones however, it is observed, that TVET system all along has not been part of general education rather that explicitly run as indicated in the recent competency based education and training (GOK,2018),there is overemphasis of the notion TVET as the only way to attaining national development thus, exaggerated faith in TVET (Langthaler, 2015).The study sought to examine objective of TVET in the light of pragmatic theory towards lifelong learning.

III. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The study adopted constructivism as paradigm. This is a paradigm that holds to the view that reality is not objective and every person can actively construct their own notions of reality from the cognition (Kisirkoi, 2019). Constructivism as a paradigm allowed the researcher to construct meanings from TVET attempt to attain Sustainable development by adopting literature review Constructivist paradigm allows researchers to analysis teaching and learning by analysing essential aspects such as culture, context, literacy, language, learners' interests and needs, personal experiences, interpretation of reality, as well as application of knowledge, which the researcher can analyse to determine their impact on teaching and learning policies (Mogoshoa, 2014). According to Kamal (2019), a constructive philosophical design embraces logical analysis and argumentation whereby premises are stated and logical rules followed to arrive at a sound conclusion, solutions, and recommendations to a specific problem under study.

The design was also adopted because of its ability to aim at clarifying, arguing reflecting on assumptions and providing tentative logical conclusions (Osabwa, 2021).The design also facilitates the tracing for consistency among different concepts in order to free technical education and training from contradictions (Ibanga, 2020).Therefore, the study used this design to clarify TVET objectives, Kenya Vision 2030 , training industry link and the applicability of Dewey's (1859-1952) concept of democracy in reinventing TVET to attain Sustainable development in Kenya.

3.2 Research Methods

According to Ibanga (2020), these are techniques used in enhancing clarity of thought and sometimes a study can adopt one or several of them may be simultaneously applied to a single study. This study adopted the philosophical analysis and synthesis method. Being a literature review analysis, a qualitative approach was adopted and thus philosophical materials and tools were adopted in data collection and analysis (Kauka & Afubwa, 2023).

3.2.1 Philosophical Analysis

Etymologically, the word analysis is derived from ancient Greek term "anulusius" (Angadi, 2019). The prefix "ana" means "up" while "luisis" means "loosing", "release" or "separation" so that "analysis" means losing up or "dissolution" the term was readily extended to the solving or dissolving of a problem and it was employed in ancient Greek Geometry and Philosophy (Kauka, 2018).

Analysis therefore is a critical evaluation, usually made by breaking a subject down into smaller concepts in order to understand it (Osabwa, 2022). Analysis is as essential to science as it is all rational enterprise since it involves three major stages; first and foremost, the search for an hypothesis which is sufficient to explain what reality accomplishes, secondly investigation of the extent to which this explanation is a necessary one and finally comparison with experience in order to verify or correct the explanation (Osabwa *et al.*, 2021).

This method was adopted in identifying objectives of TVET in the in Kenya in the education acts, reports, commissions and session papers since independence. The method was used to trace the terms of reference of each commission or report and sough the extent to which the references were necessary and finally compare with experiences



as at now to verify or establish the ought of TVET in terms of objectives towards lifelong learning in the light of Dewey's (1859-1952) pragmatic thought. In addition, Synthesis method was adopted to provide conclusion.

3.2.2 Synthesis Method

This is a philosophical method that is concerned with the combination of element of a system in order to make judgment or a clear understanding as a whole (Osabwa, 2021). This method finds its origin in analysis and thus it complements philosophical analysis. The aim of synthesis is to obtain clear, conclusive statement of the findings of the scattered research to be clearer and consistent (Angadi, 2019). Synthesis adopts conclusions from each research topic, categorize, compare the similarities and differences and bring out the conclusion from all the studied literature (Singporn & Nuangchalerm, 2021). This study adopted this method in the examination of objectives of TVET in the light of pragmatic theory by looking at what sources like journal, reports and books and finally answers to the question what objectives have guided TVET in line with Dewey's (1859-1952) thought toward attaining lifelong learning among trainees. The method was also used in the summing up of critical concepts of Dewey's (1859-1952) education thought that apply to TVET and they have guided TVET towards realizing the country's development agenda.

IV. FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

4.1 Examine Objectives of TVET in Kenya in the Light of Pragmatic Theory towards Lifelong Learning

Systematic analysis of government of Kenya policy documents from 1964 to 2023 was done by identifying the report, stating the terms of reference or objectives and recommendations of the report. The researcher using philosophical analysis identified underlying assumptions as themes within each document and recorded as the key objectives of TVET either explicitly or implicitly identified. The researcher gave a brief discussion on each report and voiced the limitations and finally using synthesis identified the cross-cutting objectives in the analyzed documents discussed and gave critique on the assumptions that have been overemphasized and some taken for granted yet they contribute TVET facilitating lifelong learning.

First and foremost, the findings reveal that at independence the objective of general education was reinventing education towards alleviation of poverty, hunger and diseases and this is highlighted in the Ominde report. The policy framework thus promoted education for skill development and elimination of racial lines that hindered many to attend to schools. The finding also reveals that TVET was to be expanded cautiously on the basis of a manpower survey to avoid human resource wastage.

Secondly, the Gachathi report (1976) reveal that the aspects of education funding by government were put in place and general education was to be funded basing on the resources available. The Mackay report (1981) on the other hand highlights the glorification of a self-reliant system and university education. It is upon this trend that TVET institutions in Kenya were adopted and made fully fledged universities thus killing expansion of TVET and increased the degree syndrome by having preference for Degree graduates over TVET graduates in employment opportunities and degrading TVET as a cadre for examination failures in Kenya (Sifuna, 2020).

The Kamunge report (1988) and Koech report (1999) identified Technical skills as key in the empowerment of the workforce towards attaining Kenya's development agenda. Technical skills are relevant in the general education and thus the issue of the number of technical subjects to be handled was not clarified and this led to the Koech report (1999) that reinvented a move towards removing technical subjects in general education because of the lack resources. This was an avenue that led to the mutilation of technical vocational education and training in Kenya (Ngure, 2022).

The findings reveal that it is after the constitution of Kenya 2010, that TVET system sees the light by operationalization of the TVET system by the guidelines of the Constitution and endorsing of the TVET act 2013 to realign TVET towards training for the world of work demands rather that supply demand. This finding is in agrees with the policy documents and scholars that have voiced that TVET in Kenya has been thought of too late to be thought of as an engine towards the attaining of Kenya's agenda and thus facilitating any form of development is mere illusion (Motuka & Orodho., 2018). However, the preparation of the CBET policy 2018 and the Recognition of prior learning policy 2021 is a new development in empowerment of the youths towards skill development for all in order to realize lifelong learning. Cross cutting themes on objectives of TVET in light of pragmatic theory towards lifelong learning are as follows:

4.1.1 Education for Skill Development

The findings reveal that each report or commission was trying to reinvent education and training towards bridging the skill gap. Though TVET is not explicitly identified as an avenue for skilling manpower for attaining the development agenda from 1964-2022, Technical education is a key player in skill development for the world of work has evolved after the Constitution 2010 (Republic of Kenya, 2019).



The sessional paper 1 of 2019 critically states the role of TVET:

“TVET provides young people and the unemployed with the competencies to gain productive employment and provides those already in employment (including entrepreneurs) with an opportunity to upgrade their skills.” P 48

The study also notes that, General education included technical subjects in the curriculum by the Kamunge report (1988) and Koech report (1999) to empower the graduates with Technical skills, Entrepreneurship skills, competency skills employability skills and even lifelong learning skills are essential for human survival. This is also emphasized by the Competency-Based Education and Training policy of 2018 (Republic of Kenya, 2019). In relation to pragmatic theory, Human life is for education and education is for human life. The humanism in education and training indicate the core role of engaging trainees with real life experiences for individual development and for social development.

Dewey (1859-1952) in the Treatise Democracy and education outlines that:

“Education, in its broadest sense, is the means of this social continuity of life. Every one of the constituent elements of a social group, in a modern city as in a savage tribe, is born immature, helpless, without language, beliefs, ideas, or social standards. Each individual, each unit who is the carrier of the life-experience of his group, in time passes away. Yet the life of the group goes on.” (Dewey, 1916 p. 10)

This study noted that skill development has been overemphasized throughout the policy documents. This study finding is in agreement with the Policy framework recommendations that skill development has been the central objective of TVET in order to correct skills mismatch in the industry (Federation of Kenya Employers, 2023). Though acquisition of the skills is dependent upon resource allocation and context as alluded by Chepkoech *et al.*, 2021 and Dawo and Sika (2021), the study opines that since education for skill development is a human activity as voiced by Dewey (1859-1952), there is need to understand man who is to be skilled, how, where and when.

4.1.2 Education and Training for Social Efficiency

The findings reveal that Ominde report (1964) and Kamunge report (1988) identify education and training as a tool for social efficiency. The interactions are meant for social integration, innovation and sharing of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Although, Mwaka *et al.*, 2013 opine that the education system in Kenya failed in achieving unity because of the aftermath of post-election violence in 2007/2008, this study reveals that education and training in Kenya has played a crucial role in social intergration, skilling and knowledge empowerment..

In light of pragmatic thought, Dewey (1859-1952) however notes that school environment needs to bring up the young in an informed pace.

“...more important functions of this special environment are: simplifying and ordering the factors of the disposition it is wished to develop; purifying and idealizing the existing social customs; creating a wider and better-balanced environment than that by which the young would be likely, if left to themselves, to be influenced” (Dewey, 1916 p. 27).

The study found out that skill development is for the trainees who ought to be exposed to the world of work. This indicates the opaque nature of the society and education system whereby values, skills and attitude acquired are transferred back to the society. It follows necessarily therefore that improper skill development leads to improper social efficiency.

4.1.3 Education for Democratic Participation

The finding reveals that the Ominde report (1964), Gachathi report (1976), Odhiambo report (2012) and the CBET policy (2018) outline this objective of TVET. The freedom and ability to share resource for the common good is indicated by these documents. The finding therefore indicate that TVET has explicitly identified democratic learning approaches through the CBET policy framework and the prior learning frameworks. This is in line with Dewey (1859-1952) in his Democracy and Education;

“The two points selected by which to measure the worth of a form of social life are the extent in which the interests of a group are shared by all its members, and the fullness and freedom with which it interacts with other groups. An undesirable society, in other words, is one which internally and externally sets up barriers to free intercourse and communication of experience” (Dewey, 1916 p. 103)

Rights and interest of trainees in training: Technical Training institutes have a specific curriculum that is followed in training and the planning of the course delivery approach demands that trainees interact with practical lessons, trips, attachment and even internship. Trainees are allowed to select the course, select the training model.

The core elements of Dewey’s (1859-1952) school were – the child, the school and the society. To these three he added three more notions – democracy, growth and experience. Dewey (1859-1952) wrote in Democracy and Education, that



“Education means the enterprise of supplying the conditions which insure growth or adequacy of life, irrespective of age” (Dewey, 1916, p. 51).

Dewey’s (1859-1952) school aimed at educating a flexible, creative, thinking and cooperative pupil and not a passive person. He wanted school to be a social institution representing life as vital to the child as that carried on at home.

“A society which makes provision for participation in its good of all its members on equal terms and which secures flexible forms of associated life is in so far democratic. Such a society must have a type of education which gives individual a personal interest in social relationships and control, and the habits of mind which secure social changes without introducing disorders” (Dewey, 1916, p. 99).

The study therefore, found out that TVET in Kenya has facilitated democratic learning and trainee participation in both training and in the industry. This has been observed through reports, attachment placements and stakeholders’ feedback (Federation of Kenya Employers, 2023).

4.2 Critique on Objective of TVET in Light of Pragmatic Theory towards Lifelong Learning

In this section the researcher gives a synthesis over the discussions by looking at a dominant objective of TVET skill development as indicated has been overemphasized by the documents under study.

Critique on economic view of human capital development: Overemphasis of skilling at the expense of critical reflective learning has led to many TVET institutions to diversify courses, making a TVET institution as a shop of all services, increased production of similar graduates thus flooding labour market in addition, emphasizes of employability skills that depend on contextual factors.

The second critique philosophical anthropology concept of man. The overemphasis is skill development handles part of the human person (hands, head) or from a philosophical anthropological view body and mind. These debates take use to the philosophical problem of what reality “is”. According to Stumpf (1999) in the treatise From Socrates to Sartre, man is a project. This is clearly elaborated in three perspectives from an anthropological exegesis. First, from a Cosmo-centric view, early Greek Philosophers opine that: Thales: All is water which implies man is made of water, Anaximander: all is Apeiron and this implies was made of apeiron, Anaximenes: all is air which implies that humans are air, Heraclitus: Human are changing (one can’t step into the same river twice which implies that human are in flux) man is changing both mentally and physically, Anaxagoras: ‘Humans are constituents of four elements of earth, water, fire and air’ Democritus: ‘Humans are aggregates of atoms’ Plato: ‘Humans are made up of body and soul’ Aristotle: ‘Man is a rational animal’

From a theocentric view man was made in the likeness of God (*Imago Dei*) and following the Judea Christian and Plato’s dichotomy of man as soul and body tradition St Augustine discusses the process of illumination as a way of knowing reality. On the other hand, St Thomas Aquinas adopted the Aristotelian principle of act and potency in his Entity and essence to discuss man as soul and body where they meet and where they disintegrate (Copleston, 1993).

Finally, the modern view of man indicate man; Socrates: Humans should know their self, Descartes: Man is thinking being, Kant: Humans use understanding and sense perception in making judgments Kierkegaard: Humans are existential beings Wittgenstein: Humans should make their language easy and clear in order to transform and communicate their thoughts and technology. Sigmund Freud: ‘Man is made up of three personality traits Id, Ego and Super Ego’ (Tariq *et al.*, 2018).

Both the cosmocentric, medieval and modern views about what man is guided in the understanding of the epistemological problems that man encountered and possibilities of solving relies heavily on philosophy to discuss and solve the problems. John Dewey (1938) perceives a child centred approach to education and training by tasking teachers and people handling young people to have a detailed understanding of the needs and interests of the learners in order to impart positive skills to the young to facilitate skilling for learning to learn (Ord, 2012).

It is therefore follows necessarily that the economic conception of TVET in facilitating training for lifelong learning was a unproductive approach in training because of the reduction nature of man to hand work, what about the will, the soul and thus man in totality as “being”.

V. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

The study sought examine the objectives of TVET in light of pragmatic theory towards lifelong learning and found out that education for skill development has been overemphasized in Kenya at the expense of holistic education addressing human complexity.



5.2 Recommendation

The study analyzed the objectives of TVET in Kenya in light of pragmatic theory. The objectives are: education and training for skill development, education and training for social efficiency and education and training for democratic participation. From the literature, education and training in Kenya has always oriented training towards grades, certification and technical skills. This research therefore recommends that CBET training to adopt a holistic training approach that appreciates the entire person as a composition of will, soul and body. On the basis of the findings the following are suggestion for further philosophical research recommended; a study should be carried out to holistic approach in CBET implementation in Kenya.

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Do Internal and External Control Systems Foster Accountability Practices in Public Institutions in Ghana?

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ABSTRACT

Improving governance results in Ghana requires a culture of candour among public institutions. This paper tried to determine what extent do internal and external control systems foster accountability practices in public institutions in Ghana. The research also sought to assess the strengths and shortcomings of current control mechanisms, offering practical recommendations for improving institutional accountability and reinstating public trust in governmental operations. A comprehensive understanding of internal and external control mechanisms in Ghana's public sector is urgently required owing to the nation's particular challenges, including widespread accountability issues, corruption, and misappropriation of financial resources. The study adopted agency theory to underscore the propensity of public officials to pursue self-interest in the absence of sufficient control, complimented by stewardship theory, which posits that alignment with organisational objectives may improve ethical conduct around officials. Internal and external controls are essential for sustaining public confidence and averting corruption. Internal controls include management audits and performance evaluations, while external controls entail regulatory supervision by independent organisations, guaranteeing the effective and ethical utilisation of public resources. The study adopted a descriptive research design, utilising both quantitative and qualitative approaches. A non-probability sampling with purposive and convenience sampling technique was used. This was to ensure that knowledgeable people were selected by the judgment of the researcher. The population of the study was 5000 comprising senior management and non-managerial employees of public institutions. A sample of 300 respondents received the questionnaires with 259 (86.33%) returning same. The research used SPSS with Multiple Linear Regression via a stepwise model. The qualitative data using semi-structured interviews was transcribed with quotation marks into a text box. This study emphasised the significance of internal and external control mechanisms in enhancing accountability inside public institutions. Issues such as insufficient funding and political interference underscore the need of improving these systems. With overall R^2 of 15.2% the Null hypothesis was rejected. The study concludes that both internal and external control mechanisms assist in regulating behaviour; nevertheless, political factors, insufficient training, and limited resources may render them almost ineffective. The apparent autonomy of external controls enhanced their efficacy in promoting accountability. The paper therefore, recommends enhancing Internal Control Mechanisms by allocating additional resources for training and innovative audit technology. Enhance External Oversight by augmenting the capabilities and independence of external auditing institutions to mitigate political meddling. And finally, the public's trust in accountability systems may be bolstered by the encouragement of transparency and integrity in reporting.

Keywords: Accountability, Agency Theory, Controls, Internal, External, Stewardship Theory, Public Institutions

I. INTRODUCTION

Regulatory authorities overseeing the proper utilisation and allocation of resources, as well as ensuring public welfare, remain the principal providers of essential needs (Brown & Marsden, 2023; Ezenduka et al., 2022). Enhancements in the efficiency and transparency of these institutions are essential, given their significance to the Ghanaian populace. Nonetheless, the nation's public sector persists in confronting issues related to corruption, egregious financial mismanagement, and insufficient accountability. To resolve these challenges, accountability processes are improved by the use of internal and external control mechanisms (Matebese-Notshulwana, 2021; Overman et al., 2021).

State institutions are actively involved in several areas, including service supply, policy implementation, and administration. In public institutions, accountability practices guarantees that money is used appropriately to meet goals, with public support. Nonetheless, the need for the implementation of suitable control systems has been recognised in light of concerns about resource misappropriation and occurrences of malfeasance (Sibanda et al., 2020; Sofyani et al., 2020). In the delivery of public services, public servants are involved in corruption and various shady deals all in the pursuit of self-interest. Hence, these public servants must be held accountable for the resources entrusted in their care for the betterment of all citizens (Transparency International, 2017).



Institutional controls are used to oversee and regulate activities inside an organisation. These controls may include management audits, performance assessments, and policies. These controls are implemented to ensure the proper utilisation of resources and the timely achievement of objectives, preventing and detecting improper and wasteful occurrences (Rakipi & D'Onza, 2024). Conversely, institutions must operate legally and in compliance with set standards via external control systems, which include regulations and social control mechanisms, including certification from relevant organisations, the government, and other entities (Abbott & Snidal, 2021). A comprehensive knowledge of the interaction among several control mechanisms is crucial for enhancing the organisational performance, transparency, and accountability of public institutions (Dubihlela & Boamah, 2024).

The research "Do Internal and External Control Systems Foster Accountability Practices in Public Institutions in Ghana" identifies significant independent and dependent variables essential for understanding the dynamics of accountability within Ghana's public sector.

These are the frameworks established by governmental entities to ensure proper governance, effective risk management, and compliance with all relevant laws and regulations. According to the study (Brenya Bonsu et al. 2023) a robust internal control system enhances accountability measures by establishing clear standards and conducting frequent assessments.

Audits and regulatory agencies are two examples of external authorities that carry out oversight procedures in order to examine the performance of public institutions and ensure that they are in accordance with regulations. It is believed that these external assessments will enhance accountability and transparency by holding institutions accountable to the people who have a stake in them (Brenya Bonsu et al., 2023; Appau & Anku-Tsede, 2015).

The primary dependent variable of the study is accountability practices, referring to the mechanisms by which public officials are held responsible for their decisions and actions. To ensure public officials are accountable to stakeholders and citizens, it implements processes such as reporting, monitoring, communication and participatory decision-making (Brenya Bonsu et al., 2023; Van Belle, & Mayhew, 2016). The primary objective of this research is to examine how varying values of the independent variables affect different accountability practices within the Ghanaian government.

The primary purpose of this research is to assess the accountability of public sector organisations in Ghana via their existing internal and external supervision mechanisms. To enhance governmental accountability and mitigate corruption, they scrutinise internal operations, efficiency, challenges, and outcomes. The enhancement of accountability, fortification of institutions, and cultivation of public trust in Ghana's governance systems are contingent upon a comprehensive assessment of these metrics.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Globally, public institutions have challenges with accountability, despite having established frameworks. Notwithstanding the existence of established frameworks, the study subject focusses on the enduring issues of accountability in public entities in Ghana. There is an increasing cry among citizens for increased transparency and effective governance from institutions, thereby highlighting the issue of public accountability in Ghana. The refusal of several public officials to adhere to accountability standards has led to mismanagement of public resources and a decline in taxpayer trust, as recently discussed (Appau & Anku-Tsede, 2015). Several public institutions in Ghana exhibit insufficient monitoring and sanctions for mismanagement, despite the accountability mandated by the 1992 Constitution of Ghana (Kuyini, 2023; Draman, 2017). A comprehensive investigation is necessary to understand the underlying dynamics and develop strategies for improvement in this context.

Recent research indicates that integrity systems and internal control mechanisms significantly influence accountability procedures within Ghana's public sector. Research indicates that existing frameworks are underutilised, suggesting that improvements in integrity systems could substantially enhance public accountability (Brenya Bonsu et al., 2023). The interaction between these processes, leadership practices, and the broader socio-political context remains inadequately understood.

More research emphasises internal processes while neglecting external factors such as public participation and civil society engagement. Further study is required to evaluate the effectiveness of civil society groups' participation in promoting accountability via the oversight of governmental actions (Abhayawansa, 2021; Villanueva, 2020).

Additional empirical study is required to assess accountability mechanisms in the real-world context of various government institutions. There is a scarcity of data from specific institutions and empirical case studies in the study of accountability frameworks (Tetteh et al., 2024; Han, 2020). The enactment of laws such as the Right to Information Bill has created new opportunities for enhancing accountability. Nonetheless, there has been an insufficient examination of the execution of these regulatory frameworks and their impact on transparency in the public sector (Tetteh et al., 2024).

Finally, by filling up these gaps with targeted research, we may learn how to make Ghana's public institutions more accountable. The study's overarching goal is to make a substantial addition to the ongoing conversation about



accountability and governance in Ghana by investigating the relationship between leadership dynamics and internal and external control systems foster accountability practices in Ghana's public sector. This study therefore aims to examine how the accountability practices of these institutions are influenced by their internal and external control mechanisms.

1.2 Research Objective

To examine the effectiveness of internal and external control systems in fostering accountability in public institutions.

1.3 Research Hypothesis

Ho: Internal and external control systems have a negative effect in accountability practices in public institutions.

Ha: Internal and external control systems have a positive effect in accountability practices in public institutions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Review

The Concept and Importance of Accountability in Public Institutions

To guarantee that Public Institutions are held accountable, it is imperative that public officials be held responsible for their choices, deeds, and the way they use public funds. When accountability efforts are effective, it leads to more trust, less corruption, and better government (Agu et al., 2024; Cassim & Osler, 2023; Sofyani et al., 2022; Vian, 2020).

The phrase "public accountability" refers to the mechanisms established to guarantee that public authorities are held responsible to the public for their decisions and actions (Sindelo & Cronje, 2024; de Boar, 2023; Ricci, 2023). The OECD, (2013) asserts that a transparent, proficient, and trustworthy management of public finances is crucial for fostering a dependable connection between the public sector and its constituents. This relationship enables individuals to assess the reliability of government entities in their management of tax expenditures (Cao et al., 2022).

Accountability beyond just compliance with legal laws; it encompasses a broader need to maintain transparency and integrity. Transparency International asserts that public officials are accountable to the populace for their utilisation of allocated funds and power. Effective governance requires public trust in its leaders, and this concept is essential for maintaining that trust (Efunniyi et al., 2024; Jejenywa et al., 2024).

Trust Building in Accountability

Proper systems of accountability provide a robust basis of public confidence. When governmental entities operate with integrity and reliability, it fosters confidence in those authorities (Amin et al., 2024). Credibility, transparency, and competence are three attributes that research indicates are essential for establishing public confidence. Research indicates that public trust in officials is more adversely impacted by unethical behaviour than by inadequate performance, underscoring the importance of ethical conduct in accountability frameworks (Kamara, 2024; Lee & Li, 2021).

Corruption reduction in Public Institutions

Accountability serves as a deterrent to corruption by ensuring that public officials are held responsible for their actions. Officials are less inclined to do corrupt activities when constituents insist on transparency and hold them accountable for unethical behaviour or mismanagement (Vian, 2020). In Ghana, there have been calls for more accountability of public officials to ensure transparent management of resources. Corruption may lead to substantial financial losses in the absence of accountability, underscoring its essential function in safeguarding public funds (Sefayarko et al., 2021; Akonnor & Ohemeng, 2020).

The improvement of Governance Outcomes

Effective institutional accountability mechanisms enhance governance. Community empowerment and enhanced service delivery are two results of open and participatory systems (Kosec & Wantchekon, 2020). The UNDP asserts that inclusive policies including public involvement in decision-making are fundamental to responsible governance. Enhanced and equitable outcomes stem from accountability mechanisms that promote public participation in governance (Jili & Enaifoghe, 2023).

Finally, ensuring responsibility among public officials necessitates accountability inside public institutions. It enhances governmental outcomes, augments public confidence, and diminishes opportunities for corruption. To ensure honest and effective public service delivery, robust accountability frameworks must be established.

2.1.1 Agency Theory

The study employed two theories, thus the Agency theory which suggests that public officials (agents) may pursue personal interests contrary to the goals of the public (principals) without adequate monitoring. Transparency in public institutions is essential for public accountability, as evidenced by the effective management of public entities (Ji, 2022). Svava (2021) assert that public accountability in this context manifests as the responsible management of public institutions, grounded in rights rather than utilitarian principles. According to Ji (2022) a public accountability and disclosure model at public institutions should be informed by the principles of fairness, accessibility, and distribution. Organisations such as public institutions must recognise the diverse expectations of their stakeholders and provide a comprehensive and transparent account of their operations to a broader audience. This aligns with the normative framework of stakeholder theory as articulated by Mondoñedo (2021).

2.1.2 Stewardship Theory

The agency theory was complimented by Stewardship theory which also proposes that public officials can act responsibly and ethically when aligned with organizational goals, reducing the need for strict control mechanisms. Greiling and Schaefer (2020) assert that a public service ethos underpins public accountability through effective stewardship, as it inherently restricts the application of delegated authority, channelling it towards the achievement of national objectives and the protection of the public interest.

Ji (2022) refer to public accountability as the public's right to be informed about the condition and performance of the institution under the charge of an accountant. Based on Hadley and McGrath (2021) research, the authors emphasises a significant distinction between "accountability" and "public accountability." The former denotes the responsibility to justify and elucidate one's actions; however, this process may not be apparent to external observers. Instead, it frequently entails pre-determined actors or parties, potentially excluding larger constituencies. Conversely, management and institutions would be accountable in a transparent environment where information is readily available and open to public scrutiny. The annual report is esteemed by the authors for its capacity to provide a comprehensive overview of an institution's objectives and performance, both financial and non-financial, in a single document. This facilitates a thorough understanding for all stakeholders. No other source consistently offers this type of information to all stakeholders.

2.2 Empirical Review

Organisational accountability is fundamentally dependent on the concepts of internal and external control systems. These frameworks facilitate risk management, ensure compliance, and enhance the overall effectiveness of governance systems (Cooley, 2020).

Internal control systems refer to an organization's policies, processes, and procedures established to safeguard its assets, ensure precise financial reporting, and adhere to regulations and laws. Al-Astal et al. (2024) and Atiade and Enebong (2021) reference the Turnbull Report, which asserts that effective internal controls enable an institution to manage significant risks without compromising its objectives.

Accountability Mechanisms

Management implements defined performance metrics to enhance responsibility inside internal control systems. Executives are accountable to the board of directors for the development, implementation, and evaluation of these protections. Regular performance evaluations are done using specified measures to ensure accountability within the internal control system (Al Astal et al., 2024).

The Role of External Control Systems in Accountability

Organisations may gain advantages from the involvement of third parties, such as auditors or regulatory agencies, in their external control systems. This is particularly crucial in public sector administration for enhancing accountability. For instance, studies in Uganda indicate that the Office of the Auditor-General and comparable external entities are instrumental in ensuring local government accountability (Atiade & Enebong, 2021). However, these external controls face numerous challenges, including insufficient funding and ineffective legislation (Al Astal et al., 2024).

The effectiveness of external control mechanisms can be assessed by examining the extent to which external agencies can ensure accountability, contingent upon adequate funding and support from lawmakers. The effectiveness of these bodies in implementing accountability-related legislation. External control mechanisms should prioritise the involvement of civil society in promoting accountability (Hamed, 2023).



Interaction between Internal and External Controls

Internal and external control systems possess a bidirectional relationship. To maintain operational integrity, internal controls are essential, while external controls are necessary for oversight and to enhance accountability. When both systems align with the organization's objectives, governance is significantly facilitated. For instance, failures in accountability within public administration might arise when deficiencies in internal controls diminish the efficacy of external audits (Al Astal et al., 2024; Hamed, 2023).

In conclusion the use of both internal and external control systems may significantly boost organisational responsibility. External controls are crucial for maintaining operational integrity, while internal controls provide the foundation for this integrity. A robust organisational culture that prioritises ethical conduct and legal adherence, together with enough resources and coordination, is crucial for the efficient operation of these systems. Enhancing overall responsibility in governance frameworks necessitates tackling the limitations of both systems.

2.3 An Overview of Control Systems

Control systems are crucial to ensure that firms adhere to regulations and operate responsibly. They are primarily categorised into Internal and External systems. Audits performed inside an organisation and regulations established to govern and manage its activities exemplify internal control systems (Almasria, 2022). In risk management, these systems are essential for identifying deficiencies and ensuring compliance with legal standards and regulations. Effective internal controls may mitigate the risks associated with financial, operational, and regulatory issues, hence safeguarding a corporation's assets and information (Turetken et al., 2020). The internal audit function is essential for assessing these controls to ensure their effectiveness and independence from management influence (Almasria, 2022; Chorafas, 2001).

External control systems include audits performed by independent third parties and oversight entities that evaluate a company's adherence to established norms. External evaluations often rely on the efficacy of internal controls to identify risk areas and prioritise audit processes (Airout, 2022; Yakubu & Williams, 2020). Prior to conducting formal audits, external auditors assess the efficacy of internal controls to identify any deficiencies that may affect operational efficiency and compliance (Grima et al., 2023; Almasria, 2022; Christensen, 2022).

In order to ensure that organisations are following ethical standards and complying with regulatory obligations, control systems are put in place both internally and externally. According to Grima et al. (2023), Airout (2022), and Yakubu and Williams (2020) this two-pronged strategy improves audit effectiveness and encourages openness and responsibility in institutions.

Ho – Internal and external control systems have a negative effect in accountability practices in public institutions.

Ha - Internal and external control systems have a positive effect in accountability practices in public institutions.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

According to Nwachukwu et al. (2024) and Hamed, (2023) key components of internal controls are: *Control Environment*: Integrity and ethical conduct are fundamental elements of a robust organisational culture, establishing the precedent for all other aspects; *Risk Assessment*: Organisations must consistently identify and evaluate risks to establish suitable controls; *Control Activities*: The particular activities used to manage risks include preventative measures such as authorisation procedures and investigative measures like reconciliations; *Monitoring*: Continuous assessment of the control systems ensures they remain effective and relevant and; *Information and Communication*: Clear communication regarding roles and responsibilities enhances understanding and commitment to internal controls (de Boar, 2023).

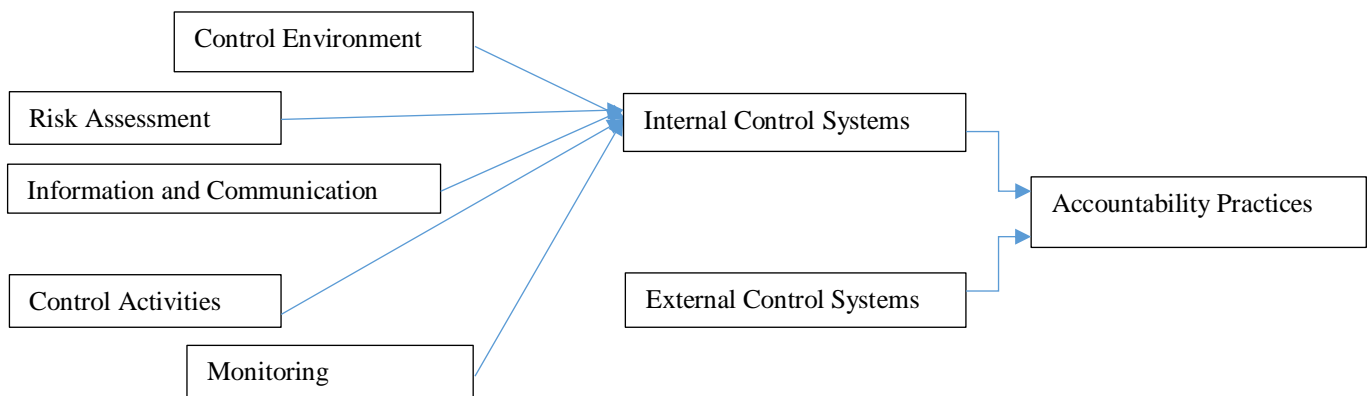


Figure 1
Institutional Control Components



This conceptual model in figure 1 illustrates the complementary relationship between a company's internal and external control systems, enhancing institutional accountability. Organisations may attain their strategic objectives thus protecting assets and maintaining regulatory compliance thereby effectively integrating these elements. This is an excellent starting point for public institutions aiming to establish robust governance structures that promote transparency and accountability.

III. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

Using a combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques, this study presents comprehensive insights via Descriptive research design.

3.2 Population and Sampling

The study primarily focuses on senior management and non-managerial employees of 5000 people inside governmental institutions. A sample size of 300 was established using purposive and convenience sampling to ensure the inclusion of competent and knowledgeable respondents. The target population was located in the Upper East Region in the Northern part of Ghana. All public institutions are replicated across all the regions with the same function and mandate. Out of the 15 Districts, 8 were purposively sampled and questionnaires distributed across more than 10 major public institutions which include Ghana Education Service, Ghana Health Service, the Police Service, Immigration Service, Universities, National Health Insurance Scheme, Customs and Preventive Service.

3.3 Data Collection Methods

A systematic questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data about participants' views of internal and external control systems and accountability practices. The questionnaires retrieved were 259, which was over 86% response rate. Semi-structured interviews with chosen important officials for comprehensive qualitative insights.

3.4 Data Analysis

Quantitative data was recomputed using the compute method in SPSS with Multiple Linear Regression model to determine relationships between control systems and accountability. Qualitative data from the interviews were transcribed verbatim into texts boxes with quotation marks.

3.5 Reliability and Validity of the Research Tools

The questionnaire/interview guides were evaluated for specificity and alignment with study goals and the used conceptual framework. The evaluation used Cronbach's Alpha method in SPSS, yielding an overall Alpha of 0.824, indicating a strong level of reliability and consistency of the questionnaire. The individual Cronbach's Alpha values for the questions exceeded 0.8. Churchill (1979) asserts that Cronbach's alpha over 0.7 indicates that the items were consistent with the hypothesis and hence highly dependable. This mitigated the researcher bias and led to modifications in the questionnaire/interview guide where necessary.

3.6 Ethical Consideration

This study adhered to all ethical standards since the researcher followed them. The researcher adhered to a number of ethical norms, including being forthright and honest at all times and not engaged in any kind of bias, deceit, prejudice, or misrepresentation. Furthermore, every participant's rights were honoured. The participants were given the assurance that their data would be analysed and reported in a way that would protect their confidentiality and identity. Time and directions were followed to the letter, and participants' permission was sought before proceeding

IV. FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

This paper sampled two (2) major features of the respondents, including gender and age. These features were included to provide a clear picture of the sample distribution and their involvement in the day to day institutional governance and accountability practices in institutions in Ghana.



4.1.1 Gender of respondents

Table 1 show that 71.8% of the respondents were males, while 28.2% were females. This seems to be representative of the working population in the public sector workers in Ghana.

Table 1
Gender Distribution of Respondents

| Gender | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------|------------|------------|
| Male | 186 | 71.8 |
| Female | 73 | 28.2 |
| Total | 259 | 100 |

4.1.2 Age Distribution of Respondents

Figure 2 indicates that 33.98% respondents were within the young age of 18 to 35 years. The lower middle age of 36-45 years represented the majority of the respondents with (37.45%). This is quite significant because, effective working staffs are undertaken by the energetic age of youth or those approaching lower middle age. A few respondents were within the ages of 46-55 years were 24.71%. The age range of respondents 56 and above (nearing retirement) is 3.86%.

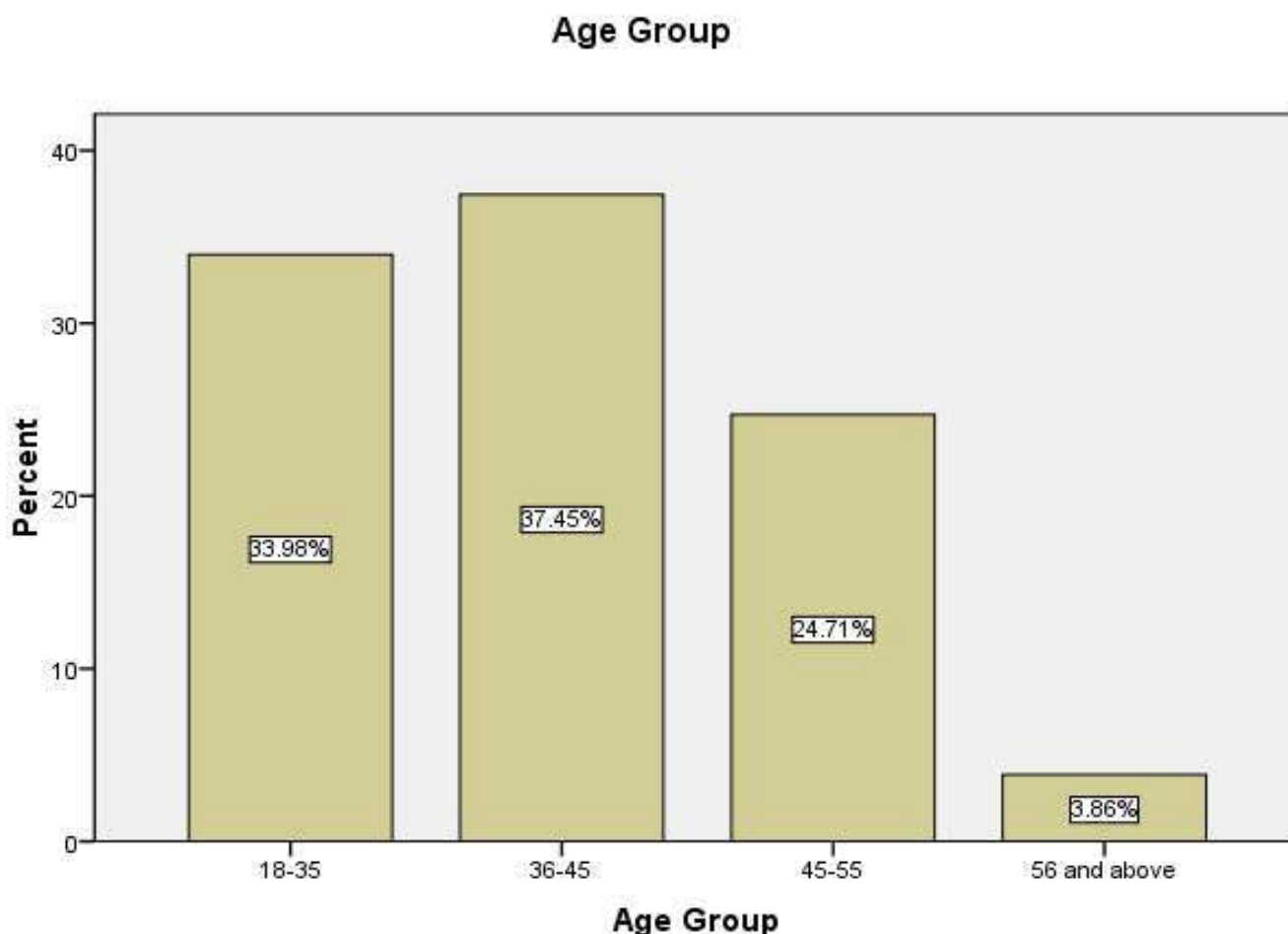


Figure 2
Age Distribution of Respondents

The objective of this paper was to determine what extent do internal and external control systems foster Accountability practices in Public institutions in Ghana. Hence, the following output results from Multiple linear Regression using the stepwise model were obtained.

**Table 2***Correlation Results of Internal and External Control Systems and Accountability Practices*

| Correlations | | | | |
|---------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| | | Accountability Practices | Internal Control | External Control |
| Pearson Correlation | Accountability Practices | 1.000 | .364 | .289 |
| | Internal Control | .364 | 1.000 | .448 |
| | External Control | .289 | .448 | 1.000 |
| Sig. (1-tailed) | Accountability Practices | . | .000 | .000 |
| | Internal Control | .000 | . | .000 |
| | External Control | .000 | .000 | . |
| N | Accountability Practices | 248 | 243 | 242 |
| | Internal Control | 243 | 253 | 248 |
| | External Control | 242 | 248 | 252 |

Table 3*Model Summary Results of Internal and External control Systems and Accountability Practices*

| Model Summary ^c | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|----------|-----|-----|---------------|
| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate | Change Statistics | | | | |
| | | | | | R Square Change | F Change | df1 | df2 | Sig. F Change |
| 1 | .364 ^a | .133 | .129 | 1.56644 | .133 | 36.721 | 1 | 240 | .000 |
| 2 | .390 ^b | .152 | .145 | 1.55176 | .020 | 5.562 | 1 | 239 | .019 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Internal Control

b. Predictors: (Constant), Internal Control, External Control

c. Dependent Variable: Accountability Practices

From the correlation Table 2 both predictor variables were statistically correlated at .000 less than the standard value of .05 with the dependent variable (AccountabilityPractices). Whiles, the model summary Table 3 the independent variable (Internal Control) included in the model explained approximately 13.3% of variance ($R^2 = .133 \times 100\%$) in the dependent variable (AccountabilityPractices) and the second independent variable (External Control) also included in the model explained approximately 15.2% of variance ($R^2 = .152 \times 100\%$) in the dependent variable (AccountabilityPractices).

Table 4*ANOVA Results of Internal and External Control Systems on Accountability Practices*

| ANOVA ^c | | | | | | |
|--------------------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------------------|
| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
| 1 | Regression | 90.102 | 1 | 90.102 | 36.721 | .000 ^a |
| | Residual | 588.893 | 240 | 2.454 | | |
| | Total | 678.995 | 241 | | | |
| 2 | Regression | 103.494 | 2 | 51.747 | 21.49 | .000 ^b |
| | Residual | 575.501 | 239 | 2.408 | | |
| | Total | 678.995 | 241 | | | |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Internal Control

b. Predictors: (Constant), Internal Control, External Control

The ANOVA Table 4 above also indicates that the model as a whole is significant. With model 1 at $F(1, 240) = 36.721, p < .0005$ ($p = .000$) and model 2 at $F(2, 239) = 21.490, p < .0005$ ($p = .000$).



Table 5
Coefficient Results of Internal and External Control Systems on Accountability Practices

| Coefficients ^a | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|-------|-------|--------------|---------|-------|-------------------------|-------|
| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Correlations | | | Collinearity Statistics | |
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Zero-order | Partial | Part | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 3.164 | 0.356 | | 8.898 | 0 | | | | | |
| | Internal Control | 0.248 | 0.041 | 0.364 | 6.06 | 0 | 0.364 | 0.364 | 0.364 | 1 | 1 |
| 2 | (Constant) | 2.564 | 0.434 | | 5.901 | 0 | | | | | |
| | Internal Control | 0.2 | 0.045 | 0.294 | 4.413 | 0 | 0.364 | 0.274 | 0.263 | 0.799 | 1.251 |
| | External Control | 0.1 | 0.042 | 0.157 | 2.358 | 0.019 | 0.289 | 0.151 | 0.14 | 0.799 | 1.251 |

a. Dependent Variable: Accountability Practices

Evaluating the coefficients from Table 5 indicated that the best predictor of Accountability Practices in the public sector institutions or organizations is; The Internal Control with a $\beta = .294$ followed by; The External Control with a $\beta = .157$. Therefore, the overall model is presented in the following Table 6.

4.2 Overall Analysis of the Regression and Hypothesis results of Internal and External Control Systems and Accountability Practices

Table 6
Summary of Multiple Linear Regression Results of Internal and External Control Systems on Accountability Practices

| Model | R ² | β | B | SE | SIG |
|------------------|----------------|---------|------|------|------|
| Model | .152*** | | | | |
| Internal Control | | .294* | .200 | .045 | .000 |
| External Control | | .157* | .100 | .042 | .019 |

Note: Statistical Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Multiple regression was performed using the stepwise method to analyse the extent to which each variable thus Internal Control and External Control would predict the level of Accountability Practices in public sector organizations/institutions. Initial studies were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Additionally, the correlations between the predictor variables included in the study were examined. All correlations were weak to moderate, ranging between $r = .29, p < .001$ and $r = .36, p < .001$. This shows that multicollinearity was not likely to be a problem according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). All the two predictor variables were statistically correlated with Accountability Practices which shows that the data was appropriately correlated with the dependent variable for investigation through multiple linear regression to be dependably undertaken.

Since there was prior hypotheses to determine the order of entry of the predictor variables, a stepwise method was used for the multiple linear regression analysis. The two independent variables explained 13.3% (Internal Control) of variance and 15.2% (External Control) of variance in Accountability Practices (With model 1 at $F(1, 240) = 36.721, p < .0005 (p = .000)$ and model 2 at $F(2, 239) = 21.490, p < .0005 (p = .000)$). In the final model all two predictor variables were statistically significant, with Internal Control recording a higher Beta value ($\beta = .294, p < .05$) than the External Control with a Beta value of ($\beta = .157, p < .05$). The overall model's R² was 15.2% though weak significance. Therefore, the Null hypothesis that, Internal and External control systems have a negative effect on accountability practices was rejected.

4.3 Selected Interviews on some Respondents on Internal and External Control and Accountability Practices

The researcher selected some of the respondents for in-depth interviews on the second objective/question: to what extent have internal and external control systems fostered accountability practices in the public sector organizations/institutions in Ghana? Box 4.1 depicts sampled responses from the interviews. The interview results revealed further the extent to which internal and external control systems foster accountability practices in the public sector organizations/institutions in Ghana.



Box 1

Responses from Selected Respondents on Internal and External Control Systems and Accountability Practices

“Internal and external control ensures that institutions work within guidelines and regulations, best practices within framework of the institutions”

“Very low”

“To a large extent”

“Immensely and largely influenced”

“It has given guidelines to the public sector institutions in Ghana to follow in order to ensure that they deliver according to standards to reduce the level of malpractices”

“Procurement laws are there but not to perfection because corruption takes it start from there and kick-backs, and percentages would have to flow”

“Sanctions are rarely applied to those involved in infractions and No evidence of usefulness of the special prosecutor’s office”

“Very well”

“By establishing internal control systems, discipline at management level will reinforce corporate governance and strongly fulfil the company’s social responsibility as well as further increase corporate value”

“Some institutions and officials have ways of circumventing both internal and external controls to favour them”

“Sometimes, procurement values are overpriced or products purchased are inferior but with high values”

“The financial administration laws and the Public procurement laws are good alright. But they are recipe for looting the national and institutional funds. The system rather allows the implementers to inflate prices which is very bad. I do not approve of the need for the use of the public procurement law in public institutions. It is a bad law since it drains the coffers of public purse”

“At least, the internal and external control systems are able to prevent some losses and ensure accountability up to about 40%”

“The internal and controls are appropriate and effective, but the problem is the non-compliance. This non-compliance defeat the purpose of corporate governance”

“Highly insignificant”

“Accountability must be mandatory not just an ethical issue”

“To a large extent because internal and external controls serves as checks and balances”

“To a large extent because when workers know they are being watched or supervised they behave well”

“Internal and external control systems has not foster accountability because people have their own ways of beating the system for their own interest”

“Those who set up the laws are the same people who break them therefore, internal and external control systems such as audit rather cause financial impropriety”

“The special prosecutor’s office was created to gain political point and also to witch hunt political opponents”

4.4 Discussion

4.4.1 Accountability Practices

Accountability is an ambiguous and challenging concept to define, as noted by various scholars and researchers. In fact, "responsibility" is the most semantically similar term in Japanese, French, Portuguese, and Spanish; however, the term "accountability" lacks a clear equivalent in these languages (Cassim & Osler, 2023; Ji, 2022; Da Cruz, 2018). Accountability is essential for those in positions of power, including governments, elected representatives, and appointed officials, as they must demonstrate the proper exercise of their powers and fulfilment of their duties (Svara, 2021). Internal and external control systems are critical components that promote accountability practices within



government agencies. Greiling and Schaefer (2020) assert that accountability in the public sector encompasses a broader scope than that in the private sector.

The board or council of a private company holds all employees accountable for their actions. A minister, cabinet, and legislature function as a governing body to which the public sector is accountable. The public sector is accountable not only to its employees and clients, who directly utilise the services, but also to individuals who do not engage with these services. These individuals do not utilise the service. This new form of accountability is characterised by subtlety and indirection. Public servants, whether elected or appointed, bear the responsibility to account for their utilisation of the trust, power, and resources granted to them by the public, specifically the taxpayer. Public office holders are required to adhere to a multifaceted framework of legal, moral, and ethical standards, as defined by Svara (2021). Accountability entails the obligation to execute tasks promptly and effectively, as well as to acknowledge the consequences of one's actions, regardless of their outcomes. The issue of bureaucratic responsibility is an essential component of any discourse on "accountability" within government. Internal accountability refers to the obligation of public officials to be answerable to those who supervise and manage their roles within the organisational hierarchy at all levels.

On the other hand, external accountability means answerability for activities carried out and performance achieved to other relevant and concerned authorities outside his/her department or organization. Accountability is, therefore, an ethical virtue since ethics concern principles and rules that govern the moral value of people's behaviour. Improving ethics is crucial to enhancing accountability and vice-versa (Cassim & Osler, 2023).

4.4.2 Internal and External Control Systems

The internal audit is often considered one of the "four pillars" of corporate governance tool, the other pillars being the Board of Directors, management, and the external auditor (Grima et al., 2023).

A primary focus area of internal auditing as it relates to institutional governance is helping the Audit Committee of the Board of Directors (or equivalent) perform its responsibilities effectively. This may include reporting critical internal control problems, informing the Committee privately on the capabilities of key managers, suggesting questions or topics for the Audit Committee's meeting agendas, and coordinating carefully with the external auditor and management to ensure the Committee receives effective information (Turetken et al., 2020).

The internal audit aims to develop an action plan that will help the organization achieve its objectives by adopting a systematic and disciplined approach to evaluate and improve the effectiveness of risk management processes to add value and improve operations and performance of an organization (Almasria, 2022). The internal control system in Corporate Governance frameworks facilitates the execution of effective governance and evidences the presence and satisfactory performance of appropriate internal controls. Institutions use measures to establish and sustain an effective internal control environment, ensuring adequate oversight of processes, compliance, and financial reporting (Alam et al., 2019). The objective of an organization's internal control system is to provide boards, councils, senior management, and other management with reasonable confidence that the organisation is functioning consistently within the specified areas: Concurred aims and plans; Concurred processes and policies; and Concurred decisions and principles. The internal control environment of an enterprise comprises internal auditing, risk management, and compliance tasks (Kamara, 2024; Airout, 2022).

Auditing enhances the functions of monitoring, insight, and foresight, serving as an essential component of any good public sector governance structure. Public sector audits must evaluate financial compliance, effectiveness, economy, and efficiency of programs, since these elements are crucial for assessing the public sector's performance in delivering services and executing programs equitably and effectively. Given that the public sector exists to assist all individuals, auditors have an enhanced obligation to protect its core values (Otia & Bracci, 2022).

This means both Internal and External auditing and procurement procedures as control systems contribute significantly to enhancing accountability practices in public sector institutions or organizations in Ghana. Internal control institutions such as the internal audit service have helped in promoting accountability practices in organizations. Internal control institutions such as the Public Procurement Authority, to a very large and significant but weak to a moderate extent, have helped in promoting accountability practices in institutions/organizations in the public service. Internal control systems foster accountability practices in organizations. According to Hamed, (2023) the essence of accountability is to strengthen the perception of transparency and fairness hence Accountability reduces the incidence of corruption and enforces the Public Procurement Law 2003, Act 663, Laws such as Financial Administration Law 2003 (Act 654) and Public Procurement Law 2003 (Act 663) have helped in promoting accountability, integrity, transparency, and corruption-free in public institutions in Ghana. Meanwhile, the setting up of the Office of the Special Prosecutor as an external control measure is not the panacea to stopping all corruption-related scandals in Ghana because since it was set-up, there is not known usefulness of the office. Also, in Ghana, good laws exist, but their ultimate enforcement becomes a nine-day wonder and a nightmare. Therefore, corrupt practices continue unabated, for example,



the Skroll and Associates One million dollar (\$1m) contract scandal as reported by the 2018 Auditor-General's report to Parliaments Public Accounts Committee of Ghana (Auditor-General Report, 2018).

V. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

Audits, financial assessments, and regulations exemplify internal controls that significantly enhance accountability. Challenges such as constrained resources and capacity limitations, however, diminish their effectiveness.

Accountability is improved by the provision of independent evaluations by external control mechanisms, particularly government oversight authorities. The participants agreed that political intervention may hinder the effectiveness of external audits, which are meant to discourage wrongdoing.

This study emphasised the significance of internal and external control mechanisms in enhancing accountability inside public institutions. Issues such as insufficient funding and political interference underscore the need of improving these systems.

The study indicates that both internal and external control mechanisms assist in regulating behaviour; nevertheless, political factors, insufficient training, and limited resources may render them almost ineffective. The apparent autonomy of external controls enhanced their efficacy in promoting accountability.

5.2 Recommendations

Enhance Internal Control Mechanisms by allocating additional Resources for Training and innovative audit technology. Enhance External Oversight by augmenting the capabilities and independence of external auditing institutions to mitigate political meddling. The public's trust in accountability systems may be bolstered by the encouragement of transparency and integrity in reporting.

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Influence of Citizens' Participation on Human Security in Nyamyumba Sector of Rubavu District in Rwanda

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of citizens' participation on human security in Nyamyumba sector of Rubavu District in Rwanda. Despite efforts to improve human security in Nyamyumba sector, challenges persist, particularly in areas of citizen involvement and women's participation. The specific impact of citizens' participation on human security in this context remained insufficiently understood. Democratization theory was used to guide the study. The study employed mixed methods, using both qualitative and quantitative approaches with descriptive and correlation research designs. A target population of 30,851 people was used; with a sample size of 407 respondents selected using Yamane's (1967) formula. Data were collected through questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions, and document analysis. Quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS version 27, while qualitative data underwent thematic analysis. The findings revealed that 83.7% of respondents agreed that there is a requirement to empower women in various activities in Nyamyumba sector. This implies that setting out the requirements to empower women helps the local leaders to be objective while empowering women. The study also found that the variables like framework, accountability and participation in neighbourhood security influence 53.9% of human security. It was also found that local citizens in Nyamyumba sector participate in Irondo as a social service to maintain security in the area, organized at the household level. The study concludes that there is a statistically significant relationship between citizens' participation and human security. However, the level of public participation and citizen's engagement in human security decision making processes tends to be low in Nyamyumba sector. The study recommends that there should be strategies to enhance the wealth of youths, which could lead to sustainable future families and improved human security.

Keywords: Citizen, Citizens' Participation, Human Security, Participation, Rwanda

I. INTRODUCTION

Globally food security, health care, security and mitigate insecurities caused by disasters, heavy storms, floods, earthquakes, famine, droughts, and so on, that have claimed lives of people across the globe are taken as tremendous challenge to human security (Ball, 2002). In Africa, the human security has remained a big challenge and entirely affects general security in the region.

Citizens, Global Civic Engagement on Online Platforms: Women as Transcultural Citizens.” Dissertation helped us examine how these managed platforms encode global citizenship with pre-designed participatory practices that reinforce the hegemonic definition of youth political participation (Pathak-Shelat, 2019). Interviews of young bloggers on two online global spaces foreground the process of negotiation with the dominant definitions and the use of decoding strategies to create scope for subjective, more local definitions, as well as practices of civic engagement and global citizenship (Pathak-Shelat, 2019).

Both experts and literature emphasize that socio-economic factors should be central to understanding the conflict like in Tunisia, high rates of unemployment, poverty, diseases like HIV/AIDS and terrorism which leads to a slowdown of the economy have led to economic suffering and contributed to growing decline toward the government (Baldwin, 2007).

In Africa, It argues that whilst lack of community trust has been lauded as one of the factors that have brewed citizen protests over the years, there is evidence to show that between the core values of procedural justice and public trust, citizen perception of power to influence may be vital to minimize proclivity to protest (Msenge, & Nzewi, 2021).



The article finds that in addition to the interactional and informational justice components of procedural justice, meaningful citizen participation can be measured as a combination of these justice areas with mechanisms that highlight citizens' positive perceptions of their power to influence decisions (Msenge, & Nzewi, 2021).

In Kenya, the main factors that affect citizen participation in formulation of public policy include direct benefits (financial, material), tangible or non-tangible to long or short term, among others (Kamau & Mbirithi, 2021). Other factors such as culture, history, government policy and social, political, and economic structures influence community participation. Also, the findings of the study revealed that citizens are well acquainted with public policy processes and there is an effective county government guideline and clear standards enhance public policy making processes. Kamau and Mbirithi (2021) revealed that involvement in policy formulation is positively related to performance. Also, consultation enables easy supervision of work.

According to Onyalo (2024) decentralization influences citizen participation in devolved Governance. 77.3% of the respondents agreed decentralization had promoted political entrepreneurship while 75% contended that decentralization had influenced citizen participation in development of policies and legislation (Onyalo, 2024). Moreover, 57.2% of the respondents felt that citizen participation in decentralized policy-making was high while 69% of the respondents were satisfied that decentralization had made it possible for citizens to participate in county budgeting.

In Rwanda, the system of governance is decentralized in nature (Chemouni, 2014). It is guided by the performance contracts (*imihigo*) between the district authorities and the President of the Republic where the ministerial, provincial; district and sector level leaders commit themselves to the accomplishment of the developmental goals.

Democracy and governance have become an important public policy topic area in recent years. A large body of research has focused on understanding the linkages between political institutions, in general, and economic development (Protik et al., 2018). The general consensus is that countries whose political systems are open and democratic are better economic performers than those whose systems are not (Protik et al., 2018).

The local government leaders have the responsibility in implementing the policies and designing frameworks towards homegrown solutions to ensure the wellbeing of Rwandan community.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The aspect of human security in Rwanda is about wellbeing of the citizens of this country. The effective local government should consider various multi-dimensions of human security of a fully-fledged human centered security; and these shall be the indicators of human security in Rwanda (Tadjoeddin, 2015).

Therefore, as far as this study is concerned, the final goal is to ascertain how the following multi-sectoral forms of human security have been achieved in Rwanda because of good governance. However, Rwanda was politically a divided nation between north and south during President Habyariman's time.

The northern part of Rwanda was more favored than the south. Rubavu district after genocide was a security risk to Rwandans since genocide perpetrators used to come from Congo and attacked, killed citizens which became a security concern. The local governance practices are community partnership, citizens' participation, equitable resource allocation, capacity building and policy compliance and these may influence human security especially on citizens living in Nyamyumba sector of Rubavu District.

Gervais (2018) revealed that since the intra-state conflicts occurred, 68% of people in western province especially in Rubavu district, faced insecurity which affected the socio-economic tensions in the region. Gervais (2018) also added that the personal and economic security as well as socio-political security as indicators of human security was mistreated.

The study therefore, sought to determine the influence citizens' participation on human security in Nyamyumba sector of Rubavu District in Rwanda.

1.2 Research objective

The objective of this paper was to examine the influence of citizens' participation on human security in Nyamyumba sector of Rubavu District in Rwanda.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Review

Citizens participate in matters of human security when leaders involve them, empowered and motivated to participate. It also depends on how leaders influence them. There are a number of things that leaders may employ to influence their relationship with their followers. Fostering collective identification such as family, place of employment



and informal social group; a self-sacrifice leader may thus shift the emphasis from the pursuit of solely the owner interest to the pursuit of group interests (Ololube et al., 2015).

Every law enforcement-community collaboration aims to strengthen public confidence in law enforcement, initiate informal social control mechanisms that support the avoidance of deviance, and give police officers access to a range of information originating from their respective fields. These coalitions aim to resurrect the informal surveillance and social control strategies that were formerly employed to monitor and impede the expansion of large-scale criminal businesses, even if their main objective is to involve the public in the legal system (Giwa, 2018).

A leader who communicates with followers, solicits their recommendations, and seriously considers these recommendations before making a decision is critical to citizen involvement. Involvement would increase the clarity of the paths to various goals from a path-goal perspective (Zenker & Seigis2012). Citizens' participation in local affairs that affect them is crucial to human security.

In different nations, citizens' participation both in politics and other social and economic affair empowers them. Though such obstacles do exist, they should be overcome. This is why this research seeks to find the out what impact citizens' participation has on human security.

The 21st-century obstacles to human security call for the promotion of a broader definition of democracy that takes into account issues related to human rights, the ability to advance social and economic development, accountability, the ability to forge consensus in highly diverse environments, enhanced electoral procedures, and the encouragement of public participation (Giwa, 2018).

Exclusion and restricted access to resources and power are major causes of insecurity. Ololube et al. (2015) state that the idea of human security places a strong emphasis on defending individuals against serious dangers to their life, shielding them from injury and violent conflict, and empowering them to combat societal problems like crime and sickness. Human rights progress, equality before the law, and institutional protections for peoples are made possible by democracy.

Additionally, there is an asymmetry in the current worldwide efforts to build freedom. The concentration on open elections that is currently placed on the political system may serve to strengthen certain political regimes and the competition between political parties, but it does not guarantee that the ruling classes in developing and transitioning nations will be held ethically and politically responsible, that civil society will take part in the process of making decisions, or that the state will address the needs at large.

The perception that in many nations democracy allows the state to be "captured" by elites driven by personal gain, the worry that violent conflict can be sparked by democratic transitions and public dissatisfaction with some elected governments' failure to provide economic opportunity for all are the main causes of the republic's crisis.

Based on the basic concept that politics promote equal treatment, the formal tools of democracy must be designed appropriately for the societies they are intended to serve (Del Biondo, 2015). In actuality, the moral consensus that underpins the law determines how powerful its force is, the nature of political power and military rights, law enforcement, the duties of the judiciary and legislature in relation to the executive branch, and human rights may all be affected in the long run by particular authority that are presumed to address both internal and external threats (Kumar, 2019).

People have fought for democracy throughout history in an effort to reshape power dynamics and express diversity and identity within a common political framework. Such objectives call for long-term solutions tailored to specific situations and requirements. Ololube et al. (2015) also stated that the systematic techniques of evaluation in particular circumstances are necessary, and that the quality of the democratic process, including transparent and responsible governance and justice before the law, is crucial.

2.1.1 Theoretical Review

Democratization theory by Rousseau came the early Modernization Thought owes a lot to current democratization theory (of the 1950s and 1960s). The transition to a regime in which taxation and distribution are based on the interests of the people rather than the desires of a few rich elite is referred to as democratization. In the liberal community, liberalization is the result of a constitutional conflict among institutional actors over the allocation of political rights and competencies (Schimmelfenning, 2010).

Democracy can help in establishing stable and legitimate leadership that can bring about positive influence on human security and respect for the rule of law. While democratic governance provides citizens access to participate in electing their leaders, as well as other political benefits such calling for the accountability of these leaders.

Case (2010) points out that democracy requires that participants strike a fine balance between competitiveness and restraints. In a vibrant democracy, political parties, civil society, organization and social movements compete over institutional positions and policy outcomes. Winners must apply tolerance, while losers prepare to compete another day. Following Cases' argument participation in democratic process means that all participants are allowed equal chance to



compete and as such when competition is over the losers accept their defeat peacefully. This study identifies democratic process as a serious security threat and focuses on factors such as community partnership, citizens' participation and policy compliance as possible solutions to the problem. The securitization theory thus provides a theoretical underpinning.

2.2 Empirical Review

2.2.1 Citizens' Participation and Human Security

Zenker and Seigis (2012) revealed on different sorts of citizen engagement (i.e. circumstances where the outcome was binding for the city vs. cases where the result was nonbinding) were investigated using a between groups design. The output was examined with three experts, all of whom had worked in the topic, in a second phase to validate the results.

Surprisingly, it appears that the circumstance of being asked, rather than the sort of engagement or happiness with the initiative, makes a difference in service quality. One could argue that the sense of regard is the most important intermediary in this process. Friedmann and Cannon (2017) investigated whether homeland security and community policing approaches compete or complement one another.

The research found that the two public safety approaches have a lot in common, and that national security will benefit from incorporating community oriented policing principles into its localized initiatives. The study found that Human security and community policing policies attempt to avoid significant crime and terrorism which also establish the concept focusing the response that become effective.

The methodology mixture of traditional reaction in function that strengthen the strategy of community collaboration. Giwa (2018) reviewed about the participation police in community and realized that potential role for police social work. The study did theoretical analysis of community policing, objectives, principles, used in Canada are first provided. Discussions about epistemology are still sparked by the examination of public policies that are being implemented "elsewhere," especially in Africa (Eboko, 2015).

Even though "the analysis of government policies has entailed a proliferation of studies across the African continent since the end of the 1990s" (Darbon, 2019), some authors still advise caution, arguing, for instance, that the most basic use of the concept of public policy is prohibited due to the fragility of aid-receiving states (Lavigne & Delville, 2018).

Despite being internationalized and involving several stakeholders, these doubts are linked to the discussion surrounding the "exportability of concepts" (Gazibo & Thiriot, 2009) and do not cast doubt on the existence of public policies in Africa (Hinderink & Sterkenburg, 2022). Furthermore, as highlighted by Hassenteufel (2019), states in the developing world are susceptible to the same kinds of globalized financial flows as OECD nations with regard to the tools and principles of public policies in particular, and officials are no longer consistently at the center of public action, just like in Western nations.

Given that it enables us to move beyond the "conception of the state as a company of control defined by its efforts to impose an overall political order, changing it with a perspective centered on its results" (Saidou, 2019). This field of political science offers an original viewpoint on African politics.

In order to "question the tools, the processes, the approaches and the results of the sub-discipline by bringing them to bear on novel circumstances in order to provide a more detailed analysis of public policies," the analysis of African cases produces invaluable heuristic results (Darbon & Provini, 2018).

By analyzing the case of citizen participation in public security policy in Niger and Burkina Faso, this essay adds to these observations. These two Sahelian nations are currently dealing with the greatest obstacle of their lives since the 2011 Libyan catastrophe (Maiga, 2017).

Due to the severity of the security situation, people are taking up self-defense projects. A window of opportunity for security policy reform has also been created by this crisis (Tisseron, 2015). As a result, these two states started a participation-based security policy overhaul. In 2017, a nationwide dialogue known as the "National Security Forum" took place (Kovtun & Vartovnyk, 2024).

As a result, it became acceptable to discuss security, a topic that the state had historically monopolized. The selection of this citizen-based method suggests a shift in the way security policies are established, considering the importance of civil society in this process. The term "civil society," which has generated significant controversy in Africa, is used here to refer to any structured actor that operates outside of the state (Glaser, 2017).

The 1990s saw a rapid shift in public space that is gradually becoming more distinct from society, which allowed for the formation of a civic society (Gazibo, 2007). According to this perspective, the presence of a civil society, with individuals functioning on its behalf and presenting themselves as a counter-power, is an undeniable reality. This interpretation of citizen participation refers to the state or civil society's self-initiated involvement in the formulation or execution of security policy.



These policies adopt a holistic strategy, meaning they consider homeland security and defense (Balzacq, 2016; Collins, 2016; Chihan, 2016; Bauer & Soullez, 2011). The colonial system brought this democratic privilege to Africa in a restricted manner, and it was progressively extended in the late 1940s (Jaffrelot, 2000, 25–32; Loada and Ibriga, 2007). The majority of African regimes ended the plurality that the colonial system had fostered after independence (Bayart et al., 2019).

But some of these regimes continued to allow citizens to participate in "symbolic" ways that shaped authoritarian institutions and aided the propaganda of the ruling classes (Danda, 2013). During a period when "Africa [was] reverting to pluralism and the competitive systems it had given up or curbed in the process of political liberalization," these forms of involvement all but vanished with the third wave of democratization (Bayart et al., 2019).

With liberalization and structural adjustment initiatives, new kinds of public participation have become the norm (Fresia & Lavigne, 2018). There has been a global directive pertaining to "good governance" measures in aid-receiving nations. The concept of governance, disseminated throughout Africa by global financial institutions, is showcased as a vector.

This new approach aligns with the logic of "good governance," which promotes involvement, transparency, the rule of law, and equity in the management and allocation of resources to address common challenges (Gaudin, 2017). Although "effective governance" has not eliminated neo-patrimonialism, it has increased citizen participation, even though security is one of the most resistant area to these changes (Gazibo, 2017).

As a result, discussions about citizen participation are central to the security forums in Niger and Burkina Faso, where it is seen as a response to "democratic fatigue" (Reybrou, 2014). As a result, the security forums in Niger and Burkina Faso seem to be triggering a renewal of citizen participation, which also lies at the center of debates in the old democracies, where it appears as a reaction to "democratic fatigue" (Desclaux, 2019) or, more generally, to the crisis of minimalist democracy (Schumpeter, 2022).

While "good governance" has not ended neo-patrimonialism, it has increased citizen participation even though security is one of the domains most resistant to these changes (Gazibo, 2017). According to Boisvert and Brodeur (2020), participatory democracy, this encompasses all of the methods by which citizens exercise their political power prior to, during, and following the enactment of laws, is the foundation for citizen engagement (Robbe, 2015).

"The authority of science and progress, state supervision of society, and the legitimacy of elected officials are today being, if not dethroned, at least clearly relativized," according to Gaudin (2017), who refers to this as a "new democratic modernity" Democratic participation, which gives rise to "good governance," reorganizes the relationship between the government and civil society without displacing representative democracy.

In Africa, civil society is "watching over public administration" (Loada, 2011). The character of public activity is complicated by such a transformation. Additionally, it was observed that in recent years, a wide range of private and public players have collaborated on the creation of public policies, making it an increasingly collaborative process (Boisvert & Brodeur, 2020). The "de-monopolization" of security as a sovereign role has been brought about by "effective governance" (Chevallier, 2011).

In this arrangement, the state loses its exclusive position as peace "maker" and becomes one of many actors as (Gazibo, 2017). The idea of human security gained traction in the 1990s, which made citizen participation in security problematic (Ganascia, 2012). This idea denotes a paradigm shift in security, where security is now citizen-centered rather than state-centered (Hall, 1993). Security theory was similarly impacted by the Anglo-Saxon models of neighborhood security and Security Sector Reform (SSR) (Saidou, 2019).

Transferring these ideas that have been developed elsewhere is required to meet two goals: to draw in foreign aid and to respond to insecurity with appropriate policies (Fresia & Lavigne, 2018). The 2017 security forums in Niger and Burkina Faso drew official rhetoric from these models. Even while the use of these models deviates somewhat from the logics seen in Western nations, it nevertheless creates new opportunities for establishing public involvement.

Although public engagement is explored here as a constituent element in a policy-making process, it is linked to security as a substantive policy. Thus, all choices and public actions that are made with the intention of ensuring and enhancing the operation of the state apparatus come under the purview of institutional policies (Knoepfel et al., 2016).

This signifies a shift in the structure of public action (Palier & Surel, 2010). According to Palier and Surel (2010), "the dichotomy of "marginal change versus radical change" that has become commonplace in the analysis of public action" can be transcended by highlighting the various timeframes involved and emphasizing the importance of considering the long-term perspective.

This approach more especially, the problem put up by Bruno Palier and his associates is the basis for this study. It employs a comparative analysis and considers the long term (Palier & Surel, 2010). A sequential strategy that isolates the many timeframes of change is necessary for such a viewpoint (Cairney, 2012).

The extraversion paradigm, which emphasizes "the creation and capture of a rent generated by interdependence and which operates as a historical matrix of inequality, political centralized control, and social struggle," is one of the



problems that the problem is aware of. To put it briefly, the issue at hand involves challenging the internal and external factors that influence citizens' involvement in security measures.

Overall, this study contributes to the comparative examination of public policies (Hassenteufel, 2019), specifically to the binary comparison approach, which aims to elucidate the differences and parallels between examples that show "fundamental analogies." The article, which takes a longitudinal approach, looks at public participation in security over long, medium, and short time periods (Gazibo, 2022).

As a result, its main focus is on the process of agenda-setting, or how individual issues become group issues. According to Knoepfel et al. (2016), it is the "first output that the analyst must study when he empirically approaches the cycle of a public policy."

2.2.2 Framework and Accountability as an Aspect of Citizen Participation and Human Security

The implementation of security for people offers a tried-and-true method for "why" and "how" the various components of the UN system must cooperate in order to use its resources more intelligently by emphasizing the connections between the Agenda's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (Annan, 2014).

Application of human security lessons shows the added benefit of such a thorough strategy for eradicating poverty and advancing sustainable development. Furthermore, a deeper awareness of how many nations, regions within nations, and social groups encounter the multifaceted dimensions of poverty are made possible by the use of human security (Annan, 2014).

A national security strategy can respond in a more inclusive, integrated and multifaceted manner by tackling the underlying causes of poverty and emphasizing the influence of income and other inequalities on broader development (Shittu et al., 2021).

Even while local discrepancies may not be sufficiently addressed by national assessments, identifying bottlenecks at the local level can promote equitable revenue generation that yields notable international gains (Annan, 2014). Such advantages are exemplified by instances from national human security programming (Azzain, 2014).

As demonstrated in Kenya, Mongolia, Nepal, and Paraguay, the human security approach breaks down social and economic indicators at both the national and local levels to identify the different barriers that women, marginalized populations, and members of minority groups face when trying to access public services and economic opportunities.

Services can then be customized to match these groups' unique needs. Thus, in order to promote an inclusive development process where the most marginalized can benefit from economic progress, national and local targets are set (Azzain, 2014). Furthermore, the application of human security tackles problems resulting from several causes impeding economic growth and the fight against poverty in addition to developmental obstacles.

Thus, it contributes to the understanding of how various problems from environmental degradation and violence to impoverishment in all of its manifestations interact and call for all-encompassing, situation-specific remedies (Chinkin, 2024). Chinkin (2024) has demonstrated that fragile and conflict-affected nations have had the slowest pace of progress in achieving the MDGs.

For instance, a development paradigm that ignores the behavioral and structural roots of violence will not be able to stop a relapse into fragility and crises in nations where there is a high rate of violence and low trust in individuals and organizations. The human security strategy can assist in addressing issues arising from and leading to seven ongoing conflicts, marginalization, and extreme poverty.

Its foundational objective is to attain freedom from fear, want, and indignity (Chinkin, 2024). Human security can highlight the crucial relationship between these variables and ensure that strategies for reducing poverty are focused on the underlying causes and corrective measures required to stop the spread. It can do this by highlighting the triangle relationship between stability and peace, growth, and human rights.

Consequently, the use of human security enhances and supplements the procedures that would be required in order to achieve the SDGs, (Karamé, 2021). Through the conceptualization of the interdependencies across the many SDG components, the human security approach can help to organize future responses in a more cohesive and methodical manner.

It can assist in elucidating the ways in which various concerns interact and necessitate complementary solutions in order to guarantee more equitable and sustainable development. Karamé (2021) went on to say that the SDGs can help the UN system find the right answers in this new direction and progress the significant extension of the goals toward greater respect for human dignity and planetary sustainability for all, because of its united values.



III. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Study Area

This study took place in Rubavu District covering Nyamyumba sector. This sector was affected by insecurity during the time when infiltrators attacked Rwanda from Democratic Republic of Congo in 1997-1999. This brought concerns to the central government and the local population on how this ended, as far as local government and people’s participation on how to bring peace in this area collaboration on both sides is crucial.

3.2 Research Design

The study utilized a descriptive survey research design to make a concurrent triangulation model with descriptive survey research design. This design was employed in order to establish some descriptive statistics related local governance practices and human security in Nyamyumba sector of Rubavu District and also help to establish the extent through local governance practices can influence human security.

3.3 Target population and sample size

This study involved people who are resident and enumerated in Rubavu District having business or farming activities or an administrative staff in Nyamyumba of Rubavu District, participant must have above 18years and above years of age. This made a total of 30851 respondents that were the target population. Corresponding. The sample size of 407 respondents through the usage of Yamane formula (Umar & Wachiko, 2021). The study used stratified sampling technique to select the administrative staff of cell and the residents consisting of Nyamyumba sector were Rubona, Kiraga, Burushya, Munanira, Busoro and Kinigi.

3.4 Data collection instruments

Questionnaire, interview guide, focus group discussion and document analysis review were taken as data collection instruments.

3.5 Data analysis technique

During data analysis, software of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 27 was used in analysis of quantitative data and thematic analysis for qualitative data. Tables and textual mode were used in the presentation of the obtained findings respectively.

IV. FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

The findings of this paper are presented focusing of the specific research objective which was to determine the influence of citizens’ participation as an aspect of local governance practices on human security in Rubavu District. Descriptive analysis and multiple linear regression analysis were established for quantitative data and content analysis for qualitative data. Table 1 presents the status of citizen's participation in Nyamyumba sector for the purpose of enhancing the level of human security in the area. Descriptive analysis and multiple linear regression analysis were established for quantitative data and content analysis for qualitative data.

Table 1

Status of citizens’ participation in Nyamyumba Sector

| Statements Perception of responses citizens’ participation | Strongly agree | Agree | Undecided | Disagree | Strongly Disagree | Mean |
|---|----------------|-------|-----------|----------|-------------------|------|
| | % | % | % | % | % | |
| A shift security of states to neighborhoods | 21.8 | 45.3 | 20.0 | 7.1 | 5.8 | 3.71 |
| There is a need of political and economic context | 25.0 | 41.8 | 21.6 | 9.5 | 2.1 | 3.72 |
| Strengthening issue of human security | 26.8 | 46.1 | 17.1 | 7.4 | 2.6 | 3.87 |
| Human security evolved from traditional to center notion | 25.5 | 50.3 | 14.2 | 7.9 | 2.1 | 3.89 |
| Women empowerment in various activities | 35.8 | 47.9 | 9.2 | 5.0 | 2.1 | 4.10 |
| Level of public partnership and citizen engagement | 18.2 | 27.9 | 24.2 | 18.7 | 11.1 | 3.23 |
| Local governance implements and designs public policies | 18.7 | 45.8 | 22.1 | 8.7 | 4.7 | 3.65 |
| Strengthened citizens accountability | 18.9 | 42.6 | 20.0 | 11.8 | 6.6 | 3.56 |
| reinforced security due to activities participation of citizens | 25.5 | 41.3 | 16.3 | 11.8 | 5.0 | 3.71 |



The study found that the respondents of the study that participated actively indicated that the average of 67.1% of respondents with the mean of 3.71 agreed that the primary contribution of the concept of human security in Nyamyumba sector shifted the emphasis from the security of states to the neighborhood security. However, Azzain (2014) revealed services to citizens can then be customized to match these groups' unique needs. Thus, in order to promote an inclusive development process where the most marginalized can benefit from economic progress, national and local targets are set (Azzain, 2014).

This implies that the human security improves the status of human security in the area of Nyamyumba sector, which also leads to the improvement of living standards in the region. The study also found that 66.8% with the mean of 3.72 agreed that there is a need in the current political and economic context to improve human security in the area.

This also implies that the political will with collaboration of citizens improves the economic status in the area. This implies that the human security improves the status of human security in the area of Nyamyumba sector, which also leads to the improvement of living standards in the region. The study also shows that 66.8% with the mean of 3.72 agreed that there is a need in the current political and economic context to improve human security in the area.

This also implies that the political will with collaboration of citizens improves the economic status in the area. In the same vein, the study also found that the mean of 3.87 and 72.9% of respondents agreed that issues related to human security were strengthened in the area of Nyamyumba sector. This implies that solving the issues related to human security and brings citizens at the center of development. However, the study also found that the mean of 3.89 and 75.8% of respondents agreed that human security in the area of Nyamyumba sector, has now evolved from traditional notion which placed the state at the center, to the concept whose very center is the human person.

This implies that putting a person at the center in all domains of development supports the aspect of human security as well as improving the economic development in the area as well as in the countrywide.

The executive secretary of cells also clarified that

“Local citizens are doing their own businesses to raise their living standard. In terms of effective citizen’s participation, the executive cells also added that there is a system of doing Irondo professionally which is done per household whereas household which is not able to do so, provides 500 Rwanda Francs per month which is also done as per financial capacity”.

In the same vein of presenting the findings related to citizens’ participation and human security in Nyamyumba sector, the study also found that the mean of 4.10 and 83.7% of respondents agreed that there is a requirement to empower women in various activities in Nyamyumba sector.

This implies that setting out the requirements to empower women helps the local leaders to be objective while empowering women in various activities. The study also found that the mean of 3.23 and only 46.1% agreed that the level of public participation and citizen’s engagement in human security decision making process tends to be low in Nyamyumba sector. According to Zenker and Seigis (2012), a leader who communicates with followers, solicits their recommendations, and seriously considers these recommendations before making a decision is critical to citizen involvement. Involvement would increase the clarity of the paths to various goals from a path-goal perspective

This implies that the local leaders in Nyamyumba sector have engage people in the area in case of decision making which helps them be at the center of development and participate actively. The Findings in the Table 1 also reveals that the mean of 3.65 and 64.5% agreed that local governance in Nyamyumba sector design and implement a variety of public policies that have to improve human security.

This means that making effective design and implementation of public policies changes the lives of people in community and also leads to the development of the country. The study also found that the mean of 3.56 and 61.5% of respondents agreed that accountability among citizens is much strengthened in the area of Nyamyumba sector. This implies that citizens to accountable in all performed activities improve the individual active participation which leads to development mentally and economically. Friedmann and Cannon (2017) revealed that national security should be benefited from incorporating community oriented policing principles into its localized initiatives.

In the same vein, the study also revealed that, the mean of 3.71 and 66.8% of respondents agreed that due to active participation of citizens, security among neighborhood is much reinforced. This implies that the reinforcement of active participation brings human security in the area and development.



Table 2
Status of Human Security in Nyamyumba Sector

| Statements Perception of responses policy compliance and human security | Strongly agree | Agree | Undecided | Disagree | Strongly Disagree | Mean |
|---|----------------|-------|-----------|----------|-------------------|------|
| | % | % | % | % | % | |
| Effective prevention and intervention | 23.4 | 53.2 | 14.2 | 7.6 | 1.6 | 3.89 |
| Human security is a universal concern | 32.1 | 49.5 | 7.9 | 6.3 | 4.2 | 3.99 |
| Increase level of income | 27.4 | 13.7 | 8.9 | 46.8 | 3.2 | 3.86 |
| Human security enhanced employment | 31.1 | 53.7 | 7.4 | 7.9 | 0.0 | 4.08 |
| Access to basic needs has improved | 31.8 | 13.7 | 7.1 | 45.0 | 2.4 | 3.97 |
| Local leaders help and support to create income | 21.3 | 43.7 | 17.9 | 11.6 | 5.5 | 3.64 |
| Short distance to access basic services | 26.3 | 42.1 | 5.8 | 17.9 | 6.8 | 3.63 |
| Short distance to access schools | 28.4 | 44.5 | 8.9 | 11.6 | 6.6 | 3.76 |
| All children access schools | 20.8 | 24.5 | 8.4 | 39.5 | 6.8 | 3.43 |
| Citizens are supported to get jobs | 33.7 | 38.4 | 8.4 | 16.8 | 2.6 | 3.84 |

The findings presented in Table 2 indicate the status of human security in Nyamyumba sector. The study found that the mean of 3.89 corresponding with 76.6% of respondents agreed that there is effective prevention and intervention which could lead to human security. This implies that provision of intervention targeting the development of human security enhance the living standard of citizens in the area. On the other hand, the study found that the mean of 3.99 and 81.6% of respondents agreed that human security is a universal concern. This indicates that majority of respondent understand the value of human security which involves to be a universe in community.

In the same vein, the study found that the mean of 3.86 and only 41.1% agreed that the level of income has increase due to enhance human security. This means that there is a still a need to find out strategies that help in sustaining human security to improve the living standard of people. On the other hand, the study found that the mean of 4.08 and 84.8% of respondents agreed that employment has been created due to enhanced human security. This implies that sustainability of human security participates in creation of employment.

Similarly, the study also found that the mean of 3.97 and 45.5% of the respondents agreed that access to basic needs like health care, education and social services has improved due to enhance human security. This implies that in Nyamyumba sector, there is a still a gap in distribution of basic needs to members of community which significantly affect the life standard.

On the other hand, the study found that the mean of 3.64 corresponding with 65% of respondents agreed that the local leadership helps and supports citizens to create some of the income generating activities. This implies that there is a gap among local leaders of Nyamyumba security help citizens to create the income generating activities which sometimes affect the financial development of community. This was supported by the group discussion done by citizens of Nyamyumba sectors said that there is still a challenge related to having health service where they explained that people are still moving long distance to research the health centers. They also added that when reach to health center, it is hard to get service due to shortage number of nurses and specialist which causes most of the time to be transferred to other hospitals which is also hard to manage.

In the same vein, the study found that the mean of 3.63 and 3.76 corresponding with 68.4% and 72.9% respectively agreed that there is a short distance to access the basic needs like health facilities and their children to access the respective schools. This implies that moving a long distance to get various facilities like health related facilities and schools impact negatively the individual life leading to the lack of some development opportunities.

On the other hand, the study found that the mean of 3.84 corresponding with 72.1% of respondents agreed that citizens with low financial capacity are supported to get job like participating in Vision Umurenge Program (VUP). This implies that supporting citizens or local community to participate in financial activities improves the human security in the area.

Table 3
Model Summary of Citizens' Participation and Human Security

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate | Change Statistics | | | | |
|-------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|----------|-----|-----|---------------|
| | | | | | R Square Change | F Change | df1 | df2 | Sig. F Change |
| 1 | .699 ^a | .539 | .534 | .99946 | .539 | 7.704 | 2 | 375 | .001 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Framework and accountability, Participation in neighborhoods security



The variables like framework and accountability and participation in neighborhoods security 53.9% influence on human security in Nyamyumba sector, Rubavu District. This implies that are ready to influence human security and the remaining 46.1% can be affected by additional factors. Ololube et al. (2015) added that fostering collective identification such as family, place of employment and informal social group, and a self-sacrifice leader may thus shift the emphasis from the pursuit of solely the owner interest to the pursuit of group interests.

The correlation coefficient, or R, illustrates the link between the research variables. As indicated by 0.699, the results demonstrate a substantial positive correlation between the research variables. This implies that the participation of citizens in various activities leading to human security makes a strong positive change in the region.

V. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

The study concludes that the level of public participation and citizen's engagement in human security' decision making processes tend to be low in Nyamyumba sector. The study found that the level of public participation and citizen's engagement in human security decision making is low. This could lead to lowering the level of citizens' participation.

The study also concludes that setting out the requirements to empower women helps the local leaders to be objective while empowering women in various activities in Nyamyumba sector.

The study further concludes that there is a strong positive relationship between citizens' participation and human security, indicating that increased citizen participation leads to substantial positive changes in the area.

5.2 Recommendations

The study recommends that the local government should implement strategies to enhance the wealth and livelihoods of the youth, as this would contribute to sustainable families and improved human security. The study also recommends that the local leaders should continue empowering women in various activities in Nyamyumba sector to ensure objectivity and inclusivity.

Additionally, the local government should strengthen the framework and accountability as well as enhance citizen participation in neighborhood security in order to further improve human security in Nyamyumba sector. Finally, the local leaders should increase the level of public participation and citizens' engagement in human security decision making processes in Nyamyumba sector.

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Effect of Project Risk Management on Success of Community-Based Projects: A Case of Peer Driven Change Project in Burera District, Rwanda

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ABSTRACT

This study assessed how project risk management influences the success of community-based projects in Burera District, Rwanda, focusing on the Peer-Driven Change Project. It aimed to evaluate the impact of four practices: risk identification, risk analysis, risk control, and contingency planning. Grounded in the theories of Risk, Constraints, and Community Coalition Action, the research utilized descriptive and correlational research designs to examine relationships between variables. Data was collected from a sample of 177 respondents, using universal sampling across 29 NGOs. Primary data was gathered through five-point Likert scale questionnaires, while secondary data was sourced through document reviews and interviews. Statistical analyses, including descriptive statistics, correlation, and regression were conducted using SPSS software. However, the statistical tools employed for inferential statistics were Pearson's Correlation, ANOVA, coefficients test and Multiple Linear Regression. Key metrics such as means, standard deviations, and correlation coefficients helped measure relationships between risk management practices and project success. Findings revealed a strong positive correlation between project success and risk control (0.715), risk identification (0.689), and contingency planning (0.642). Risk analysis showed a weaker positive correlation (0.430). Regression analysis indicated a robust model fit, with a correlation coefficient (R) of 0.815 and a coefficient of determination (R²) of 66.4%. This suggests that 66.4% of project success variability can be attributed to the four predictors. The model's adjusted R² of 0.656 confirms its adequacy, and the ANOVA results (F-statistic: 88.67, p-value: 0.000) validate its statistical significance. Regression coefficients highlighted the individual impact of the predictors. Risk identification contributed 0.421 units to project success per unit increase, risk analysis 0.087 units, risk control 0.281 units, and contingency planning 0.252 units. These results emphasize the critical role of robust risk management practices in achieving project success. The study concluded that organizations effectively identify and analyse risks, performing well in risk control and contingency planning is also perceived positively, but noted scope for improvement in risk prioritization. Recommendations include adopting frameworks like ISO 31000 or PMBOK for standardized risk management, enhancing staff skills through targeted training programs, and employing tools like Microsoft Project for real-time risk monitoring and improved communication.

Key terms: Contingency Planning, Project Risk Management, Project Success, Risk Analysis, Risk Control, Risk Identification

I. INTRODUCTION

Globally, community based projects operate in volatile and changing atmosphere. Community based organisations have continually sought to engage in community-based projects towards promoting the overall well-being of communities and societies and areas of operation. However, lack of proper project risk management practices that may be taken to address the identified risks experienced in the project's implementation. According to Alger and the Public Benefits Organisation Act (2013), non-governmental organisations (NGOs) are facing increased risk and uncertainties that could compromise their ability to survive and function fully. This especially noticeable in Rwanda and other developing nations.

In Africa context, numerous economies in Sub-Saharan Africa suffer significant financial losses amounting to billions of dollars due to delays in the completion of infrastructure projects, which hinder the intended goal of poverty reduction (Homthong & Mounгноi, 2016). Infrastructure project costs are significantly impacted by delays in their completion, and this has a profound impact on the lives of its population, especially in developing nations such as Rwanda. Many projects encounter delays, alterations in their scope, behind the schedule, and some even face the possibility of being dismissed. These issues often stem from ineffective risk management practices within project environments (Roque & de Carvalho, 2013). According to Mbonigaba (2021) NGOs are crucial in developing countries of Africa because they frequently offer vital facilities to their citizens.

In Rwanda, Community based Projects (CBPs) play a crucial role in the development of communities and relevant role in providing social services at the local level. They are employed in a range of diverse fields, such as education, health, the rights of the disabled, gender issues, youth empowerment, and many others domain of intervention. It is an organisation that operates as a non-profit entity and relies predominantly on the contributions of volunteers for its activities. According to the World Bank Group, CBPs have gained increasing recognition as effective tools for community development and poverty reduction (World Bank Group, 2021). These projects have been instrumental in addressing local needs and promoting sustainable development (Rwanda Development Board, 2019). This implies that CBPs rely significantly on voluntary contributions for manpower, resources, and financial backing. Project risk management can be defined as the art and science of identification, analysis and responding to the uncertainties that emerges during the life period of a project in such a way as to achieve the project objectives by satisfying all the stakeholders (Schwalbe, 2016). Normally, every project has a risk and one of the most important roles of a project management is to ensure that these risks are minimized, if not eliminated (Zou et al., 2017).

How project risk management practices are handled become a crucial to the project success. Schneiker (2018) noted in his study that before beginning a project, an NGO must consider all relevant factors, such as the project's size, expected impact on the community, and cost. This is because high risks can result in financial losses and, in the worst-case scenario, an NGO that fails. Risks are impediments that have the potential to prevent any set of plans and result in the project's termination or only partial completion (Franz & Messner, 2019). Despite the importance of project risk management practices, little research exists on how are applied in CB projects when the CBOs executing large-scale development projects in low-income countries like Rwanda.

The adoption of effective project risks management practices is instrumental in facilitating the success of a project as it involves the analysis of the project needs along with the required resources and adopting measures tailored towards addressing the needs (Jawad et al., 2018). However, most times, the projects fail due to the adoption of ineffective project risk management practices. This case study seeks to fill this gap by exploring the project risk management approaches utilised in the implementation of Community based projects specifically from NNGOs with the aim of promoting Socio-Economic development of Rwandan people through the community-based projects operating in Burera district. By examining the selected Community based Organisations (NNGOs)' experiences, we aim to identify best practices and lessons learned that can inform future project planning and execution efforts in similar settings. Furthermore, we hope to shed light on the unique challenges associated with risk management practices in the projects implemented by selected Organisations operating in Rwanda

Effective management of project risks is a crucial factor that significantly influences the success of a project (Imbrizi and Mazieri, 2018) and significantly affects PS (Alkhlaifat et al., 2019). The Rwanda Governance Board (RGB) has the responsibility of supervising the registration and activities of both local and international Non-Governmental Organisations in Rwanda (RGB, 2023). They have been active in with the object of promoting Socio-Economic development of Rwandan people through community-based projects in various project such as the promotion of education, raising the economic empowerment of families, the provision of teaching materials, the facilitation of adult literacy training, and the contribution to the welfare of community citizens, improving sanitation through building houses, youth economic empowerment. Seeing the nature of their projects, and their implementation risks can't miss, and different strategies were taken to minimize them for keeping up the project's completion. Against this context, the present research sought to examine effect of managing risk in project specifically on Community based projects success, a case of Peer driven change project implemented in Burera district, Rwanda.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Community based projects implemented by NGOs have fallen short in meeting expectations and delivering on the expected outcomes due to inadequate recognition of Project risk management. Many community-based projects implemented by NGOs fail due to organizational overconfidence in project success and insufficient identification, assessment, and provision of mitigation or contingencies for risk factors (Berman & Kang, 2013; Mohd Ali et al., 2019). Good strategies for managing risks can help mitigate these risks and improve overall project outcomes (Mohd Ali et al., 2019). The absence of proper project risk management practices led to delays in the projects and extended their completion time, consequently inflating the project's budget (Chilumo et al., 2020; Pirwani et al., 2020; Masengesho et al., 2020).

Globally, regionally and locally various studies have been carried out on the risk management practices impact the performance and success of projects. For instance, Carvalho and Rabechini (2015), in a study that examined how project risk management practices impact the success of IT projects, the results indicated that IT projects carry out risk management to maximize the performance and to manage risk effectively and efficiently enjoy financial savings and greater productivity. Mutunga and Ondara (2021) conducted a study on the influence of Risk Management Practices on Project Performance at Kenya Airports Authority. The research findings indicated that risk management significantly

impacts project performance. The study conducted by Watema and Tulirinya (2021) in Iganga Municipality revealed that effective project implementation and robust risk management practices significantly contribute to the success of projects implemented by NGOs. In their research, Watema and Tulirinya aimed to explore the relationship between project implementation and risk management practices on project outcomes for NGO-led projects in Iganga Municipality. Their findings underscored the importance of both aspects in ensuring successful project completion. Consequently, the study suggested that NGOs operating in Iganga Municipality should prioritize project risk management practices to enhance project success due to their significant correlation.

Adeleke et al. (2016) conducted a study on the impact of risk management practices on construction projects in Lagos. Their findings indicated a positive relationship between risk management practices and project success. Consistent utilization of risk management practices was shown to enhance the likelihood of project success. Inadequate risk management practices often lead to delays in the success of construction projects. Managing risks effectively is crucial for project staff to minimize or eliminate potential obstacles to project success (Zou et al., 2017). In Rwanda, Gateka, (2023) examined the effect of risk management on Rabbit Ltd project success in Rabbit Ltd in Rwanda using the Rabbit Project as an example. The research findings suggest a significant correlation ($R^2= 0.84$) between the success of the Rabbit project and effective risk management practices.

Various studies in Rwanda, such as those by Habimana and Kamande (2023) and Gateka (2023), have highlighted the significant impact of risk management on project success, particularly in non-governmental and community-based projects. These studies have found that inadequate risk management often leads to project delays, missed expectations, and a failure to achieve desired outcomes. In fact, Community engagement and ownership are vital for the sustainability of projects, particularly in risk management. However, participation from community members often decreases once the project phases out, leading to a lack of continuity in activities. This drop in involvement is attributed to insufficient empowerment and limited involvement in risk management practices. Rutembesa Gwiza and Mbonimana (2021) emphasize the importance of involving local stakeholders in risk management to improve the sustainability of projects, as demonstrated in their study of the Essential Nutrition & Health Package Project in Rwanda. The above-mentioned studies have proved that risk management practices enhance project success. There is a contextual gap since very few studies have been done on the success of community-based projects in Burera district, is significantly impacted by effective execution of project risk management strategies.

Despite the existing literature on risk management's impact on project success, there remains a notable gap regarding its specific effect on peer-driven change projects within Burera district. To address this gap, this research aims to evaluate the effect of risk management on the success of community-based projects in this region. By understanding the relationship between risk management and project success, this study seeks to inform policymakers to provide insights to reduce project failures, optimize resource allocation, and ensure long-term community benefits. Contribute to existing theories by emphasizing the importance of risk management and project success alongside traditional success metrics.

1.2 Research Objectives

The general objective of this study was to assess the effect of project risk management on success of community-based projects in Burera district, Rwanda. Particularly, the study had the following the specific objectives:

- i. To examine the effect of risk identification on the success of Peer Driven change project in Burera district.
- ii. To examine the effect of risk analysis on the success of Peer Driven change project in Burera district.
- iii. To examine the effect of risk control on the success of Peer Driven change project in Burera district.
- iv. To examine the effect of contingency planning on the success of Peer Driven change project in Burera district.

1.3 Research Hypotheses

H_{01} : There is no significant effect of risk identification on the success of Peer Driven change project in Burera district.

H_{02} : There is no significant effect of risk analysis on the success of Peer Driven change project in Burera district.

H_{03} : There is no significant effect of risk control on the success of Peer Driven change project in Burera district.

H_{04} : There is no significant effect of contingency planning on the success of Peer Driven change project in Burera district.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Review

2.1.1 Risk Theory

The word "risk" is used colloquially in many different senses but has also been defined as a precise technical term in several different contexts. Economists commonly refer to Frank Knight's (1921) clear distinction between "risk"



and "uncertainty." According to Knight, risk exists when an action can result in several different, mutually exclusive outcomes, each with a known probability. If these probabilities are unknown, the situation will in Knight's language contain uncertainty.

In project management, a risk can be defined as an uncertain event or situation that may affect a project's objectives, either positively or negatively (Abd El-Karim et al., 2017; Tahir et al., 2019; Kasap and Kaymak, 2007). Project Risk Management (PRM) refers to a structured process involving the identification, analysis, and response to potential risks within a project (Tahir et al., 2019). Risk is characterized as an event, whether internal or external, that has the possible to impact an organisation's financial performance by either increasing costs or reducing revenue. In this study, this theory can help identify likely risks such as financial constraints, stakeholder conflicts, resource limitations, and external factors like political instability or environmental challenges. By applying risk theory, researchers can create plans for reduce these risks, enhance project resilience, and improve overall project success.

2.1.2 Theory of Constraints (ToC)

The Theory of Constraints (TOC), a management philosophy introduced by Eliyahu (1984) in his book "The Goal," is a key strategy that emphasizes enhancing processes by identifying and resolving constraints within a system. The primary objective of TOC is to increase profitability by optimizing the system's overall throughput. This theory views any chain, whether it be a process or a system, as only being as strong as its weakest link. It aids organizations' in reaching their objectives by providing a framework for better control over their endeavours.

The Theory of Constraints asserts that each process possesses a key limitation and boosting the overall output of the process hinges on improving this limitation. It stresses that optimizing elements that are not constraints will not result in significant advantages; only by tackling and enhancing the constraint can progress towards the main objective be made. The Theory of Constraints is a structured approach used to identify obstacles that hinder the success of a system and make necessary modifications to eliminate them. The theory advocates for project management to identify and address project constraints that hinder success. Constraints refer to any limitations or obstacles that can hinder a project's progress and achievement of its objectives. Common types of constraints include time-related constraints, resource-related constraints, and risk-related constraints such as cost overruns due to poor budgeting practices or corruption. This study used the Theory of Constraints (TOC) to expand on the significance of managing risks in enhancing project sustainability. This theory can help determine critical constraints that may impede project success or desired outcomes. By applying the principles of the theory of constraints, researchers can analyse factors that could affect project success.

2.1.3 The Community Coalition Action Theory (CCAT)

The Community Coalition Action Theory (CCAT) falls under the category of theories aimed at facilitating change within organisations. A community coalition represents a structured setup where all members collaborate towards a shared goal and purpose. In the part of an active partnership, a coalition typically concentrates on preventing or improving a community issue by examining the problem; collecting data and evaluating requirements; creating a plan of action with identified resolutions; executing these resolutions; attaining results; and starting social transformation (Butterfoss & Kegler, 2002).

CCAT authors see community coalitions as a specific type of coalition and subscribe to the definition of community coalition presented by Feighery and Rogers in 1990 as "a group of individuals representing diverse organisations, factions, or constituencies within the community who agree to work together to achieve a common goal." According to Butterfoss and Kegler, (2002), contributors to the CCAT, suggest that the CCAT theoretical framework is applicable to efforts in building coalitions at the state wide level.

The fourteen elements identified by Butterfoss and Kegler (2009) consist of stages in development, community setting, primary agency or organizing body, coalition composition, procedures, leadership and personnel, frameworks, combined membership and external resources, member involvement, cooperative synergy, evaluation and strategic planning, execution of tactics, community transformation results, health and social impacts, and community capability. The CCAT initiative aims to forecast various outcomes, such as enhanced organisational structure, function, and effectiveness; community transformations like the development of environments, policies, and practices that promote healthy living; increased community capabilities; and improved social results. According to Glanz et al. (2008), CCAT represents a leading approach achievable through collaborative efforts among multiple organisations to enhance health behaviours. However, a significant drawback of this model is its intricate nature with numerous steps and structures, which has limited its adoption in health intervention design by researchers.

This theory can support the idea that involving various stakeholders, including community members, local organisations, government agencies, and NGOs, in the process of planning and executing a project can lead to more



sustainable outcomes. Researchers can investigate how strong collaborations and community involvement contribute to the long-term influence and successful project effect by utilising the community coalition action theory.

2.2 Empirical Review

2.2.1 Risk Identification and Project Success

Paul and Samson (2021) conducted a study in Kiambu County, Kenya, to analyse how risk management practices impact the performance of infrastructure projects. The study aimed to assess the influence of risk identification, risk mitigation, risk monitoring, and risk assessment on infrastructure project performance. The research findings indicated that risk identification had the most significant positive effect on infrastructure project performance in Kiambu County. Organisations begin with the unknown which means that risk identification should be the most significant starting points, when implementing a risk management program.

A study conducted by Senga and Gitahi (2023) examined the impact of risk management techniques on the performance of public infrastructure projects in Rwanda. This research was piloted in Kigali, a case of the Rwanda Urban Development Project (RUDP II). The study's sample consisted of 132 individuals, with 70 being employees of the Kigali city involved in the RUDP II project implementation and 62 from private enterprises also participating in the project. The research utilized a combination of primary and secondary data sources. The findings showed a weak correlation existed between risk identification practices and the project performance of the RUDP II project. However, regression model 1 revealed that the variables risk identification practices (measured by interview and historical record) and the execution of infrastructural projects (measured by scope, cost, and time) contribute to 25.9% of performance in RUDP II. Risk identification practices positively and significantly influenced the performance of RUDP II.

Kinyua et al. (2015) conducted a study to investigate the impact of risk management practices on the performance of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in Nairobi's information and communication technology (ICT) sector. The research adopted a descriptive design and targeted a population of forty-eight ICT SMEs. The investigation utilized arbitrary sampling, and multiple regression analysis was employed to determine how risk management strategies affect the project performance of ICT SMEs. The study's results indicated that the successful identification of risks has a beneficial and significant impact on project implementation, especially concerning small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in Kenya. The research was focused on the SME sector and ICT, with an additional examination of the airport industry within the transportation sector.

2.2.2 Risk Analysis and Project Success

A study on the relationship between Rwandan non-governmental projects success and risk management practices was conducted by Habimana and Kamande (2023) in ADP Kageyo World Vision Project Case Study. The study examined the effects of risk analysis on World Vision's ADP Kageyo project performance. Risk allocation, risk categorization, and risk assessment were employed to study the risk analysis techniques. The study also concluded that risk analysis processes, which included risk allocation, risk categorization, and risk assessment, were the foundation for the success of the ADP Kageyo project carried out by World Vision. The analysis exposed that there was no correlation between risk allocation, project quality effectiveness, and project cost effectiveness. The association between project quality effectiveness and risk classification was found to be statistically significantly negative.

A research was done by Mervat and Hani (2017) on the effect of Risk Management on Project Success. The research was conducted to explore how risk management influences the success of projects at the Jordanian Ministry of Environment. The research focused on projects located in North, Central, and South Jordan, totalling 62 projects. A descriptive analytical approach was utilized to meet the study's objectives. A questionnaire-based study was conducted consisting of 42 paragraphs. Out of the 500 distributed questionnaires, 430 were received with a return rate of 86%. All received questionnaires were deemed valid and reliable for further analysis. The results of this study yielded several important findings. One such finding revealed a significant positive relationship between various risk management components and project success. More specifically, the study identified that effective risk analysis, an appropriate response to potential dangers, thorough evaluation and review of risks played crucial roles in achieving successful project outcomes.

A study conducted by Senga and Gitahi (2023) aimed to analyse how risk management practices impact the performance of public infrastructure projects in Rwanda. The research was carried out in Kigali, focusing on the Rwanda Urban Development Project (RUDP II) as a case study. The study sought to evaluate the influence of risk identification, analysis, and mitigation practices on the success of the RUDP II project. Findings on this variable showed that the correlation was high between risk analysis practices and performance of RUDP II. Regression model 2 revealed that the variables risk analysis practice (measured by Qualitative method and Quantitative method) and the infrastructural projects performance (measured by scope, cost, and timeline). The two variables of risk analysis practices (Qualitative method and Quantitative method) contribute to 46.4% of how RUDP II performs.

2.2.3 Risk Control and Project Success

Roque and de Carvalho (2013) conducted a study on how managing project risks impacts the performance of vendor companies in Brazil, specifically focusing on 415 IT projects. Through regression analysis, they found that effective risk evaluation and planning significantly predicted project success. The research aimed to understand how assessing and managing risks influences project outcomes in Brazilian seller organisations. The study highlighted that controlling risks had a notable effect on project success, highlighting the beneficial correlation between project performance and risk assessment.

Sangwa and Dushimimana (2023) conducted a study on the impact of risk management practices on project performance, focusing on the Twiceceka project carried out by Women for Women International in Huye district, Rwanda. The aim of the research was to analyse how risk management influenced project outcomes in Rwanda, specifically examining the TWICECEKA project in Huye district. A project implemented by Women for Women International with funding from USAID. The study's specific goals include assessing how identifying risks affects the TWICECEKA project's performance in Huye, determining the influence of analysing risks on the project's performance in Huye district, examining how responding to and planning for risks impacts the project's performance in Huye district, and evaluating how effectively monitoring and controlling risks enhances the operational efficiency of the TWICECEKA project in Huye district. The researcher utilized theories related to change, constraints, and goal setting to accomplish these objectives. The researchers used a census survey. The sample size was 200 respondents, covering all target groups. For this study, a questionnaire was employed to gather primary and secondary data.

Peter (2014) study on the influence of risk management on project performance in Nairobi City County, Kenya revealed that effective risk The dependent variable's response to one-unit increases in the risk monitoring and control variable, while holding all other variables constant, is denoted by the risk monitoring and control, variable, its positive value implies a positive correlation between increased risk control and improved project performance. The findings demonstrate that risk management significantly improves project performance control had a significant impact on project outcomes. The research participants highlighted challenges within their organisations in identifying risks associated with projects. Nevertheless, they concurred that their organisations could distinguish between actual risk events and the sources of those risks. Furthermore, they agreed that their organisations' risk managers effectively addressed risks according to the guidelines outlined in the risk management plan. These results indicate that Nairobi City County organization's employ risk control measures to a moderate but significant extent. These measures include identifying risks, separating risks from their sources, responding to identified risks, and implementing a complete risk management plan.

2.2.4 Contingency Planning and Project Success

In their study, Weingarten et al. (2016) examined how risk prevention impacts the performance and success of supply chain integration. They utilized a descriptive research approach and focused on 12 companies in the stationery supply sector. The findings revealed that these firms employed various risk prevention tactics like thorough planning, alternative methods, and contingency plans. The study concluded that implementing risk prevention strategies has a positive effect on the performance of supply chain companies.

Aduma and Kimutai (2018) conducted a research project at the National Hospital Insurance Fund (NHIF) in Kenya to assess how project risk management strategies influence project performance. The study employed a descriptive research design, surveying 241 employees, including 651 managerial staff, through questionnaires to collect primary data. The findings revealed that risk contingency planning had the most significant impact on the success of NHIF projects, while risk transfer showed the least influence.

The study conducted by Kasiita (2022) in Rwanda aimed to explore the effect of risk management strategies on construction project performance. Adopting a descriptive research design, the researchers surveyed 169 project team members from four districts, using simple random sampling. Data was collected through structured questionnaires, documentary reviews, and in-depth interviews. Qualitative analysis techniques were employed for data analysis. The findings revealed that having a detailed work plan and effective contingency planning significantly influenced the performance of construction projects. Moreover, the study decided that research prevention strategy positively affected the performance of construction firms.

III. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

A research method is a plan that specifies and outlines procedures and methods that are used in collecting and analysing data on a given topic of research and reporting of findings in a manner that is detailed (Lewis, 2015). To attain goal and objectives of the research study, the researcher used the descriptive research design to provide information on

characteristics of a population and correlational research design to measure and assess the statistical relationship between two variables.

3.2 Study Population

Population can be defined as the total collection of the elements, events, people or records that have the custody of the desired information and can answer the research questions that have been developed by the researcher (Bordens & Abbott, 2018). A pure meaning of the study population provides assurance as to the validity and reliability of the study results (Danaher, et al., 2016).

Therefore, based on the study's timeframe, accessibility and organisations' willingness to participate on this study, the target populations for this research were 177 selected from 29 NNGOs implementing CBPs in Burera district. The selected NNGOs together have 177 staff working on their Peer driven change project. Table below summarizes the population distribution by organisation for the study. The size of the sample relates directly to the size of the population being studied. Universal sampling technique used for this study, where the researcher attempts to include the entire population. This method is used when the population size is relatively small or when it is feasible and practical to include all members of the population in the study.

Table 1

List of Study Population

| NGOs | Population |
|---|------------|
| Hope Initiative Rwanda Organisation (HIRO)/Burera | 7 |
| Hand in Hand for Development | 6 |
| Association Rwandaise des Conseiller en Traumatisme (ARCT-Ruhuka) | 6 |
| Children Voice To day (CVT) | 6 |
| Rwandan Association of Ecologists (ARECO Rwanda nziza) | 6 |
| Shenge Children Organisation (SCO) | 6 |
| Love Gate Organisation (LGO) | 6 |
| Tubibe Amahoro(TA) | 6 |
| Peace and Durable Development (PDD) | 6 |
| Livelong In Goal (LIGO)/Kigali | 6 |
| Réseaux Rwandais des Personnes Vivant avec le VIH (RRP+) | 6 |
| Rwanda of Peace and Progress (RPP) | 6 |
| Peace and Durable Development (PDD) | 6 |
| Rwanda Wildlife Conservation Association (RWCA) | 6 |
| Inclusive Rwanda Men's Resource Center (RWAMREC) | 6 |
| Action Nord Sud Rwanda (ANS) | 6 |
| Inspire Educate Empower Rwanda (IEE) | 6 |
| Rwanda Rural Rehabilitation Initiative (RWARRI) | 6 |
| Commission Diocésaine Justice et Paix Byumba (CDJP_BYUMBA) | 6 |
| Commission Diocésaine Justice et Paix Ruhengeri (CDJP-RUHENGERI) | 6 |
| Initiatives Des Jeunes Scolarisés Pour Le Développement Durable (Jeunes Scolarisés) | 6 |
| Access to Health(A2H) | 6 |
| National Union of Disabilities' organisation in Rwanda (NUDOR) | 6 |
| Society for Family Health, Rwanda (SFH), | 6 |
| Hope of Family Organisation (HoF) | 6 |
| Rwanda Scouts Association (RSA) | 8 |
| Sympathy Rwanda | 6 |
| Association de Solidarité des Femmes Rwandaises (ASOFERWA) | 6 |
| Association Rwandaise pour le Développement Rural (ARDR) | 6 |
| Total Target population | 177 |

3.3 Data Collection Methods

The data collection has been included both qualitative and quantitative data. Data collection can either be primary or secondary data collection (Zozus, 2017). For this rresearch study, the data collection method that used for this study is group focused.

3.3.1 Data Collection Instruments

The data collection instruments for this study include a questionnaire, document review and interview. Both primary data and secondary data was gathered using a questionnaire tool whereby a self-administrated questionnaire



was developed and pretested prior to full survey for achieving the objectives of the current studies. Using Likert scale type of questionnaire, the staff indicated whether they Strong agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree and Strongly Agree. The documentary review used by researcher to gather secondary data. As part of the documentary analysis, process, the researcher used documents include reports and other documents to evaluate and analyse the text relevance to this study. Interviews were used to complement the data collected from questionnaire. The advantage of using interviews is that allows respondents to raise issues that the researcher may not expected.

3.4 Data Processing

The data that have been collected from complete questionnaires, summarized and processed. This involved data coding, editing and tabulation especially quantitative data. The purpose of all these is to make the information clear and understandable for other people and facilitating data analysis. Editing was done as a process of re-evaluation and correction of errors in fact judgment. It also involved correction of spellings, punctuation and capitalization. Coding was done for grouping facts according to the themes and sub themes of the study. This was necessary for easy interpretation and analysis of results. Tubulars' representation was utilized to display data in terms of frequency and percentages.

3.5 Data Analysis

The researcher used descriptive statistics to analyze the data by way of frequencies, percentages, means, variance, standard deviation and correlation analysis in testing whether there is efficient relationship between project risk management and project success. SPSS has been used as support in the data analysis. The researcher prefers SPSS because of its ability to cover a wide range of the most common statistical and graphical data analysis and is very systematic. SPSS has been utilized to create showcase returns, irregular returns and volumes and factual qualities to test noteworthiness.

Inferential statistics has been examined through the utilization of multiple regression model with the objective of determining the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable. A multiple regression model has been utilized to evaluate how project risk management strategies impact the success of a project, specifically focusing on community-based projects. The multiple regression equation for the variables is the following.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \epsilon$$

Y is the dependent variables (Project Success)

$\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2 X_2, \beta_3, \beta_4$ Are the parameters (Beta coefficient))

ϵ is the error term (the Greek letter epsilon) is a random variable.

X_1 : Risk identification

X_2 : Risk analysis

X_3 : Risk control

X_4 : Contingency planning

ϵ : Error term

3.6 Data Validity and Reliability Test

Reliability and validity are concepts used to evaluate the quality of research. Reliability is about the consistency of a measure, and validity is about the accuracy of a measure. It's important to consider reliability and validity when you are creating your research design, planning your methods, and writing up your results, especially in quantitative research. Validity and reliability increase transparency and decrease opportunities to insert researcher bias in qualitative research (Singh, 2014). For all secondary data, a detailed assessment of reliability and validity involve an appraisal of methods used to collect data, Saunders et al. (2009).

3.6.1 Validity Test

Validity refers to how accurately a method measures what it is intended to measure. If research has high validity that means it produces results that correspond to real properties, characteristics, and variations in the physical or social world. High reliability is one indicator that a measurement is valid. If a method is not reliable, it probably isn't valid.

In this research the validity was assured by collecting the data from different sources such as project managers and others support staffs working in the organizations. Validity was also ensured by making sure the sampling techniques were free from bias by giving each subject an equal opportunity to score and it is also improved through operationalization of variables. The questionnaires were comprehensive to cover all the variables being measured.



3.6.2 Reliability Test

Reliability refers to how consistently a method measures something. If the same result can be consistently achieved by using the same methods under the same circumstances, the measurement is considered reliable.

To measure the reliability of the data collection instruments an internal consistency technique Cronbach's alpha was computed using SPSS version 25. The pilot study involved questionnaires from 177 respective project staffs (directors, project managers, program coordinators, technical leaders, team leaders and support staffs) who are involved in the in a project work by non-governmental offices (NGOs). According to Zinbarg et al. (2005) Cronbach's alpha is a coefficient of reliability that gives an unbiased estimate of data generalizability. The reliability coefficient of 0.7 and above is recommended. Reliability analysis through SPSS yielded a Cronbach alpha greater than 0.7 for the research objectives as shown on Table 2, implies that the research instrument was reliable.

Table 2
Reliability Test Results

| Cronbach's Alpha | Number of Items |
|------------------|-----------------|
| 0.839 | 26 |

The data from above Table 2 represents the results of a reliability test using Cronbach's Alpha, a common metric for assessing internal consistency or reliability of a set of items in a questionnaire or scale. The Aggregate Cronbach's Alpha of 0.839 indicates a high level of internal consistency among the 26 items tested. In general, a Cronbach's Alpha value above 0.7 is considered acceptable, while values above 0.8 suggest good reliability. With a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.839, the reliability of the 26-items scale is considered good, implying that the questionnaire is well-correlated and consistently measure the same underlying construct. This would be a strong indication of the scale's reliability for use in further analysis.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

This study was conducted in ethical manner to ensure to establish relation with the respondents and there was information of consent in conducting research. The researcher used request the permission to the organisation management to allow their member to participate in data collection with required authority letter. All the information obtained from the respondents have been handled with confidentiality and the names of respondents will not release. All sources of information be it textbooks, journals, internet, magazines, dissertations were acknowledged. Similarly, all respondents were acknowledged for the information given.

IV. FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the findings from the data collection phase. As noted in the previous chapter, the study employs a descriptive research approach that integrates both quantitative and qualitative methods. The primary aim of this research is to evaluate the effect of project risk management on the success of community-based projects, specifically focusing on the Peer Driven Change project in Burera District, Rwanda.

4.1.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Table 3
Gender of Respondents

| Gender | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------|------------|---------------|
| Female | 65 | 36.72 |
| Male | 112 | 63.28 |
| Total | 177 | 100.00 |

Based on the above table 3, it indicates that most respondents are male (63.28%) compared to female respondents (36.72%). Specifically, there are 47 more male respondents than female respondents (112 - 65). The percentage of male respondents (63.28%) is significantly higher than that of female respondents (36.72%). This indicates a gender imbalance in the sample, with more than half of the respondents being male.

**Table 4***Age of Respondents*

| Age_category | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------|------------|---------------|
| Below 25 Years | 4 | 2.26 |
| 26-30 Years | 6 | 3.39 |
| 31-35 Years | 50 | 28.25 |
| 36-40 Years | 55 | 31.07 |
| 41-45 Years | 48 | 27.12 |
| 46-50 Years | 13 | 7.34 |
| Above 50 Years | 1 | 0.56 |
| Total | 177 | 100.00 |

In summary, the above table reveals a concentration of respondents in the 31-45 years' age range, with significantly fewer participants in the younger and older age brackets. This age distribution suggests that the sample predominantly consists of middle-aged adults, which could influence the study's findings and applicability to other age groups.

Table 5*Education Background of Respondents*

| Education level | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------------|------------|---------------|
| Secondary certificate | 0 | 0.00 |
| Bachelor | 102 | 57.63 |
| College diploma | 1 | 0.56 |
| Masters | 74 | 41.81 |
| PhD | 0 | 0.00 |
| Total | 177 | 100.00 |

Based on the findings on the above table, the combined percentage of respondents with either a bachelor's or master's degree is substantial (99.44%). This suggests that most of the sample has at least some higher education. Overall, the data indicates a well-educated sample with a notable predominance of individuals holding bachelor's and master's degrees.

Table 6*Working Experience in Peer Driven Change Projects of Respondents*

| Years of experience | Frequency | Percent |
|---------------------|------------|---------------|
| 0 -2 years | 11 | 6.21 |
| 3 - 5 years | 123 | 69.49 |
| 6 -10 years | 38 | 21.46 |
| Over 10 years | 5 | 2.84 |
| Total | 177 | 100.00 |

The above table 6 provides a distribution of respondents based on their years of professional experience. Most respondents (65.91%) have 3 to 5 years of experience. This indicates that a significant portion of the workforce is relatively young in their careers, potentially indicating a dynamic or rapidly evolving field. Overall, the data indicates a workforce predominantly with moderate experience (3 to 5 years) and fewer individuals with either minimal or extensive experience.

4.1.2 Descriptive Analysis of the Study

Descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations, were used to summarize these findings across the independent variables, as detailed in the following sections.



Table 7
Risk Identification and Success of Peer Driven Change Project in Burera District

| Statements | Mean | Std. Dev. |
|--|-------------|-------------|
| In our organisation Potential risks are identified at the beginning of a community- based project | 4.006 | 0.25 |
| Our Organization ensure risk registration both internal and external at the beginning and during the implementation of the CB project | 4.028 | 0.19 |
| Effective methods and techniques risks such as interviewing, assumption analysis, Document reviews, Delphi technique and Brainstorming were used to identify project risks | 4.034 | 0.25 |
| Risk management plan has been done at the project inception | 4.056 | 0.27 |
| Aggregate Mean and Standard Deviation | 4.03 | 0.13 |

The findings indicate that participants generally agreed with the assertion that risk identification has an effect on peer-driven change projects in Burera district, Rwanda with the overall mean of 4.03 suggests a positive consensus on the effectiveness of risk identification practices in the organization. It reflects that, on average, respondents agree that risk identification processes are in place and effective. The low aggregate standard deviation of 0.13 further supports the conclusion that there is strong agreement among respondents about the consistency and effectiveness of the risk identification practices.

Most of the interviewee respondents stated that, they have seen how their team prioritizes risk identification right from the community-based project start. During the initial planning phase, they sit down with project managers and other project staff discuss possible challenges. Everyone, from their project managers to the field team, understands that identifying risks early on helps us avoid major setbacks.

The findings agree with those of Paul and Samson (2021) who found that the risk identification had the most significant positive effect on infrastructure project performance. Organisations begin with the unknown which means that risk identification should be the most significant starting points, when implementing a risk management program. This also supported by Risk theory as it focuses on the identification, assessment, and prioritization of risks. It directly supports risk identification by helping define and classify risks in community projects. Finally, Community coalition action theory supports risk identification by helping engage diverse stakeholders who may have different perspectives on potential risks in community-based projects.

Table 8
Risk Analysis and Success of Peer Driven Change Project in Burera District

| Statement | Mean | Std. Dev. |
|---|--------------|--------------|
| For all the risks identified, their likelihood and impact are assessed. | 4.05 | 0.34 |
| All risk identified are categorized based on their likelihood | 4.12 | 0.43 |
| Risk register, risk matrix, checklist and SWOT analysis are techniques used for risk analysis in your community-based projects? | 4.04 | 0.33 |
| Once risks analysed they have been prioritized by using these methods: Risk matrix, Quantitative assessment (Probability x impact), Qualitative assessment (low, medium, high). | 3.92 | 0.41 |
| Aggregate Mean and Standard Deviation | 4.037 | 0.232 |

The findings indicate that participants generally agreed with the assertion that risk analysis has an effect on peer-driven change projects in Burera district, Rwanda with the overall mean of 4.037 reflects a generally positive perception of the risk analysis practices. The aggregate standard deviation of 0.232 indicates a moderate level of consensus among respondents.

Here, is summary of testimonies from various respondents that align with these quantitative findings on risk analysis practices as qualitative data: Some of the interviewees said that their team has a thorough approach to analyzing risks at the start of each project. Their conduct detailed risk assessments, especially for financial risk assessment, environmental, and logistical issues". "Risk analysis has become an essential part of our planning process, we look at all the risks, categorize them, and try to assess their impact. While most of us agree on the effectiveness of this process", I have noticed that different departments sometimes prioritize risks differently.

These findings collaborate those of Habimana and Kamande (2023) in his study which emphasized that risk analysis processes, which included risk allocation, risk categorization, and risk assessment, were the foundation for the success of the ADP Kageyo project carried out by World Vision. These findings collaborate with Risk theory, as well as when analysing risks, this theory aids in understanding the likelihood and potential impact of those risks, aligning closely with your variable of risk analysis.



Table 9

Risk Control and Success of Peer Driven Change Project in Burera District

| Statement | Mean | Std. Dev. |
|---|----------|-------------|
| In our organization, a checklist of risks associated with a CB projects are developed | 3.96 | 0.35 |
| In our organization, we have the feedback system used respond to the risks | 3.994 | 0.42 |
| Our organization responds to the risks identified through risk management plan | 4.011 | 0.32 |
| A risk matrix was reviewed and updated throughout project life cycle. | 4.034 | 0.43 |
| Aggregate Mean and Standard Deviation | 4 | 0.19 |

The findings indicate that participants generally agreed with the assertion that risk control has an effect on peer-driven change projects in Burera district, Rwanda. The overall high mean scores suggest that the organization’s risk control practices are perceived positively. The aggregate mean of 4.0 reflects a general agreement that the risk control measures are effective. The variability in responses (as indicated by standard deviations) suggests that there might be inconsistencies in how different aspects of risk control are perceived.

Here are testimonies from various respondents as qualitative data that could support these findings on risk control practices: Some of the respondents indicated that: “They actively monitor risks, and the team is proactive in responding to them. “The risk control practices there are very effective, and they play a big role in our ability to keep projects on track. They have established processes to identify and respond to risks, which has made our team more resilient. The one area they believe needs work is their checklists they are useful but could be expanded to cover more potential risks. This would add another layer of security to our risk control efforts.”

This observation agrees with Peter (2014) who confirmed that effective risk control had a significant impact on project outcomes. The research participants highlighted challenges within their organizations in identifying risks associated with projects. Nevertheless, they concurred that their organizations could distinguish between actual risk events and the sources of those risks. For risk control, theory of constraints helps focus on managing risks that could severely impact the project's critical path or success.

Table 10

Contingency Planning and Success of Peer Driven Change Project in Burera District

| Statements | Mean | Std. Dev. |
|---|--------------|--------------|
| Our organization develops <i>Contingency planning</i> for future unexpected risks during the CB project planning phase | 4.068 | 0.347 |
| In our organization <i>Contingency funds</i> are regularly established to cover project risks. | 3.983 | 0.291 |
| In our organization we have settled <i>Budget Reserves</i> to cover identified risks and are allocated to specific sections of the project | 4.011 | 0.369 |
| In our organization we have settled <i>Management Reserves</i> to cover unidentified risks and are allocated to risks associated with the project as a whole | 3.989 | 0.384 |
| <i>Time buffers</i> (Project buffer, feeding buffer and Resource buffer) are established to mitigate against potential project delays (schedule and critical chain) | 4.028 | 0.36 |
| Aggregate Mean and Standard Deviation | 4.016 | 0.156 |

The findings indicate that participants generally agreed with the assertion that contingency planning has an effect on peer-driven change projects in Burera district, Rwanda. The aggregate mean of 4.016 with a standard deviation of 0.156 suggests a strong and consistent positive perception of contingency planning practices, with low variability in responses.

The findings supported by qualitative data from interviewees, some of the respondents indicated that, they actively monitor risks, and the team is proactive in responding to them. “The risk control practices there are very effective, and they play a big role in our ability to keep projects on track. They have established processes to identify and respond to risks, which has made our team more resilient. The one area they believe needs work is their checklists they are useful but could be expanded to cover more potential risks. This would add another layer of security to our risk control efforts.

These findings are in agreement of those of Kasiita (2022) who revealed that having a detailed work plan and effective contingency planning significantly influenced the performance of construction projects. Community coalition action theory also plays a key role in contingency planning by promoting collective action and resource sharing, ensuring that the community is prepared to respond to risks effectively through coalition-driven strategies. Finally, in contingency planning, Theory of Constraints supports the need to prepare for and mitigate the effects of these constraints when they arise, ensuring minimal disruption to project progress.



Table 11
Success of Peer Driven Change Project in Burera District

| Statements | Mean | Std. Dev. |
|--|-------------|--------------|
| The effectiveness of the Project is demonstrated by the achievement of its objectives in alignment with the goals set at the beginning of the project. | 4.068 | 0.274 |
| The efficient of the CB Project is evident in the effective management and utilization of resources to achieve its intended outcomes | 4.05 | 0.43 |
| In our Organization CB project had always positive impact on the community | 4.034 | 0.3 |
| The Community Based project implemented by our organization sustained over time | 4.017 | 0.291 |
| Aggregate Mean and Standard Deviation | 4.04 | 0.202 |

The findings indicate that participants generally agreed with the assertion that project Success n has an effect on peer-driven change projects in Burera district, Rwanda. The overall mean for the aggregate statements is 4.04, demonstrate that respondents generally perceive the projects as successful in achieving objectives, managing resources efficiently, positively impacting the community, and being sustainable over time. The relatively low standard deviations (especially the aggregate SD of 0.202) highlight a consensus among respondents, with only slight variability in their opinions.

These findings are in agreements with some testimonies as qualitative data from various interviewees that could support the findings from quantitative data on contingency planning practices: Most of interviewee stated that, their organization has developed a solid approach to contingency planning. Their regularly prepare for potential delays by establishing budget reserves and time buffers, which has been invaluable, they set aside both management team and budget reserves, which have allowed them to handle unexpected expenses smoothly. That said, there are occasional debates about how much to allocate for these reserves, as some projects seem to need more buffers than others.

These findings also in in agreement with Carvalho and Rabechini (2015), whose indicated that Project success involves project efficiency, impact on customers, impact on team/staff, the direct business and success, environmental damage mitigation, and preparation for future.

4.2 Inferential Statistics

The study used regression analysis to establish the relationship between the independent and dependent variables of the study. The findings of Model Summary, ANOVA and Coefficient of Regression were as indicated in the following sections.

4.2.1 Diagnostic Tests

This section focused on the diagnostic tests on risk management practices and project success. Andy (2018) emphasizes the importance of conducting these diagnostic tests to ensure that the assumptions of statistical models are met, which contributes to the reliability and validity of the results. To ensure that the basic regression assumptions were met, the following diagnostic tests were made:

4.2.2 Correlation Analysis

Correlation test was examined by utilizing the Pearson analysis and the outcomes are presented in the below table 11. The Correlation coefficients measure the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two variables or more variables. Values range from -1 to 1. A value of 1 indicates a perfect positive linear relationship. A value of -1 indicates a perfect negative linear relationship. A value of 0 suggests no linear relationship. The double asterisks (**) denote that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed test). This means there’s strong evidence to suggest the relationships between these variables.

Table 12
Pairwise Correlations

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
|--------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| (1) Project Success | 1 | 0.689** | 0.430** | 0.715** | 0.642** |
| (2) Risk Identification | 0.689** | 1 | 0.398** | 0.605** | 0.482** |
| (3) Risk Analysis | 0.430** | 0.398** | 1 | 0.321** | 0.305** |
| (4) Risk Control | 0.715** | 0.605** | 0.321** | 1 | 0.642** |
| (5) Contingency Planning | 0.642** | 0.482** | 0.305** | 0.642** | 1 |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).



The above table revealed that the Success of peer Driven change project is strongly correlated with other factors. Risk Control (0.715) ** has the strong positive correlation. Risk Identification (0.689) and Contingency Planning (0.642) ** also show strong positive correlations with project success. Risk Analysis (0.430) ** shows a weak positive correlation with project success. Risk Identification correlates highly with Risk Control (0.605) ** and Contingency Planning (0.482) **. It also has a moderate correlation with Risk Analysis (.398) **.

Risk Analysis shows the weakest positive correlations overall its strongest positive correlations are with Risk Identification (0.398) and Project Success (0.430) **. Lower correlations with **Risk Control (0.321) and Contingency Planning (0.305) **. Risk Control has strong positive relationships with Project Success (0.715) and Contingency Planning (0.642). Risk Identification (0.605) ** further indicates that controlling risks is more effective when risks are identified early. Contingency Planning is strongly correlated with Project Success (0.642) ** and Risk Control (0.642) **.

4.2.3 Multiple Regression Analysis

To determine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables and assess the statistical significance of the hypothesized relationships, a multiple regression analysis was conducted. This analysis utilized the collected field data and was tested at a 5% level of significance.

Table 13

Model Summary of Coefficients Affecting Success of Peer Driven Change in Burera District

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|--------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | 0.815 ^a | 0.664 | 0.656 | 0.09696 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Contingency Planning, Risk Analysis, Risk Identification, Risk Control

The above table, of multiple regression analysis aims to examine the relationship between several independent variables (predictors) and a dependent variable (PDC success).

The R (0.815): Indicates the correlation coefficient between the observed values and the predicted values from the model. The R Square ($R^2 = 0.664$): This value is the coefficient of determination. It represents the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent variables (Contingency Planning, Risk Analysis, Risk Identification, and Risk Control). In summary the model has a strong correlation with an R value of 0.815. The R^2 value of 0.664 means that 66.4% of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the four predictors (Contingency Planning, Risk Analysis, Risk Identification, Risk Control). The Adjusted R^2 of 0.656 is close to the R^2 value, suggesting that the model is not overly complex. The standard error is relatively low, indicating a decent fit of the model to the data.

4.3 ANOVA

The analysis of Variance was used to examine the statistical significance. Thus, ANOVA was conducted at 95% level of significance. The findings of F Calculated and F Critical are as shown in table below:

Table 14

ANOVA

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------------------|
| 1 | Regression | 3.193 | 4 | 0.798 | 88.67 | .000 ^b |
| | Residual | 1.617 | 172 | 0.009 | | |
| | Total | 4.809 | 176 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Project Success

b. Predictors: (Constant), Contingency Planning, Risk Analysis, Risk Identification, Risk Control

The data presented in above table of ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) typically used to assess the statistical significance of a regression model. Since it is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected, which means the independent variables (Contingency Planning, Risk Analysis, Risk Identification, Risk Control) collectively have a statistically significant effect on Project Success.

The regression model is statistically significant ($p = 0.000$), meaning that the combination of the four predictors (Contingency Planning, Risk Analysis, Risk Identification, and Risk Control) significantly explains the variation in Peer driven change Project Success. The F-statistic (88.67) is very high to the F critical (2.46), indicating a good fit of the regression model and the overall significant for the study. The independent variables explain a significant portion of the variance in the dependent variable (Project Success), as shown by the Regression Sum of Squares (3.193) being larger than the Residual Sum of Squares (1.617). The ANOVA table indicates that the predictors (Contingency Planning, Risk



Analysis, Risk Identification, and Risk Control) significantly contribute to explaining the variability in Peer driven change Project Success. The overall model is significant and fits the data well, as indicated by the F-statistic and the p-value.

4.3.1 Regression Coefficients

The study used a regression coefficient to establish the effect of independent variables of risk management on success of peer driven change project in Burera district, Rwanda. The findings are indicated in Table below:

Table 15
Regression Coefficients

| Independent Variables | B | Std. Error | t | P.Value |
|-----------------------|--------|------------|--------|---------|
| (Constant) | -0.665 | 0.248 | -2.682 | 0.008 |
| Risk Identification | 0.421 | 0.074 | 5.680 | 0.000 |
| Risk Analysis | 0.087 | 0.035 | 2.513 | 0.013 |
| Risk Control | 0.281 | 0.056 | 5.033 | 0.000 |
| Contingency Planning | .252 | 0.062 | 4.055 | 0.000 |

a. Dependent Variable: Project Success

$$Y = -0.665 + 0.421X_1 + 0.087X_2 + 0.281X_3 + 0.252X_4 + 0.248$$

$$\text{Project Success} = -0.665 + 0.421 * \text{Risk identification} + 0.087 * \text{Risk analysis} + 0.281 * \text{Risk control} + 0.252 * \text{Contingency planning} + 0.248$$

The provided table offers data on the relationship between various project risk management factors and project success. The analysis below covers the statistical significance, the strength of each independent variable’s effect, and the overall interpretation of the results.

Constant (Intercept) has Value of -0.665. The constant represents the expected value of the dependent variable (Project Success) when all independent variables are set to zero. In this case, it shows that if no risk management practices (Risk Identification, Risk Analysis, Risk Control, or Contingency Planning) are applied, project success is expected to be negative (-0.665), which may suggest a low probability of success in the absence of these factors. The t-value for the constant is negative (t = -2.682), meaning that the intercept is significantly less than zero. The p-value is less than 0.05, so this is statistically significant. This means that when all independent variables are zero, the predicted value of the dependent variable is significantly below zero.

Risk Identification has Coefficient (B): 0.421, t-statistic: 5.680 and p-value: 0.000 (Statistically significant). This means that the Risk Identification has the largest positive impact on project success. For every unit increase in risk identification, project success increases by 0.421 units, assuming other variables remain constant. Since the p-value is below 0.05 (0.000), it is highly significant, meaning we are confident that Risk Identification has a real, measurable effect on project success. The t-value is positive and large (5.680), indicating that "Risk Identification" has a strong, statistically significant positive relationship with the dependent variable. The p-value is extremely small (0.000), confirming that this effect is highly significant.

This results are supported by the study conducted by Paul and Samson (2021) in Kiambu County, Kenya, to analyse how risk management practices impact the performance of infrastructure projects. The research findings indicated that risk identification had the most significant positive effect on infrastructure project performance in Kiambu County. Another study carried out by Kinyua et al. (2015) sought to explore how risk management practices influence the performance of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in the information and communication technology (ICT) sector in Nairobi. The study’s results indicated that the successful identification of risks has a beneficial and significant impact on project success.

Risk Analysis has Coefficient (B) of 0.087, t-statistic of 2.513 and p-value: 0.013 (Statistically significant). This indicates that Risk Analysis also positively influences project success, though its effect size is smaller compared to Risk Identification and Risk Control. For every unit increase in risk analysis, project success increases by 0.087 units, holding other factors constant. The p-value (0.013) is still statistically significant, but the smaller coefficient indicates that risk analysis, while important, is not as strong a driver of success as the other factors in the model. The t-value is lower compared to the others but still positive and significant. A t-value of 2.513 and a p-value of 0.013 suggest that "Risk Analysis" has a statistically significant, though somewhat weaker, positive effect on the dependent variable. This suggests that while evaluating risks is important, its direct impact on project success is less pronounced than identifying and controlling risks. The findings revealed that Risk Analysis with a value of 0.430 ** shows a moderate positive



relationship with project success. Although it is weaker than the other correlations, risk analysis is still an important factor but may not be as influential as identification and control.

Based on the findings, it indicates that Risk Analysis also positively influences project success. Similar findings were made by Habimana and Kamande (2023) on their study on the relationship between Rwandan non-governmental projects success and risk management practices ADP Kageyo World Vision Project Case Study. The study also concluded that risk analysis processes, which included risk allocation, risk categorization, and risk assessment, were the foundation for the success of the ADP Kageyo project carried out by World Vision.

Risk Control with Coefficient (B): 0.281, t-statistic: 5.033 and p-value: 0.000 (Statistically significant). Indicates that Risk Control has a significant positive impact on project success. For every unit increase in risk control, project success increases by 0.281 units, assuming other variables remain constant. The p-value (0.000) signifies a strong statistical significance. This suggests that managing risks actively through control mechanisms plays an important role in driving project success. A high t-value (5.033) and a very small p-value (0.000) indicate that "Risk Control" has a strong and statistically significant effect on the dependent variable. The findings, revealed that Risk Control with a value of 0.715** has the strongest correlation. This suggests that effective risk control measures are closely linked to project success. The better the risk control, the more likely a project will succeed. Based on the results revealed in the table 4-11 it indicates that Risk Control has a significant positive impact on project success. Similar findings were made by Sangwa and Dushimimana (2023) who conducted a study on the impact of risk management practices on project performance, focusing on the Twiceceka project carried out by Women for Women International in Huye district, Rwanda. They denoted by the risk monitoring and control, variable, its positive value implies a positive correlation between increased risk control and improved project performance. The findings demonstrate that risk management significantly improves project performance.

Contingency Planning with Coefficient (B): 0.252, t-statistic: 4.055 and p-value: 0.000 (Statistically significant). It means that Contingency Planning has a strong, positive relationship with project success. For every unit increase in contingency planning, project success increases by 0.252 units. With a p-value of 0.000, this variable is highly statistically significant, indicating that planning for contingencies is an essential factor for improving project outcomes. A t-value of 4.055 and a p-value of 0.000 indicate that "Contingency Planning" has a significant positive effect on the dependent variable, though not as strong as Risk Identification or Risk Control.

The findings revealed that Contingency Planning is strongly correlated with Project Success with a value of 0.642. Having contingency plans plays a critical role in both successful project outcomes and managing risks. Based on the findings revealed in the Table 15, it means that Contingency Planning has a strong, positive relationship with project success. Similarly, Aduma and Kimutai (2018) conducted a research project at the National Hospital Insurance Fund (NHIF) in Kenya to assess how project risk management strategies influence project performance. The findings revealed that risk contingency planning had the most significant impact on the success of NHIF projects, while risk transfer showed the least influence.

All independent variables have positive, statistically significant effects on the dependent variable (as indicated by the positive t-values and p-values less than 0.05). The strongest predictors (based on t-values) are Risk Identification ($t = 5.680$) and Risk Control ($t = 5.033$). The weakest significant predictor is Risk Analysis ($t = 2.513$), but it is still statistically significant. These t-values suggest that all the independent variables in the model are meaningful predictors of the dependent variable. Among the four predictors, Risk Identification has the strongest impact on project success ($B = 0.421$). This finding implies that recognizing risks early and systematically is critical for achieving successful project outcomes. Risk Control ($B = 0.281$) and Contingency Planning ($B = 0.252$) also play substantial roles. These findings highlight that beyond identifying risks, actively managing them and preparing for contingencies significantly boost the likelihood of project success.

4.3.2 Test of Hypotheses

The study findings reveal that all independent variables significantly contribute to the success of the Peer-Driven Change Project. Risk Identification ($\beta_1 = 0.421$, $p = 0.000$), Risk Analysis ($\beta_2 = 0.087$, $p = 0.013$), Risk Control ($\beta_3 = 0.281$, $p = 0.000$), and Contingency Planning ($\beta_4 = 0.252$, $p = 0.000$) have positive and statistically significant effects on the project outcome. As all p-values are below the 0.05 threshold, the null hypotheses were rejected in favor of the alternative hypotheses, confirming the critical role of these factors.

V. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

The study sought to establish the effect of risk management on success of community-based project, a case of peer driven change project in Burera district, Rwanda. The study sought to establish the effect of risk identification, risk

analysis, risk control and contingency planning on the success of peer driven change project. The target population was 177 project management staff from 29 selected NGOs where a universal sampling techniques was adopted. The response rate was 100% with 177 questionnaires sufficiently completed and submitted and hence used for analysis. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse and present data.

The findings of the study revealed that risk identification, risk analysis, risk control and contingency planning have both the largest positive significance effect and relationship on Peer driven change project success in Burera district, Rwanda. The findings suggest that Risk Control, Risk Identification and Contingency Planning are the most influential factors contributing to Project Success. Risk Analysis plays a moderate role but is less influential compared to the other factors. SPSS was used as support in the data analysis by using descriptive statistics and regression. The study targeted project managers and other staff related to Community based project management.

5.2 Recommendations

While the study indicates effective risk identification, the study suggests room for improvement in how risks are prioritized. Consider integrating more structured prioritization methods such as Risk Probability-Impact Matrices. This will help in ranking risks more systematically, leading to better resource allocation and mitigation planning. The research points to potential improvements in checklist development and feedback systems.

For ensuring consistency in the application of risk management practices across all levels, the study recommends a comprehensive risk management framework (such as ISO 31000 or PMBOK standards) can be established to harmonize practices across organizations and departments.

The study recommends training programs for project staff to enhance their understanding and application of risk management techniques. These could focus on risk control measures, contingency planning, and risk prioritization. The study recommends exploring the use of project management tools and software to facilitate real-time risk tracking, such as Microsoft Project, this can improve visibility on risks and enhance communication among project teams.

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