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FORWARD

On behalf of the editorial board it is with great pleasure that I present the first issue of Machakos University Journal of Science and Technology to the academic, scholary, professional and research community globally. This Journal provides a reputable academic platform and opportunities to researchers and academicians to share and publish quality research papers.

The manuscripts have undergone through a rigouros peer-review process. The quality of the Journal is further enhanced by a rich editorial board, which comprises of highly qualified scholars drawn from various disciplines. The Journal focuses on multidisciplinary themes and areas of research and is published in both print and online forms.

Despite the grobal expansion of postgraduate programmes and scientific research, research findings are not fully desiminated to people and other stakeholders due to rigid and buearcratic publication procedures. In addition, there are also a lot of problems that demoralize researchers; exorbitant fees and delays on publication dates. Machakos University Journal of Science and Technology provides unique opportunities to the researchers, academicians and professionals by minimzing such publication bottle necks.

The efforts, commitment and dedication by members of the editorial board towards the publication of this first issue of the Machakos University Journal of Science and Technology journal in acknowledged.

Prof. Peter N. Mwita
The Chief Editor

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Significance of Social Media in The Kenya Tourism Industry

Rose Achieng' Agalo

Abstract

The emerging significance of Social media in the tourism industry are increasing. Social media have changed the way tourists explore, search, book and experience travel. Most operations and transactions are currently carried online. With the increasing number of users, social media platforms are seen to have a significant influence in the tourism industry. This paper examines the significant role social media plays and how service providers in the Kenyan tourism industry can utilize them to their advantage. Kenya is ranked among the top tourism destinations in Africa. It is an income generating sector and for example, contributed to 9.7% of the Country's GDP in 2017. It is also one of the key sectors in the Kenyan economic pillar of vision 2030. In the financial year 2017/2018, Kenyan tourism arrivals grew by 6.8 % while tourism receipts posted a 9.9% growth of Ksh 117.6 Billion. Hence social media in the Kenyan tourism industry is envisioned as a means of reaching prospective tourists, showcasing emerging destinations within the Country, and newly improved tourism products. Such use will further improve Kenya's tourism global visibility as well as create increase in tourism arrivals.

Keywords: *Social media, tourism, tourism destination*

Introduction

Tourism is the world's largest industry with over a billion travelers generating $1.4 trillion dollars export earnings in 2013 worldwide (WTO, 2018). This is due to the establishment of a more affordable and democratic global tourist industry particularly in terms of transport and accommodation. Development of infrastructures that attract tourists has proven to be a catalyst for economic development especially employment. Other than employment, other benefits of tourism include increased standards of living for local residents, increased incomes, development of infrastructure and preservation of heritage sites. Majority of tourists (52%) travel to enjoy leisure time, the other (27%) travel for business purposes, visiting family and friends, religious pilgrimage or to receive health treatments (WTO, 2014). The utilization of social media in the tourism industry prompted this study to analyze the significance of social media in the world's largest industry.

Social media, is a group of internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of web 2.0 (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010:61). (O'Reilly, 2005) lists radical decentralization, radical trust, participation instead of publishing, rich user experience, the web as a platform, users as contributors, collective intelligence, remixing data, attitudes, better softwares by more users and undetermined user behavior as the main Characteristics of Web 2.0. Today, the use of social media in the tourism industry is on the rise. It has enhanced communication role in many aspects of tourism. It is particularly useful in information search, decision-making behaviors, tourism promotion and in focusing on best practices for interacting with prospective tourists.

Social media is a new phenomenon globally and, the increasing use of social media platforms by tourists leaves little option for tourism stakeholders in Kenya for not using social media platforms for creating tourism awareness. Surprisingly, the power of social media networks as a tool for creating tourism awareness remains to be fully harnessed by the tourism industry in Kenya despite the abundance of opportunities presented by social media.

Certainly the power of the tourism product is more than ever consumer-driven. Consumers demand what they want from tourism destinations. Their expectations are higher and subsequently they are much more difficult to impress (Buhalis Law, 2008).with this view, we see advanced communication technologies enabling tourism destinations to be efficient, flexible and collaborate more in providing for consumer demands (Lange-Faria & Elliot, 2012)

Social media has 3.196 billion, active users. Facebook leads with 2.234 billion users, YouTube 1.9 billion users, and WhatsApp 1.5 billion users (Chaffey, 2018). Trip advisor, one of the largest social media reviewing platform for tourism, travel and hospitality businesses and establishments has 6.6 million businesses and properties in 135,000 destinations, and 255 new contributions are posted every minute worldwide. (Fact Sheet, 2016). These statistics prove that social media is indeed in dominant use in the tourism industry.

Kenya has been divided into various different sections that represent different tourism circuits. A tourist circuit is defined as a route on which at least three major destinations are located such that none of these are in one town, village or city. At the same time, they are not separated by a long distance and should have defined entry and exit points (Cullinan, et al in Chowdhary, 2014). Destination Kenya is a combination of all the tourism circuits all of which have unique attractions. The tourism circuits include Nairobi circuit, Central Kenya circuit, Coastline circuit, Eastern circuit, Southern circuit, North Rift circuit, South Rift circuit and the Western circuit. (Ktb.go.ke, 2019)

Concept of Social Media in the Tourism industry.

Based on social theory (Fuchs, 2015) social media communication has key constitutive features in the modern society which include: integrated sociality, integrated roles and converging communication on social media.

Social media enable the convergence of the three modes of sociality (cognition, communication and cooperation) in an integrated sociality. One step does not necessarily lead to another level of step. However digital technology has the potential to combine all the three activities on a social media platform. For example, a tourist on cognitive level may post a video on facebook, others then comment (communicative level) and can go further to manipulate and remix the content to give rise to a new content with multiple authorship from the original author.

Tourists have different social roles such as employees, consumers, family members, and citizens. However on social media, all these roles become mapped onto a single profile observed by different people who are associated with the different social roles. Certain social media platforms such as facebook, instagram and twitter are based on creation of personal profiles that describe one's various roles of life. This makes social media platforms social

places in which social roles tend to converge and become integrated in single profiles (Fuchs, 2017).

Social media platforms enable integration of different forms of sociality and social roles to serve a myriad of possible social purposes that a single social media platform can serve. Tourists use social media platforms for searching and communicating information relevant to their travel while tourism destinations use it for creating awareness.

Discussion

Social media provides tourism destinations a platform for promoting their products and services. It also presents various avenues for service providers in the tourism industry to grow their market share and build relationships with their consumers. This study argues for the incorporation of social media into the daily media communication routine of service providers in the Kenyan tourism industry. Constant online interaction between service providers and their prospective consumers boosts their visibility on various social media platforms across the globe. Similarly, the study also emphasizes on the integration of social media strategies in communication operations of service providers as a means of enabling them derive value from social media. The approach makes social media is a valuable tool for tourism promotion but ofcourse with potential consequences. Having online presence on multiple social media platforms without a clear strategic approach poses a number of challenges making it difficult to effectively measure social media returns on investments .(Lardi & Fuchs, n.d.) Social media strategy will guide actions of service providers in tourism industry and also act as a measure to determine whether it bears success or failure in social media usage.

Increase in tourism arrivals, both international and domestic as a result of promotion of various destinations via social media promises to lead to economic empowerment of Kenya citizens at large. In the financial year 2017/2018 in Kenya, tourism arrivals grew by 6.8 % while tourism receipts posted a 9.9% growth of Ksh 117.6 billion. Revitalized marketing efforts which included digital marketing was among the key drivers for Kenyan tourism rrowth in 2018. (Ktb.go.ke, 2018).The first Millennium development goal (MDG) advocates for poverty eradication yet travel and tourism industry stands to play a major role in poverty eradication through job creation and other economic opportunities. Tourism is a labor-intensive industry compared to other industries. It has low employment barriers to entry for and usually includes a wide range of enterprises that provide development opportunities to the local community economy. Its workforce majorly comprises of high ratios of youth and female, hence promoting women empowerment and youth employment. This is in line with the third MDG goal which emphasizes on the need to empower women.

Social media platforms are therefore processual frameworks for transmitting information to large audiences. It does this in partially new ways such as uploading videos and posting photos on social media platforms increasing online presence of service providers in the Kenya tourism industry. This improves the visibility of destination Kenya. Globally, there are 3.397 billion active social media users. Facebook leads by 2.271 billion users, youtube, 1.5 billion users and WhatsApp 900 million users (Brandwatch, 2018). Social media in Kenya has recorded an impressive number of active users. Facebook, has 7.1 million active users, YouTube 8 million, Instagram 4 million, Twitter and Linkedin have 1 million each (BAKE, 2017).

These are common social media platforms out of many others making social media platforms a promising audience for service providers in the Kenya's Tourism industry. Owing to the fact that it is free to create social media accounts since none of the largest platforms have any sign-up fees for a service provider to open accounts. Social media has become a cheaper option for enhancing visibility among tourism service providers unlike traditional advertising.

Again customer feedback plays a vital part in customer management. Through social media, service providers in the tourism industry are able to listen to the market and monitor customer impressions. This leads to co-creating new products and services with tourists, engaging tourists using various social media platforms as well as servicing tourists through social media.

Currently, the way tourists search for and evaluate travel information is changing. Information regarding destinations and service providers is available at the touch of a button. Social media platforms allow for collaboration and online sharing of information. User generated content (UGC) enables tourists to submit , review, and respond to online content (Gretzel, 2007). It is an effective form of consumer to consumer e-marketing. Due to the intangible nature of the tourism industry a prospective traveler tends to rely more on information supplied by other people through UGC on social media platforms. The rising popularity of social media sites has made more tourists to rely on social media platforms for information search to make informed decisions about destinations to visit and service providers.

Conclusion

Service providers in the tourism industry should take advantage of using social media platforms to promote their products and services globally. They should also have meaningful content on their social media sites to enable tourists acquire rich information while searching for information and making decisions regarding destinations to visit

A social media strategy is also vital for service providers in the tourism industry. It lays out the basic framework of operations and engagements on social media platforms. . A good formulated strategy is what makes a service provider unique and well positioned in the target market in order to attract prospective tourists and leverage off competitors.

The Ministry of Tourism is mandated with creating effective policies that promote the Country's tourism industry, creating a conducive environment for tourism businesses to operate in and to lobby investors to invest in capital projects designed to attract tourists and green investments in the tourism industry that promote sustainable tourism. Through the use of social media, the Ministry of tourism will be able to promote tourist attraction sites in Kenya as well as service providers in the tourism industry. The ministry of tourism should also put in place a social media framework that guides tourism within the Country while giving current updates of tourism activities enjoyed in the Country.

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Factors Associated with HIV Affected Clients' Behavioral Practices and Health Outcomes

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Abstract

A three year cohort study in Machakos County captured the behavioural practices of HIV affected clients undergoing treatment at Comprehensive Care Centres in Machakos and Athi-River hospitals. Selection of 131 HIV infected persons was done on first come basis and interviews conducted after signed informed consent. Thirteen categories of treatment choices were exhibited by HIV infected clients. The HIV treatment using herbs, prayers and tethered Nutrition, ARVs and Septrin, social support and laboratory testing was studied alongside others e.g Micronutrient bioavailability, biodiversity and health outcomes. Tethered group exhibited a 45% improvement in ARV adherence, and a corresponding 45 % of the HIV infected Clients improving to a viral load of non detectable level. Some 14 of 131(10.7%) were still awaiting their viral load results. There was a (8 of 131) 6.1% using multivitamins formulations to boost their appetite. A group optimizing on the recommended diet biodiversity were 59 of 131 (40.04%) and 9 of 131(6.9%) eating nine+ foods daily. The basis for micronutrients and functional Biochemical reactions integrated and tethered on dependent factors leads to restoration to normal of biochemical metabolic reactions in the body thus cure for HIV infected person as the ARVs destroy the HIV virus. The Syndemics interplay of external environment, micronutrients, adhered diets and Metabolism as well as tethered targeted epidemiological interventions resulted to a tethering therapy procedure improving the health of HIV infected persons. This paper presents a paradigm shift for establishment of tethered social and spiritual support as well as counselling, tethered ARV adherence, micronutrient biodiversity and bioavailability and Nutritional supply.

Key words *:- Tethered, Behavioural, Syndemics, Nutrition,Bioavailability and Biodiversity.*

Introduction

Over 36 Million individuals are currently living with HIV /AIDS, 95% of whom are from developing countries, assuming that each HIV /AIDS case directly influences the lives of four other individuals a total of more than 150,000,000 people are being affected by the disease. Thus, it is of great importance to address the issues arising from HIV mortality and morbidity, and such information will be useful for planning and development. A high cost is expended in the disease's surveillance, prevention, and control and therefore an endeavor to lower the cost of spending on the same is timely.

On HIV/AIDS Food and Nutrition Security, there are impacts and actions required in planning as was highlighted by Stuart Gillespie in May 2001. It is estimated that Asia will overtake Sub-Saharan Africa in Absolute numbers between 2010 and 2020, and Asia will be the HIV/AIDS epicenter.

Justification

AIDS is caused by a Pathogen called HIV of retroviral Genus. This virus can change from RNA to DNA. It has a Single stranded RNA molecule with a reverse transcriptase enzyme and surface membrane proteins. It is transmitted from human to human by contact with blood or body fluids from infected persons through sexual intercourse (major), blood transfusion, mother to child through placenta, delivery, and breastfeeding, cuts, wounds and sharing of sharp objects.

It is highly infectious and presents itself severely leading to high mortality and morbidity from symptoms of opportunistic infection due to immune-suppression.

AIDS though preventable has no cure but there are Antiretroviral drugs used to reduce viral loads. The risk of HIV and other diseases has drastically worsened due to co-infection with Tuberculosis Bacillus (TB) varying widely with regions. The risk of Tuberculosis among HIV-infected persons is closely correlated with the number of CD4+ lymphocytes. An estimated rate of active TB among HIV-infected persons was at 6.9 per 100 persons. The development of TB among HIV/ AIDS clients increases the mortality of the HIV Positive clients. It has also been shown that in Sub-Saharan Africa, a significant number of new cases of TB and recurrent cases of TB result from recent transmission attributed to HIV pandemic. In 1994 survey results showed that 40% of registered TB cases were known to have HIV.

Diarrhoea is a common secondary infection among those living with HIV/AIDS. The characteristics of the infection include purging of watery stool. At times the stool is bloody. Diarrhoea can be persistent, may have other symptoms like vomiting or fever. If untreated, the cases suffer dehydration, electrolyte imbalance, acidosis, circulatory collapse or even death. Diarrhoea is the commonest cause of death in Africa. Diarrhoea is a problem for many people with HIV /AIDS as reported by Food Agricultural Organization in 2005. Diarrhoea is a symptom of infection by bacteria, viral or parasitic enteric agents. Unsafe water contributes to high infant mortality rates. There is lack of a basic infrastructure and women and children are forced to spend more hours daily fetching clean safe water for drinking, washing, and other household chores compared to the more developed countries. Poor and non-poor

depend on river water while urban populations use piped water. This leads to exposure to pathogenic organisms that cause opportunistic infections mostly to those living with HIV.

A wide range of food borne diseases affect most developing countries. However, with poor or non-existing reporting systems in most countries, reliable statistics on these diseases are not available. Their magnitude is therefore difficult to estimate.

Yearly over 3 million children die as a result of diarrhea diseases while some 1500 million episodes occur under the age of five. Many more millions die from the combined effects of diarrhea and malnutrition. Even children who are HIV negative but born to HIV-positive mothers have a greater risk of developing recurrent bouts of diarrhea. Contaminated water supplies of food play a major role as source of pathogens. It is estimated that up to 70% of cases of diarrhea diseases may be caused by contaminated food. Both TB and HIV affect the most economic and productive age group of 15-45 years. Thus diarrhea attributed to HIV will also affect this group of people. The most affected age groups (15-45years) are the most economically productive age thus a decline in family income and our country's GDP

Study Design and Methodology

A cohort study was carried out in Machakos County involving a participatory process undertaken by researchers, healthcare staff and patients (HIV affected clients) to capture the behavioural practices of HIV affected clients receiving Comprehensive Care Centres in Machakos and Athi-River hospitals.

The interplay of herbs, prayers, Nutrition, ARV drugs and other healthcare Matrix components for HIV infected clients undergoing treatment was studied. The Bioavailability and Biodiversity exhibited by HIV infected clients while undergoing HIV treatment and management was explored in relation to health outcomes.

Results

A study group consisting of willing 131 HIV infected persons was selected on first come first served basis and interviewed after informed consent was obtained and signed and followed up for three years. There was a 45% improvement in ARV adherence, and a corresponding 45 % of the HIV infected Clients improving to a viral load which is non detectable level. 14 of 131 were still awaiting their viral load reference Laboratory test confirmations. There was a (8 of 131) 6.1% using formulated multivitamins to boost their appetite. Those optimizing on the recommended diet biodiversity were 59 of 131 (40.04%) and 9 of 131(6.9%) eating nine+ food species. There were 13 categories of treatment choice groupings of HIV infected clients. Although a National Food Composition Tables and the Planning of Satisfactory Diets in Kenya exists, it was not well availed and disseminated to nutritionists and is hardly used at the CCCs in Kenya. Swellings were noted in different parts of the body of some few clients creating a need to get a Cancer test and treatment if found positive. Some complications with scurvy like symptoms may have resulted to nutritional and micronutrient deficiency associated disorders. Some cases also suffered ARVs' regimens allergies and toxicities while others forgot to take the ARVs and antibiotics as scheduled introducing antibiotic resistance complications. HIV treatment and Management guidelines are used for effective HIV surveillance at the CCCs.

Discussion

The patients Metabolites levels were not routinely tested though Multivitamins, Micronutrients as well as diets were recommended and in use by some of the clients. For persons suffering from other bacteriological infections, culture and drug sensitivity testing was required during standard laboratory diagnosis. Majorly, direct fecal-oral route transmission is by ingestion of contaminated water, food or both. For such patients especially those with diarrhea, rehydration therapy was used for restoration of lost fluids and electrolytes while antibiotics were administered to combat bacteriological infections. Those persons who are infected with HIV experience a compounded challenge especially in counties with Limited access to safe drinking water and Poor sanitation especially in Kenya among other African countries. Poverty and food scarcity compounded with ignorance and poor micronutrient bioavailability intensifies ill health outcomes even when the HIV infected clients adhere to ARVs.

When one is infected with HIV,vthe body starts to experience a drawdown of metabolites since the virus begins to change from RNA to DNA. It has a Single stranded RNA molecule with a reverse transcriptase enzyme and surface membrane proteins which require extra provision of substrates, enzymes, cofactors and specific ionic mediums and energy all tied up to nutritional intake as well as micronutrients supply and availability during Metabolism. While Potassium, sodium, Sulphur, Nitrogen and oxygen are required for energy provision and should be restored to normal balance for the sodium potassium pump to operate well, Calcium and selenium are important for normal bones and nervous transmission. Magnesium is a key component for proper cell membrane formation while Zinc boosts immunity and all these are prevalent in especially seeds of edible fruits e.g water melons, quavers and also in cashew nuts and deep green leafy vegetables. The liver and spleen also do contain B 12 useful for detoxification of the body. There is thus an information gap among people living with HIV on metabolites and micronutrients' benefits to the body and which foods one can eat so as to avail them in our body systems. Tethering of the learned and established habits to the new replacement therapies, habits and rewards must be done and explained to tie the recoveries so that they can be restored to gain sobreighty and health.

Even when micronutrients are availed in fortified foods, there is no current information to guide users on when one should know that they are about to exceed body requirement. This calls for consistent monitoring of metabolites levels in the body systems for those using micronutrient fortified foods thus assure safe levels use and avoid toxicity. During metabolism, there is a principal called substrate or product inhibition of a biochemical process. The excess product at times inhibits the forward reaction and thus the reverse takes place reducing the product but raising the level of the substrate. These reactions also depend on the catalytic effect of the enzymes which work together with cofactors. For the utilization of Zn in the body, copper should also be present and therefore this dependency or inhibition can occurs depending on how much of each micronutrient is present.

Some of the micronutrients are not supposed to meet because they complex with each other and precipitate thus causing lack of what was taken into the body thus affecting timing of intake especially for ion containing foods. Fortified foods should also be routinely monitored

to guide users on safe combinations that one can take so as to avoid toxicity due to use of excess fortificants. This is clearly explained by the full Biochemical Pathways and somehow natural foods were made in a way that by the time one eats to their full, the levels balance themselves automatically and that is why the HIV infected person should have their biochemical pathways restored before they revert back to health. This is how the tethering assures the HIV infected client to access certain foods only at certain times as well as ARVs and helping them routinely should adhere to treatment and biodiversity and bioavailability so as to retain a restored normal biochemical balance for wellness. The emotional and spiritual state of the HIV infected client too should be restored to normal otherwise they cannot retain a schedule required for treatment. If they can visualize themselves getting well, then they can develop a goodwill towards the schedule of treatment and recommended biodiversity.

Conclusion

The correlation of syndemics is the basis for micronutrients and functional Biochemical reactions integrated and tethered on dependent factors that lead to restoration of biochemical metabolic reactions in the body thus cure for HIV infected person as the AVVs destroy the HIV virus. This tethering was further explored for the three years resulting to the development of a therapy procedure which improves the health of persons who are infected with HIV. This procedure basically requires a paradigm shift for establishment of tethered social and spiritual support, tethered ARV adherence as well as tethered micronutrient biodiversity and bioavailability and tethered Nutritional supply.

Provision of counselling services coupled with tethering results in treatment of HIV positive patients. The theory used in this treatment is names natural social support theory developed by Muindi Serah while providing counselling services to HIV infected patients in this work over three years. This theory can also simply be known as the Back to Health implementation matrix for HIV infected persons to God be all the glory.

Recommendations

Those undergoing HIV treatment should have their Metabolites and toxins monitored routinely and any use of micronutrients and food fortificants also routinely Monitored. A multisectoral approach should be adopted for HIV diagnosis, treatment and management and should include Spiritual Ministers, psychologists, Biochemists, Epidemiologists, Caterers, Nutritionists, Health educators, Nurses, clinicians and laboratory personnel as well as community health workers support teams.

Tethering should be emphasized as a tool for improving adherence to Biodiversity[8], bioavailability, social and spiritual support, ARV use as well as optimizing use of discussed HIV infected patients' Laboratory results

This Back to health implementation Matrix for HIV infected persons /Natural Social Support (Muindis'theory) should be further disseminated and adopted for use in Kenyan Comprehensive care centres and beyond. The National Food Composition Tables and the Planning of Satisfactory Diets in Kenya in existence should be reviewed availed and disseminated to nutritionists and used at the CCCs in Kenya.

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A Review of Literature on Local Community Participation Towards Sustainable Tourism Development in East Africa.

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Abstract

Tourism is a major contributor to global economic growth, hence it has been earmarked for the achievement of the aspirations of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. As a result, UNWTO has partnered with governments, private partners, international and regional finance institutions and other organizations to realize sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). One of the SDG goals is to promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all by 2030 by devising and implementing policies to promote sustainable tourism. Impliedly, inclusivity of local communities is critical to the achievement of the aspirations. Ironically, literature contends that local communities lack participation opportunities in decision-making relating to tourism and experience inadequate financial, social and vocational benefits from projects that commercially exploit their resources. Therefore, this study reviewed the extent to which local communities participate in sustainable tourism development. This study adopted a qualitative approach by reviewing and analyzing existent literature on the topic under study. Based on the literature, the findings of these studies reveal that local communities participation in tourism is coercive, a low form of participation which denies the local communitymore opportunities to participate in key policy and decision making process. This study concludes that local community participation towards sustainable tourism development is more coercive and induced than spontaneous. Besides much participation is associated with socio-economic pillar of sustainability at the expense of the ecologic pillar. In addition, several personal and environmental factors influence local community participation. Consequently, this study proposed an integrated framework of factors which influence local community participation that can be used in East African countries. However, a quantitative study is recommended to investigate the reliability and the extent to which the framework can be applied in the Kenyan tourism destinations.

Key words:*community participation; Local community; Sustainable tourism development;tourism*

Introduction

Tourism has been earmarked for the achievement of the aspirations of the 2030 agenda for sustainable development, hence UNWTO has partnered with governments, private partners, international and regional finance institutions and international organizations to realize the sustainable development goals, one of which is to promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all by 2030 by devising and implementing policies to promote sustainable tourism development (UNWTO 2014).

The World Tourism Organization (WTO) (1998: 19) defines sustainable tourism development as "tourism which meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunity for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social, and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity, and life support system." (ETE/ UNESCO 2009).

In other words, sustainable tourism development is ecologically sustainable, economically viable as well as ethically and socially equitable. More specifically, sustainable tourism development is summarized under the following four main principles: communities' wellbeing; protection of the natural and cultural environment; quality tourism product development and tourist satisfaction and adaptive management and monitoring. More precisely, sustainable tourism development supports and ensures the economic, social and cultural well-being of the communities in which tourism takes place. Secondly, sustainable tourism allows the use of natural and cultural resources for gaining economic profit while at the same time guaranteeing that such resources, both natural and cultural are protected and the maintained. Thirdly, sustainable tourism development is anchored on the quality of tourism products offered by a region and is characterized by material criteria like the quality of transport, accommodation and food, but also by non-material criteria like hospitality and experiences. Lastly, sustainable tourism development depends on the application of adaptive management and monitoring of tourism activities to ensure that tourism is developed in a way which is ecological, economic and socially sustainable (ETE/ UNESCO 2009).

On the other hand, local community participation in tourism is defined as the involvement of all local people and other stakeholders in the formation of programmes or policies that would assist to change their communities (Phiri 2009).Studies (Arnstein 1969; Pretty 1995; Tosun 2006) posit that local community participation in tourism projects is key to the achievement of sustainable development agenda both at the international and national fronts. According to Mugizi, Ayorekire&Obua, (2017) some of the positive socio-economic contributions of tourism towards sustainable development agenda can be realized through tourism revenue earnings, creation of employment opportunities, employment quality, balance of payment, local prosperity by reducing leakages, community wellbeing, social equity, biological diversity and resource efficiency.

However, according to Murphy (2013) one important factor to consider in order to sustain the socio-economic contributions forsustainable tourism development is the need to involvelocal community participation in the development process. In as much as local community participation contributes toecologically sustainable, economically viable and socially equitable tourism development, studies (Nsabimana 2010; Muthuri 2012; Muganda, Sirima, &Marwa, 2013;Mugizi*et al.,*2017) assert that there is little local community participation in tourism planning and development.

Besides, most studies focus on importance and the extent of local community participation rather than the factors that influence such participation (Tosun 2006). For instance, Nsabimana (2010) study focused on the extent to which communities are involved insustainable tourism development and conservation activities in Rwanda while Muthuri

(2012) focused on factors hindering local community participation in tourism development in Kenya. Mugandae*t al*., (2013)study extensivelyfocused on therole of local community participation in tourism development in Tanzania.

From the studies reviewed, it's evident that several factors influence local community participation towards sustainable tourism development. Mugande*t al.,* (2013) reckons that the local community perceptionstowards their participation in tourism projects is imposed on them. Consequently, a knowledge gap exists between what local community thinks of their roles in sustainabletourism development is as opposed to their imposed roles.

Besides in most developing countries, interferences from authorities in local community tourism projects and little consultation between the government and local community in key decision making seem to be rampant. For instance, in Kenya the findings of a study carried out in Kimana Community Wildlife Sanctuary around Amboseli National Park, point out interference from the government in bid to control the sanctuary (Ondicho 2012).

More often, the decision and policy making processis top down and mostly dominated by the government, private sector and /or NGOs (Scherl& Edwards 2007).Deriving from the Doxey's Irritation Index model (1975),little consultation between the government and local community may cause local communities to demonstrate misgivings about tourism when they are less involved in key decisions. This may eventually develop into irritation expressed either verbally or physically against tourists. Nsabimana (2010) and Muthuri (2012) underscore that little consultation between the government and local community leads to resistance to tourism which may results into illegal activities by the local communities against tourism.

Mugizi*et al.,* (2017) notes that a heterogeneous nature of the communities presents unequal opportunities and different expectations in the participatory approach to tourism planning and development.Mugizi*et al.,* (2017) expounds that while some local community members may have little information about tourism, others may lack the resources to benefit fromtourism activities hence, they may be prone to manipulation and exploitation from the privileged. For instance, there are cases in Kenya wherecommunal pieces of land of local communities around tourism protected areas are managed by foreigners, which has caused resource use conflicts (Okello 2011).

Based on the literature reviewed, there seems to be a myriad of factors which influence local community participation in sustainabletourism development. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine Therefore, this study reviewed the extent to which local communities participate in sustainable tourism development. The study was guided by the following research objectives

Research Objectives

To identify the level of local community participation towards sustainable tourism development in East Africa

To identify factors that influence local communities' participation towards sustainable tourism development in East Africa

To propose a framework for local community participation towards sustainable tourism developmentin East Africa.

Literature Review

According to UNEP & UNWTO (2005) sustainable tourism development requires the informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, as well as strong political leadership to ensure wide participation and consensus building. Achieving sustainable tourism is a continuous process and it requires constant monitoring of impacts, introducing the necessary preventive and/or corrective measures whenever necessary.The main focus of sustainable tourism development is firstly, to make optimal use of environmental resources that constitute a key element in sustainabletourism development, maintaining essential ecological processes and helping to conserve natural resources and biodiversity. Secondly, sustainable tourism development aims at enhancing respect to the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, conserve their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values, and contribute to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance. Lastly, it ensures viable, long-term economic operations, providing socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders that are fairly distributed, including stable employment and income-earning opportunities and social services to host communities, and contributing to poverty alleviation (UNEP & UNWTO 2005).

For this study, sustainable tourism development was conceptualized as economic, social, and ecological sustainability of the tourism resources (ETE/ UNESCO 2009). More specifically, the social dimension was measured by community wellbeing and social equity, while economic dimension was measured by employment quality, reduction of leakages and economic viability. In addition, ecological dimension was measured by biological diversity and resource efficiency(UNEP & UNWTO 2005).

On the other hand, there has been a lot of literature on local community participation in sustainabletourism development activities. As a concept local participation is regarded as a bottom -up process that empowers marginalized groups thus providing them with opportunity to have a say and greater control over decisions and activities that affect their lives and well-being (Scheyvens, 2007).

In order to conceptualizelocal community participationin sustainabletourism development, community participation model propounded by Tosun (1999a). Later on in 2006, the model was reviewed in relation to other models from other disciplines such as developmental studies hence, a more comprehensive model was developed. Since then, Tosun (2006) model has widely beenin tourism studies.

Tosun (2006) model is a combination of Arnstein(1969) and Pretty (1995) models of community participation which focused on participatory development approaches in development studies. According to Arnstein (1969) citizen participation is the redistribution of power that enables the have-not Citizens to be deliberately included in the future. It is the means by which they can induce significant social reform, which enables them to share in the benefits of the affluent society. Arnstein(1969) approach was in terms of a ladder or typology of citizen participation including eight levels, which are classified in turn among three categories relative to authentic citizen participation. While the lowest category represents

manipulative participation, the highest category refers to degrees of citizen power. The middle category indicates degrees of citizen tokenism.On the other hand, according to Pretty's (1995) typology of participation, local participation is a critical factor to the success of development projects. As such, development projects and programmes implemented by Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs) and governments need to incorporate a strong aspect of local community participation. Each level of participation allows for differing degrees of external involvement and local control, and reflects the power relationships between them.Self-mobilization is the most crucial of all the seven categories because without it the local communities would not have a platform to make meaningful contributions to decisions that are made to guide the implementation of development programmes that benefit them. Clearly, the benefits received by local communities from tourism and related activities will depend on the extent to which they have been involved and the equitable manner in which the benefits have been shared.

Tosun (2006) model takes a participatory approach to tourism to facilitate implementation of principles of sustainable tourism development by creating better opportunities for local people to gain larger and more balanced benefits from sustainabletourism development taking place within their localities. This results into more positive attitudes to tourism activities and conservation of local resources, and increases the local communities' tolerance to tourism. These could ensure both visitor satisfaction and ongoing benefits for the residents of destinations areas. More specifically, there are 3 typologies of community participation in tourism. The typologies are classified as spontaneous, induced and coercive (Tosun 2006). Firstly, spontaneous participation refers to an ideal mode of local community participation which provides full managerial responsibility and authority to local community (Tosun1999a). Spontaneous level of participation represents situations when the local community has full control and authority (Sakhile&Tembi 2017).

Secondly, induced community participation in tourism is perceived to be the best type of participation as the local community is allowed to hear and be heard. They have a voice in the sustainabletourism development process, but they do not have power to ensure that their views will be taken into account by other powerful interest groups such as government bodies, multinational companies, international tour operators, etc. Therefore, it seems to denote level of tokenism. This type is the most common mode to be found in developing countries where a local community only endorse decisions regarding tourism development issues made for them rather than by them (Tosun1999a).

Induced community participation is top-down, passive and indirect in the sense that local communities may participate in implementation and sharing benefits of tourism, but not in the decision making process. This level of participation implies that the local community has no autonomy to influence decision-making. This is often referred to as top-down approach. Lastly, coercive participation is realized when some of the decisions are made to appease the local community by meeting a few basic needs, so as to avoid socio-political risks for sustainabletourism development (Sakhile&Tembi 2017).

Lastly, coercive participation is manipulated and contrivedas a substitute for genuine participation. Thereal objective is not to enable people to participate in sustainabletourism development process, but to enable powerholders to educate or cure host communities to turnaway potential and actual threats to future of sustainabletourismdevelopment. Some decisions may be taken to meetbasic needs of host-communities by consulting localleaders so as to reduce socio-political risks for touristsand sustainabletourism development. Although it seems thatsustainabletourism development is to take place based upon hostcommunities' priorities, it is heavily skewed towards thefostering and development of tourism, and would primarily be concerned with meeting the needs anddesires of decision makers, tourism's operators andtourists.

Figure 2.0 illustrates the typologies of community participation as modified by Tosun (2006)

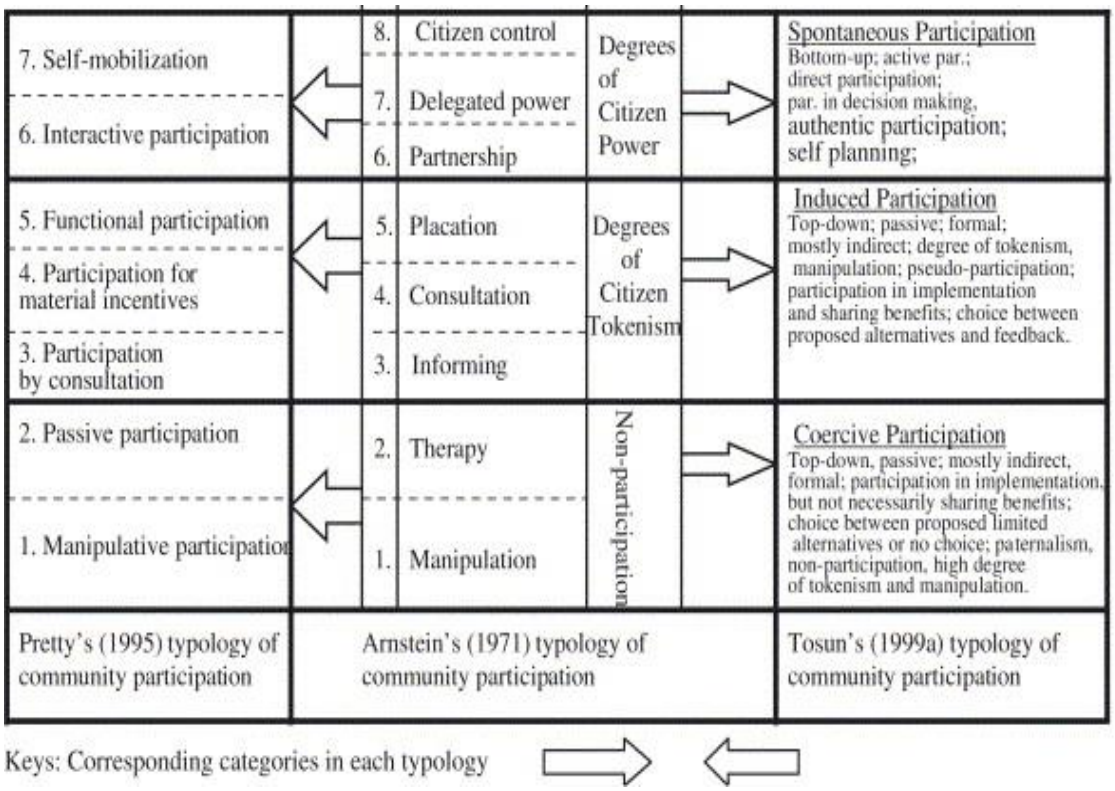


Figure 2.0: Community Participation

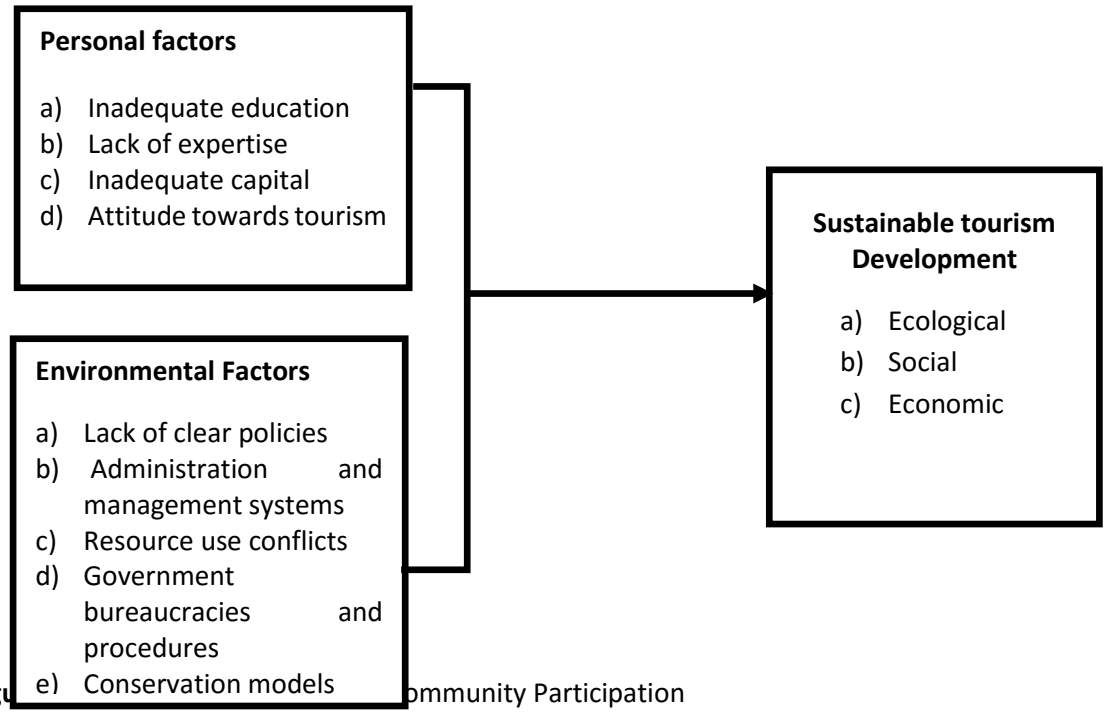
Tosun(2006).

In as much as Tosunmodel (2006) is widely used in studies of local community participation in tourism, it has some limitationswhich relate to centralization of tourism administration, attitudes of professionals towards tourism, lack of human and financial resources as well as dominance of the elite in tourism activities, hence creating an impression that tourism programmes often benefit those with the capacity to participate in the planning, development and management of tourism which is not often the case. The capacity is what has been referred to as self-mobilization because it empowers the local community to make and execute decisions (Tosun 2000).

Besides, the model falls short of the explanations on why and how the different levels of participation exist. It is significant to examine understand factors which may result into the typologies in order to enhance local community participation in sustainabletourism development. However, there are various factors that can lead to spontaneous, induced and coercive participation. Such factors may result from individual personal issues to more complex systematic and structural issues. The individual personal issues may be within the local communities' ability to influence them while the systematic and structural issues may be resultant from the environment in which they operate in.

This study proposed a model of such factors as shown in figure 2.1

Proposed model for the study



Figu ommunity Participation

Modified from Nsabimana(2010); Muthuri(2012); Muganda, *et al.,* (2013) and Mugizi*et al.,* 2017).

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted content analysis research design. It tooka qualitative approach by reviewing previous studies on local community participation towards sustainable tourism development.

Table 2: Summary of reviewed studies

	Title& Authors	**Findings of previous studies**	**Methodology**
1	The role of local communities in tourism development: Grassroots perspective from Tanzania Muganda,, Sirima, &Marwa, (2013)	Local people views on their role indicated that they think that they should be involvedin policy formulation and decision making the process; financially supported and be made 'watchdogs' in development issues. Illiteracy, limited capacity due to lack of education, lack of knowledge and skills were cited as some of the factors affecting involvement in tourism activities Decision making and policy formulation is still top-down and passive, not only in Barabarani area, but Tanzania in general.	Mixed method approach Data collected between June-august 2008 Questionnaire, survey and observation tools used Sample size: 139 households from a population of 2480
2	Factors that influence local community participation in Tourism in Murchison falls conservation area in Uganda Mugizi, Ayorekire&Obua, (2017)	Majorly, participation is at coercive level, attributed to the nature of tourism employment opportunities such as security guards, trail maintenance, casual labourers, waiters, tour guiding and attendants in craft shops and restaurants. Highest level of participation is functional, which involves activities such as advising community tourism groups, representing communities on discussion platforms for conservation issues and providing leadership in Community BasedTourism Enterprises. None of the participation is at self-mobilization level due to limited education, lack of capital to support independent initiatives or inadequate support from donor agencies.	Sample size: 335 households randomlyselected Data collected by use of questionnaires and interviews.
3	The extent of community involvement in Tourism Development and conservation activities in Eastern Rwanda Nsabimana, (2010)	There is little participation in economic activities such as employment (though in low numbers for menial jobs) Local community operate small scale businesses such as curio shops, Hardly involved in process of decision making and policy formulation.	Data collected by use of questionnaire and interviews Research Design: exploratory

		Policies regard local residents as dormant participants who need to only be informed and economically assisted, (less valued as partners in decision making processes).	
4.	Factors hindering Kawiru Community participation in tourism development in Meru National Park, Meru County Muthuri, (2012)	Lack of Community-Based Organization Locals not effectively involved in the management of parks. Poor knowledge on tourism, high illiteracy levels, financial constraint and negative attitudesaffect participation No clear policies which engage locals and challenge illiteracy	Cross sectional descriptive design T/Popln.19,679, sample frame: 1,800 and sample size 126. Questionnaires, observation interviews

Results and Discussion

Based on the analysis of the previous studies it is apparent that communities have not been involved adequately insustainabletourism development in spite the fact that they form an integral part of sustainabletourism development agenda. Studies (Nsabimana 2010; Muthuri 2012; Mugandae*t al.,* 2013; Mugizi*et al.,* 2017) have indicated several factors which influencetheir participation in sustainable tourism development. The factors are both personal andenvironmental.

Personal factors such as inadequate education, lack of expertise, inadequate capital to operateand negative attitude towards tourism may affect the level of participation. The findings coincide with Ondicho (2012) and Okello(2011) studies whichunderscored that thatmost often, local communities education is inadequate and hence the reason why most locals areleft to do seasonal unskilled jobs. This eventually degenerates intolocal community intolerances to tourism conservation. In addition, lack of expertise creates room for interferences from the government, private non local investors and the local elites who take advantage of the locals and control some of the local community based initiatives. Negative attitude towards tourism is occurs whenthere is delayed compensation for destruction and death of the locals caused by human wildlife conflict and the failure to benefit from tourism.

On the other hand, lackof clear policies on how to engage the local communities in sustainabletourism development, less effective administration and management systems where most decisions are centralized and resource use conflictsare major factors which affect local community participation in sustainabletourism development. In addition, competing interests between otherstakeholders and the local communities, government bureaucracies and procedures (which cause delays in compensation of reported human wildlife cases) also affect local community participation. The other factor noted to have an influence on local community participation in sustainabletourism development is the conservation models adopted by parks.

These findingscoincide with Okello (2005) which asserted that management systems adopted by the central government in decision making process is often top down, marred with bureaucratic and cumbersome procedures especially when it comes to compensation for human wildlife conflicts. Besides, the conservation models adopted for instance, by theInternational Union for Conservation of Nature Category II Park model which has been criticized for displacing people, outlawing human settlement and designating resources as 'protected' have worked against local community participatory approach to sustainabletourism development.Other findings (Scherl& Edwards 2007) also emphasizes that the decision and policy making process is classically top-down and is dominated by the government, private sector and/or NGOs.

Furthermore, Okello (2005) pointed out that resource use conflict, especially in cases where there is conflict of interests for instance between the government (e.g. through Kenya Wildlife Service, (KWS)and the local community in a projectcan influence participation. For instance, most often KWS interest in a community based tourism projectis creation of space for wildlife dispersal, the private investors' interestis profitmaximization, while the local elite's main interest is reported to be mainlyas being swindling of funds from the projects for personal gains (Okello2005). This scenario leaves the local community in a situation of little benefit from what is supposed to be their resource.

Conclusion

Apparently from the reviewed literature, local community participation towards sustainable tourism development is more focused on the coercive and induced form than spontaneous. Besides much attention of participation is associated with socio-economic pillar of sustainability at the expense of the ecologic pillar.There seems to be more subtleinitiatives and policies which encourage local community conservation practices. Moreover, due to the low form of participation, the local community are more prone to negatively interfere with conservation activities, which threatens ecologicalsustainability. In addition, personal and environmental factors influence the participation of local community in sustainable tourism development. These factors if well addressed by stakeholders canpositively influence local community participation at all levels. However, for generalization of the findings of this study, there is need for further research using more quantitative methods of analysis.

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Welfare Initiatives and Their Roles on Job Stability of Catering Employees in Selected Universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya.

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Abstract

The study sought to establish welfare initiatives and their roles on job stability of catering employees in selected universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya. The study covered aspects of efforts, programs, services, benefits and facilities provided by the universities to their catering employees. The study also covered the aspects of concerned with roles of welfare initiatives on job stability such as; employee's sense of being valued, employees' attachment, improved performance, fringe benefits, employees' commitment, talents retention, hard work, competency, a sense of ownership, employees loyalty, employees satisfaction and a sense of fulfillment. The study was descriptive covering a stratified sample of 189 respondents drawn from 300 employees. Data was collected through self-administered questionnaires and an interview guide questions. The respondents agreed with the provision of uniforms, medical facilities, clean safe working station and employee's assistance with means of between 1.5 to 2.5. However, with a mean of between 3.5 to 4.5, they strongly disagreed that, they are provided with welfare initiatives; meals allowance, long service grants, paid holidays and recreational facilities. Moreover, with a mean of 2.57, the respondents were neutral with the provision of; sufficient number of toilets (2.57) and housing facilities. The results of standard deviations were as follows; leave policy (1.53), sporting facilities(1.24), regular salary increment (1.37), comprehensive pension policy (1.35), sufficient number of toilets (1.08), meals allowance (1.25), long service grants (1.15), canteen facilities (1.04), counseling service (1.12), paid holidays (1.30), recreational facilities (1.09), well maintained restrooms (1.13), medical facilities (1.02), employee's funeral assistance (1.32) and transfer assistance (1.37) had a standard deviation >1, implying that, there was a significance variance. Housing facilities (0.99), uniforms (1.00) and a clean station (0.94), had a standard deviation <1, meaning, there was no significance variance and hence consensus in responses. With a mean of 1.86 and a standard deviation of .979, majority agreed that welfare initiatives make them feel valued by their universities. 86.2% agreed that, being valued makes them more attached to their universities. A majority of the respondents (86.8%) held that, welfare initiatives allow employees loyalty. It is evidenced with a mean of 1.93 and a standard deviation of .716 that, welfare initiatives enables employees to work with passion and fulfillment. The findings demonstrated with a mean of 1.81 and a standard deviation of 0.820 that, welfare initiatives enables employees to continue working with their organizations.

Key Words; *Welfare Initiatives, Welfare Benefits, loyalty, employees satisfaction, psychological contract, and employees fulfillment.*

Introduction

Employees often find reasons to stay with an employer who cares for their personal and professional welfare. Therefore, universities need to carry out structured welfare initiatives to support employees and their families. This is to enhance their quality of work life. In this context, employees welfare initiatives refers to all efforts, programs, services, benefits and facilities provided by the universities to enhance job stability and quality of work-life of university catering employees. According to (Omonijo, Oludayo, Eche, Uche, Ohunakin, 2015) majority of employees are no longer comfortable working in an institution of higher learning without adequate fringe benefits. Universities mainly comprises of Teaching and non-teaching staff.

According to (Azeem and Quddus, 2014), when we use the language of "human anatomy", the ''non-teaching staff'' is the "Central nervous system" of a 'human body", in this context, 'the university". University catering employees are a part of this 'Central nervous system" of the body "University". Therefore, the success of a university as an organization is dependent on the believe of the employees, that their well-being is taken care of (Eisenberger and Stinglhamber, 2011).

According to (Njeru, Moguche and Mutea, 2017), employees are directly influenced by the nature and quality of welfare services. As such employee's welfare services should be adequately competitive and focused towards solving the real needs of the employees. This concurs with (Ruby, 2012) who postulated that, the welfare of workers is a crucial factor that contributes to the success of an organization. According to a report by (University of Nairobi, 2013). The well-being of a university staff is vital for the realization of the vision and mission of the University. This is further demonstrated by (Owence, Pinagase and Mercy, 2014), who stated that, employees valued benefit encourages job stability.

According to a report by the (University of Sussex, 2012) welfare initiatives includes; safety advice, private medical insurance, sporting facilities, a supermarket, staff library facilities and the on-campus health center, child cares, campus cafes, on-campus banks and staffs accommodation. The Pakistan study by (Khan, 2014) demonstrated welfare initiatives to include retirement benefits, job security. In India, employee's welfare is advanced in legislations such as (Insurance Act, 1948), and the (WCA Act, 1923). This rule provides for welfare benefits such as; lockers, seats, first aid, an ambulance, sickness, maternity, dependent's funeral and medical benefits (Ravindra, 2013). The government has further provided the catering establishment act of 1958, which regulates the conditions of persons working in catering establishments (Government of Tamil Nadu, 2014).

The Nigerian study by (Omonijo, Oludayo, Eche, Uche, Ohunakin, 2015) in a faith- based institution of higher learning in South-West Nigeria found out that the following welfare initiatives are offered; house allowance, medical allowance, paid holidays, pension scheme, subsidized meal, transportation, annual salary increment, time off, on-campus

accommodation, in service training and sick leave. Bagudu,Usman and Ibrahim (2013), studied staffs turnover among state owned institutions in Nigeria, and found out that, employee's welfare include better working environment, accommodation, staff schools, medical facilities, salaries and fringe benefits. Kenya legislations provide for employee's welfare in (KEA, 2007) cap 226 on rights and duties in employment. It provides for hours of work, annual, maternity and sick leaves, housing, water, food and medical attention. The (OSHA, 2007) provide the guidelines for safety, health and welfare of workers (GoK, 2007). The (WIBA, 2007) and the (NHIF, 2007) act provides for leaves transformational and recreational facilities for the employees.

According to (Kenyatta University, 1995) development plan, staff welfare includes housing, medical services, insurances, pension schemes, loans, restaurants, banks and multi- purpose halls. A study by (Akala, 2012) on factors that influence employee's retention among the non-teaching staff at the university of Nairobi, classified employee's welfare into physical and emotional welfare. Physical welfare include health, safety, paid holidays and reduced working hours while emotional welfare include counseling services. According to (CUNY, 2009) employee welfare initiatives include basic health plans such as prescription drug plans, dental plan, hearing aid benefit, disability benefits, extended medical benefit, retirement benefits, health benefits, leaves and free interest loans. A study by (Bosibori, Nyakundi, Munene and Walter, 2012) demonstrated that, employee welfare secures labour and include housing, medical, canteen and recreational facilities. According to (Dennis, 2012), welfare policy stem from measures to improve health and safety, paid holidays, reduced working hours and mental well- being of employees.

Statement of the Problem

A management research report by (Saji, Tarek, and Mohammad, I.T., 2013); found out that, most staff members were dissatisfied with the level of facilities (transportation, medical, vacation) provided to them and to their families. This means that, they are inadequate (Ngaruiya, Nyandega, Origa and Ondundo, 2015), one of the challenges brought by massification of universities are inadequate staff welfare and inadequate staffs. The current welfare initiatives are selective as demostrated by (Odeku and Odeku, 2014) who demonstrated that, managers increase their welfare at the expense of their subordinates. It is also clear that, the current welfare initiatives do not address the real needs of employees and are not determined with the active participation of employees. This negates the principles of employee's welfare service as demonstrated by (Ananthi, Narmatha, Murukesh and Periasamy, 2016) that, employee's welfare services should satisfy the real needs of employees and they should be determined with the active participation of all the workers.

Research Hypotheses

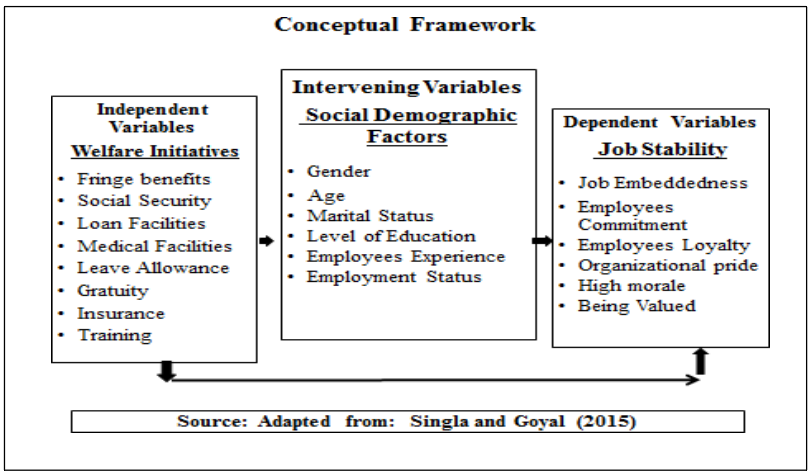
H1: Welfare initiatives are not used by catering employees in selected Universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya.

H2: Welfare initiatives have no significant role on job stability of catering employees in selected Universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya.

The Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework shows the relationship between the independent variables(welfare initiatives); fringe benefits, social security, loan facilities, medical facilities, leave allowance, gratuity, insurance and training and the dependent variables (Job stability) as represented on its key facets of; employees commitment, job embeddedness or attachment, organizational pride, high morale and being valued. Intervening variables were the social demographic factors (Gender, Age, Marital status, Employees experience and Employment status).

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Frame work



LITERATURE REVIEW

Welfare Initiatives and their Roles on Job Stability of Catering Employees

A study by (Omonijo, Oludayo, Eche, Uche, Ohunakin, 2015) at a private based institution of higher learning in South-West Nigeria, demonstrated that, majority of the respondents (86.6%) were not comfortable working in an institution of higher learning without adequate fringe benefits. Thus, there is a need to improve the current welfare initiatives so as to align them with employee's real needs. This is not only to make them comfortable but also to improve their standards of living. According to (Amirnejad and Asploor, 2016) effective provision of staff welfare facilities is hindered by many different needs of employees. Thus there was a need to know these welfare initiatives and classify them according to different cadres of employees and into different university staff categories. This is to make them play their roles effectively.

According to a report by the (University of Sussex, 2012) welfare initiatives includes; safety advice, private medical insurance, sporting facilities, a supermarket, staff library facilities and the on-campus health center, child cares, campus cafes, on-campus banks and staffs accommodation. The Nigerian study by (Omonijo, Oludayo, Eche, Uche, Ohunakin, 2015) in a faith- based institution of higher learning in South-West Nigeria found out that the following

welfare initiatives are offered; house allowance, medical allowance, paid holidays, pension scheme, subsidized meal, transportation, annual salary increment, time off, on-campus accommodation, in service training and sick leave.

Kenya legislations provide for employee's welfare in (KEA, 2007) cap 226 on rights and duties in employment. It provides for hours of work, annual, maternity and sick leaves, housing, water, food and medical attention. A study by (Akala et al., 2012) on factors that influence employee's retention among the non-teaching staff at the university of Nairobi, classified employee's welfare into physical and emotional welfare. Physical welfare include health, safety, paid holidays and reduced working hours while emotional welfare include counseling services. According to (Owence, Pinagase and Mercy, 2014), employees valued benefit encourages job stability. According to (Beheshtifar and Mojtaba, 2013), commitment of employees can be increased by giving them fringe benefits.

The Psychological Contract Theory

The theory is based on employee's sense of fairness, trust and belief between the employer and the employee that each is fulfilling his part of the bargain. Each of the party is obligated to fulfill his role to ensure continuity of the exchange relationship between the two parties. In this theory, the employer has a role to provide social emotional rewards while the employee on the other hand has a responsibility to provide his skills, efforts and commitments towards accomplishment of the organizational goals. Psychological contract can be redefined to mean a mental agreement of what each party is to provide, and is categorized into transactional, relational and balanced contracts. Transactional contract is based on monetary exchanges such as bonus while the relational contract is based on non-monetary and social emotional factors such as employee's welfare initiatives. Meanwhile, balanced psychological contract is based open ended time flame and mutual concern of relational agreement with the performance demand and renegotiation of transactional contracts (Wangithi and Muceke, 2012).

Summary of the Literature Review and the Research Gap

Past studies evidenced that, employees are not comfortable working in organizations that do not provide adequate welfare initiatives such as fringe benefits as demonstrated by (Omonijo, Oludayo, Eche, Uche, Ohunakin, 2015). Therefore there is a need to make them adequate and to align them to different occupations. Earlier studies are not clear on how to make welfare initiatives comfortable and adequate. According to (Amirnejad and Asploor, 2016) effective provision of staff welfare facilities is hindered by many different needs of employees. Thus there was a need to know these welfare initiatives and classify them according to different cadres of employees and into different university staff categories. This is to make them play their roles effectively. The literature review has revealed that, the current welfare initiatives are not regularly revised and there is a need to do so (Ndila, 2010). It is therefore evident that, the current welfare initiatives are not updated and are no in a position to address the current needs of university catering employees.

Methodology

The research study used the descriptive research design to find out welfare initiatives used in universities and their roles on job stability. The design has quantitative and qualitative approach methods which established welfare initiatives and their roles on job stability of catering employees working in universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya. The study was carried out in catering departments of 5 out of 46 university campuses in Nairobi City County Kenya (Commission for the University Education, July, 2016). The target population comprised of 300 university catering employees within the area of the study. The population was heterogeneous, thus, stratified sampling was done in selecting the respondents of the study and simple random sampling was used to select university campuses of the study.

Table 1.1: Summary of Sampling Technique

Technique	**Area applied**	**Justification**
Simple Random Sampling	Selected University Campuses from in Nairobi City County	Equal chance of being selected to represent the sample
Stratified Sampling	Selected individual respondents	Equal representation of catering employees working in university catering departments

Sample Size

A total of 189 respondents participated in the study as shown on summary distribution of the respondents.

Table 1.2: Sample Size

Participants	**Population**		**Sample Size**
University Catering Employees	300	63%	189
Total	**300**		189

The sample size of university catering employees was determined using Israel's (1992) sample size calculation formulae as shown;

Equation 1:	
$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e)2}$	**Where : N** = population **e** = precision rate at 5% (0.05) **n** = sample size

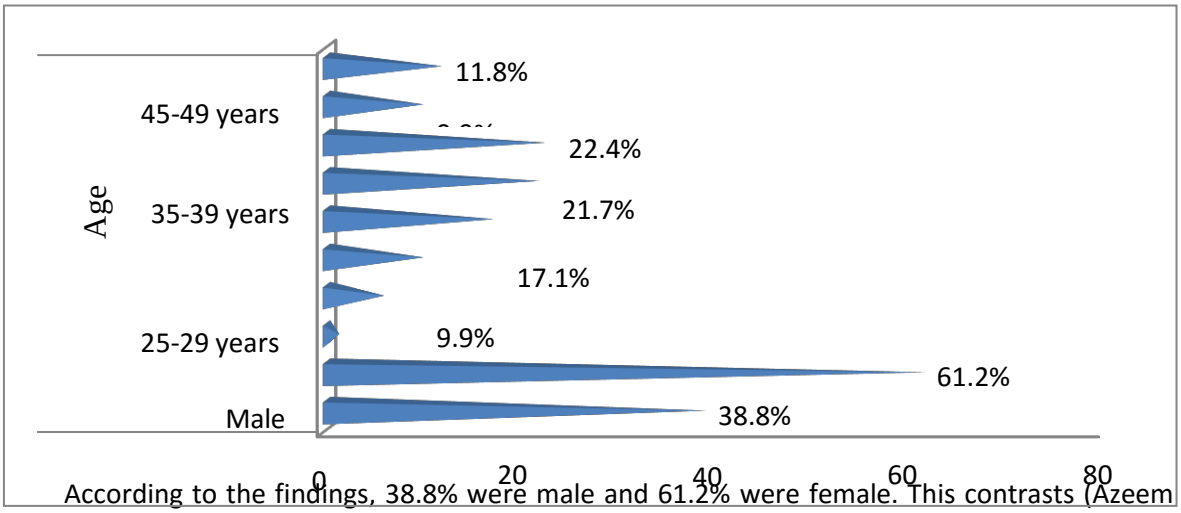
RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This section represents the analysis, findings and discussions of the study. The main objective was to explore welfare initiatives and their roles on job stability of university catering employees in Nairobi City County, Kenya. The findings presented include; response rate, demographic profiles, welfare initiatives and their roles on job stability. The study targeted a total of 189 respondents who were the catering employees of selected universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya.

Demographic Characteristics of the respondents

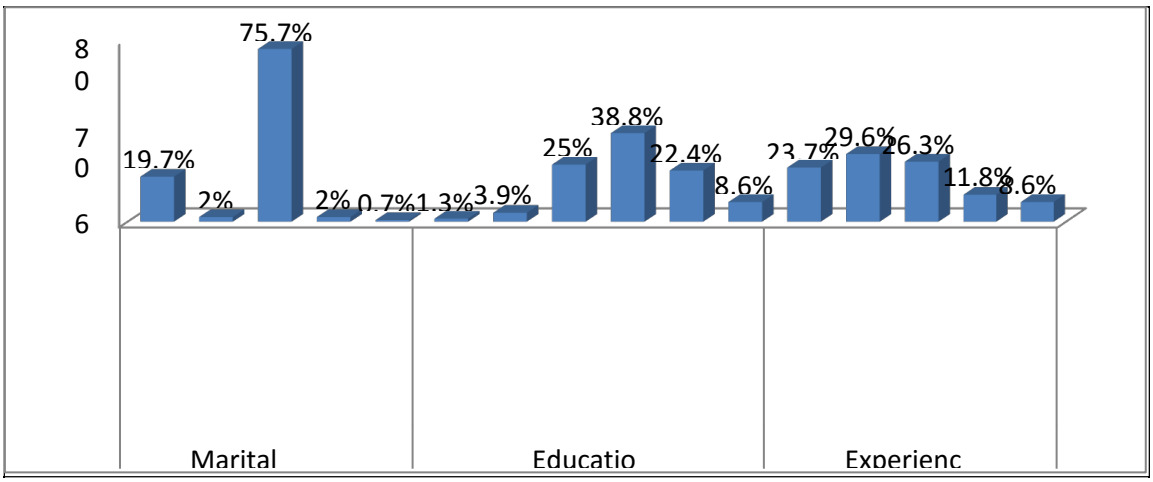
The study sought employee's demographics and the findings were presented as shown;

Gender and Age of the respondents



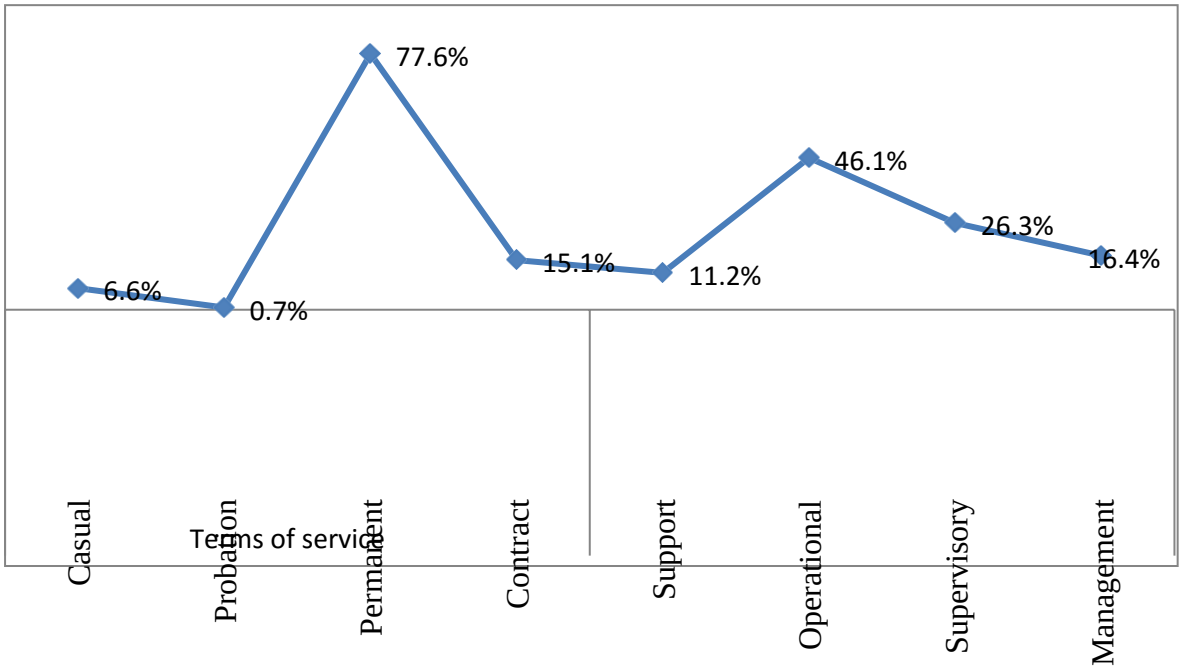
According to the findings, 38.8% were male and 61.2% were female. This contrasts (Azeem and Quddus, 2014) study conducted in Maulna Azad National University which found out that, majority (71.4%) was males. Most of the respondents 22.4% were aged between 40-44 years while the minority 1.3% had an age of below 20 years.

Marital Status, Education level and Employees Experience



The majority of the respondents (75.7%) were married while minority 0.7% was of the opinion that, marriage is not applicable. This concur with (Kosgey, Mutai and Lagat, 2018) where 89% of the respondents were married. Meanwhile, majority (38.8%) had a diploma as the highest level of education while the minority (1.3%) held a primary level certificate. The study revealed that, majority (29.6%) had an experience of between 5-9 years while the minority (8.6%) had an experience of >20 years of age

Terms of Service and Level of Employee in Organization Structure



Majority of the respondents (77.6%) were employed on permanent terms of service while the minority (0.7%) was on probation. In terms of their levels in organizational structure, majority (46.1%) described themselves as operational while minority (11.2%) described themselves as support staffs.

Table 1.3: Welfare Initiatives.

	Mean	Std.Deviation
My organization has a high satisfactory leave policy	3.14	1.53
Sporting Facilities are provided for employees	3.22	1.24
Regular salary increment is offered to employees	3.03	1.37
My establishment has a comprehensive pension policy	3.73	1.35
Sufficient number of toilets are provided for the employees	2.57	1.08
Meals allowance is provided to the employees in your establishment	4.02	1.22
Long service grants are provided to the employees	3.97	1.14
My establishment provide canteen facilities to employees	2.62	1.04
Counseling services are provided by my establishment	2.72	1.12
Housing facilities are provided by the establishment	2.57	0.99
My establishment offer paid holidays to the employees	3.97	1.30
Recreation facilities are provided in my establishment	3.61	1.09
There are well maintained rest rooms in my organization	3.01	1.13
My establishment offer medical facilities to the employees	2.28	1.02
My establishment provide us with uniforms	1.86	1.00
My working station is safe and clean	1.84	0.94
Employees are assisted when their family members pass away	2.68	1.32
Employees on transfer are facilitated to settle down	3.07	1.37

The respondents agreed with the provision of uniforms, medical facilities, clean safe working station and employee's assistance with means of between 1.5 to 2.5. However, with a mean of between 3.5 to 4.5, they strongly disagreed that, they are provided with welfare initiatives; meals allowance, long service grants, paid holidays and recreational facilities. Moreover, with a mean of 2.57, the respondents were neutral with the provision of; sufficient number of toilets (2.57) and housing facilities (2.57). The results of standard deviations were as follows;

leave policy (1.53), sporting facilities(1.24), regular salary increment (1.37), comprehensive pension policy (1.35), sufficient number of toilets (1.08), meals allowance (1.25), long service grants (1.15), canteen facilities (1.04), counseling service (1.12), paid holidays (1.30), recreational facilities (1.09), well maintained restrooms (1.13), medical facilities (1.02), employee's funeral assistance (1.32) and transfer assistance (1.37) had a standard deviation >1, implying that, there was a significance variance. Housing facilities (0.99), uniforms (1.00) and a clean station (0.94), had a standard deviation <1, meaning, there was no significance variance and hence consensus in responses.

Role of employee's welfare on job stability of university catering employees

The study sought to find out the role of welfare initiatives on job stability of university catering employees. The respondents were asked to rate the elements on a scale of 1 to 5 ranging as 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=neutral, 4=disagree and 5= strongly disagree. A likert scale with five points was used to capture and interpret the responses. Those elements those were not considered to have any role on job stability were awarded number 5 while those which had a strong significant role were awarded number 1, those which had a fairly significant role were awarded number 2 while 3 was awarded neutral. Meanwhile, those awarded 4 had no role on job stability while those awarded 5 had no role at all. The summary of the elements tested was as shown on the table below;

Table 1.4: Role of Welfare Initiatives on Job Stability of University Catering Employees

	Mean	S.Deviation
Welfare makes me feel valued by the organization	1.86	0.979
Being valued makes me more attached to the organization	1.82	0.887
Welfare inspires employees to work better and harder	1.84	0.839
Fringe benefits enhances employees commitment	1.82	0.921
Welfare attracts and retains talent in the organization	2.50	1.483
Welfare inspires hard work and competency	3.68	2.712
Welfare enhances employees satisfaction	2.39	1.557
Welfare allows employees to take pride in their organization	1.32	0.769
Welfare allows employees loyalty	1.13	0.339
Welfare enable employees to work with passion and fulfillment	1.93	0.716

Welfare enables me to continue working with the organization	1.81	0.820
Welfare inspires me to work hard	1.78	0.745
Welfare enables me to work with passion and fulfillment	1.88	0.848
Valid N (listwise)		

Means were established and interpreted as follows; Means >4.5 implied strongly agreed, 3.5-4.5 implied disagreed; 2.5-3.5 implied neutral, 1.5-2.5 implied agreed, <1 implied strongly agreed. Standard deviations were also obtained and interpreted as follows; >1 implied: significance variance and lack of consensus while <1 implied, lack of significance variance in responses, 1, implied that, the responses were further spread out, >0.5 and <1, implied that, the responses were moderately distributed, while < 0.5 implied that, the responses were concentrated around the mean. From the findings, the respondents disagreed that, welfare initiatives inspires hard work and competency. The results indicated that, the respondents agreed that; welfare initiatives make them; feel valued (1.86), attached to their organizations (1.82), inspires them to work better and harder (1.84), enhances their commitment (1.82), attracts and retains talent (2.50), enhances employees satisfaction (2.39), enables employees to work with passion and fulfillment (1.93), enables them to continue working in their universities (1.81),inspires them to work hard (1.78) and enables them to work with passion and fulfillment (1.88). However, with means of 1.32 and 1.13 respectively, the respondents agreed that, welfare initiatives enables them to have pride in their organization and allows employees loyalty. The study findings concur with (Owence, Pinagase and Mercy, 2014), who stated that, employees valued benefit, encourages job stability. The findings also concur with (Mitchell, Holtom and Lee, 2001), who stated that, the closer the employees person views, values, and goals are to the organizational culture, the better the fit, and the "higher the likelihood that an employee will feel attached to the organization.The standard deviation results revealed that, apart from three elements (attracts and retains talent, (1.483), inspires hard work and competency (2.712) and enhances employees satisfaction (1.557) the other ten elements had a standard deviation of <1. This means that, a part from the mentioned three, there was no significance variance in responses, an indication of a general consensus among the study respondents.

Hypothesis: Welfare initiatives and their roles on job stability

The study determined the relationship between welfare initiatives and their roles on stability. The study tested the following hypotheses stated in null and alternative forms.

HO1: Welfare initiatives have no significant role on job stability of university catering employees in selected Universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya.

H11: Welfare initiatives have a significant role on job stability of university catering employees in selected Universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya.

To test the hypotheses, welfare initiatives were analyzed against their roles on job stability of university catering employees using the chi-square analysis. The chi-square was done to

establish whether they have a significant role on job stability of catering employees in selected universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya. A p-value of <5 was considered as significant and the results were as shown on table 1.5.

The findings presented an x2=8.855, df*=4 and the p=0.065 which is >0.05. With a significance level>0.05 (0.65), the alternative hypothesis (H1) was rejected. The results showed that there was no significant relationship between employee welfare initiative A and its role on job stability of university catering employees. The implication of x2 test result is that, a satisfactory leave policy cannot be attributed to its role on job stability of university catering employees.

In welfare initiative B, the results were X2=14.118, df*=4 and the p=0.007 which is <0.05, the significance level being <0.05 (0.007), the HO1was rejected. As a result the alternative hypothesis (H1) was accepted. This result showed that, there is a significant relationship between the employee welfare initiative B and its role on job stability of university catering employees. Here, the implication of x2 test result is that, sporting facilities are attributed to their roles on job stability of university catering employees. The same can be said on other welfare initiatives and their roles; in D to P whose results=0.000 and by default <0.005 and as a result their HO1 being rejected and by implication their H11 being accepted. Meaning, there is a significant relationship between welfare initiatives D to P and their roles on job stability of university catering employees.

Table 1.5: Hypothesis: Welfare initiatives and their roles on job stability

	Test Statistics	Chi- Square	value
A	My organization has a high satisfactory leave policy	8.855	.065
B	Sporting Facilities are provided for employees	14.118	.007
C	Regular salary increment is offered to	5.039	.283
D	My establishment has a comprehensive pension policy	47.276	.000
E	Sufficient number of toilets are provided for the	68.592	.000
F	Meals allowance is provided to the employees	98.789	.000
G	Long service grants are provided to the employees	82.671	.000
H	My establishment provide canteen facilities	70.895	.000
I	Counseling services are provided by my establishment	49.053	.000
J	Housing facilities are provided by the establishment	77.408	.000
K	My establishment offer paid holidays to the employees	98.592	.000
L	Recreation facilities are provided in my establishment	46.092	.000
M	There are well maintained restrooms in my establishment	71.355	.000

N	My establishment offer medical facilities to the employees	78.395	.000
O	My establishment provide us with uniforms	118.789	.000
P	My working station is safe and clean	123.921	.000
Q	Employees are assisted when their families pass away	9.645	.047
R	Employees on transfer are facilitated to settle	4.908	.297
S	Welfare enables me to continue working	150.566	.000
T	welfare makes me feel valued by the organization	128.855	.000
U	being valued makes me more attached to the	137.803	.000
V	Welfare inspires employees to work better and harder	141.553	.000
W	Fringe benefits enhances employees commitment	136.750	.000
X	Welfare attracts and retains talent in the organization	136.395	.000
Y	Welfare inspires hard work and competency	86.224	.000
Z	Welfare enhances employees satisfaction	194.684	.000
A2	Welfare allows employees to take pride in their	347.211	.000
B2	Welfare allows employees loyalty	82.526d	.000
C2	Welfare enable employees to work with passion and fulfillment	97.895e	.000

The implication of x2 test result is that, a comprehensive pension policy, sufficient number of toilets, meals allowance, long service grants, canteen facilities, counseling services, housing facilities, paid holidays, recreational facilities, well maintained restrooms, medical facilities, staff uniforms, a safe and a clean working environments are attributed to their roles on job stability of university catering employees. Their roles are shown on capital letters S to C2. This concurs with (Azem and Quddus, 2014) study on job satisfaction among the non-teaching employees of Central Universities in India, Hyderabad (University of Hyderabad and Maulana Azad National Urdu University), which found out that, welfare initiatives such as creches, construction of working women's hostels on the campus, incentive for working long hours and on holidays, reimbursement of medical bills and the reimbursement of tuition fees led to employees job satisfaction. On welfare initiative Q, X2=9.645, df*=4 and the p=0.047 which is equals to 0.05 when converted into 2 decimal places. Since this is not > or <0.05 (In 2 decimal places), the study can only attributed Q (employees assistance when their family members pass away) with job stability of university catering employees

Conclusions

The objective sought to establish welfare initiatives used in university catering departments in Nairobi City County, Kenya. The findings revealed that, with means of between 1.5 to 2.5, the respondents agreed that they are provided with welfare initiatives; staff uniforms, medical facilities, clean safe working environment and employees assistance. It is evident from the study that, with a mean of between 3.5 to 4.5, the respondents strongly disagreed that, they are provided with welfare initiatives; meals allowance, long service grants, paid holidays and recreational facilities. Moreover, with a mean of 2.57, the respondents were neutral with the provision of; sufficient number of toilets (2.57) and housing facilities (2.57).

Role of welfare initiatives on job stability of university catering employees

The objective sought to find out the role of welfare initiatives on job stability of university catering employees in selected universities in Nairobi City, County, Kenya. The findings revealed that, the respondents disagreed that, welfare initiatives inspires hard work and competency. The results indicated that, the respondents agreed that; welfare initiatives make them; feel valued (1.86), attached to their organizations (1.82), inspires them to work better and harder (1.84), enhances their commitment (1.82), attracts and retains talent (2.50), enhances employees satisfaction (2.39), enables employees to work with passion and fulfillment (1.93), enables them to continue working in their universities (1.81),inspires them to work hard (1.78) and enables them to work with passion and fulfillment (1.88). However, with means of 1.32 and 1.13 respectively, the respondents agreed that, welfare initiatives enables them to have pride in their organization and allows employees loyalty. The findings revealed that, there is a significant relationship between welfare initiatives D to P and their roles on job stability of university catering employees. The implication of x2 test result is that, a comprehensive pension policy, sufficient number of toilets, meals allowance, long service grants, canteen facilities, counseling services, housing facilities, paid holidays, recreational facilities, well maintained restrooms, medical facilities, staff uniforms, a safe and a clean working environments are attributed to their roles on job stability of university catering employees.

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Tourism Product Innovation: Positioning Meetings, Incentives, Conferences And Exhibitions, As A Strategy For Product Diversification In Beach Hotels of Mombasa County, Kenya

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Abstract

*The study purposed to investigate Meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions, abbreviated "MICE" as an important element of tourism product innovation and diversification in Kenya. This paper had specific reference to the Beach Hotels in Mombasa County in the Kenyan Coast, which has traditionally offered vacation and leisure tourism product. As one of the major sectors within the global tourism industry, MICE have long been recognized as a sector that gives direct and indirect revenue for host destinations, creates employment opportunities and generates foreign exchange. As a consequence of all these major characteristics, the number of destinations vying for this industry is increasing (UNWTO, 2014). This study adopted a census approach while data collection took a two pronged approach. A validated questionnaire was administered to the respondents while a focus group discussion was held with selected hotel owners from the county. Results from this study indicate that during the period of focus 50% of the study hotels offered incentive tours while 33% offered exhibitions and trade fairs. The proportion of MICE earning compared to the total earning in the beach hotels grew from 21% in 2013 to 51% in 2017. The study found that 38% of the hotels are increasing their marketing targeting MICE, 31% are investing in developing their facilities. Seventy percent of the respondents said that the MICE product need diversification as an opportunity for growth as well as income to cushion the hotels during the seasonal fluctuations of the leisure tourism. Results showed that 60% of the hotels have not exploited their advantage of being on the beach to offer more incentive tours. The study recommends that beach hotels address **new** and **existing** innovations and technological solutions to diversify their businesses by offering products that incorporate business with leisure packages to be able to maximize on their revenue all year round.*

***Keywords**: MICE, Tourism product, innovations, Destination, Diversification, Beach Hotel., Revenue*

Introduction

Tourism has an economic relevance hence captivating attention from policy makers, researchers, business sphere of the tourism sector. It is one of the biggest and fastest growing industries in the world with international tourist arrivals reaching 1,135 million in 2014 (United Nations World Tourism Organization,2014). A report from the Kenya Tourism Board (2015) indicates that the tourism economy represents 5% of global Gross Domestic Product (GDP). International tourism ranks fourth (after fuels, chemicals and automotive products) in global exports, with an industry value of US$1 trillion a year, accounting for 30 % of the world's exports of commercial services or 6 % of total exports (UNWTO & International Labour Organization, 2014).

In Kenya, tourism has been the cornerstone of the economy, and a leading foreign exchange earner. The country earned Kshs 96 billion in 2013 while attracting more than 1.5 million tourists (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2014). The high tourism earning can be attributed

to diverse strategies adopted by the tourism industry which include seeking alternative tourism products (Kenya Tourism Board, 2016).

A report from the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) 2016 "Economic Survey", the number of international arrivals to Kenya fell every year from 2011, when it stood at 1.8m, through to 2015, when the figure was at 1.18m, before bouncing back to 1.3m in 2016. Tourism earnings followed the same trajectory, falling from KSh97.9bn ($955.2m) in 2011 to KSh84.6bn ($825.4m) in 2015.

According to the Kenya Tourism Board, (2016), this contraction was the result of perceived insecurity in the region, noting that arrivals to Mombasa had suffered the most in 2015: international arrivals fell by 41.1% to 59,194 between January and October 2015, down from 101,073 during the same period in 2014. The trend was further exacerbated by travel advisories announced throughout 2015, which included the key tourist centers. This study therefore explored innovations in MICE tourism as an alternative tourism product.

Statement of the Problem

Tourism in Kenya concentrates on traditional products of Wildlife (Safari) and Beach Tourism (sun, sand and sea). A World Bank Report "*Polishing the Jewel*" (2010), observes that tourism in the coast region Kenya constitutes the highest bed-night stays within the tourism sector, and has had several years of consistent growth however the sector was negatively affected by post-election violence of 2007/2008, charter flight cancellations, and a continuing drop in arrivals as global financial markets faltered.

According to *Kenya Vision 2030* a blue print for development in the country, there is need to diversify Kenya's tourism product in order to remain competitive. Various policy documents have advocated the need for tourism product diversification. With the challenges facing beach tourism, there is a need to look for other alternatives to attract and retain the tourists. This paper explored technological solutions and innovations that could enhance attendee experiences and make (MICE) tourism a potentially strong product line within the tourism sector in the coast region of Kenya.

Literature Review

The Mice Tourism Product

Global tourism industry is categorized as leisure tourism and business tourism (Swarbrooke and Horner, 2007). However, the two categories require the same infrastructures in terms of transport, accommodation, communication, entertainment, and information services (Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert, and Wanhill, 2008). The main difference between the two sub-sectors depends on the "type of services rendered the level of transport and accommodation" (Lickorish and Jenkins, 1999).

Business tourism quires special facilities and services such as a conference centres specialist contractors as reported by Swarbrooke and Horner, (2007). This sub-sector is also linked to leisure tourism as in some conferences social programmes of leisure activities are included (Swarbrooke and Horner, 2001). Dwyer and Forsyth (2008) asserts that MICE is one of the fastest growing sectors of the global tourism industry and generates millions in revenue annually for host destinations while creating a positive impact on the city image.

In Kenya, MICE tourism has been identified as one of the priority sectors and economic pillars that contribute towards the realization of Vision 2030 (National MICE committee & secretariat

2011). According to the Kenya Tourism Master Plan (GoK, 2005a), Kenya boasts of world class meeting places in addition to the traditional wildlife and beach attractions.

Economic Importance of Mice Tourism to Hotels

Hotels are perhaps the best known venues for meetings and conferences. They are especially popular when a residential venue is required. According to (Maingi, Odunga, Belsoy, & Nthinga, 2011) during the tourism slump of the 1990's, conference service suppliers especially hotels and resorts strategically positioned themselves to take advantage of this money spinning business. The boom from this complimentary revenue source was perceived as the *'Goose that lays the golden egg, when the hen was not producing'*.Hotels may supplement their role as accommodation and catering providers with that of suppliers for rooms where meetings are held. The attraction of offering conference facilities ranging from a single seminar room to a whole conference wing is easily explained since it often represents the opportunity to take advantage of underutilized resources and infrastructure. The National MICE Committee & Secretariat (2016) reported that residential conference increases occupancy and generates higher room rates than leisure tourism market.

Grass and Root (2011) reports that incentive tours have significantly grown with an increasing proportion of corporate clients utilizing within their incentive packages in addition Davidson and Cope, (2003) found that a significant number of hotels by their very design are well suited to responding to the need for incentive trips".The MICE sector alone in the United States of America generated $ 122.31 billion in total direct spending in 2004, making it the 29th largest contributor to the Gross National Product. These statistics were released by the Convention industry council's 2004, Economic impact study and cited by Maingi, Odunga, Belsoy, & Nthinga, (2011).

The National MICE committee & secretariat (2011) reports that Tourism in Kenya and in particular the MICE sub- sector has been identified as one of the priority sectors and economic pillar that contribute to the achievements of the goals contained in the Kenya Government's Vision 2030

Recent report by the Kenya Tourism Board (2017) indicates that Kenya has recorded steady growth in the Meetings, Conference, and Incentives industry. The MICE sub- sector welcomed 117,630 tourists to Kenya in 2015 indicating a remarkable 14% increase and giving a total contribution of 15.6% of the country's total international tourist arrivals. In 2016 alone, according to the report the MICE industry accounted for 13% of total international tourism arrivals; a large number consisted of business travelers.MICE tourism spending in Kenya contributed 32.5% of the total revenue and predictions by World Travel and Tourism Council (2017) shows a steady rise by 5.9% pa to Ksh 242.6 Billion by 2026.

Technological Innovations in Mice Tourism

Age - established methods of working may collide with innovations and new ideas. It is therefore important to overcome the hurdles of conducting business the traditional way in order for existing business to be innovative and push boundaries. The MICE industry is where old is meeting new (Nyameino, Bonuke, & Cheruiyot, 2015). MICE tourism has proved to be less susceptible to peaks and troughs of demand as the one experienced in leisure tourism. The spending is more evenly spread throughout the year. This has made it an attractive venture for hotels and destinations. It is evident that events have the capacity to be scheduled in periods of low tourism demand. According to Besteiro, (2003) "… Conference tourism has been an important factor for out of season diversification of tourism and economic development in Galicia, Spain.

Stevens and Wootton, (1995) found that MICE can boost a declining destination as is the case for Wales, which has been dependent on declining seaside holiday market and has chosen MICE as the more sustainable choice. A number of African countries have committed massive resources to construct conference rooms and exhibition facilities especially in the recent past. As reported by the World Tourism Organization (2014), MICE facility development is seen as an important way to attract much needed jobs and income to a number of areas outside urban centers. Several MICE destinations including Asia and Vietnam have since become the favorite among business travelers because of their world class convention centers that offer state –of –the-art facilities and exceptional services (World Travel and Tourism Council 2017).

Currently, the catalyst for advancement in business is technology. Sirirak, Islam and Khang (2011) found that Technology, such as artificial intelligence and virtual assistants are important for guest experiences and are increasingly becoming important for event venues as they are regarded as cultural shifts on consumer preferences.Technology is indeed changing both how events are planned and how attendees participate in the action. Facial recognition technologies for MICE tourism are faster, safer and also more unforgettable systems, because they make people remember any event (Shaham and Sajjad-ul-Aziz. (2012). Additionally the utization of augmented reality allows the projection of project data and images about things seen through a smart device, such as Google Glass or the screen on smart phones.

World Travel and Tourism Council (2016) indicate that well-equipped conference centers and high adaptation of technology has come in handy; to supplement the growing number of hotel conferencing facilities. The proposed a state-of-the-art Bomas International Conference and Exhibition Center in Nairobi with a capacity for 10,000, exhibition hall to hold 15,000 will go a long way in pushing Kenya as the continent's unrivalled MICE destination. Reports by Euro monitor international (2015) showed that terrorist threats had adversely affected Kenya's tourism industry. Repeated travel advisory against visiting the Kenyan coast has drastically reduced the number of tourists who have traditionally visited the region which is a popular destination.

Methodology

The population for this study comprised 29 resorts on the beaches of Bamburi, Nyali, and Shanzu which fall under the administrative boundaries of the Mombasa County. These are facilities that have direct access to the beach. Therefore the most important criterion in selecting this area was that it is a good representation of the leisure tourism in Kenya. The resort managers were the respondents for this study.

A survey questionnaire that consisted of a set of Likert-type scales multiple-choice items was developed. It included a grid to evaluate performance in terms of guest numbers and revenue trends of MICE activities and two open ended questions.

To test the questionnaire for reliability, a pre-test of 3 resorts that represented 10% of the total resorts was performed. Cronbach's alpha was calculated by Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 18.0 software. The result showed the questions was reliable (alpha= 0.76). The sample size for this study was therefore 26 resorts.

Data collection took a two-pronged approach. First, questionnaires were administered to the general managers in the study resorts, secondly a focus group discussion was held. Descriptive statistics and content analysis were used for data analysis.

Findings and Discussions

Respondents in this study listed the MICE activities held in their hotels during 2013 – 2017. Results indicate that in the period of focus, 2013 -2017 all hotels in this study held meetings and conferences. The meetings were organized as either galas or cocktails. This reflects an attempt to integrate business tourism within a primarily leisure environment. Conventions were the least MICE activities hosted by the hotels at 32%. These findings are consistent with previous research by Swarbrooke and Horner (2001), that found hotels to be the best known venues for meetings and conferences. Results indicate that 50% of the hotels hosted Incentive travel. Studies by Davidson and Cope, (2003) found that many hotels by their very design are well suited to responding to the need for a fantasy or exotic element in incentive trips. Hotels in this study were placed in into three categories according to bed capacity, those with less than 200 beds were regarded as small , those with not more than 400 beds big and those with more than 400 beds large. Results showed that meetings were the most popular activity during the period in focus where beach hotels in the small category hosted 50% of all the meetings, big beach hotels hosted 35% while large beach hotels hosted 28% of the meetings. Incentives, exhibitions / trade fairs were the least popular MICE activities to be hosted in small hotels between 2013 to 2017.

Hotels reported their respective capability to host MICE activities based on various indicators including, availability of seminar rooms, seating capacity of meeting rooms, size of largest meeting room in meters squared, availability of exhibition tents/kiosks, availability of flip charts, internet access, PowerPoint projector and public address systems in their respective meeting and conference venues. Results indicated that all beach hotels had at least one seminar room while the hotels with the most number of rooms had seven (7) meeting rooms. Meeting rooms capacity for the beach hotels studied ranged from a minimum of 60 people to a maximum of 1,700 people with the largest hall reported measuring 500m^2. Only 8.3% of the hotels had their own tents /exhibition kiosks available to MICE participants corroborating the earlier result that in the period considered, exhibitions and trade fairs were the least popular MICE activities in beach hotels.

This study sought to find out if there existed a relationship between hotel bed capacity (size) and the capacity to host MICE activities. The analysis considered bed capacity against number of seminar rooms and seating capacity for seminar and meeting rooms. Cross tabulations and

4.1: Cross tabulation of Bed Capacity against Number of Conference Rooms.

	No of Conference Rooms						
Bed Capacity		1	2	3	5	6	7
	Less than 200 beds (Small)	25.0%	50.0%	25.0%	0%	0%	0%
	201-400 beds (Big)	40.0%	0%	0%	20%	40%	0%
	> 400 beds (Large)	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	100%

Results from table 4.1 above indicate that beach hotels with less than 200 beds, had between 1 to 3 meeting rooms while the big hotels with less than 400 beds had 5 to 6 meeting rooms. On the other hand, larger beach hotels with higher bed capacity above 600 had more than six conference rooms.

These results pointed to an existence of a positive association between hotel bed size; its accommodation capacity and the capacity to host MICE activities, particularly meetings as indicated by number of conference rooms (r = 0.652. *sig*.0.030).

Length of Stay of Mice Clients in Beach Hotels In Mombasa County

Respondents were asked to report mean length of stay by Meetings, Incentives, and Conference and Exhibitions participants staying at their hotels between the years 2013 -2017. Table 4.4 below presents mean length of stay computed for the various MICE products in the beach hotels studied. Standard deviations are shown in parenthesis. Meetings participants stay ranged from 5.4 days to 6 days over the period, while conference participants stayed for 6.8 days in 2013 to 7.3 days in 2017. Incentive and exhibitions were held for less than three days in each of the five year period under consideration. Both meeting and conferences mean length of stay indicated a slight growth trend.

Table 4.2 Mean of length of stay of MICE Clients in Beach Hotels of Mombasa County 2013-2017.

	Mean Length of Stay (Days)			
Year	Meetings	Conferences	Incentives	Exhibitions
	5.4	6.8	2.2	2.0
2013	(1.90)	(4.72)	(2.04)	(2.12)
	6.6	9.1	1.86	2.6
2014	(3.89)	(8.55)	(1.86)	(2.6)
	5.4	7.4	2.6	1
2015	(1.51)	(7.19)	(2.30)	(1.50)
	7.0	8.6	2.4	3
2016	(3.48)	(9.16)	(3.05)	(3.32)
	6.0	7.3	1	3.2
2017	(1.00)	(6.56)	(0.95)	(3.42)

The slight growth observed (Table 4.2) in mean length of stay for Meetings, conferences and exhibitions in the Beach hotels corresponds to a period of significant improvements in the holiday and leisure tourism market. The Statistical abstract 2015 reports that 2014 recorded a marked 13.3% increase in international arrivals at all ports of entry compared to the previous year GOK, (2015). The national average length of stay for the disaggregated business tourism market which includes the MICE segment was reported at 19.3 days over the five year period from 2013-2017 (GOK,2018). The national average includes other segments that make up business tourism such as business travelers; a direct comparison with the disaggregated MICE activities in Mombasa beach hotels was not in the mandate of this study. However it was observed that MICE average length of stay for Mombasa beach hotels for the five year period was less than 8 days.

MICE Earnings as a Proportion of Total Revenue (2013 -2017)

Individual respondents were then asked to provide data on the Proportions of MICE activity revenues in relation to the total revenue for the Beach Hotels in Mombasa County - 2013-2017

Table 4.3: Modal Class of Proportion of MICE Revenues for the Beach Hotels in Mombasa County - 2013-2017

Year	Proportion (%) of respondents	Class of proportion of MICE revenues over total revenues
2013	44.4	21- 40%
2014	44.4	41 -50%
2015	40.0	41-50%
2016	30.0	> 51%
2017	60.0	> 51%

Results in table 4.3 above shows the modal classes of the proportion of MICE revenues over total hotel revenues for surveyed beach hotels in the five-year period. Findings indicate that there were increases in MICE activity revenue from 21- 40% in 2013 to over 51% of total revenues in 2017 indicating a progression of the significance of MICE activities contribution to beach hotel revenues over the five-year period. Studies by Besteiro, (2003) showed that Conference tourism was an important factor of promotion of out of season diversification of tourism and economic development in Galicia, Spain

Innovative Strategies to Drive the Mice Sub Sector in Beach Hotels Mombasa County

Data on innovative strategies that are likely to enhance the growth of the MICE activities in the beach hotel were analyzed using content analysis. The participants of the focus group discussion were selected event planners and owners of hotels with a beach front or their appointees. The focus group discussion concentrated on the innovative strategies for MICE tourism particularly in beach hotels. All the participants were in agreement that hotels in Mombasa County have heavily dependent on the declining seaside holiday market and that hotels with a beach front were also at an advantage of hosting events since the hotels may combine business travel with leisure.

According to Dwyer, (2002).) "… Conference tourism has been an important factor for out of season diversification of tourism and economic development in Galicia, Spain.

Over 80% of the participants said that events generate revenue and also provide an opportunity for growth as well as tourism products diversification. One of the event planners commented "it is not enough to have a hotel on the beach; hotels need to understand and move with the prevailing global event trends." Various themes were identified from the discussion including insecurity Facial recognition technologies, utilization of conference apps, development of convention facilities in hotels and attendee experiences.

The first item on the discussion was attendee security. Travel advisories due to insecurity in the region were identified as the major cause of reduced business in hotels. One hotel owner said "the hotels are on their knees due to insecurity". Ninety percent of the participants said that attendee security is an important issue for both meeting planners and venue owners. Security determines the mode of transportation, destination, and MICE activities for the attendees. Concerns about security and political stability of the destination influences meetings and event decisions (American Express Meetings & Events global meetings forecast (2016).

The discussion centered on various innovative opportunities that hotels and event planners can leverage on to maximize revenue and economic sustainability. Findings showed that there

is need to inculcate new and **existing** innovations and technological solutions to help the hotels in enhancing efficiency and attendee experiences in the meetings industry.

There is a growing expectation among the attendees that event planners and managers need to create higher levels of engagement and involvement so that the attendees can participate in the event conversation. UNWTO, (2014) reports that the younger generation tend to be less keen on traditional speakers and prefer engagement to instruction. Conference rooms in hotels should be equipped with facilities to encourage audience participation, convention apps may be used for a range of activities including attendee registration, checking event schedules, and submitting questions to speakers during the live events.

The participants were in agreement that there was a growing demand for "uniqueness." hotel should move away from traditional ways of event management. Findings from this study are consistent with a report by World Travel and Tourism Council 2017) pointing that several MICE destinations including Asia and Vietnam have since become the favorite among business travelers because of their world class convention centers that offer state –of –the-art facilities and exceptional services. Ninety percent of the participants were in agreement that "gone are the days where venues were only expected to be equipped with high speed internet connection a registration desk and an overhead projector'. It is therefore necessary that event planners and venues provide broadband internet access

Marketing is important for event organizers to increase the visibility of events in hotels. A participant from one of the beach hotels commented on the importance of using social media accounts for event marketing. Payment challenges were discussed and the participants recommended that new technology should be innovated that would make payments easier especially for global events. The FGD Participants were on the opinion that Kenya through the Ministry of Tourism should benchmark with leading MICE countries. Importance of tourism research was discussed and recommendations given.

Conclusions

The study concluded that Beach Hotels in Mombasa County have embraced the meetings and conference side of business and are focusing on not only marketing it more but also investing in facilities to increase their capacities. However the hotels have not exploited their capacity and advantage of being on the beach to offer more MICE products which they could most successfully perform since they already have a leisure component in their facilities. The importance of technological innovation for the sector is crucial if the hotels wish to match the global competition in services provision.

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How Much Does Labour Turnover Cost? A Case Study of Kenyan Small and Medium Tour Operators

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Abstract

The hospitality industry is a service-based industry, which is highly dependent on a customer-focused approach, and a motivated and knowledgeable workforce. Any shift in human capital therefore is viewed as detrimental as its long term success. Research postulates that employee mobility is a major cost and leakage of human capital. In addition, studies have shown that labour turnover affects organizational performance, customer quality and employee productivity. Despite the adverse effect of labour turnover on growth, survival and sustainability of organizations in the hospitality industry, there is limited research on turnover costs. This paper provides an understanding of the turnover rates and direct financial costs of labour turnover in small and medium tour operators. A descriptive research design was used. Primary data was collected using a self- administered questionnaire. Stratified sampling and simple random sampling technique were used to select 30 respondents. The target populations comprised of human resource managers and owner/managers of small and medium tour operators, which are registered with the Kenya Association of Tour Operators and operating in Nairobi and its environs. The study findings indicated that tour operators experienced acute turnover rates, which are much higher than the average turnover rate in service industries. The study findings also revealed substantial replacement costs are attributed to labour turnover in small and medium tour operators. The implications of these findings for managerial practice and suggestions for further research are discussed.

Keywords:-*Labour turnover, turnover costs, tour operators, SMEs, Kenya*

Introduction

The hospitality industry is a service-based industry, which is highly dependent on a customer-focused approach, and a motivated and knowledgeable workforce (Choi & Dickson, 2009). The industry relies heavily on employees in order to achieve its competitive advantage, and any shift in human capital can be detrimental as its long term success (Ton & Huckman, 2008; Chand & Katou, 2007; Harris, Tang & Tseng, 2002). Thus, labour turnover is considered a hindrance to competitiveness and efficiency in business operations (Long, Perumal & Ajagbe, 2012).

Research suggests that found that labour turnover increases economic losses and reduces job efficiency due to loss of valuable skills, experience, knowledge and "corporate memory" (Sut & Chad, 2011; Deery & Iverson, 1996). Furthermore, studies show that labour turnover compromises the quality and high standards of customer service, which negatively impacts on an organization's profitability and long term sustainability (Tracey & Hinkin, 2008). High labour turnover in the hospitality industry, if not addressed can be detrimental to an organization (). The study seeks to focus on labour turnover on small and medium tour operators. According to the stakeholders and HR managers, filling vacant positions in the hospitality industry is quite difficult due to insufficient supply of staff and high rate of their turnover costs (Birdir, 2002). The findings of this study will provide for determining the financial resources of labour turnover which is critical in shaping HRM practices and the management of labour retention

in the hospitality industry. The research findings will also contribute to the development of a policy agenda of the tour and travel operators and the overall Kenyan hospitality industry.

The Kenyan hospitality industry is a bustling industry comprised of private and public players in various sub-sectors which ensure that tourists' needs are catered to in a holistic manner. These sub-sectors include: food and beverage services, transportation, accommodation (hotels), tourist attractions and luxury services. All these sectors are connected by the tour operators and travel agents (Bennett & Schoeman, 2005). Thus, tour operators influence tourist flows to Kenya from different destinations (Saffery, Morgan, Tulga & Warren, 2007). The main tasks of tour operators include: negotiation of rates with suppliers, booking accommodation for tourist, assisting in itinerary planning and providing local tour services (Bennett & Schoeman, 2005). Tour operators in Kenya are classified according to their owners, that is, foreign owned, locally owned by Kenyans of foreign origins and locally owned by indigenous entrepreneurs. Majority of tour operators are SMEs, earning less than $140,000 per annum (UNCTAD, 2008).

The hospitality industry has experienced significant growth since independence. In 2009, the industry recorded the highest growth rate of 18.6% (ROK, 2009).The continued growth of the hospitality industry is attributed to strong participation and encouragement in commercial ventures, pursuit of policy objectives and attention to non-economic ramifications of tourism and the innovations in major source markets by individual tour operators (Dieke, 1992). Various policy initiatives have been formulated in an effort to actualize flagship projects under Vision 2030. Vision 2030 identifies the hospitality industry as one of the top priority sectors with the tasks of making Kenya one of the top ten long-haul tourist destinations globally (ROK, 2008). Apart from developing the Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2010 on Enhancing Sustainable Tourism in Kenya, the Kenyan government has also developed the Tourism Act 2011 which provides for development, management, marketing and regulation of sustainable tourism and tourism related services.

Statement of the Problem

The National Tourism Strategy 2013 -2018 posits that the hospitality industry which is dominated by SMEs experiences acute labour turnover (ROK, 2013). If high labour turnover is allowed to continue, it will negatively impact SMEs through loss of highly skilled workforce, and ultimately widespread skill gaps among existing staff (Kuria, Wanderi & Ondigi, 2011). This not only results in additional direct and intangible costs for the employer, but also negatively affects the service quality, reputation and the long term survival of SMEs in the hospitality industry (Wafula, Ondari & Lumumba, 2017). The critical shortage of high qualified staff resulting from high labour turnover has prompted considerable research on the causes of high labour turnover and possible solutions for retaining skilled workers (Kuria & Ondigi, 2012; Cheruiyot, Kimutai & Kemboi , 2017; Korir, 2018; Kuria & Ondigi, 2012) Studies on labour turnover costs are limited, and most of these studies in the hospitality industry have been conducted in the accommodation sector, specifically, hotels, resorts and restaurants (Hinkin & Tracey, 2006; Derry and Iverson, 1996; Wasmuth & Davis, 1983; Kuria, Ondigi & Wanderi, 2012). The purpose of this study was therefore to establish the direct costs of labour turnover amongst small and medium tour operators in Kenya.

Specific Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of this study were to:

Assess the extent of labour turnover rate in small and medium tour operators in Kenya.

Establish the direct costs of labour turnover in small and medium tour operators in Kenya.

Research Methodology

For purposes of this study, tour operators are defined as intermediaries who organize and put together holiday packages which include: arranging travel services, transport and accommodation booking (Bennett & Schoeman, 2005). The study considered both voluntary turnover and involuntary turnover of employees who left during the period of one year. The study adopted the definition of turnover by Mobley (1982) as a phenomenon where the employee terminated its membership in the organization from which he/she earns monetary compensation.

The study adopted a descriptive research design. The target population included owner/managers and HR managers of small and medium tour operators registered with Kenya Association of Tour Operators (KATO) operating within Nairobi and its environs. Stratified sampling and simple random sampling were used in the study. Stratified sampling and simple random sampling was used to select a representative sample of 30 respondents.

Primary data was collected by means of a self – administered, semi structured questionnaire. The respondents were assured of utmost confidentiality of their responses and anonymity of the source of the information (Kothari, 2004). The questionnaires were pre-tested on 10 enterprises through convenience sampling technique. After the pre-test, any items in the questionnaire that could cause bias were modified or omitted (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). The study employed descriptive statistics to analyze the data. Primary data was coded, edited and then analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. The findings were presented in form of frequency tables and percentages.

Research Findings and Discussions

The study sought to find out the labour turnover rate in small and medium tour operators in Kenya for a period covering 12 months. The study findings revealed that the majority (63%) of the respondents had experienced high levels of labour turnover, while 27% had experienced medium levels of turnover, another 10% had low levels of labour turnover. The study findings also indicated the average labour turnover rate of 60.8 % for employees at operational level and a rate of 32.3% for employees at managerial level. The study findings demonstrated that most of the small and medium tour operators in Kenya experienced high labour turnover. In addition, that the turnover rate of employees at operational level was higher than the turnover rate of employees at managerial level. The result is in agreement with the findings in a study by Davidson, Timo and Wang (2009) which found that labour turnover rate of 50.74% in Australian accommodation industry was higher than expected, and that the turnover rate was lower amongst executives, supervisors and departmental managers than in other employment categories.

The study also sought to establish the direct costs (replacement costs, separation costs, training costs) of the small and medium tour operators within a period of one year. The study findings as shown in Table 1 revealed that replacement costs constituted 57.8% of the total turnover cost compared to separation costs which constituted 22.4% of the total turnover costs. Training costs comprised only 19.8% of the total turnover costs. The study findings

showed that the average total cost of turnover was Kshs 57,710,000/=. Finally, the study findings indicate significant difference in two costs: screening and entrance interviewing (17.4%) and formal training (5.2%).

The findings revealed that the average direct cost of labour turnover was substantial which may lead to an increase in administrative costs of small and medium tour operators in Kenya. In addition, the results revealed that small and medium tour operators were spending more money in testing the knowledge, skills and abilities of employees to ensure that a qualified candidate was hired and less money is being invested in formal training of newly hired employees. The study results are inconsistent with the findings of a study by McKinney, Bartlett and Mulvaney (2007) which found that separation costs were higher than replacement costs of employees in Illinois Public Park and recreation offices.

Table 1: Average cost of replacing employees per annum

Type	**Expense**	**Costs per annum in KES**	**Percentage**
Replacement costs	Advertisement	6,000,000	10.4
	Screening and entrance interviewing	10, 050,000	17.4
	Interview expenses	4,700,000	8.1
	Reference/background checks	3,450,000	6.0
	Pre-employment testing	5,575,000	9.7
	Appointment procedures for new hires	3,585,000	6.2
Separation costs	Severance pay	5,300,000	9.2
	Exit interview costs	3,400,000	5.9
	Administrative costs	4,200,000	7.3
Training costs	Informative literature	3,600,000	6.2
	Formal training	3,000,000	5.2
	Informal training	4,850,000	8.4
	Total	**57,710,000**	**100**

Conclusion

From the study findings, it can be concluded that the direct costs of labour turnover small and medium tour operators are substantially high. It can also be concluded that employees in the operational level are more likely to quit their organizations than employees in the managerial level. Finally, it can be concluded that high replacement costs are attributed to labour turnover in small and medium tour operators in Kenya. It is recommended that small and medium tour operators need to seriously address wastage levels through reforming internal HR practices.

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Improving Health Care Delivery by Community Health Workers Through Mobile Phones

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Abstract

Community health workers (CHWs) play a critical role in delivery of basic health care especially in rural communities where access to health care is a challenge. Most of these "first line" health care workers are ill equipped and do not have much support in their role. Majority of Community health workers are low skilled and operate far from formal health care system. Mobile phones have provided a unique opportunity for Community health workers. This technology has allowed access of health information through the internet to facilitate their work. They are able to acquire updated information on how to deal with certain ailments, protocols to be followed and even consult with medical practitioners. It has improved the attendance to clinics immensely through reminders sent to patients in the form of text messages. Adherence to medication has also been enhanced through the same approach. It has made the collection and transmission of information to relevant authorities easier, faster and efficient. This paper presents the application of mobile phone technology specifically among community health workers. A review of literature available on chwcentral.org, a platform devoted to research linked to community health work, forms the core of this paper. It delves into the opportunity that this technology provides for improvement of health care delivery to communities. It provides evidence that indeed mobile phones can contribute immensely to improving health care delivery through community health workers to communities in dire need of these services.

***Key Words**: Community Health Workers, health care delivery, Mobile phones, improving*

Introduction

The Umbrella term "community health worker" embraces a variety of community health aides selected, trained and working in the communities from which they come. A widely accepted definition was proposed by World Health Organization. A Community health worker should be a member of the community where they work, should be selected by the community, should be answerable to the community for their activities, should be supported by the health system but not necessarily a part of its organization, and have shorter training than professional workers (WHO, 2007). Community health workers (CHWs) play a critical role in the delivery of health services in areas with limited health infrastructure or workforce. They provide basic health and health-promotion services regarding hygiene and sanitation, immunizations, growth monitoring, antenatal care, family planning and disease surveillance (Dahn et al., 2015).

In low- and middle income countries, many of those who do seek health care see a community health worker, the lowest cadre of health provider. Typically, CHWs are lower-skilled members of the community and are not based at a health facility. Research shows that, despite heavy reliance on CHWs in places like sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, CHWs are not effectively trained, remunerated, or retained (Redick et al., 2014).

Supervision of CHWs by qualified health professionals is the main link between this lay workforce and the formal health system. The quality of services provided by lay health workers

is dependent on adequate supportive supervision. It is however one of the weakest links in CHW programs due to logistical and resource constraints (Laktabai et al., 2018).

Widespread use of mobile phones in low income countries has created momentum to use these devices to strengthen supervisory systems for CHWs (Crigler et al., 2014). Mobile devices may enable supervisors to overcome resource constraints and geographical distances to monitor CHW activity in real time, provide remote guidance, deliver timely feedback, or send automated motivational messages or reminders (Callan et al., 2011). Campbell et al., (2014) demonstrate that use of mobile phones, accompanied by provision of good technical content, can markedly strengthen the role that CHWs play in delivering health services.

More mobile and electronic information tools have been developed, tested and implemented with CHWs to support their work roles. The tools help the CHVs in surmounting challenges such as lack of appropriate work tools and inadequate supportive supervision and training (Braun et al, (2013). These tools have been instrumental in improving access to care by marginalized population groups subjected to stigma and those in hard-to-reach areas by reducing both time and cost of travel (Bakibinga et al., 2017).

Types of Mobile Phones used to improve Health Service Delivery by Community Health Workers

Agarwal et al., (2016) examined active programs that use mobile phones and tablets to support front line health workers (including CHWs). Nearly 60% of the phones used by CHWs were smart phones, followed by feature phones (14%). Experts were asked about the type of mobile devices that are currently being used by Frontline health workers. 35% reported the use of only one type of device (e.g. feature phone only) and 65% reported the use of two or more type of devices being used by different types of providers within the same project (e.g. CHW use feature phones to report to their supervisors, and supervisors use tablets to monitor all CHW activities as part of the same intervention). This might suggest how within the health system, type of devices are being tailored to the type of user and their expertise, as well as the unique needs of the procedures that are conducted at that level of the health system. Simple phones (i.e. SMS and call functions only) and feature phones are less frequently used at 7% (data repositories) and 27% (Agarwal et al., 2016).

The types of phones used for health programs involving Community health workers are determined by a set of criteria related to their usability. Some of the usability metrics include (Grevendonk, 2013):

Transmit information in a language (script or voice) that is understood by the user population
Emphasize ease of use and learnability to reduce training costs
Allow users to find features in two clicks or less
Easy end-user interactions
Ease of use can refer to use by the end user (the FHW), but can also refer to use by the data users and the project managers.

Mobile Phone Functionalities used in improving Health Service Delivery By Community Health Workers

Short Message Service (SMS)

This is one of the most basic functionalities found on even the simplest of phones. It allows for the user to send and receive text messages. The cost of sending these messages is usually

relatively cheaper compared to making a call, especially across different network providers. It does not require internet connection and can be used in remote areas without complications.Most mobile health projects for CHWs employ SMS-based strategies involving 1- or 2-way interaction, whereas few projects have adopted multi-way communication strategies to promote health priorities (Kallander, 2013).

A study conducted by Mushamiri, et al., (2015) in Western Kenya to investigate the use of mobile phones and mobile technology to enhance PMTCT efforts established that Using any standard mobile phone, readily available in Sub-Saharan Africa, CHWs are able to use SMS to register patients during ANC and report their health status to a central system that provides a real-time view of the health of a community. Paper-based methods of data recording, the national norm in Kenya, proved to be laborious and prone to error. CHWs would often either forget to remind women of their upcoming ANC appointments or not be aware of the next appointment. The ANC/PMTCT Adherence System (APAS, informally referred to as "PMTCT Module"), which is a mobile Health (mHealth) tool that uses text messages (SMS) to facilitate and coordinate CHW activities around ANC and PMTCT, was implemented in the MVP cluster in October 2010 to help alleviate some of the issues

In Malawi, SMS messaging for pregnant women and caregivers of children under 1, often sent through CHWs as intermediaries, was effective in improving both the knowledge and intended positive behavior of clients (Crawford et al., 2014). In another study conducted by Campbell et al., (2014) in Malawi, the mobile phones linked CHWs with each other and with district supervisors/coordinators through an SMS hub located at the 2 District Hospitals. The CHWs cited their ability to get immediate help for their clients by sending a message to the Hub and getting a rapid response. CHWs explained that timely responses from district hospital staff to CHWs' requests for important technical information resulted in gains in expertise.

They also described the reduction in stockouts that resulted from expediting the timely reporting of family planning/reproductive health and HIV/AIDS commodity shortages. There was an increase in prompt responses to emergencies (obstetric) and outbreaks (measles) and to queries from CHWs to their supervisors. CHWs reported a wider service coverage accompanied by lower costs.

WhatsApp

Henry et al.,(2016) conducted a study on enhancing supervision of community health workers using whatsapp in Kenya. Group of Kenyan CHWs and their supervisors used the WhatsApp mobile messaging platform for supervision and professional development over a 6-month period. Choice of WhatsApp reflected existing patterns of technology use in Kenya, where an estimated 49% of mobile phone users use WhatsApp as their preferred mobile messaging tool (Adika, 2014). This cross-platform application for basic, feature, and smart phones requires a mobile Internet connection to operate, allowing users to send and receive text messages, photos, videos, and audio recordings.

CHWs posted 48% (n = 872) of all messages, with 1 CHW alone posting 12% (n = 218) of these messages. One supervisor posted 15% (n = 270) of all messages, with the remaining supervisors posting 11% (n = 198) of messages, for a combined total of 26% (n = 468). The NGO and academic partners each posted roughly 7% of the total number of messages each (n = 130 and n = 132, respectively), while other MOH representatives at the district and local level posted 10% (n = 179) of messages and the local CHC leader 3% (n = 49) of messages. Interviews suggested that in general the use of WhatsApp was viewed very positively and was taken up very easily by participants (Henry et al., 2016)

One supervisor in the study explained: I think it has been a platform for us to communicate, and actually I can say it has reduced some costs when it comes to communicating with the community health volunteers because if I know people are in the [WhatsApp] group, I don't have to SMS everyone because the SMSs have a cost So the communication is good between us [the supervisors] and the community health workers. We really communicate and in case there is any problem, like when there was this outbreak of cholera, we really shared a lot. You give the information you know, they [the CHWs] give you what they know, and [you] can advise ''do this, do this, concentrate on this area,'' so that that thing [cholera] can end. This [is] through the WhatsApp (Henry et al., 2016).

WhatsApp capability to allow capturing and sharing of videos and photos greatly contributes to document the work of community health workers. Henry et al., (2016) reports that Supervisors posted photos of supervisory visits, meetings, and training sessions that had taken place that day, followed by words of praise, motivation, and appreciation. CHWs posted photos to document the quality of services they delivered, with posted messages often referring to the photos as ''evidence'' of CHW work practices in the community: They used captions to describe the content of the photos. Supervisors followed up with guidance, encouragement, and/or thanks while fellow CHWs added words of praise and encouragement (Henry et al., 2016).

Phone Calls

The mobile phone was an absolute upgrade to the traditional telephone that was dependent on wire connections from one point to the other. These phones were stationed at a fixed point. Mobile phones allow for movement of the user due to their wireless connection. Community health workers are able to make calls to health staff at the facility from the homes of their clients, as long as there is adequate network. They are able to consult their supervisors and other health professionals in the management of the health conditions of their clients. They can make real time requests to the health facility especially in the case of emergencies, where an ambulance may be required.

A study conducted in Uganda by Ayiasi et al.,(2015) to investigate the use of mobile phone consultations during community health worker visits for maternal and newborn care explored this functionality. In this setting, community health workers are reffered to as village health teams (VHTs). They were of the opinion that phone calls have contributed to reduced incidences of maternal complications like miscarriages in their community because of the prompt attention that the women received. Sometimes health workers provided instructions to the VHTs on phone. Most VHTs perceived that the feedback that they received through phone calls improved the accuracy of information and were reassuring for the women and their families (Ayiasi et al., 2015).

Instructions given on phone from professional health workers to VHTs saved the women and their families of the long distance, the time and finances needed to reach the health centre. Nearly all VHTs (15/16) said that direct consultations through the use of mobile phones has helped them to reduce on the turnaround time needed to receive feedback since some of the consultations do not require physical movements of women to the health centre (Ayiasi et al.,2015).

In Kenya, Henry et al., (2016) reports that supervisors regularly used voice calls and WhatsApp in general to communicate one-on one with individual CHWs to understand more about the services provided to households.

Program specific Applications

Mobile phones have greatly evolved. New applications are often developed to meet the various needs of their users. These applications are commonly found on smart phones, tablets and other mobile devices. They can be downloaded from app stores located in the devices or pre installed by the manufacturer. Community health programs have developed unique applications to cater for their specific projects. These applications can deliver educational information to the community health workers. They provide a platform for input of information in the field and reduce the paperwork that the community health workers have to deal with.

A project conducted in Benin by Centre for Human Services (CHS, 2013), funded by USAID utilized the use of a mobile application designed to assist community health workers in delivery of family planning information to the community. The project only worked with female CHWs due to the sensitivity of the family planning subject matter, which is often considered taboo in Beninese households.

The application was based on Dimagi's Commcare (Dimagi, Inc., Charlestown, MA), an easy-to-configure data management and work flow application, with functionality for both data collection and case management. Commcare can adapt traditional health communication tools (visual aids, counseling cards, etc.) with the possibility of adding additional pictures and audio or video illustrations, as needed. Another useful feature allows for automatic data recovery in close to real time after the user has completed data entry. The application developed under PRISE-C (Partnership for the community management of child health) can be used on cellular phones, Android, tablets or Smart phones (CHS, 2013).

The application for community health workers is comprised of the following modules (CHS, 2013):

Registration, which enables the CHW to register women as FP clients.

Advice is used for counseling clients, using a combination of images and audio messages in the local language. Choosing a method registers the specific method chosen by the client after counseling. Monitoring FP methods allows for recording of possible side effects noted by clients after the adoption of a method. Product sales helps CHWs record any FP products that they sell.

In rural Zambia, Schuttner et al.,(2014) assessed a mobile-based community health worker program for referral, follow up and service outreach. CHWs captured data using survey instruments programmed onto a mobile phone provided by the project. The surveys were created with existing free, open-source software called CommCare (Dimagi, Inc., Charlestown, MA) that runs on Java enabled phones (Mhila, 2009). Four surveys were developed: a household visit, patient follow-up, referral, and monthly activity summary. The surveys collected data on demographics, disease symptoms and severity, and care-seeking behaviors and correlated with the patient clinic visit forms (Schuttner et al., 2014)

In the field, CHWs entered surveys on mobile phones in ''real time'' to document the client interview. Completed surveys were submitted if cellular network coverage was available. If not, or if the phone was powered off, the data were temporarily stored on the phone until network coverage became available and then removed after submission. Data were transmitted to the central server via GPRS and then back to the district servers (Schuttner, 2014).

In Kenya, Bakibinga et al.,(2017) explored the role of a decision-support smart phone application in enhancing Community Health Volunteers effectiveness to improve maternal and newborn outcomes in Nairobi. The project sought to strengthen the healthcare delivery system in the urban informal settlements to be more responsive to the health needs of mothers and their children through enhanced service delivery public–private partnerships (Bakibinga et al., 2017).

The mobile PAMANECH (mPAMANECH) application was developed as an integrated data capture tool running as a mobile app with selected reporting forms for CHVs in Kenya. The mobile decision-support tool/ system (mDST/S) mobile application (app) is an Android app that installs from the phone and runs as an application. The application was hosted at Google store and accessed for download via the internet automatically to the user handset. The CHVs were provided with a mobile phone running the mHealth app for data collection which was then relayed to the head office (Bakibinga et al., 2017).

Schoen et al, (2017) also report on the effectiveness of mobile phone applications among community health workers in Brazil. CHWs believed that the mobile application helped make their work more efficient. They appreciated the Geohealth mobile application for the ease with which it let them access information from previous visits. The application helped them keep track of which families they needed to visit in a given month. Finally, the mobile application eliminated the amount of paper CHWs had to work with and lightened the load that they had to carry on a daily basis (Schoen et al., 2017).

CHALLENGES IN USING MOBILE PHONES TO IMPROVE COMMUNITY HEALTH WORKERS DELIVERY OF HEALTH SERVICES

There have been several challenges associated with the use of mobile phones to improve health service delivery by community health workers. Limited availability of Electricity to charge the device has been highlighted by Ayiasi et al (2017). The problem of limited electricity for regular battery charging is important in a rural setting where adequate infrastructure is lacking.

Not all phone calls made by VHTs were attended to by professional health workers because they were either out-of-station, or their phones were not available on the network, or they were overloaded with extra work. When VHTs calls were not attended to, women and newborns could not receive the needed professional attention (Ayiasi et al., 2017). In two group discussions VHTs reported that their calls to professional health workers were received with anger and this caused them to become reluctant to make future consultations with health workers (Ayiasi et al., 2017).

Schoen et al.,(2017) reported Social barriers among community member's especially their perception of the mobile application and safety concerns among the community health workers about carrying around an expensive smart phone. The application took a long time to load, froze frequently and shut down without warning. Thus, they concluded that they could write paper notes faster than using the application. The CHWs mentioned that data were frequently lost from the system when the application froze (Schoen et al., 2017).

Many Community Health Workers mentioned that poor cell phone service was a barrier to using the mobile application. They also commented on the keyboard size, battery life, and lack of access to someone to fix the phone if it was broken. Using the application changed the nature of the home visit; it required that the CHW concentrate on typing and prevented them from maintaining eye contact with community members. Many community members,

especially the elderly, felt that the application interfered with social interaction (Schoen et al., 2017).

Conclusions

The literature reviewed reveals the viability of mobile phones in improving health service delivery by community health workers. Smart phones are widely used in most programs due to their vast applications.

Short Message Service (SMS) functionality is found in all phones including basic phones. Community health workers can send text messages and make inquiries from their supervisors using this functionality. It can also be used to send reminders to community health workers and their clients about clinic appointments.

WhatsApp features present a greater advantage to the community health workers. They are able to take photos and videos and share them through the application. These can act as evidence of their activities in the field. They can get feedback from other community health workers and their supervisors on how to deal with cases in the field.

Phone calls provide immediate feedback to the community health workers. They are able to consult health professionals in the health facility regarding challenges they experience when delivering health services to the community.

Program Specific applications are very efficient. They allow the community health workers to fill in the information from their clients directly into the platform. This cuts down on the tedious process of carrying papers and filling them in and in putting them into a computer. The automatic update of the system and links to program servers allow the information to be retrieved by supervisors at the health facilities. These applications also provide an interface that can be used to educate the clients served by community health workers as well as prompts that inform them on what to do when dealing with specific cases.

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The Role of the 'Path' and the 'Container' Image Schemas in Political Discourse in Kenya

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Abstract

The study of conceptual interaction has attracted the attention of many scholars in Cognitive Linguistics. Primarily, the analysis has focused on the role of image-schemas in the construction of metaphors. This study explores the PATH and the CONTAINER image-schemas and the role they play in conceptual formation of metaphors in political discourse in Kenya. The study presents the PATH and its subsidiary image schemas of Verticality, Process and Force-Motion and the CONTAINER image-schema and the subsidiary image-schemas of Excess and In-Out. The analysis reveals that both the PATH and the CONTAINER image-schemas structure the relationship between the source domains (journey and container) and the target domain (politics) by activating subsidiary image-schemas in metaphors of politics in Kenya. The study further reveals that image-schemas provide the axiological value (positive or negative) of metaphorical expressions in political discourse. A positive political environment is a key ingredient for green growth and knowledge economy. The study contributes to the field of metaphor in political discourse by examining the politicians' conceptualization of politics as a journey, which consists of four structural elements (a source, a destination, contiguous locations which connect the source and the destination and a direction) and as a container, which consists of an interior, an exterior and a boundary. The study used the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) as a tool to establish conceptual metaphors used during the 2005 Draft Constitution referendum campaigns in Kenya and the Image-Schema Theory to account for the presence of image-schemas in political discourse in Kenya. Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) Conceptual Metaphor Theory is the locus classicus of the image schema theory.

Keywords: cognitive linguistics, image-schema, political discourse, conceptual metaphor

Introduction

The Theory of Interaction (Richards, 1936) posits that the philosophical basis of cognitive study of metaphor is experientialism, which characterizes meaning in terms of embodiment. According to experientialism, all concepts are structured on the basis of our experience, which is a product of our body or interactions between us and the physical environment or other people within our culture. Human experiences while interacting with the environment leads to the formation of image schemas (Johnson, 1987).

Image schemas represent schematic patterns arising from imagistic domains, such as containers, paths, links, forces, and balance that recur in a variety of embodied domains and structure our bodily experience (Lakoff 1987: 453; Johnson 1987: 29; Talmy 1972, 1977, 1983) and our non bodily experience via metaphor. The schemas are pre-conceptual in origin (Johnson, 1987) and recur as we construct the world, trying to get meaning as we interact with the environment. As Mandler (2004) put it, once the recurrent patterns of sensory information are extracted and stored as an image schema, sensory experiences give rise to conceptual representations. This study gives a cognitive analytical account of the PATH and the CONTAINER image schemas in political discourse in Kenya.

Objective of the Study

To assess the role of the PATH and the CONTAINER image schemas in political discourse in Kenya.

Theoretical Framework

The study employed the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) and the Image Schemas Theory (IST).

The Image Schemas Theory

Human beings use image schemas to comprehend the world around them (Santibáñez, 2002; Evans and Green, 2006). The Image Schemas Theory, therefore, enabled the study through schematic representations of image schemas and their subsidiary image patterns to guide the comprehension of politics, an abstract phenomenon. Image schemas are known to be the basis of many metaphorical constructions. The theory, therefore, enabled the study to explain the embodiment of human experiences since human cognition is explained through their experiences. This is consistent with Richard's (1936) view that metaphor is a mode of cognition based on our experience with the environment.

The theory also assisted the researcher in determining the axiological value of the metaphors. As Krzeszowski (1993) posits, all image schemas exhibit a bipolar property of conferring positive or negative associations. Metaphor uses language to activate unconscious emotional associations and influences our values and beliefs by transferring positive or negative associations into the metaphor target (Charteris-Black, 2005).

Conceptual Metaphor Theory

Conceptual Metaphor Theory views metaphors primarily as matters of thought and action, only derivatively of language. There is a close correlation between language, metaphors and thought and whether consciously or not, people think in metaphors (Lakoff and Johnson 1980). Our conceptual system is largely metaphorical and our ordinary conceptual system in terms of which we both think and act is fundamentally metaphorical in nature. "The locus of metaphor is, not in language at all, but in the way we conceptualize one mental domain in terms of another" (Lakoff, 1993:203). CMT thus allows us to understand one domain of experience in terms of another. Thus, it is possible for us to make use of a relatively familiar, tangible domain of experience to deal with a relatively unfamiliar, less tangible domain of experience. For proponents of CMT therefore, thought has primacy over language. As Ungerer and Schmid (2001) put it, metaphor is not just a way of expressing ideas by means of language but a way of thinking about things. Cognitive linguistics thus views metaphor as a cognitive instrument.

Deignan (2005) states that CMT views metaphor as a link between the source domain which is physically experienced and the target domain which is abstract. We can only perceive and understand abstract notions through the filter of directly experienced, concrete notions. When we use metaphor, we map features from a source domain onto a target domain. To Lakoff and Johnson (1980:246-247), "conceptual metaphor is a natural part of human thought and linguistic metaphor is a natural part of human language." A close examination of the metaphor used is, therefore, an important key to the way people have mentally constructed abstract domains like politics.

Literature Review

Gathigia (2014) set out to study metaphors of love in Gĩkũyũ. This study used Metaphor Identification Procedure *Vrije Universiteit* (MIPVU) to establish the metaphoricity of the lexical items collected. The study noted that embodied experience manifests itself at the cognitive level in terms of the CONTAINER, PATH, FORCE and OBJECT image schemas.

Magonya (2012) took a cognitivist viewpoint in her study and used the Relevance Theory (RT), Blending Theory (BT) and Idealized Cognitive Models (ICM) to find out whether Kenyans of dissimilar socio-cultural and educational backgrounds homogenously comprehend AIDS messages coined in English and Kiswahili languages. She affirmed the existence of a cognitive model by which people's embodied experiences with AIDS are conveyed in conceptual metaphors (such as SEX IS A GAME), similes and metonymies.

Makachanja (2006) carried out a comparative analysis of the reconstructed ontology and epistemology of the domains involved in the metaphorical expressions of English with those of Shona. The study noted that because the UP/DOWN orientations are embodied, both English and Shona conceptualize them in the same way. It thus sheds light on the UP/DOWN schema. The study also demonstrated that both English and Shona experience journeys in similar ways and therefore construe LIFE AS A JOURNEY. It, therefore, affirms that conceptual metaphors are motivated by embodied experience which is a key tenet on the conceptualization of phenomena such as politics.

The 'Yutong' bus metaphor in Ghanaian political speeches is examined by Mensah (2012) using Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) conceptual metaphor theory. The study notes that the use of metaphors can minimize direct vilification in Ghanaian political communication. The study also demonstrates that features of conceptual sources can be manipulated by politicians to achieve positive rhetorical ends. As Isabel and Velasco (2001) note, image schemas are capable of endowing an expression with a strong axiological value, either positive or negative Opeibi (2006), for instance, while studying negative political advertising, observed that many of the political office aspirants abandoned positive, issue-focused advertisement and engaged in rhetorical strategies of direct attacks on their opponents. Van Dijk (1997) stated that politicians often use metaphorical association to elicit positive self-presentation while the opponent is presented negatively. Mensah (2012) asserts that positive or negative associations of source domain over a period of time can become a natural part of it. Even though Mensah's study confines itself to the bus metaphor, it offers insights on how Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) Conceptual Metaphor Theory has been adequate in dealing with abstract phenomena such as politics.

In his study, Taiwo (2010) states that political discourse in Nigeria had centered on socio-political experiences that Nigeria had been going through. This view is supported by Wei (2001) who argues that recent social events and specific cultural contexts are responsible for the production of metaphor. This argument is consistent with the embodiment of human experience which manifests itself at the cognitive level though image schemas.

Both Charteris-Black (2004, 2005) and Deignan (2005), who have looked at political texts and speeches in British and American English, have noted extensive use of metaphor in such texts. Charteris-Black's study of metaphors in political discourse mainly focuses on press reporting and religious discourse in English. He uses corpus data to claim that metaphor use is shaped by societal and ideological factors as well as cognitive ones. Deignan (2005), on the other hand, argues that metaphor is a powerful persuasive tool in political discourse. These studies, like the current paper, focus on politics and recognize metaphor as a cognitive instrument that enhances people's understanding of abstract phenomena.

Yu (1998) investigated conceptual metaphor and its interaction between body and culture and states that while body is a potentially universal source for emerging conceptual metaphor, culture functions as a filter for selecting them. In other words, metaphors are generated from body experience but formed by culture realization and so are culture-specific. Yu (2008) also asserts that the face is the body member by which the Chinese and English make a lot of conceptual metaphors because the face is the most distinctive part of the body and we identify people by their faces.

Methodology

Data Collection Procedure

To describe the diverse set of families of metaphors in a language, the study identified the linguistic metaphors used to talk about politics in the 2005 referendum campaigns in Kenya using the Metaphor Identification Procedure developed at Vrije University, Amsterdam (MIPVU). The metaphors were obtained from the referendum campaign rhetoric in two mainstream newspapers in Kenya-the (*Daily) Nation* and *The Standard*.

Each of the four coders (two PhD Linguistics students and two secondary school teachers of English properly trained on how to use MIPVU to identify MRWs), who worked independently, was given 120 newspaper leaves that had captured the 2005 referendum campaign rhetoric. They carried out document review to look for verbatim reports of politicians' speeches relating to the referendum campaigns. Each determined the lexical units in the text identified. For each lexical unit, the coder established meaning in context. They then determined the basic meaning of the lexical unit by checking the first more concrete meaning of a lexical unit which was listed in the dictionary and adopted it as the word's basic sense. According to MIPVU, the first meaning in the dictionary is always considered the basic and concrete meaning of a word. Three dictionaries were used to define the word meanings: *The Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (Rundell and Fox, 2007), the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (Summers, 2005) and the Oxford English Dictionary. Each one of them decided whether the basic meaning of the lexical item was sufficiently distinct from contextual meaning and whether the contextual meaning was related to the basic meaning by some form of similarity. If the last two conditions were met, the unit was marked as metaphorical and hence the phrase or sentence. Where there was disagreement, the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (Summers, 2005) was consulted to get the meanings and a group discussion carried out to resolve such cases so as to reduce analyst bias.

Reliability

The reliability of coding was assessed through an inter-coder reliability check. The assessment of results from the inter-coder reliability tests consists of determining whether the score test is above or below accepted reliability standards. Cameron (2003) states that where the inter-coder reliability rate is 75% or more, the lexical unit is accepted as a metaphor. Cameron's rating was adopted by this study and each coder, therefore, represented 25%. A total of 75 instantiations of metaphors of politics were, therefore, found with varying degrees of agreements of either 75% or 100%. The instantiations obtained allowed an initial overview of the appropriate metaphorical concepts used to reflect upon politics in Kenya, among which was POLITICS IS A JOURNEY. Human experience with journeys is discussed in the PATH schema below.

*Reconstruction of Metaphor*s

From the linguistic metaphors collected using MIPVU, underlying conceptual metaphor models, which were presumed to have motivated them, were postulated using Systematic

Metaphor Analysis (SMA) procedure. Systematic Metaphor Analysis (SMA) (Schmitt, 2005) is an approach to metaphor which attempts to reconstruct models of thought, language and action, and draws on the results of Cognitive Linguistics by Lakoff and Johnson (1980).

In reconstructing metaphors, all metaphors belonging to the same image source and describing the same subject area were grouped into metaphorical concepts. The process of allocating metaphorical idioms to metaphorical concepts was continued until all metaphorical manifestations were listed under concepts. The metaphors were, therefore, analysed thematically by coding categories which were presented as different conceptual metaphors. The list obtained broadly indicated metaphorical concepts used to reflect upon politics in Kenyan political discourse.

Research Findings

The PATH Image Schema

One of the most common schemas that emerge from our basic body experience is the PATH schema (Yu, 1998). The PATH schema consists of four structural elements: a SOURCE (a starting point) a DESTINATION (end point), a number of contiguous locations which connect the source and the destination (PATH) and a DIRECTION (Lakoff (1989:119). The basic structure of this schema, therefore, includes the SOURCE of motion (JOURNEY), the PATH travelled and a GOAL (DESTINATION). The schematic structure of the Source-Path-Goal Schema can be represented schematically as shown below:

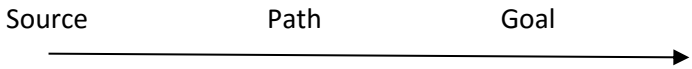


Figure 1: Schematic Structure of the PATH Image Schema

Source: https://inst.eecs.berkeley.edu>lecture 12

The arrow shows a forward movement towards a particular direction by the traveler along the PATH.

There is a vast number of "path metaphors" in which the everyday experience of movement along a path serves to conceptualize many other more abstract experiences. The study found the VERTICALITY, the PROCESS and the FORCE-MOTION subsidiary image schemas as conceptual dependencies of the basic PATH image-schema.

The VERTICALITY Subsidiary Image Schema

Human physiology ensures that our vertical axis gives rise to the VERTICALITY image subsidiary schema as a result of how we interact with our environment (Johnson, 1987). The VERTICALITY is as a result of the asymmetry of the human vertical axis which interacts with gravity. Due to the human vertical orientation, humans look downwards for fallen objects and upwards for rising objects (Lakoff, 1987). Figure 2 shows the representation of the VERTICALITY subsidiary image-schema.

Vertical Axis-Up/Down

Up

Down

Figure 2: Schematic Structure of the VERTICALITY Subsidiary Image Schema

Source: https://inst.eecs.berkeley.edu>lecture 12

Sixteen (16) metaphors were activated by the VERTICALITY subsidiary image schema: 10) I said it is going to be a tsunami. The only way to avoid it is to *go to higher ground;* 11) Our wave is so strong and no turn coat or reject will be left *standing* in the path of the leadership of this county; 12) I warned them (yes team) to *move to higher grounds,* but those who fail to heed my advice will be swept into the ocean by the strong waves; 13) Why should we fight over this referendum? If you *fail,* wait for another chance; 14) This is a battle that I am confident the Yes team will *win* with ease…; 15) There are two arch-enemies in Kenya today: (name withheld) and (name withheld). Then he led the crowed in exorcising the two: '(name withheld) ashindwe' (*Down* with (name withheld)), '(name withheld) ashindwe' (*Down* with (name withheld)); 16) Voting for it is to *kill* democracy; 17) (Name withheld) the monster should be hit on the head and *killed* so as not to destabilize the (name withheld) government; 18) …is like a dog which *drops* its piece of meat thinking that its image in the water is another dog with a bigger piece; 19) Although I wrestled with president (name withheld) for the *top seat*, he called me into his government to neutralize and quash the plan to remove him from power; 20) They have sensed defeat and are now using youths….to cause *chaos* across the country; 21) If they stop (name withheld) pension, then the (name withheld) and the (name withheld) communities will *invade* State House; 22) People should prepare for *war* if 'NO' wins; 23) They are already sensing *defeat* and that is why they are intimidating us; 24) Even God has *disowned* them and that is why their rallies are bloody; 25) The Bible says "Thou shall not *kill*" But it does not say Thou shall not *kill* subject to a chapter in St. Luke's gospel.

The sixteen metaphors listed encode the UP/DOWN orientation which is one of the configurations of directionality of the PATH schema. Five of the sixteen metaphors: " …go to higher ground …standing …move to higher ground, …win, …top seat" encode the 'UP' side of the orientation while eleven of them: "…fail …down…kill…killed…drops…chaos …invade…war…defeat…disowned…kill" encode the 'DOWN' side of the orientation. The metaphors, therefore, fit the vertical directionality configuration of the PATH schema.

The study notes that the VERTICALITY subsidiary image schema is affected either positively or negatively. This is consistent with Kreszowski's (1993) assertion that all image-schemas exhibit a bipolar property of conferring positive or negative associations. In this paper, the eleven metaphors that encode the 'DOWN' side of the vertical orientation confer negative associations to their reference. For instance, exorcising a politician the way Christians do to the devil (metaphor15) has a negative connotation as it is meant to bring down the person, both emotionally and politically. Equally, 'killing' as brought out in metaphors (16) and (17) brings a person down. On the contrary, a 'win' in metaphor (14) makes a person happy and therefore 'high.' This is consistent with Lakoff's (1992) assertion that:

> The MORE IS UP metaphor is grounded in the experience of pouring more fluid into a container and seeing the level go up or adding more things to a pile and seeing the pile get higher. … These are experiences with a structure correspondence between the domain of quantity and the conceptual domain of verticality: MORE corresponds in such experiences to UP and LESS correspond to DOWN (Lakoff 1992:34).

The aim of any politician is to ascend to a position of power. Each side of the political divide, therefore, presents its position as the one that deserves the power. Due to this, both sides present a positive self-presentation and the negative other-presentation. These presentations

correspond to the VERTICALITY image schema's UP and DOWN orientations respectively. It is the VERTICALITY schema that activates the vicious verbal attacks that politicians engage in during campaigns against their competitors and the self praise that makes them promise what they cannot offer. The attacks are a strategy meant to bring down the opponent to a horizontal (low) level and the praises to let the attacker remain vertical (high).

The PROCESS Subsidiary Image Schema

Mapped onto the PATH schema, a process has three stages: a SOURCE (beginning), a PATH and a GOAL (end-point). In this paper, the PROCESS subsidiary image-schema is instantiated by the following metaphors of politics: 26) we have *moved along way* in fighting for democracy in this country and we cannot allow one or two bad elements to derail our dream; 27) if they beat us on November, 21, it will be impossible for the (name withheld) government to *continue* operating smoothly; 28) we shall *continue fighting* for a better Kenya even if we are sacked…; 29) the Wako draft would provide Kenyans with chance to *move to* The Promised Land with no detention without trial, no more land grabbing…and tribal clashes; 30). …if he *turns back* public perception will be that …has been bought; 31) the train of change is *unstoppable* and he could be left behind; 32) we want a peaceful *path* to the achievement of a new Constitution; 33). …it should be clear to them; they are treading on a very dangerous *path.*

Metaphors activated by the PROCESS subsidiary image schema demonstrate that politics as a journey is a process riddled with turbulence. For instance, the metaphor 'We shall *continue fighting* for a better Kenya even if we are sacked…' implies that the journey is not a smooth one and entails sacrifices. The journey is also riddled with corruption (…if he *turns back* public perception will be that …has been bought), struggles ('fighting') and other obstacles ready to derail the process (…cannot allow one or two bad elements to derail our dream). However, it is an *unstoppable* process that entails hope and, therefore, should be peaceful (we want a peaceful *path…)* to enable people to reach the Promised Land (chance to *move to* The Promised Land with no more land grabbing, no political assassinations, no tribal clashes, no corruption). Without a peaceful political process, the country would be treading on a dangerous path and would, therefore, not achieve its goals. Achievement of the Big Four agenda, for instance, is threatened by theft of public funds by corrupt government officials. This has led to serious division in the government, with one wing defending corruption and the other fighting it.

The FORCE-MOTION Subsidiary Image Schema

Scholars such as Johnson (1987), Lakoff, (1987) and Talmy, (1988) have identified FORCE as one of the image schemas underlying conceptual metaphors. According to Talmy (1988), force dynamics, the interaction of entities with respect to force, includes the exertion of force, resistance to force, overcoming resistance, blockage of force and removal of blockage.

What Johnson (1987) calls *gestalts of force* and Talmy (2000) describes as *force dynamic schemas* is a key concept of cognitive linguistics. This study takes the view that the term 'force' is used metonymically to refer to a moving object, its velocity or trajectory and that no object moves along a path on its own without some force being exerted either internally or externally. The *gestalts of force* are discussed below.

Compulsion

Compulsion a situation where the force comes from somewhere, has a given magnitude, moves along a path and has a direction. This schematic gestalt can be represented with the following visual image:

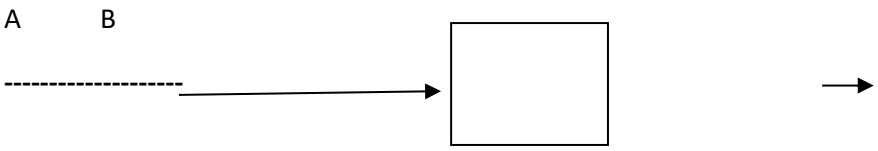


Figure 3: Schematic Structure of Compulsion gestalt

Source: Woźny 2013

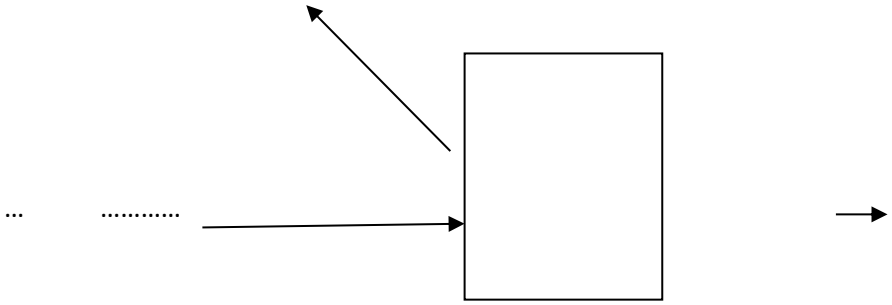
Arrow (B) represents an actual force vector and the broken arrow (A) denotes a potential force vector or trajectory (Johnson 1987:45). The force "moves along a path. The following metaphors instantiate compulsion in the FORCE-MOTION subsidiary image-schema: 34) we are aware that *money has been poured to woo voters;* 35) you may have defeated us in parliament under *streams of money* but …; 36) we, the orange supporters, being Kenyan patriots do hereby *swear* to ensure we have achieved a new democratic Constitution and end dictatorship. Help us, oh God; 37) It is like asking the legendary athlete (name withheld) to run 1500 metres without a competitor and later declaring he had won the race.

The metaphors above invoke compulsion in the FORCE-MOTION subsidiary image schema. In metaphors (34) and (35), which have a cognitive construct of POLITICS IS BUSINESS/FINANCIAL TRANSACTIONS, the metaphors indicate that money, power and control of resources is the force that drives politicians. The compulsion is so strong that in metaphor (36) a semblance of an oath is taken by the politicians, disguised as a fight for democracy. The comparison in metaphor (37) using a famous and fast Kenyan international athlete shows the force and the speed with which a politician needs to act to secure a position. The speed involves securing strategies that would give the competitor advantage over the opponent.

It is the 'compulsion' gestalt that explains why politicians would go to any length to ascend to power, including curving off parts of the country as 'political strongholds' or even eliminating opponents. It further shows why contest for the presidency in Kenya has been a matter of life and death and almost led to secession in 2017. The current division in the government is all about who will be in power and, therefore, control of resources in 2022 and the perception that someone is being blocked from doing so.

Blockage

The blockage gestalt can be represented as a force vector encountering a barrier and then taking any number of possible directions (Johnson, 1987). In figure 4, a force vector is shown to have encountered a barrier and, therefore, either bounced back, or hit and displaced the barrier and passed through or found its way around the barrier. This schematic gestalt can be represented with the following image:



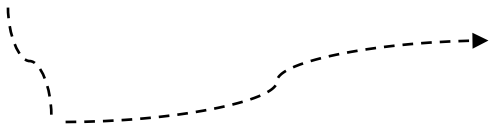


Figure 4: Schematic Structure of the Blockage gestalt

Source: Woźny 2013

Peña (2003) states that *blockage* occurs when we encounter some obstacles that prevent a moving entity from reaching a destination. The barrier exerts a force on the moving object, causing it to change its trajectory as shown in figure 4. This phenomenon is exemplified by the statements below. 38) *physically resist encroachment* by the orange team into Nyandarua; 39.) the train of change is *unstoppable* and he could be left behind; 40) our wave is so strong and *no turn coat or reject will be left standing* in the path of the leadership of this county; 41) I warned them (yes team) to move to higher grounds, but those who fail to heed my advice will be *swept into the ocean by the strong waves.*

All the metaphors in the preceding paragraph allude to resistance. The resistance is meant to curtail efforts of the competitor from making political progress. In metaphor (38), the pro draft supporters are asked to physically resist (block) any attempts by their opponents to enter 'their' region. In expressions (39-41), any obstacle on the way of the politician(s) is crashed. This is a demonstration that politicians do not allow opposition and any dissenting opinion is treated with cruelty (metaphor 38) or forcefully knocked down and swept away (metaphors 40-41). Politicians thus survive by issuing threats and causing fear to their opponents. In other words, politicians face obstacles (resistance) in their quest for power, overtly or covertly, and it is upon them to find a way to overcome them.

Counterforce

The counterforce gestalt focuses on the head-on meetings of forces. Here, two equally strong, nasty and determined force centres collide face-to-face (Johnson 1987:46). This gestalt can be represented with the following schematic image:

Figure 5: Schematic Structure of Counterforce gestalt

Source: Woźny 2013

The schematic representation indicates that the objects on which the forces act meet and collide. Seven (7) metaphors of politics instantiated the counterforce gestalt:42) *physically resist encroachment* by the orange team into Nyandarua; 43) "Kama ni wanaume na wanajaribu tutawaonyesha" (*If they are real men let them try; we will show them);* 44) the results of the referendum were compared to the Biblical *David and Goliath War*... 45) I tell…to bring those councilors who look like street children to Kapenguria and *he will understand why donkeys have no horns*; 46) I urge you all to maintain peace. We are in the Super League and we do not want any division, *violence and chaos*…; 47) any attempts to frustrate aspirations of the people will be met with popular *revolt* against the authority of the court; 48) they should wait for the 2007 general election and *fight* for their parliamentary seats first.

The metaphorical expressions for counterforce cue confrontation. Metaphor (42) cautions the opponent of the confrontation they stood to encounter had they gone to Nyandarua, a region considered the opponents' zone during the 2005 constitutional referendum campaigns. Metaphor (43) dares the opponent to carry out their 'threat' 'if they are real men.' Metaphor (45) is used to threaten the opponent of dire consequences while metaphor (44) of the Biblical David and Goliath confrontation brings out the resistance that the advocates of the draft constitution (with more resources) got from the 'no' camp (with less resources). This metaphor demonstrates a scenario in politics where 'small and unknown' politicians confront and beat those with more resources and, therefore, more powerful. Metaphor (46) is consistent with Johnson's (1987) postulation of "two strong, nasty and determined force centres colliding face-to-face" since this is experienced in sport as opponents collide fighting for the ball. Any fallout within the 'team' (political camp) is always disastrous. Political opponents always have to face-off (cf. metaphor 48) but intelligently and cunningly to avoid being beaten in the political match.

In the COUNTERFORCE gestalt POLITICS IS WAR, the 'Mapambano' song in Kiswahili, a Kenyan national language ("Vijana msilale bado mapambano") translated as 'the youth do not relax; the fight is still on' shows that the 'war' is far from over and therefore the battle continues. The 'counterforce' that is witnessed between supporters of various politicians in Kenya, has led to human deaths during elections.

Removal of Restraint

The Removal of Restraint gestalt is one that suggests an open way or path, which makes possible an exertion of force. […] in the diagram is meant to suggest that either because some actual barrier is removed by another force or because the potential barrier is not actually present, the force F1 can be exerted (that is, there is nothing blocking it) (Johnson 1987: 46). The gestalt can be represented by figure 7.

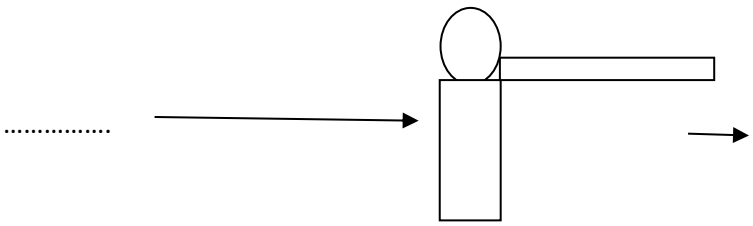


Figure 6: Schematic Structure of Removal of Restraint gestalt

Source: Wożny 2013

According to Hurtienne and Blessing (2007), the Removal of Restraint schema involves the physical or metaphorical removal of a barrier to the action of a force, or the absence of a barrier that is potentially present. The phenomenon is exemplified by the metaphorical expressions: 49) we shall continue *fighting* for a better Kenya even if we are sacked….; 50) we have moved along way in *fighting* for democracy in this country and we cannot allow one or two bad elements to derail our dream; 51) do not expect any easy *battle*; real men and women capable of putting up a brave *fight* for the presidency come 2007 were still taking it easy; 52) I will continue *fighting* for the silent majority to ensure that their interests are catered for all the time; 53) the song "Vijana msilale bado mapambano" (The youth do not relax, *the struggle continues*); 54) there are two arch-enemies in Kenya today: (name withheld) and (name withheld). Then the crowd was led in exorcising the two: (name withheld) 'ashindwe' (*down* with (name withheld)), (name withheld) 'ashindwe' (*down* with (name withheld)); 55) we warned them that a political *tsunami* will come if they do not give people a good Constitution.

It has now swept them; 56) I said it is going to be with *tsunami***;** the only way to avoid it is to go higher ground; 57) She is welcome to the home of orange campaigners and she has taken a clever step of decamping before the political *tsunami* makes a sweep; 58) Our wave is so strong and *no turn coat or reject will be left standing* in the path of the leadership of this county; 59) I warned them (yes team) to move to higher grounds, but those who fail to heed my advice will be *swept into the ocean by the strong waves;* 60) The train of change is *unstoppable* and he could be left behind.

Metaphors (49-54) indicate the presence of a barrier to be removed. The removal of a restraint involves a battle, which requires force (tsunami) to get the barrier out of the way (metaphors 55-60). The tsunami was expected to sweep the restraint easily. As Johnson (1987:46) points out, "Exertion of force" means motion which can only be made possible by removing the barrier. Metaphor (60) sums it all up by indicating that the removal of the barrier (opponent) is unstoppable and anybody who does not wish to be swept away (sent to political oblivion) has to come on board the 'Biblical Noah's Ark.' "Our experience of force usually involves the movement of some object (mass) through space in some direction," (Johnson, 1987:43).

The Removal of Restraint gestalt explains the existence of political machinations by politicians to get opponents out of the competition. On the path to power, any blockage, perceived or real, and counterforce, is dealt with forcefully. This is a common and fatal experience in politics in Kenya where candidates or people perceived to be a hindrance to ascension to power have disappeared or been killed, corrupted to silence or threatened with dire consequences. Despite the political fights, Kenya has remained one solid container for all Kenyans.

The CONTAINER Image Schema

The CONTAINER image schema represents the idea of containment (Johnson, 1987). Containment is viewed as a relation between the container (boundary) and its content (interior). The image schema results from our recurrent and ubiquitous experiences with containers (Lakoff, 1987). The schema fundamentally involves the IN-OUT orientation, taken to account for various senses of IN, OUT, INTO, and OUT OF (Johnson 1987; Lakoff 1987; Lindner 1981). Peña (2000) contends that the CONTAINER schema is a basic schema that provides a blueprint for the activation of the FULL-EMPTY, the PART-WHOLE, the EXCESS and the CENTRE-PERIPHERY schemas. This paper has dealt only with the IN-OUT orientation and the EXCESS subsidiary image schema.

The EXCESS Subsidiary Image Schema

The EXCESS image schema is invoked by all those expressions which convey that something is in a larger amount than would be desirable (cf. Pena, 2000). In this paper, the EXCESS schema was instantiated by four (4) metaphors: 61) the Wako draft gives *too much* power to the presidency; 62) some of these MPs have suddenly become *very* rich and their sources of wealth are questionable; 63) we are aware that money has been *poured* to woo voters; 64). ….the Wako draft for giving *too much* power to the presidency… office holder look like the Bible's King Pharaoh.

In metaphors (61) and (64), the schema is called up by the expression "too much" which indicates that the powers given to the presidency are in a greater quantity than needed. A prerequisite for the activation of the EXCESS image schema in these metaphors is the conception of power being in a container (the Wako draft Constitution) and that too much of it has been given to the presidency, another container. Power thus resides in the Constitution and in the presidency both of which are containers.

The EXCESS image schema is usually associated with a negative axiological value. This is understood in terms of control so that in excess, the contents of a container exceed its capacity, become uncontrollable and balance is lost. As a result of the excess quantity of power being difficult to control, the holder of the office loses balance and the office is, therefore, affected negatively hence the negative axiological value of the two metaphors. The CONTAINER image schema is, therefore, needed to understand a leader as a container of power, feelings and emotions, too much of which is dangerous to the governed. It is the excess power vested in the presidency that has led to the call for another constitutional referendum to spread the powers even further to other organs.

The quantifier 'very' (metaphor 62) captures the excess nature of politicians' wealth, whose source is 'questionable.' The abundance of money, a scarce resource, is brought out by use of the term 'poured' (metaphor 63), its excess nature being negative. The expressions 'too much,' 'very rich' and 'poured' all point to the negative value of what is invoked by the metaphors. The politicians thus wield too much power, which they use to enrich themselves with public resources that they in turn use to woo the voters during elections. The process is, therefore, a vicious cycle.

The IN-OUT Subsidiary Image Schema

The IN-OUT orientation of the CONTAINER image schema takes into account the senses of IN, OUT, INTO and OUT OF. The orientation conceptualizes politics (governance and control of resources) as an entity with borders that one can get 'into' and 'out of.' Of the twenty-three (23) metaphors instantiating the CONTAINER image schema, nineteen (19) had the IN-OUT orientation: 66) physically resist encroachment by the orange team **i***nto* Nyandarua; 67) for this nation to heal, everyone must return his or her dagger **(***in***)** to the *sheath* … ; 68) we have moved along way in fighting for democracy **i***n* this country and we cannot allow one or two bad elements to derail our dream; 69) this is just like the parable of the Prodigal Son *in* the Bible…" ; 70) it is like throwing grains to a hen so that it can be **t***rapped***;** 71) we are aware that money has been *poured* (out) to woo voters; 72) you may have defeated us *in* parliament under streams of money but the wrestling match is ***i****n t*he public court.; 73) like good hunters, we should scatter ourselves in all directions to **t***rap* the animal; 74) I urge you all to maintain peace. We are *in* the Super League and we do not want any division, violence and chaos…; 75) although I wrestled with president (name withheld) for the top seat, he called me *into* his government to neutralize and quash the plan to remove him from power; 76)…but now the wrestling match is *in* the public court. We will win; 77) I warned them (yes team) to move to higher grounds, but those who fail to heed my advice will be swept *into* the ocean by the strong waves; 78) some of these MPs have become "wakoras" (rascals). They are *out* to enrich themselves at the expense of other people; 79) we will continue being *in* the party…; 80) The courts must be warned that the power they exercise on the people is donated by the people themselves; 81) Church leaders are like shepherds who have forsaken their sheep when danger is approaching; 82) you should not agree to sell your right to vote by succumbing to their threats. 83) State House has been turned *into* a market for human beings …. Some are being bribed with title deeds; 84) a no vote would amount to restoring their dignity which had been wrongly thought that they could buy through relief food.

Metaphor (68) cues Kenya as a container whose content is Kenyans. There are sub-containers within this larger container, Kenya: parliament (metaphor 72), teams (metaphor 74), the government (metaphor 75), ocean (metaphor 77) and political parties (metaphor 79). The major container has a dream to fulfill (metaphor 68). Metaphor (66), however, shows a section of the container, Kenya, curved into a political stronghold where 'outsiders' are not allowed entry. The strongholds are either ethnic regions of the party kingpins or ethnic regions of the major supporters of party leaders. This promotes negative ethnicity. Metaphor (66) explains

why it has been difficult to view Kenya as one cohesive container whose resources can be used for the benefit of all Kenyans.

Other sub-containers found in political discourse are the Bible, the people, the courts and State House. Metaphors (69) and (81) portray the Bible and Church leaders as containers of the word of God. The story of the Prodigal Son mentioned in metaphor (69), for instance, teaches both about respect to parents and about a benevolent father. This scenario reflects an aspect of Kenyan politics where politicians who opt out of political parties or alliances fail to get elected and have to come back to their political parties to renew their political life. Equally, when church leaders fail to tend to their flock, the flock loses direction (metaphor 84) just like when the politicians forsake or are forsaken by their parties. In both cases, normalcy is restored when they return to or when their 'fathers' show concern and call them back. The IN-OUT subsidiary image schema thus views the Bible, the people, the courts, parliament, State House among others mentioned in this section as containers holding different kinds of contents in them. All these containers need to work in harmony for the benefit of the contents of the major container, Kenyans.

The people (metaphor 80, 82, 84) are containers of power, individual rights and dignity. They donate power to constitutional offices like the courts; they have a right to vote and a right to dignity, both of which should not be interfered with. These rights, however, are normally interfered with by the occupants of political offices. State House, for instance, is perceived as a container of power that infringes on citizens' dignity and suffrage rights during elections. This is because of the 'too much' power that it wields. Metaphor (83), therefore, has a negative axiological value.

Basically, therefore, the IN-OUT subsidiary image schema activates the production of metaphors of inclusivity and exclusivity. Kenya is viewed as the mother container, within which are sub-containers. The mother container has Kenyans as its contents. Exclusivity means other Kenyans (read regional representatives) are not involved in the running of affairs of the nation. This has been demonstrated by the winner-takes all ideology which reached its peak in 2017 when other regions almost seceded. It is this schema that activated the utterance 'tunakula nyama na wanameza mate' (we eat meat, they salivate). It is the IN-OUT schema that has made competition for the presidency in Kenya fatally competitive because of the perception that when 'our man' is IN, things are better for 'us' and it is 'our' time to eat. So many financial scandals are attributable to the IN orientation while resistance is attributable to the OUT orientation. The March 9th handshake was meant to correct this situation that had threatened the stability of Kenya. Kenyans look forward to the proposed constitutional referendum that it is hoped will make governance more inclusive.

Conclusion

From the findings of the study, both the Conceptual Metaphor Theory and the Image Schema Theory are important for the comprehension of metaphors of politics in political discourse in Kenya. They make the comprehension of politics, an abstract phenomenon, vivid and interesting.

The PATH and the CONTAINER image schemas play an important role in the conceptualization of politics in Kenya. The PATH image schema activates the production of the VERTICALITY, the PROCESS and the FORCE-MOTION subsidiary image schemas. The VERTICALITY subsidiary image schema activates the production of metaphors of the positive-self and negative-other presentation; the PROCESS image schema activates the production of metaphors that demonstrate that politics is an activity with a source and a goal and the FORCE-MOTION schema activates metaphors that portray politics as a rigorous process with a motivation

(compulsion), blockage from opponents, conflict between opponents (counterforce) and strategies to achieve one's goal (removal of restraint). The CONTAINER image schema, on the other hand, activates the EXCESS and the IN-OUT subsidiary image schemas. The EXCESS schema shows the unsatiable thirst of politicians for accumulation of wealth that leads to corruption while the IN-OUT activates metaphors of inclusivity and exclusivity respectively.

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Research and publish, publish or perish, so what?

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Abstract

Research primarily is geared towards creation of new knowledge. Researchers in Applied Linguistics are expected to identify and solve linguistic problems in the society. For this to be realized scholars in applied linguistics should engage in research that influences policy formulation or change of policy and also engage stakeholders at the formative stages of the research process .Over the years, scholars have pursued Applied Linguistics and explored varied issues in an endeavour to acquire certificates for different motivations. In each and every institution of higher learning in Kenya, there has been a research policy that at the undergraduate level, each and every student must come up with a project before graduation. The Commission of University Education has passed that at the post graduate level, a candidate pursuing masters should publish a paper from their research project or dissertation before graduation. At the PhD level, one has to publish two papers from their research work. Of what value are these research activities? As applied linguistics researchers we need to bring the policy actors and stakeholders on board. This paper explores platforms, strategies and opportunities which an applied linguist can maximize in engaging the policy actors. Further, the paper examines the tools and skills that an applied linguist should have for effective communication with various types of stakeholders to get value for the research conducted. Also, the paper explores the tools which an applied linguist can use for mapping policy actors. It is hoped that the issues addressed in this paper will be instrumental to an applied linguist on how to engage the stakeholders in the research process and also the implementation of the research findings to facilitate formulation of policies that bring change.

Key words

Applied Linguistic, Commission of Higher Education, perish, policy actors, publish,, stakeholders and Commission of Higher Education,

Introduction

Most scholars research and publish for different motivations. The most apparent reason for researching and publishing is a scholarly activity which has been undertaken for decades. Others do it out of the love and interest that they have for writing. This observation means that researching and publishing are out of intrinsic motivation. Other scholars will publish because it is a condition by the disciplines they are pursuing.

One such motivation is for promotion, especially if such a scholar is an academic staff. Commission for University Education (CUE) provides a publication formula which is used besides other parameters such as teaching experience, ability to attract research funds, mentorship staff that are due for promotion. The more publications a researcher or scholar has, the more the points during consideration for a promotion. Ouma (2018) notes that the standardisation of the CUE guidelines on publication may not reflect the actual contribution of authors. CUE may not reflect the real contribution of authors. Again the scholars are pressurised to publish or "perish". This pressure makes even some to publish in 'predatory' journals on a pay-as-you publish basis. From a different perspective, some individuals may also piece up unmerited work and publish as single authors. Even as other scholars such as Ouma (2018) recommend that the CUE should adopt the internationally established standards of

recognising academicians' research on other platforms such as web rankings and others provided.

Brown (2017) opines that publishing increases the credibility of the research, the practitioner and puts the knowledge in a permanent and searchable record. The practitioner can be inferred that by publishing in peer-reviewed journals, the other researchers and scholars who refer to your publication will seem to believe the contents than when referring to a blog or even another source.

The practitioner again, who publishes in a credible journal, is rated higher than those who publish in predatory journals. However, Sherman (2014) advances two apparent reasons why practitioners research; to prove to the funders that they spent the money well and show their employers that they are utilising their free time adding the prestige of the University. From this perspective, it is clear that the motivation for publishing is self-centred. Nevertheless, the scholar asserts that there are some compelling reasons to publish. These are, for the researcher to understand his or her discovery, to get reviews, especially before the paper is published and lastly to become part of the scientific community. Sherman and Brown seem to agree that a practitioner who has published is highly regarded than the one who has not. Another voice to this ongoing issue on publishing is Kramer (2012) who alludes to Sherman's perspective that publications provide recognition within the field of the author by becoming reputable as a key opinion leader. Gilles Pie (2018) reasoning on why scholars publish is similar in some way with the previously referred scholars. She notes that publishing enables the practitioner to attain avowal for their research word and also build a professional reputation. Just like other scientists, applied linguists conduct research and publish the findings for their advancement in terms of being promoted as academic staff. Lack of publication translates to stagnation in terms of their cadres as academic staff.

This situation leads to the coinage of the slogan 'publish or perish' emanates. As a scholar, I entirely agree and strive to achieve this in my entire academic life. But the question is, for whom should we publish? Bascoro and Almeida (2006) note that the use of research results for policy decision-making is gaining greater prominence in recent years. They attribute this to the outstanding processes of world change, which call for concrete evidence to support or challenge the novelty which is implemented in varied contexts. As social scientists, we should embrace this trend, which was initiated in the 20thcentury. Research findings should be used to formulate policies that bring change. It is, therefore, vital to connect researchers with policy actors and practitioners. This paper shades light on how an applied linguist, being a social scientist, can reach out to the policy actors.

The first part of the paper explores platforms, strategies and opportunities that are at an applied linguist disposal to engage the policy makers maximally. The second part examines the tools and skills that an applied linguist should possess for effective communication with various types of stakeholders. Further, the paper examines the mapping tools that can be used to grade the stakeholders.

For any research to translate to policy formulation or policy change, the policy actors should be engaged at the formative stages of the investigation. The early engagement harnesses practical information for study and also helps to create an audience for the research findings and recommendations. This engagement can be done at the development/presentation of the concept, especially with the in-charge of the institution where the research would be based. It is important to consult at the initial stages of the study with the people who 'matter' as far as one's research problem so that later one may engage them in the implementation stage of the research recommendations. For instance, if the area of research is based on clinical linguistics, it is crucial for the researcher to engage the superintendent of the specific hospital in

which the investigation will be conducted. However, some applied linguists may lack information on strategies, opportunities and platforms that they can use to engage the stakeholders. Therefore, this section explores them as follows;

Strategies for preparing for stakeholder engagement

From the onset of any research idea, an applied linguist should have highly ranked descriptions on how to approach stakeholders. There are three aspects of putting stakeholders in as far as engagement, mapping and looking for ways of defining their influences.

An applied linguist should frame their findings to appeal to the interests of their audience. The framing should happen in situations where there are no policy windows that already exist. An applied linguist should concentrate on researching issues that are current and try to look for solutions to the problems at hand. By doing so, he or she will know who to engage and why?

An applied linguist should choose the right tool and platform to reach out to the relevant stakeholder or policy actor. A decision should be made from the formative stages of the research on which policy actors to engage and how.

An applied linguist who would want to influence policy formulation should ensure that they value all the relevant policy actors and stakeholders to ensure that they own the subject under research from the initial stage and start thinking on how best it can be incorporated in the policy. An applied linguist should devise a way of engaging the relevant policymakers without taking up their time. This section highlights the strategies that an applied linguist can use.

Message box

The message box captures the five areas of a research concept. These are; the problem being addressed which should be apparent and create curiosity. The researcher should pose the following questions to identify the problem: What specific problem or piece of the issue am I addressing in broad terms? What is the most critical issue? So what? Why does this matter to my audience? What happens if it is not resolved? The gain or loss of addressing the subject is also included and the benefit; which is a list of stakeholders to benefit Solutions – the question to pose is what the potential benefits of resolving this problem are? A message box captures the researchers' message (summarise the issue one is tackling, challenges, benefits and the issue at hand).

Elevator pitch

An applied linguist should be able to state his or her primary research area within one minute when asked. The name –elevator pitch- reflects the idea that it should be possible to deliver the summary of the research idea in the period of an elevator ride or approximates 30 seconds to 2 minutes. This strategy is suggested due to the limited available amount of time. This strategy enables a researcher to express the most important ideas or concepts in the shortest time possible.

The researcher should be lucid and may follow these stages; a) trigger – which is the starting point b) development – output which is a short description of a research idea that explains the concept in such a way that any listener can understand it in a short period. The development stage describes who the product is for, what it does, why it is needed, and how it will get done. For the latter, when explaining to an individual, the description generally explains one's skills and goals and why they would be a productive and beneficial person to have on a term. An elevator pitch does not necessarily include all of these components, but it usually does at least explain what the idea is and why it is valuable. Elevator pitch as a strategy is used to entice a stakeholder or describe a thought. The goal is to convey the overall concept or topple

excitingly. The name –elevator pitch- reflects the idea that it should be possible to deliver the summary in the period of an elevator ride or approximates 30 seconds to 2 minutes. It is advantageous as a strategy since it is a useful strategy which minimises on time to be use when a researcher is explaining the research concept to a potential policy actor or stakeholder.

Policy briefs

A policy brief is a concise summary of a particular issue, the policy options to deal with and some recommendations on the best option. It is aimed at government policymakers and others who are interested in formulating or influencing policy. There are two types of policy briefs. These are;

Advocacy brief – argues in favour of a particular course of action.

Objective brief – gives balanced information for the policymaker to make up his or her mind.

A policy brief should provide enough background information for the reader to understand the problem. Again, the researcher should convince the reader that the issue must be addressed urgently by providing evidence to support one alternative. A policy brief should be stimulating to prompt the policy actor to make a decision.

A policy brief should be short and to the point focusing only on meanings – what one finds out (the research findings) relate to a big picture. Most importantly, policymakers are busy people and are probably not specialist in one's area; therefore they are likely to read only something that: Looks attractive, appears unusual and is short and easy to read. A policy brief should meet this criterion.

Press release

A press release is a ticket to publicity. It a tool made to announce something newsworthy in the most objective way possible. This is a strategy that an applied linguist can maximise to reach out to policy actors. The whole purpose of a press release is to get coverage and get noticed by a target audience. The coverage, therefore, serves as a means of communication to the research findings and recommendation. As a means of communication, the press release can be written, recorded, or even shown. When writing a press release, it's essential to start with basic questions like who did what, when and where it happened, what it was for. This tool should be short and straightforward and preferably in a form that allows copying and passing because journalists are always busy. The press release should be precise and to the point. It should be written with an attention-grabbing headline in bold format. The lead sentence should be a concise summary of the subject of, and the rest of the body should capture the essential details of your research, who, what, when, why and how?

Platforms for an applied linguist

This section of the paper explores the platforms that an applied linguist can use for engagement of the stakeholders. The platforms enable policy actors to act on the research findings.

Newspapers

An applied linguist can make use of the newspaper to reach out the policy actors. A newspaper is a powerful tool, and it has broad readership. For the findings to be printed in the paper, the researcher will present an article in the opinion editorial to the editor. Once printed, it can attract relevant policy actor who in turn may contact the author. This way, the findings will affect policy change. For instance, if an applied researcher has conducted a study on "The role of an applied linguist in the preservation of the Dholuo folklore", this may interest the minister in charge of gender

and culture in the Luo Nyanza County. The minister may partner with the applied linguist in ensuring that Dholuo culture does not die (culture death). Again, the applied linguist who succeeds in having his or her findings appear in the opinion editorials column may be called upon in a radio show or television to shed more light. Weintraut (2013) notes that editorial writers build on an argument and try to influence public opinion to promote critical thinking, and sometimes cause people to take action on an issue. For these reasons, therefore, newspaper editorials can change the way things are done (policy).

Television

Television channels are good news sources. According to the Communications Authority of Kenya, the number of TV stations has risen to 66 since 2015. An applied researcher could come in contact with the host of a talk show in any of the television channels and even express interest of being a participant in such shows. Through these shows, the applied linguist can get the attention of a policy actor who may then contact him or her for more discussion. Ilie (2006) notes that talk shows are widely influential media phenomena. This observation means that it is a robust platform that can be utilised to reach out to the relevant stakeholders. According to this researcher, talk shows are geared to public debate using party conversation and that they target at the same time a multiple audiences. Again applied linguists should be part and parcel of the solution to the issues at hand. Therefore through the talk shows, an applied linguist can give insights to social or moral problems. Linguistic problems are presented in society. For instance, if an applied linguist is researching on 'the Language used in a hospital set-up and how that affects service delivery', he/she can present the findings of the research on television which may get attention of the Cabinet Secretary of Health who may later on engage the applied linguist for making the issue clearer. This move may change the way the medics communicate with the patients.

Radio

Radio stations in Kenya are an excellent means of making Kenyans, and even the world informed of the latest news and up-to-date information from Kenya and beyond. According to the Kenya Communications Authority, there are over 100 radio stations in Kenya. Lee (2002) advances that some scholars argue that talk shows can provide forums for public deliberation since they consist of persons who are invited to shed more light on the issues which are of public interest. The guests advance their circumstances and their position. Research findings which are as a result of rigorous and credible work are regarded to be factual. In this regard, an applied linguist can liaise with radio talk shows hosts to be invited in one of such programme to air out their findings and recommendations. Radio is a medium which has an extensive listenership. In this case, the talk show may catch the attention of relevant policy actors. For example, if the researcher is researching on 'how gender roles are reflected in the current Kenyan secondary school set books', such talk may be listened to by a human rights activist who may take up the discussion to a higher level primarily if the gender is represented in a biased way. This explanation implies that the radio is a platform that an applied researcher can use to reach out to the would-be policy actors for the utilisation of the research findings.

Social media platforms

There are several social media platforms that an applied linguist can maximise to reach out to the policy actors. These include the blogs, twitter, Facebook, Whatsapp, Instagram, slide share, among others. All these provide an opportunity for the researcher to discuss research findings. These forums offer the researcher to write freely the conclusions and recommendations which may get the attention of a policy actor.

Opportunities

An applied linguist researcher has several opportunities to engage policy actors that can be exploited to his/her disadvantage. These opportunities if used maximally can enhance the researcher's quest to influence policy formulation or change. Some of these opportunities are as expounded in the section that follows.

Conference Dinner

During conferences, the CEO's or the Vice Chancellor of the organisation or institution may invite the participants for a conference dinner. During such informal forums, there are free interactions, especially among all those who attend. An applied linguist should grasp such an opportunity and maximise it to his/her advantage. Introductions are part of the dinner and this means that one can easily reach out to the relevant policy actor. For instance, if the applied linguist is conducting a study on the communication strategies in a given University or organisation, he or she may approach the Vice Chancellor during the conference dinner and engage him or her armed with the findings with the aim of drafting a communication policy for the organisation or institution. Upon having the opportunity at hand, an applied linguist can pitch the results without spending much of the Vice Chancellor's time since he/she has the right strategies.

Any other business

In each and every notice of meeting, there is always a list of matters to be considered and discussed or to be transacted. Any other business is among the items on the agenda. This revelation means that during such time, members can sneak in issues that are not part of the business to be transacted. Applied linguists are affiliated to different groups and organisations which hold meetings. Therefore, such is timely avenues that he or she can raise specific findings and recommendations on an area he or she had been researching. During the meeting, there could be a relevant stakeholder whose attention can be attracted to the sentiments of the researcher. If this occurs, the applied linguist can, later on, be engaged by the policy actor during which the researcher can clarify some issues.

Workshops

Workshops present possible opportunities which an applied linguist can use to reach out to the policy actors. This is so since workshops are meant for people who are working together or are working in the same field. Again, the workshops are facilitated by people who have real experience in the subject under discussion. It is, therefore, possible that some of the facilitators could be policy actors. An applied linguist can raise findings from research work that he/she has conducted, which is geared towards changing or formulating a policy. Workshops encourage the attendees to participate in a seminar actively. The workshop period is an opportunity which an applied linguist should grab and make use of so as to reach the policy actors.

Request by organisations or institutions to be Keynote speakers

Applied linguists should take advantage of any offer or opportunity for engaging in activities which are initiated by, or is in the interest of the target policy actor or stakeholder. For example, an applied linguist researching on gender issues that may hinder the proper implementation of the basic education act should attend all meetings organised by the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) and the non-governmental organisations that agitate for gender parity in education. Again the applied linguist should not decline any request to take up an advisory role with an NGO or even giving keynote speeches at organised conferences by professionals. Such requests present valuable opportunities which should be used to influence the mindset of the attendees on a given issue, possibly one which he/she would wish he/she has researched on.

An Applied Linguist as a policy actor

It is vital all times for applied linguist researchers to ask the so what question as they conceive research ideas. This question is crucial as it enables the researchers to uncover the stakeholders in the area of research field whom they can partner with to change the society.

Research in applied linguistics should be geared towards solving linguistic problems in society. (Policy research).As applied linguists, researchers should be guided by the so what question. It is essential to list all the policy actors in one's area of research. For instance, policy actors in applied linguistics research on gender representation in English teaching and learning materials are; Publishers, Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development, Ministry of Education, authors, teachers, learners, Gender-based organisations, KNEC.

Once the policy actors are identified, their constellations should be analysed based on interest, power, influence on each other and coalitions. The analysis of actors constellations gives; a clear picture of conflicts of interest, Potential alliances, an opportunity to determine clusters of stakeholders who may inhibit different levels of interest, capacities and interest in the issue in question

In the above example, the researcher will have to engage the MOE, KICD, the publishers and the authors. The question is, how? At this point, the applied researcher will have to come up with tools which he/she will use for mapping these policy actors. Mapping the policy actors of research is a complicated and time-consuming exercise since it identifies which policy actors are in which quadrant and how to move stakeholders

Some mapping tools that can be used include;

Net maps

A net map is an interview-based mapping tool that enables people to understand, visualise, discuss and improve situations in which many different actors influence. The network map is a crucial exercise for starting to analyse the influence of policy actors and tap into previously uncovered groupings. Using this mapping tool, individuals and groups can clarify their perspective of a situation, foster discussion and develop a strategic approach to networking activities. In the earlier example where an applied linguist is researching on gender representation in English textbooks, using the net maps, gender-based NGOs, the MOE, KICD, the publishers, the authors and the teachers will present their views on gender and the current position on how the issue of gender is represented in the TLM. The presentation will foster discussion on the subject at each of the stakeholders engages the other. Ultimately each of the policy actors will develop a strategic approach on the issue of gender, and the different perspectives.Net maps help the researchers to determine; what actors are involved in a given network? How are they linked? How influential are they? What their goals are?

A net map allows researchers to be more strategic about how they act in these complex situations. This mapping tool helps researchers to answer questions on whether they should strengthen the links to influential supporters (high influence, same goals), e.g. gender-based NGOs. Would have a high influential in a study investigating gender inequalities .Whether to be aware of a prominent actor who does not share your goal is also a pertinent question. For example, publishers. Yet another question would be whether increased networking helps empower the researchers' dis-empowered beneficiaries. This tool is low-tech and low cost and can be used well with the rural community as well as policy actors.

The process of net mapping includes; Preparation-define question, links, goals and decide who is to be involved. Actor selection-write names of actors involved. Draw

links- on who is linked to whom. Arrows should be drawn according to interviewee direction. The goals of each policy actor are written and influence towers assigned to each of the policy actors. After the stipulation of the goals, there is a need to establish what the network means for the strategy of the organisation, the source of the influence and also the outcome in the case in case of conflicting interests

Participatory impact pathways analysis

PIPA is designed to help researchers to make explicit their theories of change (how they can achieve their goals and having input). This tool is drawn from program theory evaluation, social network analysis and research to reveal and foster development. Project pathways describe how the project will develop outputs and the policy actors who can be involved to achieve growth and impact positively to the project at hand. Researchers and policy actors' work together to map knowledge and research products must scale up to meet the desired change.

A crucial feature of PIPA is scaling out- building a favourable institutional environment for the emerging change process through; a positive word of mouth, organised publicity, Political lobbying, Policy change. For instance, a research project that is piloting the challenges of using mother tongue as a medium of instruction in lower primary, coming up with a project's Impact pathways may involve the Ministry of Education which will encourage broad adoption. Secure positive communication between the researcher and the MoE and strong joint implementation-increases the likelihood of the MOE effective use of the research findings. Another impact pathway might be for the researcher to use evidence from the study to influence decision-makers in the MOE services head office to support the work. PIPA encourage researchers in research for development projects to want their research to bring about development outcomes.

Impact pathways raise the profile and give legitimacy to brokering activities in which researchers are actively involved in establishing the interpersonal and organisational links, which will be needed for future impact. The impact pathways are crucial in explaining a research's rationale for it links the project goal framed in terms of a challenge or problem and what the project is going to achieve.

Problem trees

A problem tree is a useful tool for understanding the different points of view of various policy actors. Problem trees describe the main problem. Problem trees focus on issues rather than opportunities. They may appear negative and can turn the problem trees into objective trees-achieved by reframing the problem into the desired state. This is done to motivate the policy actors on the positive change to be brought about by the research.

For instance, in investigating how well mother tongue can be used as a medium of instruction in lower primary, some of the foreseen problems would be a -- cosmopolitan community where different mother tongues are spoken, The TSC delocalisation policy, Town set up where children learn Kiswahili or English as their mother tongue and Intermarriages.

This tool is good at causality-only identifies what the research work is doing and what it needs to do to have the desired impact. Problem trees do not identify who needs to do what. To overcome this weakness, the tool should be combined with another one. For example network maps (identifies the policy actors responsible). A branch of a problem tree ends once it has identified a problem that the project will solve e.g. in coming up with a problem tree of the representation of gender in TLM, a branch will end when it has identified gender inequality which will be addressed by the research.

Campfire

This mapping tool involves drawing of campfires representing the stakeholders by the facilitator. The stakeholders who have the power (and so can see and talk with each other, as well as get all the heat) are close to the fire while the ones with the least power are furthest away. The Stakeholders are then depicted by different sized circles – where the diameter of the loop refers to that stakeholder's interest/dependence etc. on that resource. This representation provides a basis for discussion, argument, negotiation and eventually agreement. It can be layered in that different stakeholder groups can do their analysis first and then it can be combined. Schiffer (2008) notes that campfire is another excellent and easy tool to understand the picture, which represents the power of the various stakeholders in terms of implementing the research findings and recommendations. The process is even made more manageable by adding links between the different actors which simplifies the understanding of what happens (flows) between the stakeholders.

Alignment-Interest and Influence Matrix (AIIM)

This AIIM helps researchers to unearth the stakeholders in their area of research. It is a crucial mapping tool for it allows researchers to be in a position to answer the question so what? At the initial stages of conceiving the research idea, it's vital to list all the relevant stakeholders. The next step involves sorting out the listed stakeholders into quadrants in terms of engagements based on the degree of alignment and interest and degree of influence.

The AIIM can be represented in a table as follows:

Alignment—Interest and Influence Matrix (AIIM)

High

Quadrant 1	Quadrant 3
Quadrant 2	Quadrant 4

Degree of Alignment

Table 1

Low High

Degree of influence

Interpretation of the AIIM table 1

Those stakeholders

In quadrant 2 have both a low degree of alignment and interest and low degree of influence.

Quadrant 1 has a high degree of alignment and interest but a low degree of influence

In quadrant 3 are critical in terms of engagements since they are aligned to the researchers' objectives, and they have the influence. That is they have both a high degree of alignment and interest and degree of influence

In quadrant 4 have a high degree of influence but a low degree of alignment and interest.

Researchers should engage the stakeholders in quadrants 1, 2 and 4 by coming up with mechanisms to convince them to create interest so that they move to quadrant 3. This observation means that none of the stakeholders should be ignored in terms of engagement regardless of the quadrant they fall in since all of them are important and should be brought on board for intended change to occur.

Conclusion

Researchers should be encouraged to align their research activities to real issues in their societies to offer practical solutions and input accordingly. There is a need to publish research work for the benefits of others and researchers themselves. Indeed it is essential to engage relevant policy actors at the initial stages of our research so that we align our research to the societal needs and also fast track the implementation of the research findings. As applied linguists, we need to make use of the opportunities, strategies and platforms at our disposal to reach out to relevant policy actors.

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Mifanyiko Ya Unyambulishaji Wa Vitenzi Katika Kigĩchũgũ

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Ikisiri

Unyambulishaji wa vitenzi ni mojawapo ya masuala yanayoshughulikiwa katika taaluma ya mofolojia katika lugha nyingi za Kiafrika. Makala hii inashughulikia unyambulishaji wa vitenzi katika Kigĩchũgũ, mojawapo ya lugha za kiafrika, kwa kufafanua mifanyiko inayohusika katika utaratibu wa unyambulishaji wa vitenzi katika Kigĩchũgũ na kutathmini kanuni zinazoruhusu au kuzuia mifanyiko hiyo ya unyambulishaji. Katika uainishaji wa Guthrie (1967), Kigĩchũgũ ni mojawapo ya lugha za Kiafrika ambayo hudhihirisha unyambulishaji. Nadharia ya Mofolojia Leksia (Kiparsky 1982 na Katamba 1993) na Kanuni ya Kioo (Baker 1985) zimetumiwa kueleza mfuatano wa mofimu nyambulishi katika vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ. Data ya vitenzi sitini (60) vya Kigĩchũgũ ilitumika katika makala hii. Vitenzi hivi viliwekwa katika kauli sita za unyambulishaji na kuainisha mifanyiko inayohusika katika utaratibu wa unyambulishaji kwa kutumia jedwali la mnyambuliko wa vitenzi. Makala hii inachangia katika kuongeza maarifa ya kiutafiti kuhusu sarufi ya Kigĩchũgũ na kuhifadhi lugha ya Kigĩchũgũ kama mojawapo ya lugha za Kiafrika katika maandishi.

Maneno makuu; *Unyambulishaji, Mifanyiko, Vitenzi, Kigĩchũgũ*

Utangulizi

Unyambulishaji ni aina mojawapo ya uambikaji. Kwa mujibu wa Gawasike (2012), uambikaji ni upachikaji wa mofu kabla na baada ya mzizi wa neno na ambao umegawika katika sehemu mbili; uambishaji na unyambulishaji. Anaeleza kuwa mgawanyo wake ni mzizi wa neno. Uambikaji ni dhana ya juu (kiambajengo cha juu) ikiundwa na viambajengo sisisi ambavyo ni uambishaji na unyambulishaji. Unyambulishaji ni mojawapo ya mifanyiko inayotokea katika kitenzi. Waihiga (1999: 152), anafafanua kuwa unyambulishaji hutokana na vitenzi viwili ambavyo ni **nyambua** na **nyumbua**. Anaeleza **kunyambua** kama kukata kitu vipande vipande na **kunyumbua** kama kuvuta vitenzi ili kuvirefusha hivyo kuunda kauli mbalimbali za unyambulishaji. Kwa mujibu wa Kihore, Massamba na Msanjila (2012), unyambulishaji ni upachikaji wa viambishi kwenye mzizi ili kuunda maneno mapya. Wanaendelea kusema kuwa katika lugha ya Kiswahili kuna viambishi nyambulishi ambavyo hutumika katika uundaji wa vitenzi vipya. Kihore, Massamba na Msanjila (wataje) wanafafanua unyambulishaji wa vitenzi kama utaratibu wa uundaji wa vitenzi vipya katika lugha kwa kuongeza viambishi nyambulishi kwenye maumbo ya mzizi. Kwa mfano kitenzi #piga# kinanyambuliwa kwa kufuata utaratibu huu ambao hufanyika katika hatua kama vile:

piga

Pig-w-a

Pig-an-a

Pig-i-a

Pig-i-an-a

Pig-i-w-a

Pig-an-ish-a

(Asili: Kihore, Massamba na Msanjila, 2012: 122)

Kihore, Massamba na Msanjila (2012) wanaeleza kuwa hatua ya kwanza ni ile ya kiambishi kinachofuata mzizi moja kwa moja kama inavyodhihirika katika mifano a), b) na c); na hatua ya pili ni ya kiambishi nyambulishi cha pili kutoka kwenye mzizi kama inavyodhihirika katika mifano d), e) na f

Heine na Mohlig (1980: 20) wanatilia mkazo kuwa lugha nyingi nchini Kenya zina utaratibu fulani wa unyambulishaji wa vitenzi. Wanasema kuwa nchini Kenya lugha zinaweza kugawika katika makundi mawili: Kundi la kwanza ni la lugha zilizopungukiwa katika mofolojia ya uundaji wa maneno ambazo wataalamu hawa wanasema kuwa huwa na kauli chache za unyambulishaji wa vitenzi. Kundi la pili ni la lugha zilizoimarika katika mofolojia ya uundaji wa maneno na ambazo huwa na kauli nyingi za unyambulishaji wa vitenzi. Baadhi ya kanuni za unyambulishaji wanazozitambua ni pamoja na kauli ya kutendwa, kutendesha, kutendea, kutendua, kutendana miongoni mwa zingine.

Kigĩchũgũ ni mojawapo ya lugha za Kikuyu inayozungumzwa katika Kaunti ya Kirinyaga nchini Kenya. Kaunti hii hupakana na Kaunti ya Nyeri upande wa Kaskazini Magharibi, Kaunti ya Murang'a upande wa Magharibi na Kaunti ya Embu upande wa Mashariki na Kusini. Kaunti ya Kirinyaga imegawanywa katika Kaunti ndogo tano; Kirinyaga ya Mashariki, Kirinyaga Magharibi, Kirinyaga ya Kati, Mwea Mashariki na Mwea Magharibi. Kigĩchũgũ huzungumzwa na wakaazi ambao hupatikana katika Kaunti ndogo ya Kirinyaga Mashariki.

Kwa mujibu wa Mutahi (1977) Kigĩchũgũ ni miongoni mwa lahaja za mashariki. Lahaja zingine ni kama vile, Kiembu, Kimbeere, na Kindia. Mutahi (keshatajwa), anasema kuwa wazungumzaji wa lahaja ya Kigĩchũgũ huwa kati ya mto Rupingazi na Thiba. Anasema kuwa Rupingazi huwatenga na Wagichũgũ na Waembu nao Thiba huwatenga na Kindia. Anaendelea kusema kuwa mpaka halisi kati ya Ndia na Gĩchũgũ ni mto Rutui. Kulingana na sensa za mwaka wa 2009, tarafa ya Gĩchũgũ ambayo ndiyo kitovu cha wazungumzaji halisi wa Kigĩchũgũ ilikuwa na wazungumzaji elfu mia moja ishirini na nne, mia sita sabini na mbili (124,672). Kulingana na Mipango ya Maendeleo ya Kaunti ya Kirinyaga mwaka wa 2018-2022, wazungumzaji wa Kigĩchũgũ mwaka wa 2019 wanakisiwa kuwa elfu mia moja arobaini na nne, mia nane arobaini na nane (144,848). Uainishaji wa Guthrie (1967) ulipangilia lugha ya Kikuyu katika kundi la E51. Kwa mujibu wa Nurse na Philippson (2003), lugha ya Kibantu ni kundi la lugha ambalo ni tawi la lugha za Niger-Kongo. Wanatambua kwamba jamii za Kibantu huishi Afrika. Katika maelezo yao, wanatambua Kikuyu miongoni mwa lugha za Kibantu. Wanaendelea kusema kuwa lugha za Kibantu zimeimarika sana katika mofolojia ya uundaji wa maneno na mofolojia ya unyambulishaji wa vitenzi.

Schadeberg (2003) anaeleza kuwa vitenzi vya Kibantu vina uwezo mkubwa wa mzizi kubeba viambishi aidha vya nafsi, njeo, urejeshi na hata viambishi vya unyambulishaji. Kutokana na maelezo yake Schadeberg (mtaje), kitenzi cha Kigĩchũgũ kina uwezo mkubwa wa kubeba viambishi kuliko aina zingine za maneno katika lugha hii. Kama ilivyo katika Kiswahili, vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ huchukua viambishi awali na viambishi tamati hivyo basi makala hii inashughulikia viambishi tamati kwani ndivyo hupachikwa baada ya mzizi wa vitenzi katika mfanyiko wa unyambulishaji.

Lengo la Makala

Makala hii iliongozwa na lengo la kufafanua mifanyiko inayohusika katika utaratibu wa unyambulishaji wa vitenzi katika Kigĩchũgũ.

Unyambulishaji wa Vitenzi katika Lugha za Kiafrika

Suala la unyambulishaji wa vitenzi limeshughulikiwa na wataalamu kama vile; Kiango (2008) anasema kwamba, michakato yote ya unyambulishaji katika Kiswahili inatawaliwa na kanuni za kifonolojia na kimofolojia. Anaendelea kusema kuwa kanuni za unyambulishaji vitenzi ambazo zinatumiwa katika mizizi au mashina ya vitenzi zinazalisha aina mbalimbali za unyambuaji tenzi. Baadhi ya aina hizo ni kama vile; unyambuzi- tendea, unyambuzi- tendana, unyambuzi- hali, unyambuzi-tendeshana unyambuzi-tendwa.

Unyambulishaji wa vitenzi ya Kigryama umeshughulikiwa na Ngowa (2008) huku akionyesha jinsi Kigryama ni lugha ya Kibantu kwa kurejelea dhana ya kitenzi. Katika utafiti wake, anatumia mtazamo wa fonolojia leksishi ambao unatambua kuwa uambishaji wa maneno unaandamana na mageuzi au sheria za kifonolojia za kiwango kimoja. Katika utafiti wake anashughulikia muundo wa ndani wa kitenzi akiegemea pia katika eneo la mofolojia. Anatambua kwamba kitenzi cha Kigryama kina uwezo mkubwa wa kubeba viambishi kuliko aina zingine za maneno. Amezingatia kikamilifu jinsi kanuni za fonolojia leksishi zimetumiwa ili kuongoza unyambulishaji wa vitenzi.

Akishughulikia unyambulishaji wa vitenzi katika lugha ya Runyankole, Asiimwe (2011), alijadili mofimu za Utendea, Usababishi, Utendeka na Utendwa. Alibainisha kuwa unyambulishaji wa vitenzi katika Runyankole, mojawapo ya lugha za Kiafrika, unahusisha mizizi ya vitenzi ambapo mofimu nyambulishi hupachikwa. Anatambua kwamba mofimu nyambulishi za usababishi hupokezwa kitenzi kwanza kabla ya utendwa. Anaeleza kuwa usababishi huunda kitenzi elekezi kutokana kile ambacho sielekezi kwa sababu vitenzi elekezi tu ndivyo vinaweza kupokea utendwa.

Charwi (2013), alishughulikia unyambulishaji wa vitenzi katika Kikuria akiwa na lengo la kueleza matokeo ya vitenzi vya Kikuria baada ya unyambulishaji na idadi ya viambishi vinavyoweza kuwekwa pamoja kwenye kitenzi. Alichanganua unyambulishaji wa vitenzi ili kuonyesha dhana ya uelekezi unavyojitokeza na kuonyesha upekee na ufanano wa lugha ya Kikuria na lugha nyingine za Kibantu kama vile, Kinyambo, Kinyamwezi, Kibosho miongoni mwa lugha zingine. Utafiti wa Charwi (mtaje) ulilenga kufafanua athari za unyambulishaji kisintaksia. Aidha, anagundua kuwa vitenzi vya Kikuria kama ilivyo kwenye lugha nyingi za Kibantu huwa na sifa tofauti tofauti kulingana na aina ya kitenzi. Kwa mfano, anasema kuwa vitenzi si elekezi havihitaji yambwa wakati vitenzi elekezi huhitaji yambwa moja au mbili kulingana na asili ya kitenzi chenyewe. Katika kazi yake anatambua kauli ya utendea, usababishi, utendano, utendwa na utendeka. Anaeleza kuwa athari ya vitenzi hivi hutofautiana kutokana na aina za viambishi vilivyopachikwa kwenye mizizi ya vitenzi hivyo.

Akishughulikia Mofosintaksia katika vitenzi vya Keiyo, Jepkoech (2018) alitambua na kujadili mofimu ambishi na nyambulishi. Alilenga kutambua ruwaza za upachikaji katika mpangilio wa vitenzi na kuchanganua kanuni za kimofosintaksia zinazoathiri upachikaji wa viambishi katika kitenzi cha Keiyo. Mtafiti aliongozwa na Nadharia ya Kioo. Katika kazi yake, Jepkoech (keshatajwa) alitambua kwamba mofimu ambishi hutokea mwanzoni mwa kitenzi cha Keiyo isipokuwa zile ambazo huonyesha wakati uliopo na hali ya kuendelea. Alitambua pia kuwa mofimu nyambulishi hutokea mwishoni baada ya mzizi. Katika kazi yake, mtafiti alionyesha kuwa mofimu ambishi hufuata utaratibu wa wakati → ukanusho → hali → nafsi → mzizi. Kwa upande mwingine, alionyesha kuwa mofimu nyambulishi huchukua taratibu mbalimbali.

Misingi ya Kinadharia

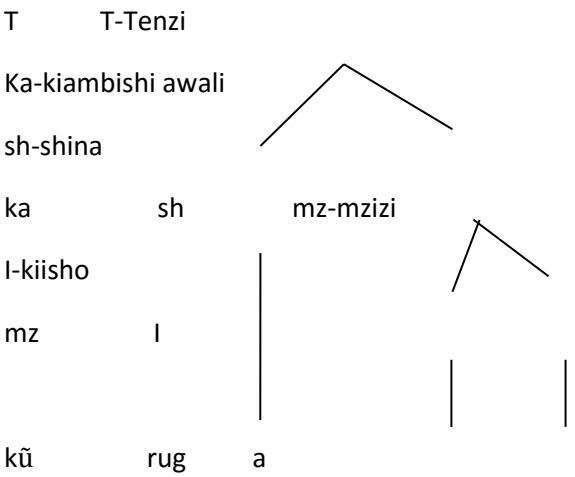
Utafiti huu ulijikita katika misingi ya nadharia ya Mofolojia Leksia (ML). Kwa mujibu wa Kiparsky (1982) na Katamba (1993) nadharia ya Mofolojia Leksia iliibuka kufidia mtazamo wa

Chomsky wa sarufi zalishi (SZ) ambao haukutambua kiwango cha mofolojia kama kiwango mahususi cha lugha. Katamba (mtaje) amefafanua Nadharia ya Mofolojia Leksia kwa kuzingatia uambishi wa maneno kwa jumla ikiwemo vitenzi. Nadharia ya Mofolojia Leksia (ML) inatambua viwango viwili vya sheria: sheria leksia na sheria kirai. Sheria Leksia ni zile ambazo zinafungamana na kanuni za kifonolojia katika kuunda neno husika kwa namna ambavyo umbo la mzizi hubadilika linapoongezewa viambishi katika neno. Sheria Kirai huathiri kiambishi katika neno kwa kukipitisha mageuzi yanayohusu vokali zinazopatikana.

ML inahusisha mihimili sita ya uamilifu wa sheria mahususi za kisarufi. (Katamba 1993). Mihimili hii ni; ngazi leksia, mzunguko wa sheria, kufuta mabano, kwingineko, kuhifadhi muundo na ufinyu wa sifa. Mihimili minne ndiyo iliyotumika katika uchanganuzi wa unyambulishaji wa vitenzi katika Kigĩchũgũ.

Kwanza, mhimili wa ngazi leksia unazingatia kwamba umbo la neno linaweza kuelezwa kupitia maumbo ya kisarufi yaani mofimu zenye daraja za mahusiano. (Kiparsky, 1982 na Katamba (1993). Kwa mfano, kitenzi cha Kigĩchũgũ [kuruga] (kupika) kina maumbo kama yafuatayo:

Ngazi leksia katika kitenzi [kuruga]



Maumbo haya yametenganishwa kwa kuzingatia ngazi ambapo kila umbo lina maana bainifu ya kisarufi. Ngazi hizi huwa zenye mahusiano na zinapotenganishwa haziwezi kutoa maana yoyote. Kwa mfano /rug/ peke yake haina maana yoyote mpaka iunganishwe na kiambishi awali /kũ/ pamoja na kiishio /a/ ili kutoa maana ya #kũruga# (kupika). Aidha kiishio /a/ na kiambishi awali /kũ/ havina maana yoyote hadi pale ambapo vinapounganishwa na mzizi /rug/ wa kitenzi husika. Umuhimu wa kanuni hii katika makala ni kuwa unyambulishaji hufanywa kwa utaratibu ambao hufanyika kwa hatua.

Pili, mhimili wa kufuta mabano unazingatia kwamba wakati sheria ya kiwango kimoja ya kifonolojia imetumika, mabano yake hufutwa mpaka mwishowe neno lenye umbo kamili na maana ya kileksia pamoja na umbo la kimofolojia hupatikana. Mhimili huu umetumika kwa sababu umeonyesha kwamba hata baada ya mageuzi ya unyambulishaji wa vitenzi, maumbo mbalimbali huungana na kuwa kitenzi kimoja kamili.

Tatu, mhimili wa kuhifadhi muundo hutambua kwamba baada ya mageuzi ya kifonolojia, muundo wa lugha mahususi sharti uhifadhiwe (Katamba 1993). Kwa mfano, muundo wa lugha za Kibantu ukiwemo Kigĩchũgũ ni ule wa mfuatano wa Konsonanti-Vokali (K-V). Kitenzi cha Kigĩchũgũ /kũ+iya/ [kwiya] (kuiba) kimeweza kutoa kielelezo bora. Uchopekaji wa kiishio {a} unafunga mzizi wa kitenzi kwa vokali. Uyeyushaji wa vokali /u/ katika kiambishi awali

unazalisha fonimu changamano {kw} ambayo inatamkwa kama fonimu moja hivyo basi umbo bora la K-V linadumishwa.

Nne, mhimili wa kwingineko hutumiwa pale ambapo sheria mbili huonekana kushindania nafasi moja. Hali hii hudhihirika katika mofolojia ambapo baada ya uambishi awali katika vitenzi vokali mbili huwa zinafuatana. Jambo hili litokeapo, udondoshaji wa vokali na uyeyushaji wa vokali hutumikizwa (Katamba, 1993). Hata hivyo, mhimili wa kwingineko unapendekeza uyeyushaji wa vokali kwa sababu udondoshaji hutumika katika mazingira mengi. Mfano wa kitenzi [kwina] (kuimba) unadhihirisha uyeyushaji wa vokali. Hii ni kwa sababu kitenzi hiki kina vokali mbili ambazo zinafuatana yaani: [kuina]. Vokali /u/ inapitia uyeyushaji na kuwa /w/ badala ya kudondoshwa.

Nadharia ya ML ilifaa katika makala hii kwani ilisaidia kuonyesha jinsi kanuni za kifonolojia na kimofolojia hushirikiana katika unyambulishaji wa vitenzi katika Kigĩchũgũ. Kanuni ya kioo ilitumika katika makala hii kwani kulingana na Baker (1985) kanuni hii ni kanuni sarufi inayopendekeza kuwa unyambulishaji ni lazima uakisi mfuatano wa kisintaksia na kinyume chake. Kwa mujibu wa Baker (mtaje) unyambulishaji wa vitenzi katika lugha za Kibantu hufuata mpangilio maalum wa unyambulishaji wa vitenzi. Kanuni hii inafaa makala hii kwani ilisaidia katika kushughulikia mifanyiko inayohusika na unyambulishaji wa vitenzi katika Kigĩchũgũ mojawapo ya lugha za Kibantu.

Ukusanyaji wa Data

Ili kupata data ya unyambulishaji wa vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ, watafiti walishiriki katika kutunga sentensi ambapo walichagua vitenzi sitini (60) katika lugha ya Kigĩchũgũ ambavyo walivipanga katika jedwali la usaili wa vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ kwa kushughulikia kauli sita za unyambulishaji na kuainisha kanuni za mageuzi katika Kigĩchũgũ. Idadi hii ilichaguliwa kutumika katika makala hii kwa sababu kulingana na Milroy (1987), tafiti za kiisimu, kama ilivyo makala hii, zinajulikana kuzalisha data yenye uradidi mwingi. Maoni yake ni kuwa kadri data ilivyo kubwa ndivyo kuna uwezekano wa uradidi. Aidha, kwa mujibu wa Chomsky (1957) mzawa wa lugha ana uwezo wa kuzalisha sentensi nyingi sahihi na zisizo na kikomo hivyo basi watafiti kama wazawa na wazungumzaji wa Kigĩchũgũ waliweza kuzalisha vitenzi ambavyo vilitumika katika makala hii na kuvithibitisha kupitia kwa data ambayo walipata kutoka kwa wazungumzaji wengine wa Kigĩchũgũ .

Uchanganuzi wa Data

Kwa mujibu wa Wesana- Chomi (2013), unyambulishaji ni mchakato au mfanyiko wa kuambatisha kiambishi kimoja au zaidi kwenye mzizi wa vitenzi ili kuunda vitenzi vingine. Vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ vina uwezo wa kuambishwa viambishi kwenye mzizi ili kudhihirisha maana tofauti. Vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ hurusu uambishaji tamati katika vitenzi husika. Viambishi tamati ni mofimu ambazo hupachikwa baada ya mzizi wa vitenzi katika mfanyiko wa unyambulishaji. Makala hii imeshughulikia unyambulishaji wa vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ kwa kujadili kauli sita za unyambulishaji: kutendea, kutendwa, kutendesha, kutendana, kutendeka na kutendua kwa kutilia maanani mifanyiko inayohusika katika unyambulishaji wa vitenzi. Katika kazi hii, nadharia ya mofolojia leksia (Kiparsky 1982 na Katamba 1993) na Kanuni ya Kioo (Baker 1985) zimetumiwa ili kueleza mfuatano wa vinyambulishi katika lugha ya Kigĩchũgũ na kutathmini kanuni zinazoruhusu na kuzuia mifanyiko hiyo ya unyambulishaji. Vitenzi hivi vimewekwa katika kauli sita ili kudhihirisha kanuni na sheria zinazotawala mifanyiko ya unyambulishaji katika Kigĩchũgũ. Kauli hizi ni pamoja na:

Kauli ya Kutendea (TDA)

Kauli ya kutendea katika Kigĩchũgũ huweza kuwa na viambishi nyambulishi viwili kutegemea irabu zilizo kwenye mzizi wa kitenzi. Viambishi hivi ni kama vifuatavyo:

Kinyambulishi { -ĩr-}

Katika Kigĩchũgũ, kauli ya TDA huchukua mofimu {-ĩr-} kabla ya irabu ya mwisho kwenye vitenzi katika unyambulishaji. Mofimu hii hutumika iwapo mzizi wa kitenzi una irabu /a/, /i/, / ĩ /, /ũ/au /u/. Kwa mfano,

	Kitenzi	**maana**	**Kauli ya Kutendea**
1	thak-a	cheza	thak-**ĩr**-a
2	bing-a	funga	bing-**ĩr**-a
3	rĩm-a	lima	lim-**ĩr**-a
4	rũg-a	ruka	rug-**ĩr**-a
5	bur-a	panguza	bur-**ĩr**-a

Kinyambulishi {-er-}

Katika Kigĩchũgũ, kinyambulishi {-er-} huchopekwa kwenye unyambulishaji wa vitenzi iwapo mzizi wa vitenzi una irabu /e/ na /o/. Kwa mfano,

	Kitenzi	**maana**	**Kauli ya Kutendea**
6	thom-a	soma	thom-**er**-a
7	tem-a	kata	tem-**er**-a
8	boy-a	omba	bo-**er**-a

Kupitia maelezo haya katika kauli ya TDA, viambishi {-ĩ-} na {-e-} vimetumika katika unyambulishaji. Hata hivyo kiambishi {-r-} kimetumika pia ili kuhifadhi muundo wa Kigĩchũgũ wa Konsonanti-Vokali (K-V) kama inavyopendekezwa na Katamba (1993) kwamba baada ya mageuzi ya kifonolojia, muundo wa lugha mahususi sharti uhifadhiwe. Kwa upande mwingine, kama anavyosema waithaka (2010), irabu ya mzizi katika kauli ya TDA hukubaliana na kiambishi nyambulishi kinachofuata. Hali hii ya ukubalifu anairejelea kama uwiano wa vokali. Kutokana na maelezo ya kauli ya TDA katika Kigĩchũgũ, inabainika kuwa iwapo mzizi wa kitenzi una irabu ya juu yaani /i/ na /u/, basi kinyambulishi cha kati-juu yaani /ĩ/ kilitumika. Vilevile, mzizi wenye irabu ya chini /a/, kinyambulishi cha kati-chini /e/ kilitumika.

Kauli ya Kutendwa (TDW)

Vitenzi katika Kigĩchũgũ, hupachikwa kiambishi {-w-} katika unyambulishaji ili kudhihirisha kauli ya utendwa. Kiambishi hiki hupachikwa baada ya mzizi wa vitenzi vinavyoishia kwa konsonanti. Kwa mfano,

	Kitenzi	**maana**	**Kauli ya Kutendwa**
9	men-a	chukia	men-**w**-a
10	nyit-a	shika	nyit-**w**-a
11	cor-a	chora	cor-**w**-a
12	mund-a	dunga	mund-**w**-a

Mifano iliyoonyeshwa hapo juu inadhiihirisha kwamba irabu /u/ inayeyushwa na kuwa /w/ baada ya unyambulishaji. Kwa mfano,

men-u-a (men-w-a)

nyit-u-a (nyit-w-a)

mund-u-a (mund-w-a).

Hii ni kulingana na mhimili wa kwingineko katika nadharia ya ML, ambao unapendekeza kuwa, iwapo katika mofolojia irabu mbili zinafuatana na kushindania nafasi, uyeyushaji utumikizwe (Katamba 1993).

Kwa upande mwingine, baadhi ya vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ vinavyoishia kwa irabu /i/, hupachikwa kinyambulishi {-u-} katika kauli ya kutendwa. Kwa mfano,

	Kitenzi	**Maana**	**Kauli ya Kutendwa**
13	Giri-a	zuia	Gir-**u**-a
14	Tini-a	kata	Tin-**u**-a
15	Tongori-a	ongoza	Tongor-**u**-a
16	Kethi-a	salimu	Keth-**u**-a

Katika mifano hii ya vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ, irabu /i/ inadondoshwa na /u/ kuachwa kama kiambishi cha kauli ya kutendwa. Irabu /i/ inadondoshwa kwa sababu Kigĩchũgũ hakikubali mfuatano wa irabu tatu. Baada ya udondoshaji, irabu /u/ huyeyushwa na kuwa /w/. Hii ni kwa msingi wa Nadharia ya ML

Kauli ya Kutendesha (TSH)

Kauli ya kutendesha katika Kigĩchũgũ huonyeshwa kwa kiambishi {-ithi-} katika unyambulishaji wa vitenzi. Kwa mfano,

	Kitenzi	**Maana**	**Kauli ya Kutendesha**
17	ak-a	jenga	ak-**ithi**-a
18	end-a	penda	end-**ithi**-a
19	tum-a	shona	tum-**ithi**-a
20	ken-a	furahi	ken-**ithi**-a
21	rĩb-a	lipa	rĩb-**ithi**-a

Vilevile, kauli ya kutendesha katika Kigĩchũgũ huonyeshwa kwa kiambishi {-i-} katika baadhi ya vitenzi ambavyo kisemantiki huonyesha anayesababisha kitendo kama mshiriki. Vitenzi hivi kwa kawaida ni vitenzi si elekezi. Kwa mfano,

	Kitenzi	**Maana**	**Kauli ya Kutendesha**
22	rwar-a	ugua	rwar-**i**-a
23	in-a	imba	in-**i**-a
24	tet-a	teta	tet-**i**-a
25	nor-a	nenepa	nor-**i**-a
26	gamb-a	toa sauti	gamb-**i**-a

Kutokana na mifano iliyotolewa katika kauli ya TSH, kiambishi nyambulishi {-ithi-} hutumika katika vitenzi elekezi ilhali kiambishi nyambulishi {-i-} hutumika katika vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ ambavyo si elekezi. Hata hivyo wakati mwingine, kiambishi {-ithi-} huweza kutumika na vitenzi si elekezi pia. Kiambishi {-ithi-} cha kauli ya TSH kinaonekana kuwa kizalishi kwa kiasi kikubwa kuliko kiambishi {-i-} ambacho kinatumika kwa vitenzi vichache.

Kauli ya Kutendana (TDN)

Kauli ya kutendana katika Kigĩchũgũ huonyesha kuwa wahusika wawili au zaidi kufanyiana kitendo kimoja. Kauli ya kutendana katika unyambulishaji wa baadhi ya vitenzi katika Kigĩchũgũ huonyeshwa kwa kiambishi {-an-} kama inavyodhihirika katika mifano ifuatayo.

	Kitenzi	**Maana**	**Kauli ya Kutendana**
27	bũr-a	chapa	bũr-**an**-a
28	kuu-a	beba	ku-**an**-a
29	rũg-a	ruka	rũg-**an**-a
30	thik-a	zika	thik-**an**-a
7	tem-a	kata	tem-**an**-a

Kauli ya Kutendeka (TDK)

Kama ilivyoelezwa katika kauli ya kutendea, kauli ya kutendeka pia huweza kuwa na viambishi nyambulishi viwili kama ifuatavyo;

Kinyambulishi {-ek-}

Kinyambulishi {-ek-} katika unyambulishaji wa vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ huchopekwa kabla ya kiambishi tamati iwapo mzizi wa vitenzi hivyo una irabu /o/ na /e/. Kwa mfano,

	Kitenzi	**Maana**	**Kauli ya Kutendeka**
31	kom-a	lala	kom-**ek**-a
32	oc-a	chukua	oc-**ek**-a
9	men-a	chukia	men-**ek**-a
33	meny-a	fahamu	meny-**ek**-a

Kinyambulishi {–ĩk-}

Vitenzi katika Kigĩchũgũ huchopekwa kiambishi {-ĩk-} kabla ya kiambishi tamati katika unyambulishaji iwapo mzizi wa vitenzi hivyo una irabu /a/, /i/, /ĩ/, /ũ/ na /u/. Kwa mfano,

	Kitenzi	**Maana**	**Kauli ya Kutendeka**
34	tham-a	hama	tham-**ĩk**-a
10	nyit-a	shika	nyit-**ĩk**-a
35	rĩr-a	lia	rĩr-**ĩk**-a
36	kũnj-a	kunja	kũnj-**ĩk**-a
37	ug-a	sema	ug-**ĩk**-a

Kama ilivyo katika kauli ya kutendea, kiambishi {-e-} na [-ĩ-} vimetumika katika unyambulishaji. Hata hivyo, kiambishi {-k-} pia kimetumiwa ili kuhifadhi muundo wa Kigĩchũgũ wa Konsonanti-Vokali.

Kauli ya Kutendua (TDU)

Vitenzi katika kauli ya kutendua katika Kigĩchũgũ hutoa maana iliyo kinyume cha kitenzi katika kauli ya kutenda. Viambishi vya unyambulishaji katika kauli ya kutendua katika Kigĩchũgũ ni {-ũr-} na {-or-}. Mofimu {-ũr-} hupachikwa kwenye vitenzi vyenye mzizi wenye irabu /a/, /i/, /u/ na /ũ/ ilhali {-or-} hupachikwa kwenye vitenzi vyenye mzizi wenye irabu /o/. Kwa mfano,

	Kitenzi	**Maana**	**Kauli ya Kutendua**
38	bing-a	funga	bing-**ũr**-a
39	ak-a	jenga	ak-**ũr**-a
19	tum-a	shona	tum-**ũr**-a
30	thik-a	zika	thik-**ũr**-i-a

36	kũnj-a	kunja	kũnj-**ũr**-a
40	ob-a	funga (kwa mfano kamba)	ob-**or**-a
41	rog-a	roga	rog-**or**-a

Ingawa vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ katika kauli ya kutendua huonyesha kinyume, ni muhimu pia kutambua kuwa vitenzi hivi vinaweza kunyambulishwa zaidi katika kauli zingine. Kwa mfano,

tendua	**tendea**	**tendwa**	**tendesha**	**tendeka**
kũnjũra	kũnjũrĩra	kũnjũrwa	kũnjũrithia	kũnjũka
obora	oborera	oborwa	oborithia	oboka

Mfuatano wa Viambishi Nyambulishi katika Kigĩchũgũ

Unyambulishaji katika vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ huweza kuchukua mwambatano wa viambishi vingi vya unyambulishaji kwa wakati mmoja. Kama wanavyosema Kihore, Massamba na Msanjila (2012:127), viambishi nyambulishi huandamana na mizizi hatua kwa hatua. Hii ina maana kuwa kiambishi huandama kiambishi nyambulishi na kingine au vingine kufanya vivyo hivyo. Wanasema kuwa vitenzi vya Kiswahili vinaweza kufikia hadi hatua nne za unyambulishaji.

Kwa mujibu wa Wesana-Chomi (2013), kitenzi kimoja kinaweza kuchukua vinyambulishi viwili au zaidi. Hata hivyo, anaeleza kuwa vinyambulishi hivi havitokei ovyo bali huongozwa na kanuni mbalimbali ambazo zinahusika katika unyambulishaji huo.

Hyman (2003) anasema kuwa mizizi ya vitenzi katika lugha za Kibantu huweza kuchukua viambishi nyambulishi mbalimbali ili kuwakilisha maana tofauti. Hyman (keshatajwa), anapendekeza mfuatano wa CARP yaani C- causative (usababishi), A- Applicative (utendea), R- Reciprocal (utendano) na P- Passive (utendwa) ambao hutambua hatua nne za unyambulishaji katika lugha za Kibantu. Makala hii ilifafanua mifuatano ya mofimu nyambulishi katika Kigĩchũgũ ili kubaini iwapo inaaafiki au kukiuka ule mfuatano uliopendekezwa na Hyman (mtaje).

Kigĩchũgũ kama lugha zingine za Kibantu hufuata mwambatano wa viambishi vinyambulishi viwili au zaidi. Mifano iliyojadiliwa katika kauli sita za unyambulishaji, inahusu hatua ya kwanza ya viambishi nyambulishi vya Kigĩchũgũ vinavyofuata mizizi moja kwa moja. Mifano inayofuata imezingatia unyambulishaji wa vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ katika hatua ya pili, ya tatu na ya nne.

Mfuatano wa Viambishi Nyambulishi Viwili

Kama anavyopendekeza Waweru (2011) kuhusu mifuatano nyambulishi katika Gĩkũyũ, Kigĩchũgũ pia kinaweza kuwa na viambishi nyambulishi viwili. Mifuatano hii ni pamoja na;

Kauli ya Kutendea na Kutendwa (TDA+TDW)

Mofimu zinazowakilisha kauli ya kutendea katika Kigĩchũgũ ni {-ĩr-} na {-er-} na kauli ya kutendwa ni {-w-}. Mifano ifuatayo inaonyesha kuwa Kigĩchũgũ hukubali mfuatano huu kama ilivyo katika lugha nyingine za Kibantu. Kwa mfano,

42. andik –ĩr –w -a
andik –TDA –TDW -I
andikiwa
men -er –w -a
men –TDA –TDW -I

chukiwa
ob –er –w -a
ob –TDA –TDW -I
fungiwa
Mfuatano huu katika Kigĩchũgũ unakubaliana na mfuatano wa Kiolezo kama anavyourejelea Asiimwe (2011) jinsi ulivyopendekezwa na Hyman (2003) yaani kauli ya kutendea hutangulia kauli ya kutendwa. Hii ina maana kuwa mofimu katika kauli ya kutendea hufanganishwa kwenye mzizi kwanza ikifuatwa na mofimu katika kauli ya kutendwa. Mfuatano huu katika Kigĩchũgũ ulitumiwa kuonyeha kuwa kitendo fulani kilifanywa kwa niaba ya mtu au kitu.

Kauli ya Kutendea na kauli ya Kutendua (TDA+TDU)

Kigĩchũgũ huambikwa mofimu {-ĩr-} na {-er-} katika kauli ya kutendea na mofimu {-ũr-} na {-or-} katika kauli ya kutendua. Mofimu hizi huweza kufuatana katika Kigĩchũgũ ingawa mfuatano hukiuka uliopendekezwa na Hyman (2003). Hii ni kwa sababu Hyman (mtaje) alipendekeza mfuatano wa utendea kuja kabla kutendua lakini mfuatano huu katika Kigĩchũgũ huanza kwa kauli ya kutendua ikifuatwa na kauli ya kutendea. Kwa mfano,

ob –or –er -a
ob –TDU –TDA -I
fungulia
bat –ũr -ĩr -a
bat –TDU –TDA -I
kwamulia
tum –ũr –ĩr -a
tum –TDU –TDA -I
shonolea
Kutokana na mifano hii, ni dhahiri kwamba Kigĩchũgũ hukubali mfuatano wa kauli ya kutendea na kutendua. Kimantiki, kauli ya kutendua katika Kigĩchũgũ hutokea kabla ya kauli ya kutendea.

Kauli ya Kutendesha na Kutendea (TSH+TDA)

Mfuatano huu huchukua mofimu {-ithi-} na {-i-} katika kauli ya kutendesha katika Kigĩchũgũ na mofimu {-ĩr-} katika kauli ya kutendea. Kwa mfano,

end –ith –ĩr –I -a
end –TSH –TDA –tsh -I
pendezea
rĩm –ith –ĩr –i -a
rĩm - TSH – TDA - tsh-I
lim-ish-i-a
bũr –ith –ĩr –i -a
bũr –TSH –TDA –tsh -I
pigishia
Katika mifano iliyotolewa, mofimu nyambulishi katika TSH inatengwa na mofimu ya TDA. Hii ni kwa sababu TSH huishia kwa irabu na vilevile kauli ya TDA huanza kwa irabu.

Kigĩchũgũ pia huwa na usababishi mfupi ambao huwakilishwa na mofimu {-i-}. Katika mfuatano huu kauli ya kutendea hutokea kabla ya kauli ya kutendesha kinyume na uliopendekezwa na Hyman (2003). Kwa mfano,

kom –er –i -a
kom –TDA –TSH -I

lalishia
unan –ĩr –i -a
unan –TDA –TSH –I
katishia

Kauli ya Kutendea na Kutendana (TDA+ TDN)

Katika Kigĩchũgũ, mofimu za TDA ni {-ĩr-} na {-er-} na mofimu za TDN ni {-an-}. Kama anavyoeleza Mburu (2011) lugha ya Gikuyu hukubali mfuatano wa TDA na TDN ingawa mfuatano huu hukiuka ule uliopendekezwa na Hyman (mtaje). Katika Kigĩchũgũ, maumbo haya hujitokeza kama ifuatavyo;

tem –an –ĩr -a
tem –TDN –TDA -I
katiana
gũr –an –ĩr -a
gur –TDN –TDA -I
nunuliana
rũg –an –ĩr -a
rũg –TDN –TDA -I
pikiana

Kauli ya kutendana huja kabla ya kauli ya kutendea katika Kigĩchũgũ. Kulingana na mfumo wa Hyman (2003), ingetarajiwa kuwa kauli ya kutendea ingetokea kabla ya kauli ya kutendana. Hii haiwezekani kwa kuwa kisemantiki vitenzi hivi havingeleta maana iliyokusudiwa ya kuonyesha kuwa watu fulani wametendeana kitendo kile kimoja. Mfuatano huu katika Kigĩchũgũ unadhihirisha kuwa mofimu moja pekee {-ĩr-} ya utendea ndio hutumiwa.

Kauli ya Kutendesha na Kutendwa (TSH+ TDW)

Kauli ya TSH na TDW huwakilishwa kwa mofimu {-ith-} na {-w-} katika Kigĩchũgũ. Kama ilivyobainika katika sehemu ya 4.4.2, irabu /u/ ambayo ndio umbo la ndani katika kauli TDW huyeyushwa na kuwa /w/. Hata hivyo, ilibainika kwamba irabu /u/ hutumiwa kama kinyambulishaji cha TDW katika vitenzi ambavyo mizizi yake huishia kwa irabu /i/. Mfuatano wa TSH na TDW katika Kigĩchũgũ ulionyeshwa ifuatavyo;

thom –ith -w -a
thom –TSH –TDW -I
someshwa
kiny –ith –w -a
kiny –TSH –TDW -I
fikishwa
rũgam –ith –w -a
rũgam -TSH –TDW -I
simamishwa

Mfuatano huu wa TSH na TDW unaaafiki uliopendekezwa na Hyman (2003) kimofolojia na kisemantiki.

Kauli ya Kutendesha na Kutendua (TSH+ TDU)

Mofimu nyambulishi za kutendesha na kutendua katika Kigĩchũgũ ni { -ith-} na {-ũr-} au {-or-}. Kisemantiki na kimofolojia, kauli ya kutendua huja kabla ya kauli ya kutendesha katika vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ. Kwa mfano,

bing –ũr –ithi -a
bing -TDU -TSH -I
fungulisha (mlango)
ob –or –ithi -a
ob –TDU -TSH -I
fungulisha (kamba)
rog -or –ithi - a
rog –TDU -TSH -I
rogoesha
Katika mifano hii, mfuatano uliopendekezwa na Hyman (keshatajwa) wa kauli TSH kuja kabla ya kauli TDU umekiukwa ili kudumisha maana.

Kauli ya Kutendesha na Kutendana (TSH+ TDN)

Mfuatano wa kauli tendeshi na tendana hukubalika katika Kigĩchũgũ. Mofimu {-ithi-} na { -i-} hutumiwa katika TSH na mofimu {-an-} katika TDN. Kwa mfano,

ak –ith –an –i -a
ak –TSH –TDN –tsh -I
jengeshana
nyu –ith –an –I -a
nyu –TSH –TDN –tsh -I
nyweshana
nyit –ith –an –I -a
nyit –TSH –TDN –tsh -I
shikishana
Kutokana na mifano hii, ni dhahiri kwamba Kigĩchũgũ hukubali mfuatano wa TSH na TDN. Mfuatano wa mofimu hizi katika Kigĩchũgũ unakubali Kiolezo kuwa kauli tendeshi hutangulia kauli tendana kama unavyopendekezwa na Good (2005).

Kauli ya Kutendua na Kutendwa (TDU+ TDW)

Kauli ya TDU na TDW huwakilishwa na mofimu nyambulishi {-ũr-} au {- or-} katika kauli ya kutendua na {-w-} katika kauli ya kutendwa katika Kigĩchũgũ. Mifano hii inadhihirisha mfuatano huo.

kũnj –ũr –w -a
kũnj –TDU -TDW -I
kunjuliwa
bing –ũr –w -a
bing –TDU –TDW -I
funguliwa
ob –or –w -a
ob –TDU –TDW -I
funguliwa
Kutokana na mifano hii, kauli ya kutendwa huja baada ya kutendua katika unyambulishaji wa vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ. Hata hivyo, mfuatano huu wa TDU na TDW haukubaliki katika baadhi ya vitenzi.

Kauli ya Kutendua na Kutendana (TDU+TDN)

Kigĩchũgũ, huruhusu mfuatano wa kauli ya TDU ambayo mofimu zake ni {-or-} na {-ũr-} na kauli ya TDN ambayo huwakilishwa na mofimu {-an-}. Katika mfuatano huu, kauli ya TDU huja kabla ya TDN. Mofimu hizi yaani {-or-} na {-an-} hujitokeza zikifuata vitenzi sielekezi katika Kigĩchũgũ kama inavyodhihirika katika mifano ifuatayo;

ob –or –an -a
ob –TDU –TDN -I
funguana
Rog –or –an -a
Rog –TDU –TDN -I
rogoana
Thik –ũr –an -a
Thik –TDU –TDN -I
Zikuana

Kauli ya kutendua na kutendeka

Mofimu nyambulishi katika kauli ya TDK na TDU ni {-ĩk-} au {-ek-} na {-or-} au{-ũr-}. Katika mfuatano wa vinyambulishi hivi katika Kigĩchũgũ, kauli ya TDU huja kabla ya TDK kama inavyoonyeshwa kwenye mifano ifuatayo;

ob-or-ek-a
ob-TDU-TDK-I
funguka
rog-or-ek-a
rog-TDU-TDK-I
rogoka

Kauli ya kutendesha na kutendeka

Kauli ya TSH huwakilishwa kwa viambishi {-ithi-} na kauli ya TDK huwakilishwa kwa viambishi {-ĩk-} au {-ek-}. Katika mfuatano wa vinyambulishi katika lugha ya Kigĩchũgũ, kauli ya TSH hupachikwa kwanza ikifuatwa na kauli ya TDK. Kwa mfano,

rĩm-ith-ĩk-i-a
rĩm-TSH-TDK-I
limishika
thom-ith-ĩk-i-a
thom-TSH-TDK-I
somesheka

Mfuatano wa Viambishi Nyambulishi Vitatu

Kigĩchũgũ vilevile hukubali mfuatano wa kauli tatu katika kitenzi kimoja kwa wakati mmoja. Mfuatano huu ulielezwa kama ifuatavyo;

Kauli ya Kutendesha , Kutendea na Kutendana (TSH+TDA+TDN)

Katika mfuatano wa kauli tatu, Kigĩchũgũ kinakubaliana na pendekezo la Hyman (2003) la TSH, TDA na TDN. Hata hivyo, mfuatano wa viambishi nyambulishi tatu katika Kigĩchũgũ unapingana na wa Hyman (kehatajwa) kwa kiasi kwa vile unaruhusu mpishano. Tokeo la mfuatano huu katika Kigĩchũgũ unakuwa TSH, TDN na TDA hivyo basi kuathiri maana ya kitenzi kama ilivyo katika mifano ifuatayo.

tham –ith –an –ĩr –i -a

tham –TSH –TDN –TDA –tsh -I
hamishiana
taar –ith –an –ĩr –i -I
taar –TSH –TDN –TDA –Tsh -I
chagulishiana
men –ith –an –ĩr –i -a
men –TSH –TDN –TDA –tsh -I
chukishiana
Kanuni ya utokeaji ya mfuatano huu ni kwamba TSH inajitokeza baada ya mzizi wa kitenzi ikifuatwa na TDN na baadaye TDA.

Kauli ya Kutendesha, Kutendana na Kutendwa (TSH+ TDN+ TDW)

Kauli ya TSH, TDN na TDW zinaweza kufuatana kama Waweru (2011) anavyopendekeza. Katika mifano ifuatayo ya Kigĩchũgũ, pendekezo la mfuatano wa Hyman (2003) limeafikiwa. Hii ina maana kwamba kimofolojia kauli ya TSH huja baada ya mzizi, ikifuatwa na TDN kisha TDW ambayo huja mwishoni mwa kitenzi. Kwa mfano,

men –ith –an –w -a
men –TSH –TDN –TDW -I
kosanishwa
bũr –ith –an –w -a
bũr –TSH –TDN –TDW -I
piganishwa
andĩk –ith –an –w -a
andĩk –TSH –TDN –TDW -I
andikanishwa

Kauli ya Kutendesha, Kutendua na Kutendana (TSH+ TDU+ TDN)

Kigĩchũgũ hutumia mofimu nyambulishi {-ithi-} kuwakilisha kauli tendeshi, mofimu {-ũr-} na {-or-} katika kauli ya kutendua na mofimu {-an-} katika kauli ya kutendana. Mfuatano huu ni ule uliopendekezwa na Hyman (keshatajwa) ingawa kimofolojia Kigĩchũgũ kinaruhusu mpishano huru. Matokeo ya mfuatano huu kimofolojia katika Kigĩchũgũ ni kwamba kauli ya TDU huja baada ya mzizi wa kitenzi, ikifuatwa na kauli TSH na baadaye kauli ya TDN kama inavyodhihirika katika mifano.

ob –or –ith –an –i -a
ob –TDU -TSH –TDN –esh -I
fungulishana
thik –ũr –ith –an –i -a
thik –TDU –TSH -TDN -esh-I
zikulishana
kunj -ũr –ith –an –i -a
kunj –TDU –TSH –TDN –esh –I
kunjulishana

Kauli ya Kutendesha, Kutendea na Kutendwa (TSH+ TDA+TDW)

Kimofolojia, mfuatano wa kauli hizi ni TSH, TDA na TDW kama tu ilivyobainika katika Kigĩchũgũ. Kauli hizi huwakilishwa na mofimu tofauti kama ilivyoelezewa katika sehemu ya 4.4. mofimu hizi ni {-ithi-},{- ĩr-} au {-er-} na {-w-} ambayo muundo wake wa ndani ni {-u-} lakini hupitia uyeyushaji ili kuzuia mfuatano wa irabu mbili.Mfuatano huu katika Kigĩchũgũ ulionyeshwa kwa mifano ifuatayo;

ak –ith –ĩr –w -a
ak –TSH –TDA –TDW -I
jengeshewa
coker –ith –ĩr –w -a
coker –TSH –TDA –TDW -I
rudishiliwa
kũnj –ith –ĩr –w -a
kunj –TSH –TDA –TDW -I
kunjishiwa

Kauli ya kutendesha, kutendua na kutendwa (TSH+ TDU+ TDW)

Mfuatano huu unakubalika katika Kigĩchũgũ ingawa sio katika vitenzi vyote. Mfuatano huu huwa na mofimu ya TSH {-ith-}, TDU {-or-}m au {-ũr-} na TDW {-w-}. Mfuatano wa kimofolojia kama unavyodhihirishwa na mifano ya vitenzi katika Kigĩchũgũ ni kwamba kauli ya TDU hupachikwa kwanza baada ya mzizi, ikifuatwa na kauli ya TSH na baadaye kauli ya TDW. Kwa mfano,

bing –ũr –ith -w -a
bing –TDU –TSH –TDW -I
fungulishwa
kũnj –ũr –ith –w -a
kũnj –TDU -TSH –TDW -I
kunjulishwa
thik –ũr –ith –w -a
thik –TDU –TSH –TDW –I
*zikulishwa

Kauli ya Kutendesha , Kutendua na Kutendea (TSH+ TDU+ TDA)

Kigĩchũgũ hukubali mfuatano wa kauli ya TSH, TDU na TDA. Utaratibu wa mfuatano huu katika Kigĩchũgũ ni kwamba kauli ya TDU hujitokeza kwanza ambapo hupachikwa baada ya mzizi, ikifuatwa na kauli TSH na baadaye TDA. Mifano ifuatayo inadhihirisha mfuatano huo katika Kigĩchũgũ.

bing –ũr –ith –ĩr –i -a
bing –TDU –TSH –TDA -I
fungulishia
kũnj –ũr –ith –ĩr –i -a
kũnj –TDU –TSH –TDA -I
kunjulishia
ob –or –ith –ĩr –i -a
ob –TDU –TSH –TDA -I
fungulishia
thik –ũr –ith –ĩr –i -a
thik –TDU –TSH – TDA -I
zikulia

Kauli ya Kutendua, Kutendea na Kutendwa (TDU+ TDA+TDW)

Katika unyambulishaji wa vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ, mfuatano huu hukubalika ambapo TDU hufuata moja kwa moja mzizi wa vitenzi. TDA hufuata TDU kwani huonyesha yambwa tendewa na baadaye TDW kama ilivyoonyeshwa katika mifano hii:

bing –ũr –ĩr –w -a
bing –TDU –TDA –TDW -I

funguliwa (mlango)
ob –or –er –w -a
ob –TDU –TDA –TDW -I
funguliwa (kamba)
tum –ũr –ĩr –w -a
tum –TDU –TDA –TDW -I
shonolewa

kũnj –ũr –ĩr –w -a
kunj –TDU –TDA –TDW -I
kunjuliwa

Kauli ya Kutendea, Kutendana na Kutendwa (TDA+ TDN+TDW)

Kigĩchũgũ hukubali mfuatano wa kauli TDA ambayo huwakilishwa kwa mofimu nyambulishi {-ĩr-} na {-er-}, kauli TDN ambayo mofimu yake ni{-an-} na kauli TDW ambayo huwakilishwa kwa mofimu {-w-}. Ingawa mfuatano huu ni kama ulivyopendekezwa na Hyman (2003), Kigĩchũgũ imeruhusu mpishano huru ambapo kauli ya TDN hufuata mzizi moja kwa moja , ikifuatwa na TDA na kisha TDW. Mfuatano huo umeonekana katika vitenzi kama ifuatavyo:

bũr –an –ĩr –w -a
bur –TDN –TDA –TDW -I
piganiwa
andĩk-an-ĩr-w-a
andĩk –TDN –TDA –TDW -I
andikaniwa
rum –an –ĩr –w –a
rum –TDN –TDA –TDW –I
tusianiwa

Kauli ya kutendua, kutendea na kutendana (TDU+ TDA+ TDN)

Mfuatano huu huwa na mofimu ya TDU {-ũr-} au {-or-}, TDA {-ĩr-} au {-er-} na TDN {-an-}. Mofimu hizi huambishwa kwenye mzizi wa vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ kwa mfuatano wa TDU –TDN -TDA. Mfuatano huu unakubalika katika Kigĩchũgũ ingawa sio katika vitenzi vyote kwani kauli ya TDU ambayo huonyesha kinyume cha kauli ya kutenda haijitokezi katika vitenzi vingi. Mifano ifuatayo inaonyesha mfuatano huo.

an –ũr –an –ĩr -a
an –TDU –TDN –TDA -I
anuliana
rog –or –an –ĩr -a
rog –TDU –TDN –TDA -I
rogoleana
tum –ũr –an –ĩr -a
tum –TDU –TDN –TDA -I
shonoleana
bing –ũr –an –ĩr -a
bing –TDU –TDN –TDA -I
funguliana

Mfuatano wa Viambishi Nyambulishi Vinne

Kigĩchũgũ ni mojawapo ya lugha za Kibantu zinazokubali mfuatano wa kauli nne. Kauli hizi ni kama vile;

Kauli ya Kutendesha, Kutendana, Kutendea na Kutendwa (TSH+ TDN+ TDA+ TDW)

Mfuatano wa vinyambulishi hivi katika Kigĩchũgũ ni TSH –TDN -TDA-TDW. Mfuatano huu ni kinyume na uliopendekezwa na Hyman (2003) na Good (2005) wa TSH –TDA -TDN na TDW. Mpishano huru katika Kigĩchũgũ umetokea ili kuleta kuhifadhi maana ya vitenzi. Mifano ifuatayo inadhihirisha hilo:

men –ith –an –ĩr –w -a
men –TSH –TDN –TDA –TDW -I
koseshanwa
bũr –ith -an –ĩr –w -a
bũr –TSH –TDN –TDA –TDW -I
pigishianwa
andĩk -ith -an –ĩr –w –a
andĩk –TSH –TDN –TDA –TDW –I
andikishianwa

Katika mifano hii, mofimu {-u-} ambayo huwa ni mofimu ya ndani katika kauli ya TDW imepitia uyeyushaji na kuwa {-w-} kwa vile imefuatana na irabu. Mifano hii husababisha kitenzi kuonekana kama vitenzi viwili vinavyokwenda sambamba hasa ikitumiwa katika sentensi. Kwa mfano,

3. (a) Mwana wa Kamau nĩandikithanĩrwa nĩ Njoroge na Muthoni makĩandĩkana.

(b) Mtoto wa Kamau ameandikishianwa na Njoroge na Muthoni wakati wanapoandikana.

Katika sentensi hii, inaonekana kuwa Njoroge na Muthoni wanaandikana lakini wakati huohuo wanafanya kazi ya kumwandika mtoto wa Kamau.

Kauli ya Kutendua, Kutendesha, Kutendea na Kutendwa (TDU+ TSH+ TDA + TDW)

Kigĩchũgũ vilevile hukubali mfuatano wa kauli ya TDU –TSH -TDA na TDW kama inavyoonyeshwa katika mifano hii:

ob –or –ith –ĩr –w -a
ob –TDU -TSH –TDA –TDW -I
funguanishiwa (kamba)
kũnj –ũr –ith –ĩr –w -a
kũnj –TDU –TSH –TDA –TDW -I
funguanishiwa
ak –ũr –ith –ĩr –w -a
ak –TDU –TSH –TDA –TDW -I

jengulishiwa

Mifano hii inadhihirisha wazi kuwa kauli mbalimbali zinaweza kufungamanishwa katika kitenzi kimoja na kuleta athari kisemantiki.

Kanuni za Mfuatano wa Viambishi Nyambulishi

Mfuatano wa viambishi nyambulishi kama wanavyosema Kihore, Massamba na Msanjila (2012) huongozwa na kanuni mbalimbali. Kanuni hizi ni kama vile:

Kanuni ya Kiambishi Nyambulishi {-w-}

Kama wanavyosema Kihore, Massamba na Msanjila (2012: 129), katika miandamano yoyote ya viambishi nyambulishi na mzizi wa vitenzi, kiambishi nyambulishi {-w-} lazima kitokee kama kiambishi nyambulishi cha mwisho pale inapobidi kitokee katika umbo la kitenzi. Hali hii ni sawa katika Kigĩchũgũ ambapo ilibainika kuwa kauli ya TDW ilitokea mwishoni mwa vitenzi katika mifuatano iliyojadiliwa. Kwa mfano,

andĩk-ĩr-**w**-a
caka-ith-an-**w**-a
cagũr-ith-an-ĩr-**w**-a
Mifano hii inaonyesha mfuatano wa kauli mbili, tatu na nne na katika mifuatano yote, kiambishi nyambulishi {-w-} kimetokea mwishoni mwa vitenzi.

Kanuni ya Viambishi Nyambulishi {-ĩr-} na {-er-}

Kanuni inaeleza kuwa mofimu {-ĩr}- na {-er-} hutumika baada ya mizizi ya vitenzi vinavyoishia kwa konsonanti katika vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ. Kwa mfano,

thom-**er**-a
thukum-**ĩr**-a
twar-**ĩr**-a
Vinyambulishi hivi vya kauli ya TDA hufauatana na kauli mbalimbali kama ilivyofafanuliwa

Kanuni ya Viambishi Nyambulishi Radidi

Kama wanavyosema Kihore, Massamba na Msanjila (2012: 130), kanuni ya viambishi nyambulishi radidi inasema kwamba upo uwezekano wa baadhi ya viambishi nyambulishi kurudiwa katika mwandamano katika umbo moja. Hali hii pia inajitokeza katika Kigĩchũgũ hasa mwandamano unaohusisha kauli ya TSH. Kwa mfano katika sehemu ya 4.5.1 (c)) TSH inapoandamana na TDA na TDN, urudiaji wa TSH hutokea. Kwa mfano,

andĩk –ith -ĩr -i -a
andĩk –TSH –TDA –TSH -I
andikishia
50. nyw –ith –an –i -a
nyw –TSH –TDN –TSH -I
nyeshana
Vilevile katika sehemu ya mfuatano wa viambishi nyambulishi vitatu, (a) na (c), hali ya urudiaji wa TSH inajitokeza katika mfuatano wa TSH -TDN -TDA na TDU –TSH -TDN. Kwa mfano,

51. tham –ith –an –ĩr –i -a
tham -ESH –AN -EA -ESH -I
hamishiana
36. kũnj –ũr –ith –an –i -a
kunj -UA –ESH –AN –ESH -I
kunjulishana

Katika urudiaji huu mofimu {-i-}, ambayo huonyesha usababishi mfupi katika Kigĩchũgũ ndiyo iliyorudiwa. Kama anavyoeleza Wesana-Chomi (2013:73), kinyambulishi cha kauli ya TSH kinafaa kutokea kabla ya kinyambulishi cha kauli ya TDA na pia kabla ya kauli ya TDN.

Kanuni ya Kiambishi Nyambulishi {-an- }

Kama anavyosema Wesana-Chomi (2013:72), kiambishi kinyambulishi {-an-} hupachikwa kwenye vitenzi vyenye sifa maalumu tu ambavyo mizizi yake inaweza kupokea kinyambulishi {-an-}. Sifa hiyo ni kwamba kitenzi sharti kitaje tendo linalohusisha wahusika wawili au zaidi. Kila mhusika ni mtenda tendo na pia ni mtendwa. Katika vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ, kinyambulishi hiki kinaweza kutanguliwa na TDA, TSH na TDU katika mfuatano wa viambishi nyambulishi viwili kama ilivyoonyeshwa katika mfano (d), (g) na (i) au kikafuatana na viambishi nyambulishi vitatu na vinne kama ilivyo katika mifano wa mfuatano wa viambishi nyambulishi vitatu a,b na c.

Hitimisho

Makala hii imechanganua mofolojia ya unyambulishaji wa vitenzi katika Kigĩchũgũ. Lengo kuu lilikuwa ni kufafanua mifanyiko iliyotumika katika unyambulishaji wa vitenzi hivyo, kujadili mfuatano wa viambishi nyambulishi na kutathmini kanuni zinazoruhusu au kuzuia mifuatano hiyo. Viambishi tamati katika unyambulishaji wa vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ vilijadiliwa katika kauli sita; kutendea, kutendwa, kutendesha, kutendana, kutendeka na kutendua. Katika uchanganuzi wa data, imedhihirika kwamba viambishi {-er-} na {-ĩr-} vilitumika katika kauli ya kutendea. Katika kauli ya kutendwa kiambishi {-w-} kilitumika kwenye mizizi ya vitenzi vilivyoishia kwa konsonanti na pia kiambishi {-u-} kilitumika katika baadhi ya vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ vilivyoishia kwa irabu. Kwa upande mwingine kauli ya kutendesha ilithihirishwa kwa viambishi viwili ambavyo ni {-ithi-} na {-i-}. Kiambishi {-an-} kilitumiwa katika kauli ya unyambulishaji ya kutendana. Kauli ya kutendeka ilitumia viambishi viwili vya unyambulishaji ambavyo ni {-ek-} na {-ĩk-}. Mwishowe kauli ya kutendua ambayo huonyesha kinyume cha vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ katika kauli ya kutenda ilijadiliwa. Ilithihirika kuwa kiambishi {-ũr-} ilitumika kuonyesha kauli hii.

Ilibainika kuwa kuna uchopekaji wa fonimu kama vile /r/ katika kauli ya unyambulishaji ya kutendea na /k/ katika kauli ya kutendeka. Uchopekaji huu ulitumikizwa ili kuhifadhi muundo wa K-V katika Kigĩchũgũ. Vilevile, uyeyushaji na udondoshaji wa irabu umetumikizwa ambapo katika kauli ya kutendwa irabu /u/ inayeyushwa na kuwa /w/ katika baadhi ya vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ vilivyoishia kwa irabu /i/ na kufuatwa na irabu /u/. Kwa upande mwingine katika kauli ya kutendwa, irabu /i/ ilidondolewa na irabu /u/ kuachwa kama kiambishi cha kauli hiyo ili kuzuia mfuatano wa irabu tatu na pia kuhifadhi maana ya vitenzi husika.

Vitenzi vya Kigĩchũgũ huweza kuambikwa viambishi vinyambulishi viwili, vitatu na vinne kwa wakati mmoja. Hali hii ni tofauti na lugha nyingine za Kibantu ambazo hukubali mfuatano hadi viambishi vitatu. Mifuatano iliyokubalika katika Kigĩchũgũ ilielezwa kulingana na kanuni ya Kioo kwa mujibu wa Baker (1985). Hata hivyo mpishano huru umeruhusiwa ambao ni kinyume na mfuatano wa Hyman (2003) ili kuhifadhi maana ya kitenzi.

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Linguistics Elements and Meaning: Imagery as a Subtle Communication of Ideologies in Poetry.

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Abstract

Language is the vehicle through which ideas are communicated. In order to have a holistic criticism of the works of art, the critic is called upon to break down language into small elements that embody the meaning intended to be communicated. One such an element of language is imagery which encompasses metaphors, similes, images, and symbols. Artists use imagery to appeal to audience's senses. Over the ages, different images have been used to describe the two genders, thus inviting different perceptions. The interrogation of the said elements is a rich repository for analyzing the position each gender occupies as seen from the point of view of the community from which the artist draws his or her materials. As such, gender subjugation and or elevation can be analyzed through interrogating the images that poets employ to bring forth their thematic concerns. By analyzing the images, one is able to identify traces of gender subjugation or otherwise in the poetry of the early East African Poets whose poetry is informed by the (then newly) acquired Western education. This paper interrogates five poems by East African early male poets namely: "The Motoka" by Theo Luzuka, Richard Ntiru's "Rhythm of the Pestle", Jonathan Kariara's "A Leopard Lives in the Muu Tree" Eric Ng'amaryo's "I will Cling to Your Garment" and Austin Bukenya's "I Met a Thief." The paper analyses gendered images employed by the selected East African (male) poets with a view to deconstructing the representation of female gender in their poetry. The poems will be analyzed within the deconstructionist literary theory. The paper aims at finding out whether the images used by male poets in making reference to female characters are chauvinistic.

Introduction

Language is the vehicle through which creative writers communicate their concerns to their audience. The same language is broken into elements which enhance the effectiveness of passing of the message meant to be communicated. Major among the linguistic elements is imagery. The employment of imagery enables the literary writer, especially the poet, to extend the language at his/her disposal since they use terms in transferred or connotative sense. As John Mugubi observes, metaphors, and to a certain extent, imagery serves to give an item or items vivid description, helps the artist to achieve brevity, helps the author to magnify his/her heart and helps in minifying – biding together the seemingly "unbindable" elements such as notions that seem to be incontrovertible (170).

The major purpose of imagery is, however, to help the creative writers to practice language etiquette. Where the avoidance of profanity is impossible, use of imagery helps the use non-offensive figures of speech to talk about the obscenities respectably or with language that entails some sense of aptness or decorum. When utter frankness is used to refer to taboo words, focus is likely to shift from thematic concerns to the foulness of the language. If the

choice of odious words seem to be selectively directed to women, then that could be considered to be a deviation that calls for scrutiny since it approximates to misogyny.

Deconstructing the Poets' Imagery

Deconstruction literary criticism, built on the ideas of Jacques Derrida, more than any other tool of analysis helps to provide a window through which critics peer through the meaning of the text(s). Derrida points out that all texts are mediated (or in the process of being mediated) thus truth, meaning and knowledge is held by cultural systems, ideologies, symbols (signs), intertexuality, structure of ideas and practices which we call reading. Literature relies on deconstruction because of multiple of meanings, exclusions, substitutions or intertexuality. Deconstructionists argue that meaning circulates and since it relies on difference, then, the 'other' can only stimulate it, when it comes before it. The process of deconstruction always reveals an underlying authority beneath prior authority and that way it brings depreciation or displacement of a text or narrative. In deconstruction the inferior is elevated and the superior imploded giving rise to extended and expanded horizons (Mboya, 2010).

Deconstruction then becomes a system of inquiry which tries to identify meaning in areas which are marginal or deferred as opposed to the proclaimed authorial intention. All those ideas decentred by a text are privileged in a deconstruction so that the difference between the centre and periphery is explored.

Since the kind of imagery that an author adopts to aid them in communicating meaning embodies their (author's) ideologies, then through deconstructing the imagery used by the author, one can be able to ascertain the subtle meaning inherent in the authors' works of art. As such, deconstructing the imagery employed by the author to depict women vis-à-vis those that depict men is thus an avenue through which critics can find out whether, in a subtle way, one gender has been subjugated as the other is elevated.

The Relationship between Imagery in Poetry and Gender Ideologies

Ada Uzoamaka Azodo argues that:

Issues of gender and language, discussions center around theories of dominance and difference, masculinity and language, power and identity, notions of completion and cooperation, and the fluidity of masculine subjectivity (50).

While the element I am examining in this paper is not centered on masculinity (or its absence), it is important to note that, the male dominance or female subjugation encapsulated in imagery which this paper examines cannot be detached from masculinity.

Poets, due to the nature of verse form which demands economy of words, are among the major consumers of imagery. The use of images enlivens and dignifies the poets' works of art and offers an opportunity to give a vivid description of what is being communicated especially given that, the main purpose of poetry is to communicate one's experiences, feelings ideas, and emotions.

The images that writers use are drawn from their socio-cultural backgrounds from where they draw their writing materials as well as their experiences as they interact with different people and perhaps races during their sojourns occasioned by different reasons. As such, the images carry with them the nuances of the society's ideologies which are perpetuated by the authors who are agents of the communities from which they write. Where the poet presents personal worldview, the same can be said to have been shaped to a great extent by both the nurturing the poet undergoes as he/she grows as a unit of the community. With regards to the kind of

images and choice of vocabularies a poet uses, A.D. Amateshe observes that an effective communication between the poet and the reader can be achieved through:

[use of] … precise description, appropriate choice of words, meaningful relationship of images, vivid portrayal of an activity which an artist captures with his poetic eye and [employment of] noteworthy vocabularies (6)

It is the meaningful relationship of images being referred to above that poets employ in their works of art which, if closely examined, can reveal whether the author subjugates or elevates a certain gender.

Gender representation has been an ongoing debate among literature scholars for some time now with some feeling that women subjugation has a historical base in earliest literature ever written by mankind, especially done by male writers. Florence Stratton in her essay: "How Could Things Fall Apart For Whom They Were Not Together", a chapter appearing in her book *Contemporary African Literature and Gender Politics* is a leading light in decrying women (mis)representation by male-dominated writers from Africa in general. Stratton is of the opinion that, male writers deliberately use images that are derogative to women in order to depict them negatively (25). Thus Stratton isolates use imagery among the male creative writers as an avenue through which they perpetuate their biased representation of female gender while elevating masculinity and male chauvinism.

As argued elsewhere in my MA thesis:

(T)he roles and positions of women within a body of literature can serve to systematically analyze that society and societal attitudes towards women. The duties and activities assigned to a particular gender can demonstrate its respective position in the overall power structure in that particular society (Muneeni, 32).

In addition to the above assertion, it is also true that images used to depict one gender as opposed to the other can also be systematically analyzed in order to establish that society and societal attitude towards that genders involved.

We need to ask ourselves, is it possible to establish the place of women through evaluation of gender related images that the poets have used? Did these early writers deliberately choose images that were demeaning when it came to women representation and tone down the same when representing their male counterpart? Can the subtle negativity inherent in the images used to represent women be used as the base to brand the early poets male chauvinists? Through juxtaposing poems that have images for both genders, we can respond to these pertinent questions. This paper examines five poems published in *An Anthology of East African Poetry.*

The first poem this paper examines is entitled "The Motoka" by Theo Luzuka. (Page 101). The first stanza reads:

You see that Benz sitting at the rich's end?
Ha! That Motoka is motoka
It belongs to the Minister for Fairness
Who Yesterday was loaded with a doctorate
At Makerere with whisky and I don't know what
Plus I hear the literate *thighs* of an undergraduate (my emphasis, line 1-6)

Luzuka's poem demonstrates an enormous success with regards to adopting a form of conversation which borrows from the ordinary speech flavoured with the appropriate diction

in order to make an immediate impression on the reader and or the audience. It is worth noting that the poet's choice of a woman - a tomato seller - as the speaker helps him to effectively employ pragmatics aspect to satirize the kind of leaders whose moral standing is questionable.

That notwithstanding, the "unapologetic" use of metonymy (thighs) in reference to women is, by all means, offensive to the dignity of women.

The second poem under examination here is by a renowned poet Richard Ntiru entitled: "Rhythm of the Pestle" (page 92). The poet employs images that call for scrutiny with regards to gender representation:

In stanza one he writes:

Listen – listen-
listen to the palpable rhythm
of the periodic pestle,
plunging in proud perfection
into the cardinal cavity
of maternal mortar
like the panting heart
of the virgin bride
with the silver hymen,
or the approaching stamp
of the late athleting cows
hurrying home to their bleating calves (my emphasis, lines 1-12)

The poet's artistic employment of alliteration and the achievement of rhythm has been lauded by many poetry critics and it makes his poem a reference point for discussion whenever critics are called upon to analyze the two sound patterns in poetry. Further, the diction the poet uses captures the literal meaning absolutely – that of pounding maize meant for preparing *githeri* using the traditional mortar and pestle. As for the deeper meaning, the writer seems to be alluding to the sexual activity, an aspect that he has presented in a perfect artistic manner. Nevertheless, he, like many others has not resisted the temptation of referring to aspects related to female organs distastefully. Use of imagery that compares the act of pounding of the grains to a "virgin who is panting as she loses her virginity and therefore her hymen" is indeed mortifying to female fraternity. Perhaps this kind of depiction is in line with Ernest N. Emenyonu's assertion that there is a critical imbalance and lack of objectivity in the appreciation and the image of womanhood depicted by male authors (xi)

Austin Bukenya in his poem "I met a Thief", (page 96) faithfully follows the footsteps of his fellow male poets in using unapologetic images in reference to women. The title betrays his intention even before we interact with the poem itself. The "thief" in this context refers to the woman who is not the poet's wife but whom the poet meets at the beach and succumbs to her sexual overtures. How come then that it's only the woman who is a thief but the persona is "innocent" despite the fact that it takes two to tango? Actually the persona, in stanza one, says (the woman) thought he had a heart to steal. In stanza one Bukenya writes:

On the beach, on the coast
Under the idle whispering coconut towers,
Before the growling, foaming, waves
I met a thief who guessed I had
An innocent heart for her to steal (lines 1-5)

Use of the image of a thief denotes evil and thus female fraternity is depicted as an evil gender. If what makes the persona to call the woman involved a thief is the fact that she was trying to engage a married man into sexual activity, the male persona is "more of a thief" than the woman because he is the one who possesses the secret – that he is a married man. Use of such a derogative term to refer only to the woman and presenting the man as a victim is, thus, a distortion of images aimed at denoting women as the originators of evil bedeviling the society.

In stanza two, Bukenya furthers the derogatory depiction of the female gender by using images to describe their womanhood:

She took my hand and led me under
The intimate cashew boughs which shaded
The downy grass and peeping weeds
She jumped and plucked the nuts for me to suck
She sang and laughed and pressed close.

The persona here uses images that refer to women's pubic hair as "the downy grass and the peeping weed". Though he has avoided the blatant reference to the private parts, he has all along cast the woman as the evil one as "she takes the poet's hand" and "leads him…" Thus despite Bukenya restricting himself to etiquette with regards to diction, he remains guilty of bedeviling the womenfolk as the initiators of the evil and for dragging the otherwise "holy" men into it.

Eric S. Ng'maryo has employed rare artistry to present a poem "I will cling to Your Garment." Which offers the analyst an opportunity to view from both literal and symbolic points of view. Ng'maryo writes:

I will cling to your garment like a wild grass seed
I will needle your flesh
And pray that my insistent call for you
Be not met with
A jerky removal
From your garment
And a throw into the fire,
But that
You will drop me into the fertile ground of
Your favour (Lines 1- 10)

Indeed the artistry in Eric Ng'maryo's, especially the diction is appealing. A critic who chooses to read the poem literally may argue that the poet's imagery is referring to a louse or any other vermin in somebody's garment which is seeking protection, warmth and survival being closer to its host; the human body. Hidden in the literal meaning, however, is a deeper meaning which can be interpreted as that of a man in love with a woman pleading with her not to betray, let him down or mistreat him because of these strong feelings he has towards her. He seems to be pleading with her to reciprocate his love by agreeing to his marriage proposal. There is no doubt this is a wonderful composition. Nevertheless, a critic's keen eye detects some images that the poet has employed which are demeaning to the artist. The first two lines of the poem reads:

I will cling to your garment like a wild grass seed
I will *needle your flesh* (my emphasis)

Owing to the fact that the speaker in the poem is a male addressing himself to a woman, then the images of needling one's flesh connotes sex. While it is remarkable that the poet conceals the intention by using a very descriptive image, he cannot be absolved from the guilt of depicting women negatively by using an image that may suggest that women are just "injected" while in the real sense they are also partakers of the act.

In the same poem, Ng'maryo, in lines 9 and 10 writes:
You will drop me into the *fertile ground* of
Your favour (my emphasis)

"Fertility" or "fertile ground" in this context can be deconstructed to mean the woman's womb. Once more, the poet succeeds in concealing the disparaging aspect that could have been depicted by using the term in its literal sense. Observably though, the womenfolk is demeaned as the term seems to mean that, the man's ultimate aim is to access the fertile ground.

The overt use of images to misrepresent, subjugate and subvert women discussed above can be juxtaposed against the images that represent male gender. To achieve the objectives of imagery juxtaposition, I will use two poems: one whose imagery that point to womanhood has already been considered and another one that centers on images that seem to elevate manhood.

Leo Luzuka's poem: "The Motoka" which has already been discussed with regards to the kind of images that the poet adopts while referring to women totally metamorphosis in the subsequent stanzas when the poets uses images to represent their male counterparts. When the poet decides to refer to male private parts, he chooses a less offensive metaphor – as demonstrated in stanza three of the same poem:

Look at the driver chasing the children away
They want to see *the pistol in the door pocket*
Or the button that lets out bullets from the machine
Through the eye of the car shhhhhhhhhhhhhhh
Let's not talk about it (my emphasis, 15-19)

Euphemism is inherent in the metaphorical reference to the male organs in the stanza above. One may, therefore, wonder whether the poet could not attack the immorality inherent in the leader's action but still maintain the dignity of both genders in an equal measure. Why couldn't the poet find an equally less offensive imagery to represent women? Why did he have to be so blatantly offensive?

Another poem that can be used to point out this disproportion in images employed is Jonathan Kariara's "A Leopard Lives in A Muu Tree", (page 110) which predominantly employs images that are widely in reference to manhood. A disparity in terms of the dignity accorded to the two genders is evident. The first six lines read:

A leopard lives in a *muu* tree
Watching my home
My lambs are born speckled
My wives tie their skirt tight
And turn away
Fearing mottled offspring (line 1-6)

The above poem, at literal level would simply be referring to the owner of a homestead whose lambs are not safe because there is a leopard that lives next to his home on a *muu* tree. However, when the idea of his wives comes in, the critic is forced to dig deeper into the imagery used in order to explore the sexual images that the poem evokes. It turns out that leopard is an outsider, perhaps a neighbor or a relative who takes advantage of the persona's infertility to sleep with his wives. The resulting offspring are "speckled" resembling their father – the "leopard" which is indicative of the outsider having sired "mullato" children as a result of the extramarital affair.

In the subsequent lines, the poet laments the contempt with which the "leopard" treats him and lets the audience know the reason as to why, other than cutting the *muu* tree, he cannot rescue himself from the derision.

I am besieged
I will have to cut the tree
I am besieged
I walk about stiff
Stroking my loins
A leopard lives outside my homestead
I have called him elder, the-one-from-the-same-womb
He peers at me with slit eyes
His head held up
My sword has rusted in the scabbard (Line 11-21)

From the metaphor that the poet employs in the last line, we get to know why he cannot perform his conjugal duties – simply because he can no longer "rise to the occasion" so to speak. We sympathize with him for his condition and perhaps support his intention of cutting the *muu* tree. The poet further reveals to the audience the contempt he has to endure from his wives because of his condition and then blabs out the reason: that he is incapacitated in sexual terms by old age:

My fences are broken
My medicine bags torn
The hair on my loins is singed
The upright post at the gate has fallen (lines 28 -31)

Of my interest here is how the imagery used in reference to male organs compare with those (images) used where the female sexual organs are involved. The poet refers to the man who cohabits with his wives as the "leopard". This image has two identifiable attributes: the specks that characterize the leopard's appearance which is transference to the half casts that the other man begets. Again, there is an image that alludes to the slyness that is associated with the leopard, which likewise, is transferable to the behaviour of this man who has an affair with the speaker's wives. In line 21, the poet uses a decorous image: "the sword that has rusted in the scabbard" to refer to the male sexual organ that is dysfunctional. Further, the poet refers to the speaker's manhood as "medicine bags" and "a gate" which he symbolically says it has fallen meaning it can no longer perform its duty.

In a nutshell, the images that the poet uses in the poems above are characterized by demureness. Luzuka tries his best to sound casual, if not normal with regards to the uncivilized behaviour that the revered leader in the poem is involved in. The "gun-bullet" image employed here is not only symbolic of the organ being referred to but also, as Joseph Walunywa argues, a symbol of manhood, of power, the strength that goes with masculinity

(35). Thus the poet, perhaps unconsciously, through diction elevates male gender to reverence while subjugating women through the images he uses.

Kariara also approaches the subject at hand with a lot of prudence. He avoids blatant description especially because the situation the speaker is in is, by all means, the most regrettable to male guild. Use of imagery here appears to be less offensive to the manhood since the ability to function sexually is, arguably, what makes a man. Imagery also affords the poet an opportunity to euphemistically handle an otherwise highly odious topic. The decorum the male fraternity is afforded by Kariara invites any critic interested in female gender (mis)representation to start questioning the rationale behind the overt bias demonstrated by other poets where female gender is involved.

Conclusion

Collectively analyzed, the five poems above depict a representation of a generation of poets whose use of images show commonality. They appear to have a skewed diction as well as images that they use for different genders. Women seem to be the major victims of iniquitous representation across board as presented by male poets. Through the diction and choice of images that are gender specific, the early male poets misrepresent women by deviating from the morally acceptable choices of images that are derogatory to women but maintaining etiquette where men are involved. The early poets, just like their prose fiction counterparts, can be said to have practiced inequality where the two genders were concerned - not necessarily through the subjects they handled in their creative works - but through the language they chose to represent the different genders.

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The Legacy of Cecil John Rhodes: His Role in the expansion of the British Empire

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Abstract

This paper sets out to describe the character, philosophies and guiding beliefs of the bigger-than-life personality of Cecil John Rhodes, the diamond magnate, as seen by different researchers and writers. It also explains how these were shaped by his attempts at grammar school in England and much later by his long stint due to absences in class-attendance in Oxford University. His father dispatched him to South Africa at a young age of seventeen in 1871 and on arrival he lived with his elder brother Herbert in Natal who was a cotton farmer. Both later relocated to Kimberley Diamond Fields after one year. Rhodes' entry into diamond mining that saw him acquire complete diamond mining rights not only in Southern Africa but in the whole world with funding from the N.M. Rothschild bankers and other London financiers, is examined. The article also examines the magnate's entry into politics and becoming Prime Minister of the Cape Colony and his convincing the Queen to grant him a charter for creation of the British South Africa Company (BSAC). For purposes of the expansion of the British Empire, the two Boer republics, Transvaal and Orange Free State, were viewed by Rhodes as a stumbling block that needed to be removed by whatever means possible with the full backing of the British Colonial Secretary Joseph Chamberlain. Rhodes' handling of the subsequent conflicts with the already established Boers in the light of the discovery of diamonds in 1866 and later gold in 1886 is discussed. Rhodes believed strongly that the 'gold of Ophir' had been mined somewhere in territory further north occupied by the Matabele and the Shona. He subsequently dispatched the Pioneer Column to conquer the territory not only driven by a desire for Empire expansion but also to discover the sources of the famed gold. His tenuous relations with the Boers and Afrikaners in the face of his expansionist schemes and confrontations are discussed and so are the so-called concessions agreements with King Lobengula Khumalo of the Ndebele who controlled these lands. A brief look is made of his duplicitous friendships with the Matabele chief in order to manipulate their good intentions towards him to acquire the land concessions in Zimbabwe. We examine Rhodes' fervent belief in the superiority of the British race and therefore its rightness to perpetuate British hegemony throughout the world. To further these beliefs, he made elaborate plans for the creation of a secret society, carefully put down in writing in his seven Wills, aspects of which he mentions in his book 'Confession of Faith' as the basis for his quest to expand the British Empire in Africa and the eventual creation of a one-world government. Supporters of Rhodes such as Professor Basil Williams (Professor of Imperial History in Oxford University) and other prominent British writers and historians saw him as a great man who had rendered "good service to mankind and what was best for England and the world". MacDonald likened Rhodes to Cromwell in that he was possessed of a singular idea-a global empire controlled by the British Empire. This overriding idea had earlier been propagated by prominent late nineteenth and early twentieth century British personalities and scholars strongly proposing the establishment of a world federation or commonwealth, ideas that gave birth later first to the League of Nations and to the United Nations. Critics of the so-called "civilizing and good for mankind'' character of the British Empire government however, have raised issue with Rhodes' racist and deceptive methods of wealth acquisition and colonial expansion seen as questionable at best and despotic, comparable to that of Adolf Hitler. This paper further looks at how the Rhodes scholarships and the round table movement, both of which he was the key originator and funder, have shaped the world since the beginning of the 20st Century.

***Key Words**: The Cape Colony, Matabele, Shona, Kimberley, character, philosophies, diamonds, mining, Boers, expansionist, British empire, secret society, scholarships, round table movement, Milner's Kindergarten, League of Nations.*

Part 1

Rhodes Early Life

Cecil John Rhodes, the British mining magnate and politician who made great wealth in Southern Africa and became Prime Minister of the Cape Colony, was one of the greatest influences that helped to shape British foreign policy and practice over time. Owing to poor health as an adolescent, the father determined that Rhodes needed a change to a better climate and hence made arrangements for him to be moved to Natal, South Africa in 1870. He landed on African soil in September of that year, at the age of seventeen, where he joined his elder brother Herbert who was already settled there. The brother was farming cotton in the Umkomazi Valley, Natal, an endeavor that soon proved unsuitable forcing them to migrate to the growing town of Kimberley where the recent discovery of diamonds in 1871 was drawing many prospectors from many parts of the world. Upon arriving in Kimberley, the young Rhodes started off amongst these small-scale prospectors by similarly engaging in small-scale diamond mining to earn a living before he grew into big business. Kimberley Mine was then known as New Rush which is in today's Northern Cape Province of South Africa. Three years after arriving in South Africa, in 1873, he bought shares in the Kimberley Diamond Mining Company and later in De Beers Consolidated Mines Limited, being financially bankrolled by London bankers N.M. Rothschild. In the same year, he decided to enter university and therefore went to England and enrolled at Oxford University. At university he was enthralled by a lecture by Professor John Ruskin is quoted as stating the following at the end of his arts lecture:

…..There is a destiny now possible to us … We are still undegenerate in race; a race mingled of the best northern blood … We are not yet dissolute in temper … Will you youth of England make your country again a royal throne of kings? … This is what England must do or perish, she must found colonies as far and as fast as she is able.[3]

Control of Diamond Mining in South Africa

to migrate to the growing town of Kimberley where the recent discovery of diamonds in 1871 was drawing many prospectors from many parts of the world amongst whom the younger Rhodes did small-scale diamond mining to earn a living, before he grew into big business. Kimberley Mine was then known as New Rush which is in today's Northern Cape Province of South Africa. In 1873, Rhodes bought shares in the Kimberley Diamond Mining Company and later in De Beers Consolidated Mines Limited, being financially bankrolled by London bankers N.M. Rothschild. However, he had serious competition from a rival, fellow Englishman, and diamond businessman known as Barney Barnato (his true name was Barnett Isaacs) who controlled Barnato Diamond Mining Company. In the end, Rhodes outwitted Barnato through financial support of the bankers N.M. Rothschild and diamond magnate Alfred Beit to buy one-fifth controlling shares in the Kimberley Central Mine and enticing Banarto's shareholders to sell their shares to him. At this point Barnato capitulated and signed an agreement to amalgamate the two companies into De Beers Consolidated Mines Limited with Rhodes as chairman and also agreeing that profits from the company can be used for expansion of the British Empire. Rhodes went on to found the British South Africa Company, that later grew to comprise a group of companies that included De Beers Diamond Company, Rio Tinto and the Anglo-American companies through the financial support of Rothschild bankers and other financiers of London. Although there is no record of Rhodes receiving other formal education

beside his early grammar school education in Stortford, he was able to later in life enroll in Oxford University presumably as a mature student, because the period when he was in the university coincides with the period he was acquiring and expanding his wealth and political life in the Cape Colony.

Being a strong believer in the rightness and infallibility of the British Empire and the superiority of the Anglo-Saxon race, he fervently advocated for the creation of a world-wide government ruled by the British Empire. He made these views in his 'Confession of Faith' that he penned as a student at Oxford even as he was acquiring his great wealth. Similar strong advocacy and material support for a one-world government was shared by many notable English contemporaries, many of whom held the believe that the upper classes of the Anglo-Saxon race possessed special blood (genes) that made them to be more successful than other races, a belief that had been given scholarly underpinning by a study of genealogies of English aristocracy and upper classes by Francis Galton in 1883 (Galton, 1884). Born on 5th July 1853 in Stortford, Hertfordshire, England in a family with strong Christian values since his father was the vicar of the Church of England in Stortford, Rhodes was equipped with religious concepts early on in life. He received his early childhood education in Bishop's Stortford Grammar School up to the age of nine after which he joined Winchester Secondary school but also intermitedly tutored privately by his father being reported to have had health problems at the time.

Key British intellectuals of the time who were supporters of British Empire were in agreement that the British system of empire was the best that human beings had developed up to that point in history because of its 'civilising' characteristics. Key among them Kerr, Alfred Zimmern, Hobson argued in scholarly articles that the Empire was good for humankind and therefore needed to be expanded to cover the entire world. These arguments were justified by assertions that the British interests were the "most available and realistic system of international morality" available to mankind. As justification of these assertions, Niall Ferguson (2003) asserts that the British Empire was "the nearest thing there has ever been to a world government" based on the freeing of markets and removal of trade barriers in a process he terms 'Angloglobolisation'. Due to this process, areas controlled (colonized) by the British Empire achieved impressive economic performance compared to those controlled by "corrupt, socialistic, protectionist regimes". Those who questioned the British world power and its methods were often dismissed as supercilious internal liberal critics. These arguments and proposals were the background to the formation of the League of Nations in 1919 and later after World War Two, to the formation of the United Nations. compared to others notably the German Reich of the time. It is therefore natural for Rhodes to view other races as inferior based on these assumptions.

Rhodes' Secret Society

The Society of the Elect: The Junta

Professor Quigley asserts that at the outset, Rhodes met with William T. Stead and Brett to set up the Society of the Elect. This secret organization was deliberately organized so that the very top was occupied by the Junta headed by Rhodes himself as the General of the Junta while below it was the Inner Circle and the Outer Circle members that included members from British closely-affiliated countries namely Australia, New Zealand, Canada, United States of America, South Africa and Germany. It must be noted that secret societies had dominated Europe for many centuries and much later were created in the United States principally through Freemasonry. Although Cecil Rhodes was already a member of the Freemasons at the time that he was proposing for the creation of this other new secret society, it was because he wanted it to be modelled on the Catholic Jesuits society which he thought was more

secretive and effective than the Freemans. The new secret society financed by Rhodes, according to author Jim Marrs in his book Rule by Secrecy (pp.83), later came to be known as the Round Table movement with chapters in the United States and other countries. A veteran of the South African Boer War, Lionel Curtis, who was a protégé of Lord Alfred Milner (member of Milner's Kindergarten), took the lead in the 1919 Paris conference in the formation of the Royal Institute of International Affairs (RIIA) with an American chapter to be called Council on Foreign Relations (CFR). The Rhode's scholarships under his will would sponsor the education of young men from these countries in Oxford University under the stewardship of his loyal friend Sir Alfred Milner. The plan for the creation of secret society was first sketched in his first will as follows:

…..To and for the establishment, promotion and development of a Secret Society, the true aim and object whereof shall be for the extension of British rule throughout the world, the perfecting of a system of emigration from the United Kingdom, and of colonisation by British subjects of all lands where the means of livelihood are attainable by energy, labour and enterprise, and especially the occupation by British settlers of the entire Continent of Africa, the Holy Land, the Valley of the Euphrates, the Islands of Cyprus and Candia, the whole of South America, the Islands of the Pacific not heretofore possessed by Great Britain, the whole of the Malay Archipelago, the seaboard of China and Japan, the ultimate recovery of the United States of America as an integral part of the British Empire, the inauguration of a system of Colonial representation in the Imperial Parliament which may tend to weld together the disjointed members of the Empire and, finally, the foundation of so great a Power as to render wars impossible, and promote the best interests of humanity.

The initial meeting for planning the form of secret society to be created was held in February 1891in which Rhodes discussed with William T. Stead, a well-known writer and editor, and drew up a tentative list of members comprising Rhodes himself, Stead and Nathan Rothschild. In the arrangement, Stead and Rothschild were made trustees of the Rhodes' wills with the latter handling the financial aspects. At this stage of the organizing, the secret society was divided into two levels, namely the Society of the Elect, being the innermost group and the Association of Helpers, the outside circle. It was agreed that the inner level would be made up of the General of the Society (Rhodes) and three junta members namely Stead, Brett and Alfred Milner. This meeting also agreed to establish a magazine known as '*Review of Reviews'* which would be the mouth-piece of the secret society. According to Professor Quigley, Rhodes let those present in this early meeting know that he had also intimated his plans for the formation of the secret society to some other friends notably Rothschild and Harry H. Johnston, a renowned African explorer and administrator. Johnston was involved in the curving out of parts of Kenya, Uganda and Nyasaland for the British Empire. According to *A Tentative Roster of the Milner Group*, which was evidently part of the will of Rhodes, the Society of the Elect comprised several levels namely The Society of the Elect, The Association of Helpers, The Outer Circle and Members in other countries. Cecil John Rhodes is listed number one on the list of the Society of the Elect suggesting that he was considered the commander of the secret society. This point is supported by Professor Quigley who asserts that Rhodes was placed in the arrangement as the general of the society with the other three as junta members as indicated above.

PART 2

The Idea of a World Federation

In late ninetieth century and early twentieth century, eminent British personalities and scholars proposed the establishment of a world federation or commonwealth. These ideas later gave birth first to the League of Nations and the United Nations. Critics of the so-called

"civilizing and good for mankind'' character of the British Empire however raised issue with Rhodes' racism and deceptive methods of wealth acquisition and colonial expansion Seen as questionable at best and despotic Some compared his greed for power to that of Adolf Hitler who appeared in the world scene years later Key British writers and scholars of the time who were supporters of British empire were in agreement that the British system of empire was the best that human beings had developed up to that point in history because of its 'civilising' characteristics that gave birth first to the League of Nations and later to the United Nations compared to others notably the German Reich of the time. It is therefore natural for Rhodes to view other races as inferior based on these assumptions. Shortly before his death in 1902, Rhodes had bequeathed his vast wealth to the Rhodes Trust for funding his secret society and the Rhodes Scholarship Fund to cater for the education of young men in universities who would later be used for furthering the aims and objectives of the secret society once they returned to their home countries. After university, majority of these young men were employed in the civil services in South Africa, Canada, United States and other Commonwealth countries. The awarding of these scholarships to eligible young men from different countries of the world was seen as the vehicle for creating a pool of like-minded point-men in those countries. These young men would in time be used to achieve the planned one-world government that Rhodes and the like-minded industrialists and magnates were looking to establish, through agitating and championing from within their own countries and governments.

Upon becoming the Prime Minister of the Cape Colony in 1890, Rhodes introduced the Glen Grey Act that was designed to legitimize the removal of blacks from their lands to make way for white settlement and industrialization of those areas. His philosophy was that the blacks had to be removed from their traditional lands in order to transform them to conform to European habits. Rhodes applied discriminatory laws that disenfranchised Africans notably the limiting of the size of land they could own legally while greatly increasing the amount of land that whites could legally hold as noted by Richard Dowden "*most would find it almost impossible to get back to the list (Cape Qualified Franchise) because of the legal limit on the amount of land they could hold".* Rhodes argued that the native African was to be treated as a child and denied the franchise. This line of thinking and action was not new since it had already been applied in the United States by President Andrew Jackson to legitimize the removal of several thousand Cherokee Indians from their native lands using the Indian Removal Act in 1829. President Jackson, who professed friendship to the Indians, justified his actions by claiming that the forcing of the Cherokee off their traditional lands would keep them free from the influences of the white man. Rhodes, like Jackson, professed friendship to the African people yet pushed for the idea that they should only be used for manual labour.

Among the original members of the Milner Kindergarten was Patrick Duncan (Sir Patrick) who had been Milner's assistant in the Board of Internal Revenue (1894-1897) in England. He attended Balliol College, Oxford University in 1890-1894. Later he joined Milner in South Africa as private secretary, later becoming treasurer of the Transvaal in 1901, Colonial Secretary 1903-1906 and acting Lieutenant-Governor in 1906. Later he was Minister of the Interior, Minister of Mines and Governor-General of South Africa (1936-1946). During the whole period he would frequently visit England to consult with the Group. Another prominent member of the Kindergarten was Hugh A. Wyndham who in addition to his having been in the South African Union Parliament between 1910 and 1920, was previously the private secretary to Milner himself. Author of 'Problems of Imperial Trusteeship' (1933), and 'Britain and the World', among some of the books he authored, was heir presumptive to the third Baron Leconfield. Like all other members of the Milner Group, he was also both a member of the Royal Institute for International Affairs (RIIA) and the secret society.

Another key Milner Kindergarten member was Richard Feetham who occupied many high and varied positions notably as chairman of Committee on Decentralization in India (1918-1919), chairman of the Local Government Commission of the Kenyan Colony in 1926 during the governorship of Edward Grigg. He was also chairman of the Transvaal Asiatic Land Tenure Commission (1930-1935), and Vice Chancellor of University of Witwatersrand, among others. He attended New College, Oxford in 1893-1895. Yet another important member of the Kindergarten was John Buchan who authored books such as Nelsons History of the Great War (1915-1919), The Thirty-Nine Steps, The Three Hostages and Greenmantle. He served as correspondent for The Times newspaper as well as military intelligence officer in France in 1916-1917 and as Director of Information for the War Office in 1917-1918.

Lord Alfred Milner, who had been the High Commissioner in South Africa during the Boer War and a close friend of Rhodes, later made concrete steps in the realization of Rhodes' vision by establishing the Round Table movement through what was referred to as Milner's Kindergarten. Milner held similar views about the expansion of the British Empire advocating for "a common civilization, united, not in an alliance-for alliances can be made and unmade and are never more than nominally lasting but in a permanent organic union". These words are contained in his farewell speech to an audience in Cape Town in March 1905 aimed especially at members of Milner's Kindergarten. The Kindergarten refers to the pool of young men trained in Oxford University under the Rhodes scholarships, mostly Englishmen, according to the last will that the mining magnate had prepared before he died in 1902. Milner continued

"…. Our idea is still distant…. the road is long, the obstacles are many, and the goal may not be reached in my lifetime— perhaps not in that of many in this room. You cannot hasten the slow growth of a great idea like that by any forcing process……. I know that the service of that idea requires the rarest combination of qualities, a combination of ceaseless effort with infinite patience. But think on the other hand of the greatness of the reward; the immense privilege of being allowed to contribute in any way to the fulfilment of one of the noblest conceptions which has ever dawned on the political imagination of mankind".

It is worth noting that the idea of forming a secret organization to further British imperial interests was not a new one during this time. Another like-minded British personality, Robert Talbot Gascoigne-Cecil, Viscount Cranborne and third Marquis of Salisbury (1830-1903) had already developed a similar plan comprised of three elements. The first element involved a method of the secret group penetrating politics, education and journalism. The second level of the plan was the recruitment of men of ability (mainly from Oxford University) who would be assisted to climb up the political and social ladder through matrimonial alliances, titles and positions of power. The last part involved the influencing of public policy by placing these recruited men of ability in positions of power and ensuring that they were protected from public scrutiny. This group came to be known as the Cecil Bloc, one of the factions of the secret organization established for pursuing the cause of expanding the British Empire to cover the entire world just like the Milner Bloc. To illustrate how effective, the methodology was in achieving its objectives, Professor Quigley elaborates that Lord Salisbury (Gascoigne-Cecil), utilizing a similar methodology, was able to hold high and varied positions of power that included fourteen years as prime minister of Britain between 1885 and 1902.

Rhodes Scholarships and The Round Table Movement

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As we have stated above, about the time of the death of Rhodes in 1902, there were two distinct secret groups all with very similar goals and objects and operating about the same period, namely the Cecil bloc and the Milner Group. With time however, the distinction between the two groups became blurred with the Cecil bloc apparently being swallowed by the Milner Group. These groups had created parallel research organizations for human psychology research namely the Psychical Research Institute of the Cecil bloc and the Royal Institute for International Affairs based in Chatham House at Oxford University which later moved to London. We will be looking in more detail the activities and objectives of these two organizations later in the paper. It is worth noting that all members of the Milner Group were also members of the Royal Institute of International Affairs (RIIA). The first meeting of members of the Institutes of International Affairs of the Commonwealth was held in Canada in 1933 and was structured along the lines of the Chatham House model. The second conference of this group took place in Sydney, Australia under the Australian Institute of International Affairs in 1938 attended by many delegates from Britain. Canada, Australia with sponsorship of the Commonwealth Government, New South Wales government and the Carnegie Corporation. Prominent British members of the Round Table who attended were Lord Lothian, chair of the Rhodes Trust and later British Ambassador in Washington, Lionel Curtis, and Ernest Bevin. Milner had worked as an assistant editor at the Pall Mall magazine under William T. Stead in England. He had also worked in South Africa following his appointment as High Commissioner in that country. He is described as possessing a keen intellect that had been infused with the singular passion for service to the state by Arnold Toynbee, who he met at Oxford, and is said to have been his mentor and a fellow radical reformer. However, the similarities between the two seems to be in great contrast given that Toynbee was a selfless worker who championed the rights of the less privileged and by the account of Milner himself, a Bible reading person who most likely followed its teachings. Milner, on the other hand, was a member of the secret society which by its own aims and objectives was antithetical to Christin teachings. The similarities of these two Englishmen could lie in the fact that each of them concentrated almost all their mental powers on service to a particular constituency namely: Toynbee focused his energies in addressing the plight of the poor while Milner, using a similar single-mindedness, focused all his energies on service to the British Empire. John Buchan (Lord Tweedsmuir), who served in many high offices in the British military and equerry to three kings and one-time Governor-General of Canada, described Milner as a person who focused all his energies to the service of the British Empire once the idea was introduced to him. Buchan himself was a close member of the Milner group and therefore understood the relationships between its key members. Buchan explains that Milner's love for the state service was inculcated in him mostly by Arnold Toynbee. But who was Arnold Toynbee and how did it come that he had so much influence in the thinking of Alfred Milner, the chief architect of the Rhodes secret society?

Believer in Superiority of Anglo-Saxon Race over other Races

Among his many achievements are as a politician having become the Prime Minister of the Cape Colony in the years 1890-1896 and regarded as the founder of modern Zimbabwe, Botswana and Zambia (Rhodesia, and Nyasaland then). One of his dearest ambitions, but less well known, is his earnest quest for the expansion of the British Empire to include the United States of America and encompass the entire world. In pursuit of his dream of bringing the United States back into the fold of the British Empire, Rhodes made arrangements as well as put mechanisms in place and the money for the creation of a secret society which he called

"The Society of the Elect" comprising of well-educated young men from England and other countries. These men would later come to be known as the Milner's Kindergarten tasked with carrying out his vision for the expansion of the British Empire. Rhodes so strongly believed in British imperialism and the superiority of the Anglo-Saxon race that he wrote in his *Confession of Faith:*

"…..I content that we are the finest race in the world…….just fancy those parts…….at present inhabited by the most despicable specimens of human beings what an alteration there would be if they were brought under Anglo-Saxon influence…..Why should we not form a secret society with one object the furtherance of the British Empire and the bringing of the whole uncivilized world under British rule for the recovery of the United States for the making the Anglo-Saxon race but one Europe".

This was written in the year 1875. The grammatical mistakes are in his original manuscript of June 2, 1875. During his study at Oriel College, Oxford University, Rhodes was greatly influenced by John Ruskin who established the Slade College of Fine Arts and was the first Slade Professor of Fine Art at Oxford University. Professor Ruskin was a writer of literature and fine art, his most famous work being "Modern Painters' which he penned under an anonymous name 'A graduate of Oxford'. Ruskin was well-traveled in Europe accompanying his parents and later his wife Euphemia Chalmers Gray whom he married in 1848. Accounts reveal that his marriage, having been arranged by the parents from both sides who were old friends, did not have real feelings of affection leading to it being annuled since it was never consummated. Rhodes was enthralled by Ruskin's arguments and particularly his inaugural lecture where, among other things, the professor argued that "*the art of any country is the exponent of its social and political virtues".* In order to have a good understanding of the underlying philosophies and belief system that Rhodes embraced as a student and later in his life, let us look at what Ruskin himself believed. David Icke, author, describes Ruskin as an ardent student of the Bible before he gave up belief in God and instead concentrated in esoteric writings by Plato (The Republic) and Madame Blavatsky (founder of the Theosophy (occult) society and other books on secret societies, notably the Order of the Golden Dawn. The central themes of much of these writings consist of a lack of belief in and questioning of Christian teachings and advocation for an all-powerful and controlling government through a central power base of a few elite people at the top, what can clearly be seen as a socialist or communistic type of government. These, as elaborated by Professor Carol Quigley, were the main philosophies of Ruskin that so enthralled Rhodes at Oxford University that he copied the lectures in longhand for own reference thereafter. It is noteworthy that these same beliefs form the central arguments of older and existing secret societies notably the Knight Templars, Freemasonry and the Theosophist movement of madame Blavatsky as shown by Michael Baigent and Richard Leigh in their book *The Temple and the Lodge*. *The Temple and the Lodge*. Random House). The two authors also point out that since the seventeenth century, no less than six Kings and other British members of the Royal family have been members of the secret society. This is taken to be the part Rhodes assumed fitted well with his own ideas on the expansion of the British Empire as well as the unification of the whole world under the British Monarchy. Some accounts claim that Ruskin's thesis so greatly mentally gripped Rhodes that he copied notes of it in long hand and carried it with him the rest of his life. In his Confession of Faith, Rhodes tells us that he had become a member of the masonic secret society during his stay in Oxford while attributing his acquisition of the great wealth to his membership of the secret group. Despite his masonic affiliations, he still felt that there was need to create an even more elaborate and secretive society modelled on the Jesuit system of the Catholic Church. He argued in his book, through a rhetorical question:

"Why should we not form a secret society with but one object, the furtherance of the British Empire, for the bringing of the whole uncivilized world under British rule for the recovery of the United States, for the making of the Anglo-Saxon race but one empire?.....such a scheme……what a splendid help a secret society would be (that) is not openly acknowledged but who work in secret for such an object".

Rhodes Pushes Northwards: The Anglo-Boer Wars

The Anglo-Boer wars have been characterized as coming out of the desire of the British government to annex and expand the empire into the southern African territories under the Afrikaner/Boer governorship, namely the Transvaal and Orange Free State, which were up to that point independent republics. The first Anglo-Boer war, also known as the First Transvaal War of Independence (1880-1881), resulted from several causes namely, a strong desire by the Disraeli conservative government to expand the British Empire and unite all southern African colonies into a federation, weak governance in the Boer government in Pretoria, poverty, and strong resistance by Boers against British annexation of their country. The attempt to annex Transvaal (also known as South Africa Republic) by Theophilus Shepstone, formerly the Secretary for native affairs in Natal, under instructions from British Secretary of State for the Colonies, Henry Herbert (Lord Porchester), 4th Earl of Carnarvon, was initially successful for a few years up to 1880. Utilizing the conflict raging between the Transvaal government and the Pedi King Sekhukhune I over the latter's refusal to pay taxes, Shepstone declared annexation of Transvaal Republic in Pretoria in 1877 amid protests albeit peaceful in nature by Boer leaders. In the next three years, Boer leaders led several delegations to Britain to plead for restoration of their independence but these were all in vain being turned down by the British government which maintained that the republic should remain a colony of the British Empire. This British obstinacy in maintaining a position of a clear breach of Boer right of their own country, eventually persuaded them that only war would bring back their independence. In deliberate moves designed to provoke a war with the British authority, Boers met and chose their leaders namely Paul Kruger, Piet Joubert, and M.W. Pretorius to their campaign to reclaim their country back from the British. And soon after on 13th December 1880, they proclaimed the restoration of their Transvaal Republic and raised their flag at Heidelberg rejecting British authority. The resulting war between the Boers and the British ended in total defeat for the latter and cost them two hundred dead soldiers and a similar number injured compared to only a few dead and injured Boer commandos at the battle of Majuba Hill. The Boers on this occasion were able to restore their independence from the onslaught of British empire through the signing of the Pretoria Convention of August 1881. But this gave them only a temporary reprieve for their independence from British colonialism.

Under a decade later, and with better scheming against the Boer republic, the British took charge of the second Anglo-Boer war (1899-1901) resulting in a very different outcome. A desire to control not only the southern African Boers Republics but also the native local tribes notably the Zulu in Natal and the Pedi in the north, the British government now headed by Gladstone, was even more determined to actualize their long-held ambition of control of the whole of southern Africa. With the discovery of gold in Witwatersrand in Transvaal in the early 1886 making it the single biggest gold producer in the world, the South Africa Republic under Paul Kruger, was attaining a new economic clout in the eyes of international business and seemed set to upset the international monetary system controlled by the British Empire. In a related development, the discovery of gold fields in Transvaal Republic had brought international speculators into the country who were from outside Southern Africa, called Uitlanders, who in time started to demand their rights to vote. Believing that the Uitlanders (immigrants) had ulterior motives and were a threat to Transvaal independence, the government tried to control their voting rights by allowing only those who had been in the

country for 14 or more years these rights. About this time, it must be noted, Cecil Rhodes had become a very wealthy politician from diamond mining in Kimberley in the Cape Colony and was soon to become the Prime Minister in 1890. Being a strong supporter of British imperialism and holding a fervent believe in the superiority of the British race and empire, Rhodes felt that allowing the South Africa Republic to control the biggest gold wealth in the world would undermine British expansionist aims in southern Africa and hence needed to be stopped.

Back in Southern Africa, in his endeavour to bring under the British sphere new territories, Rhodes worked tirelessly through coercing and cajoling treaties and concessions from the local Ndebele and Shona chiefs in what was then called Zambesia. Early on after arriving in the Cape Colony where he found a resurgent Boer army under Kruger having beaten off a British effort to annex the Transvaal, Rhodes at first kept his feelings to himself because he had a bigger vision of a much bigger and expansive British Empire. But first there were lands to be conquered or somehow brought under British control. These were the territories further north of the Transvaal and Orange Free State in the area that was at that time known as Zambesia. These comprised lands between the south and north of the Zambezi River which would soon after be called Southern and Northern Rhodesia by the white settlers. Despite this strong desire of Rhodes to expand control of more and more territories for the British Empire and hence the need for him to work closely with the local British administration (controlled by the Colonial Office in London), he never-the-less wanted the control of local matters be exercised by the settlers and politicians like himself. It is quite clear that the Rhodes' scheme for the expansion of the British Empire was intended to be carried out through surreptitious ways given that it was to be actualized secretly and in ways designed to be unnoticeable by the ordinary people.

To start with, the plan required the influencing of people without them realizing that they were being fed with information prepared in advance to make them see things in the way of those behind the scheme. Passionately believing in the virtues of British values, culture and ideals, he wanted to spread these far and wide especially to the African natives whom he considered to be like children. At the same time, he was always on the lookout for commercial opportunities that would become available particularly from mining of gold and diamonds in the hinterlands of southern Africa (Green, 1936). Key British writers and scholars, supporters of British empire, agreed that the British system of empire was the best that human beings had developed up to that point in history. Arguments that it's 'civilising' character gave birth first to the League of Nations and later to the United Nations. Better than others notably the German Reich of the time.

Conclusion

We see the lowly beginnings of Cecil Rhodes as a sickly young Englishman shipped to Natal to join his elder brother Herbert, a cotton farmer, and his meteoric acquisition of wealth after moving to Kimberley. In a short period, he become very rich through gold and diamond mining with financing of the Rothschild bank and other London financiers. In the midst of expanding his diamond mining business, he enrolls as a student in Oxford University in 1873 determined to secure a degree, an endeavor that takes about seven years to attain his bachelor's qualification. He enter politics after winning the Barkley West constituency in the Cape Colony. Later he became the Prime Minister of the Colony. In a series of wills before his death in 1902, he bequeathed the entire wealth to the realization of a global British-controlled empire that that he hoped would regain the United States of America. His plans were to utilise the two vehicles for the achievement of this grand idea namely the Rhodes Scholarships and the Round Table Movement. His singular purpose in life was the expansion of the British Empire by whatever means as was fond of asserting to friends and the realization of a world-wide British

empire. As Prime Minister of the Cape Colony, he trampled upon African land and voting rights in the Cape Colony.

At the period when he was attending Oxford University, Rhodes appears to have metamorphosed to embrace extreme views of the urgency and right of the British Empire to rule the entire world and also about his own love relationships. From the literature, it is apparent that he came under strong influence of at least one of his lecturers in Oxford, Professor John Ruskin, and also the ideas he gleaned from writings by Marcus Aurelius, Winwood Reade, and other classics, influenced and shaped his thoughts and views about life, love and spirituality.

His critics have accused Rhodes of using unscrupulous methods of wealth acquisition and land concessionary rights to control Ndebele and Shona lands. Lands from Shona and the Ndebele renamed Rhodesia after himself. Rhodes never married but had close relationships with many young men among whom were Hawkins, then Pickering whom it seems was very close to him and the Band of Twelve. Later he also was lose to General Gordon of Khartoum who wrote him several revealing love letters.

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The Place of an Applied Linguist in Actualising the Big Four Agenda

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Abstaract

The Big Four Agenda, hereafter BFA, is a four-point agenda initiated by His Excellency President Uhuru Kenyatta, the President of Kenya, which outlines his focus in his final Presidential term. The BFA is geared towards improving the living standards of all Kenyans regardless of their social status; grow the economy and leave a long-lasting legacy. The items in the BFA are; manufacturing, food security, affordable housing and universal healthcare. The skills and expertise of all professionals and the government are essential in the actualisation of the Big Four Agenda. All Kenyans should be proactively involved in realising the vision of the president and his government. Applied linguists may think that they are just spectators in the four-point Agenda, but that is not the case. It is important to note that language is a roadmap in the realisation of national development. An applied linguist, therefore, has a role to play since there maybe linguistics problems that if not solved, may hinder the actualisation of the BFA. This means that applied linguists are part of the solution to both local and the global challenges which may stand in the way of actualising the Big Four Agenda. This paper strives to shed some light on the role of the applied linguist in the actualisation of the BFA. Secondly, the article highlights some areas that an applied linguist may research on, which are directly tied to the realisation of the Big Four Agenda. Further, the article compounds the crucial skills that a current (21st Century) applied linguist should have to participate in the realisation of the Big Four Agenda actively. It is hoped that this paper will impact to a large extent on Linguists who may be harbouring the notion that they are just spectators in the ongoing conversation on how best and timely the Big Four Agenda can be made a reality.

***Keywords**: The Big Four Agenda, applied linguist, actualise, Final Presidential term, 21st applied linguist, Kenyans*

Background Information

Applied linguistics as a discipline is often said to be concerned with solving or at least resolving social problems involving language. Many scholars, writers and researchers have alluded that the urge should drive applied linguists to find solutions to the societal linguistic issues. McCarthy (2001) notes that applied linguistics is essentially a problem-driven discipline rather than a theory-driven one. This observation implies that the discipline should offer practical solutions to the problems which are faced by business people and professionals whose work involves language. According to him applied linguistics should provide insights and ways forward in resolving contextualised language-related issues. Brumfit (1991:46) points out that applied linguistics should offer solutions to real-world problems in which language is a central issue. Further, Widdowson (1998, 2000, 2004, 2005) advances that applied linguistics is a mediating field or domain of theoretical plane of linguistics and language. He implies that knowledge on the one hand and its applications to problems that arise in several real-world settings. Accordingly, an applied linguist should strive to use the acquired knowledge to solve these problems. Further, research points out that applied linguistics can deal with complex and multi-faceted issues. From the ongoing discussion, it is clear that wherever there are linguistic problems, applied linguistic expertise is required.

Currently, Kenyans are looking forward to the realisation of the BFA. Writers and scholars have had their voice on how best the BFA can be realised. Gichuga (2019) notes that the big four Agenda needs more participants for fast-tracking. According to him, the general public and the upper house (parliament) and lower house (Senate) should strive to support the Big four Agenda. Bankelele (2018) points out that every speech should be channelled towards the realisation of the BFA. Ndemo (2018) gives some insights into how the BFA can be implemented without increasing the tax. He opines that the actualisation of manufacturing and food security requires the goodwill and policy support of the national and county governments. He further notes that 'Biometrically identifying Kenyans can achieve universal Healthcare' while the removal of the middlemen can realise food security. Kamene, B. Ombisi B, Andabwa, T. Mutinda, F. and Ibrahim, A (2019) note that students' role in enabling the government to achieve the Big Four Agenda is to participate in Public Policymaking debates and discussions to come up with different options. As an applied linguist, I wish to be part of the ongoing debate by being part of actualising the BFA. It is important to note that as scholars and researchers, applied linguists should not only be spectators but should be part of the team that will facilitate the actualisation of the BFA.

The Role of an applied Linguist

Applied linguists may think that they are just spectators in the four-point Agenda, but that is not the case. Language is a roadmap in the realisation of national development. An applied linguist, therefore, has a role to play since there maybe linguistics problems that if not solved, may hinder the actualisation of the BFA. This revelation means that applied linguists are part of the solution to both local and the global linguistic challenges which may stand in the way of actualising the Big Four Agenda.

The section of this paper highlights what an applied linguist can do to be part of the professionals who are involved in the realisation of the big four agenda. The role of an applied linguist would be;

To advocate for the use of an inclusive language, especially when leaders are commenting on BFA in terms of making speeches or statements. This inclusivity can be achieved by the use of the first person subjective plural 'we' and first person objective 'us'. By doing so, all Kenyans will feel part and parcel of the group which would be in the forefront in implementing the BFA. Again, inclusivity can be achieved by using gender-neutral pronouns. Earlier it has been noted that all Kenyans should be involved.

Applied linguists should agitate for the use of gender-sensitive language when issues around BFA are being discussed or commented. Initially, the word 'man' was used to refer to both male and female, but today people must think more carefully in as far as how they apply to express gender to convey their ideas clearly and accurately to their readers or listeners. The gender inclusivity can be achieved by use gendered nouns, alternating genders and pronouns, use of s/he or use of the pronouns we or they. It is important to note that gender-based discrimination starts with language for regular use of gender-biased terminology influences attitudes and expectations and could relegate women to the background or support the stereotyped view of women and roles that many plays. Both males and females have a role to play, and therefore, none should be left out in the discourse around the actualisation of the big four agenda.

Applied linguists should advocate for the use of language that pacifies all the communities in Kenya. Language can brew conflicts, especially when one community feels threatened by another. Article 33(2) subsection d of the constitution states that the right to freedom of expression which does not extend to the advocacy of hatred that constitutes ethnic

incitement, the vilification of others or cause harm or is based on any ground of discrimination gender. Further, the National Cohesion and integration commission defines hate speech as 'use of threatening, abusive or insulting words or behavior, displaying of any written, publishing or distribution of written material, presentation or directing the performance of the public performance of a play, distributing, showing or playing a recording or providing or leading a programme that involves the use of abusive language. The threats are packaged in different forms and play a crucial role in resolving such issues which may bring both the disharmony. The BFA cannot be actualised if there are two warring sides.

Applied linguists can also be consultants to different professionals who in one way or another are involved in the actualisation of the BFA. The applied linguist role in this sense would be to voice out their contributions based on their interpretation of the given situation. The consultee is now free to weigh on his own all the contributions provided by the applied linguist and make a decision on the best way out. In achieving the BFA, an applied linguist can be consulted by a site engineer who has noted language barriers between the engineers and the casuals who are involved in constructing houses in Mavoko, Machakos County as proposed in this Agenda. The applied linguist may have different contribution such as; hiring interpreters who are well versed with the languages involved or even introducing the use of sign language. At this point, the site engineer will now consider the two options and decide on the best option.

Again, an applied linguist may take a significant role as an advisor to the cabinet secretaries of the different sectors which are directly involved in the realisation of the BFA. The applied linguist can play this role behind the scenes. Cook (2009) notes that the European Hugo Baetens Beardsmore's work on bilingualism largely shapes the dimension of bilingualism taken in Europe though he has had little impact on public debate or decision-making for most language problems. This example portrays that an applied linguist can impact on resolving related linguistic issues without necessarily publicising his or her role. Therefore, applied linguists should take centre stage in contributing their expertise to the ongoing debate of how best to realise the BFA.

Skills of the 21ST Century Applied Linguist

An applied linguist in the 21st century should possess the following necessary skills for him or her to remain relevant in the field of applied linguistics and also contribute accordingly in the realisation of the BFA.

First and foremost, the 21st applied linguists should have collaborative skills; that is, they should be in a position to collaborate with others. This means that they should be in a place to work in teams. There are times when the applied linguist will be required to work closely with an economist, an agriculturist, a doctor, a lawyer or even a statistician. In case of issues about healthcare, an applied linguist will need to collaborate with other professionals such as psychologists, the doctors, ICT technical teams, clinical sociologists among others to carry out collaborative research to clearly understand the problems and how best to resolve the issues.

The collaboration skills will enable the applied linguist to work productively on a team and integrate individual expertise and ideas into a coherent solution. This way, it means that there will be strong work relations with others. Grabe (2010) advances that the 21st century applied linguist will direct more attention to issues of motivation, attitudes and affective since all these potentially influence a lot of language-based problems. This skill is essential for an applied linguist who would wish to partner with other professionals and experts in actualising the BFA. Most linguistic issues are multi-faceted, and therefore, they require multidisciplinary approaches to solve them.

Further, applied linguistics will remain interdisciplinary, and therefore, an applied linguist should be knowledgeable in other disciplines which in one way or another inform the issues of interest. This stance is vital since 'the resolution of language-based problems in the real world is a complex, dynamic and complicated process. In this regard, for applied linguists to offer any substantial solutions to the linguistic issues which may hinder the realisation of BFA, there are aspects of other disciplines which should be of interest an applied linguist. Clinical linguistics, for example, is the application of linguistic concepts, theories and methods in clinical situations. In this example for an applied linguist to contribute immensely to realisation of the universal healthcare, he or she should know the issues of disorders which may hinder proper communication and even policies governing the patient-doctor relationship, patient confidentiality among others. All these issues could be impediments to harnessing of universal healthcare, which is among the BFA.

Forensic linguistics, which is the application of linguistics knowledge, methods and insights in the context of law is another subfield of Linguistics whose principles can be significant in the actualising of the BFA. For the realisation of the BFA, all Kenyans should be at peace. In case of any warring communities, an applied linguist can come in handy to interpret the language of the law, could question the interrogation process and also analyse the written statements. This process can be done to ensure that peace prevails by resolving the issues justly.

Again, the applied linguist should be in a position to integrate technology (ICT) in addressing the language-related concern in society. This is facilitated by coming up with new ideas and also displaying an understanding through interpreting, analysing, synthesising or evaluating situations. The 21st applied linguist should incorporate ICT in their research as a way of supporting knowledge construction. ICT, in this case, includes a full range of available digital tools. These include both hardware (e.g. tablets, computers, e-reader, Smartphone) and software (including engineering applications, internet browser and multimedia development). ICT is an essential tool for it promotes and supports a wide range of 21st-century skills. An applied linguist should, therefore, integrate ICT in addressing language-related concerns in society. Stuart (2013), notes that ICT facilitates the analysis of millions of words automatically and enhances efficiency and accuracy. This fact underscores the fact that armed with the necessary ICT skills; an applied linguist can analyse data from a large corpus with ease, accuracy and efficiency. With the ICT skills, an applied linguist will be in a position to monitor the notions that Kenyans have towards the BFA. This may, in turn, inform research areas that applied linguists can undertake to assist in the actualisation of the same.

Moreover, the 21st century applied linguist should possess excellent written communication skills. This skill is of considerable significance to the applied linguist for he/she will be involved in research and should make the findings known. The research work is generally in the form of a thesis or project. This situation calls for the linguist to be in a position to present the findings understandably so that the beneficiaries of the research get them accordingly. If the applied linguist lacks this skill, then it will be difficult for him/her to disseminate the research findings as expected.

Further, any scholar should be in a position to participate in knowledge extension and creation. An applied linguist is also a scholar in the world of academia; this is harnessed by undertaking research. This assertion means that a scholar should participate in problem-solving by using data or situations from the real world. Therefore, an applied linguist should be able to conduct research and learn about issues and concepts. The study should be aimed at solving real societal problems and also extending knowledge.

Additionally, the 21st century applied linguist should possess critical thinking skills. The essential skills will enable him/her to be sceptical. The fundamental skills are vital in

undertaking a literature review. The literature review is itself a critical look at the existing research that is significant to the work that the investigation is carrying out. The essential skills enable the researcher to see the link between what they are doing and what others have done. The critical skills will also allow the linguist to assess the strengths and weaknesses of existing research. This way, the applied linguistics researcher can create a niche in their area of interest. The critical thinking skills will enable the applied linguist to choose which of the four areas highlighted in the BFA can research on and impact positively to the realisation of the big four points.

Areas of interest for an applied linguist per item of the BFA

The Big Four Agenda is grounded on food security, affordable housing, manufacturing and universal healthcare. His Excellency Uhuru Kenyatta articulated the BFA during Jamhuri Day's celebrations on 12th December 2017.

Food security

The Global Food Security index, hereafter GFSI, of 2018 ranked Kenya position 77 out of 119 countries. According to GFSI, Kenya is still food insecure for it has dangerous levels of hunger experienced in different parts of the country. Chepkwony (2018) notes that the 2018 ranking by GFSI is a challenge to the government, given that food security is among the issues in the BFA. To achieve food security and proper nutrition for all Kenyans, the government targets to increase the production of maize from 40 million 90 kg bags annually to 61 million bags by 2022, rice around 125,000 metric tonnes currently to 400,000 metric tonnes by 2022 and potatoes from the current 1.6 million tonnes to about 2.5 million by 2022. The government plans to achieve food security by providing fertiliser, crop insurance, crop diversification, mechanisation of agricultural development and fall armyworm mitigation. An applied linguist could translate the master plan that shows how the government intends to achieve this item of BFA into a language that can be understood by all since the issues to be addressed are designed to benefit all. The farmers are vital in ensuring that Kenya is food secure. The language that is used for packaging this information should be understandable to the farmers. An applied linguist can translate the instructions on how to use the inputs, more so the fertilisers and the necessary chemicals that can mitigate the armyworm. Once the farmers get and interpret the instructions accurately, the outputs will increase, holding all the other variants constant.

Universal healthcare

The Principal Secretary in charge of research Prof. Hamadi Boga noted that the conversation between policymakers and researchers is very crucial so that research is sustained and policy informs the study and vice versa. The government intends to achieve 100 per cent health coverage for every Kenyan. Universal health coverage is essential in addressing our additional challenges and will go a long way in making the core principal of the Vision 2030 Agenda; that is, the realisation of a society where "no one is left behind". To realise this, the government intends to review the rules governing private insurances to bring the cost of cover within the rich of every Kenya. "Universal" means all are factored on board regardless of their social-educational status.

An applied linguist can fast track the realisation of universal healthcare as dictated in the BFA by following closely on the discourse that goes between the medical practitioner and the service seeker. Sometimes, the medic and the patient may not be of the same linguistic orientation. Effective communication between the service provider and the patient is critical for proper diagnosis and treatment. Any linguistic barrier may lead to misdiagnosis and lack

of appropriate prescription. Again the prescription should be in a language that the patient can easily understand for healthcare to be meaningful to him/her.

An applied linguist should get concerned to question how effective communication is achieved if the health practitioner and patient do not share that same language. If for instance, the way to facilitate effective communication is to involve an interpreter, how is confidentiality maintained? Again how is the interpretation made to ensure the health practitioner effectively communicates? Other areas of interest would be; to find out how the Cuban doctors are overcoming the language barriers encountered, especially when interacting with the locals who are not competent in English.

Affordable housing

The government aims at constructing 500,000 homes in five lots in the next four years. This plan would be achieved by bringing County governments on board and empowering housing associations. Provision of affordable housing is in line with article 43 of Chapter four of the Constitution, which states that 'every person has a right to accessible and adequate housing to reasonable standards of sanitation. This article assures every person in Kenya the right to appropriate and available housing and equitable standards f sanitation. For us, as a country to achieve affordable housing, construction companies will be brought on board. For the companies to work efficiently, to reduce risks, to make full disclosure in terms of communication and strengthen long-lasting relations, the information should flow freely. An applied linguist can investigate the communication barriers in the construction sites and means of resolving them.

Again, there are times when the professionals (engineers, among others) know, but they lack a proper way of communicating. An applied linguist can work closely with such experts and help them package the knowledge in an understandable way some construction companies may have internationally faced, and there might be a language barrier. To resolve these challenge interpreters will be required to come on board. In such a time, there are applied linguists who have mastery of translation and interpretation. Further, an applied linguist can carry out a study on problems of reading and how such issues can be resolved. Another area which could be of interest to an applied linguist is the interpersonal communication among the experts and workers at the site and whether that could be a hindrance to completing the housing projects accordingly.

Further, an applied linguist can partner with the other stakeholders in coming up with a housing policy which would make the Kenyans support the Agenda. Many Kenyans are not aware of how the government intends to achieve affordable housing. In the same way, an applied linguist would be very instrumental in ensuring that the housing policy is in languages that all Kenyans understand. This situation would call for the translation of such a plan into other languages. Again, the translation will need to be done in such a way that meaning is not compromised. To achieve proper communication, professional translators will be required. This scenario squarely calls for an applied linguist for interpretation and translation is a field in applied linguistics.

Enhance manufacturing

On this Agenda, the government aims to raise the share of the manufacturing sector from nine to fifteen per cent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by 2022. This development will facilitate the creation of 1.3 million manufacturing jobs by 2022. This Agenda is aligned to four sub-sectors, which include the blue economy, leather and textiles industries and Agro-processing. Again, political stability and harmonious labour relations are the bedrock in

boosting the manufacturing industries. This item is linked to Sustainable Development goal number nine, which is on building resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and foster innovation. Any innovation of a new product has to be done in the language. An applied linguist could research how the manufacturers use a word to reach out to as many potential consumers as possible.

Again scientists should partner with applied linguists, especially when they make discoveries to use language effectively to communicate with them. It is important to note that vocabulary can grow with growth in science and technology. In enhancing manufacturing, there is value addition component, especially of agricultural produce. The farmers need to be talked to in a convincing language to fully embrace adding value to their products before selling them off. Again, the user manuals that come with manufactured products should be done in a style that the users or consumers easily can understand. Applied linguists can focus into the afore issues and do a critical discourse analysis of the conversations those who are mandated to get to the farmers and explain the government's intentions in as far as enhanced manufacturing is concerned how effective it's done.

Conclusion

All Kenyans, regardless of their social class, educational level, age, sex, tribe, political affiliation and religious ideologies, should be brought on board to fast track the realisation of the BFA. For the achievement of the BFA at the scheduled time, necessary policies should be put in place and communicated accordingly to the involved policy actors and stakeholders. Proper media should be used to reach all the concerned for the prompt delivery of information and action. All professionals should come together and devise ways of realising the BFA for all have a role to play. The applied linguists are still part of the debate since their voice and expertise is fundamental in the realisation of the BFA. The applied linguists can do this by collaborating with scholars and researchers from other disciplines to come up with realistic solutions for the problems which may hinder the prompt realisation of the BFA. Thus, applied linguists are part and parcel of the solution to any linguistic issues which may derail the process of actualising of the BFA.

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How much does labour turnover cost? A case study of Kenyan Small and Medium Tour Operators

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Abstract

The hospitality industry is a service-based industry, which is highly dependent on a customer-focused approach, and a motivated and knowledgeable workforce. Any shift in human capital therefore is viewed as detrimental as its long term success. Research postulates that employee mobility is a major cost and leakage of human capital. In addition, studies have shown that labour turnover affects organizational performance, customer quality and employee productivity. Despite the adverse effect of labour turnover on growth, survival and sustainability of organizations in the hospitality industry, there is limited research on turnover costs. This paper provides an understanding of the turnover rates and direct financial costs of labour turnover in small and medium tour operators. A descriptive research design was used. Primary data was collected using a self- administered questionnaire. Stratified sampling and simple random sampling technique were used to select 30 respondents. The target populations comprised of human resource managers and owner/managers of small and medium tour operators, which are registered with the Kenya Association of Tour Operators and operating in Nairobi and its environs. The study findings indicated that tour operators experienced acute turnover rates, which are much higher than the average turnover rate in service industries. The study findings also revealed substantial replacement costs are attributed to labour turnover in small and medium tour operators. The implications of these findings for managerial practice and suggestions for further research are discussed.

***Keywords**:- Labour turnover, turnover costs, tour operators, SMEs, Kenya*

Introduction

The hospitality industry is a service-based industry, which is highly dependent on a customer-focused approach, and a motivated and knowledgeable workforce (Choi & Dickson, 2009). The industry relies heavily on employees in order to achieve its competitive advantage, and any shift in human capital can be detrimental as its long term success (Ton & Huckman, 2008; Chand & Katou, 2007; Harris, Tang & Tseng, 2002). Research studies suggest that a certain amount of labour turnover is necessary, however an excessive turnover is considered a hindrance to competitiveness and efficiency (Long, Perumal & Ajagbe, 2012). Sut and Chad (2011) found that labour turnover increases economic losses and reduces job efficiency. A study by Deery and Iverson (1996) suggests that labour turnover reduces organizational effectiveness and productivity due to loss of valuable skills, experience, knowledge and "corporate memory". Furthermore, labour turnover compromises the quality and high standards of customer service, which negatively impacts on an organization's profitability and long term sustainability (Tracey & Hinkin, 2008).

Hospitality Industry in Kenya

The Kenyan hospitality industry is a bustling industry comprised of various private and public players in various sub-sectors, which ensure that tourists' needs are catered to in a holistic manner. These sub-sectors include: food and beverage services, transportation, accommodation (hotels), tourist attractions and luxury services. All these sectors are connected by the tour operators and travel agents (Bennett & Schoeman, 2005). Thus, tour operators play an important role in the hospitality industry as they influence tourist flows to Kenya from different destinations (Saffery, Morgan, Tulga & Warren, 2007). The main tasks of tour operators include: negotiation of rates with suppliers, booking accommodation for tourist, assisting in itinerary planning and providing local tour services (Bennett & Schoeman, 2005). Tour operators in Kenya are classified according to their owners, that is, foreign owned, locally owned by Kenyans of foreign origins and locally owned by indigenous entrepreneurs. Majority of the tour organizations are SMEs, earning less than $140,000 per annum (UNCTAD, 2008).

The hospitality industry has experienced significant growth since independence. In 2009, the industry recorded the highest growth rate of 18.6% (ROK, 2009).The continued growth of the hospitality industry is attributed to strong participation and encouragement in commercial ventures, pursuit of policy objectives and attention to non-economic ramifications of tourism and the innovations in major source markets by individual tour operators (Dieke, 1992). Various policy initiatives have been formulated in an effort to actualize flagship projects under Vision 2030. Vision 2030 identifies the hospitality industry as one of the top priority sectors with the tasks of making Kenya one of the top ten long-haul tourist destinations globally (ROK, 2008). Apart from developing the Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2010 on Enhancing Sustainable Tourism in Kenya, the Kenyan government has also developed the Tourism Act 2011 which provides for development, management, marketing and regulation of sustainable tourism and tourism related services.

Statement of the Problem

The National Tourism Strategy 2013 -2018 posits that the hospitality industry which is dominated by SMEs experiences acute labour turnover (ROK, 2013). If high labour turnover is allowed to continue, it will negatively impact SMEs through loss of highly skilled workforce, and ultimately widespread skill gaps among existing staff (Kuria, Wanderi & Ondigi, 2011). This not only results in additional direct and intangible costs for the employer, but also negatively affects the service quality, reputation and the long term survival of SMEs in the hospitality industry (Wafula, Ondari & Lumumba, 2017). The critical shortage of high qualified staff resulting from high labour turnover has prompted considerable research on the causes of high labour turnover and possible solutions for retaining skilled workers (Kuria & Ondigi, 2012).

Cheruiyot, Kimutai and Kemboi (2017) on the effects of employee engagement factors on staff turnover in the Hospitality industry found that organizational justice, leadership and high performance work practices affected employee turnover in hotels within Uasin Gishu County. Korir (2018) in her study on the expected outcome of human resource practices on labour turnover in restaurants in Kenya found that human resources practices (recruitment

procedures, promotion and career development, training and development, rewards and benefits, management culture) and socio-demographic factors (age, gender, marital status and level of education) affect labour turnover. Kuria and Ondigi (2012) in a study on assessment of causes of labour turnover in three and five star rated hotels in Kenya found that lack of work-life balance, lack of staff involvement in decision making and creativity, increases of pay in other industries, strong local and regional economy as well as low unemployment on regional economies. Studies on labour turnover amongst tour operators and SMEs are limited (Cavagnaro, Staffieri & Ngesa, 2015; Kim, 2012; Gamage, 2014) and most of these studies in the hospitality industry have been conducted in the accommodation sector, that is, hotels, resorts and restaurants (Hinkin & Tracey, 2006; Derry and Iverson, 1996; Wasmuth & Davis, 1983; Kuria, Ondigi & Wanderi, 2012).

The purpose of this study was therefore to establish the direct costs of labour turnover amongst small and medium tour operators in Kenya. The findings of this study will be critical in shaping HRM practices and the management of labour retention in the hospitality industry. The research findings will also contribute to the development of a policy agenda of the tour and travel operators and the overall Kenyan hospitality industry.

Specific Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of this study were to:

Assess the extent of labour turnover rate in small and medium tour operators in Kenya.

Establish the direct costs of labour turnover in small and medium tour operators in Kenya.

Concept of Labour Turnover

Labour turnover is defined as "the movement of people into and out of employment within an organization" (Denvir & McMahon, 1992). Labour turnover refers to the proportion of employees who leave an organization over a set period, expressed as a percentage of total workforce numbers (CIPD, 2014). The term " turnover" is defined by Price (1977) as the ratio of the number of organizational members who have left during the period in consideration divided by the average number of people in that organization during the period. A zero percent labour turnover rate in any industry is rare, and it should not be the priority of management (Reigel, 1995). Researchers argue that regardless of good retention strategies, organizations cannot retain 'all their employees, all the time' due to death, ill health, changes in an employee's personal circumstances or for other reasons that have little to do with the employer organization. However, a high labour turnover may be detrimental to the survival and long term sustainability of an organization (Armstrong, 2009).

Labour turnover in the hospitality industry is mainly voluntary where employees leave employment at their will (Wright & Bonett, 2007). Voluntary turnover is either functional or dysfunctional. Functional turnover occurs when non-performers, relatively expensive employees and those with obsolete skills quit the organization. Some level of functional turnover is desirable as it allows organizations to bring in "new blood" with new innovative ideas and knowledge. In addition, labour turnover creates opportunities for career advancement for existing employees as they grow into roles of greater responsibilities.

Dysfunctional turnover, on the other hand, represents an exodus of human capital investment from the organizations as it refers to the exit of effective performers, key individuals, innovators and individuals whose skills are difficult to fill with new hires (Walsh & Taylor, 2007).

Calculating the Labour Turnover rate

The rate of turnover is a good indicator of the morale of the employees. Mercer (1988) suggested the following formula for calculating the rate of turnover:

$$\text{Fluctuation rate} = \frac{\text{number of leavers during the calculation period}}{\text{Average number of employees}} \times 100$$

Tangible Costs of Labour Turnover

Labour turnover has wide cost ramifications (Davidson, Timo & Wang, 2009). The cost of turnover varies based on complexity of the jobs, experience, skills, location of the organization, employee relations, HR practices and organizational culture (Fair, 1992). Every time an employee leaves and has to be replaced, an organization incurs a number of direct and indirect costs: costs of separation, cost of replacement staffing, hiring costs, lost sales, low employee morale, pressure on remaining staff and loss of social capital (Hinkin & Traacey, 2006; Dess & Shaw, 2001). In addition to these costs, the organization incurs intangible costs associated with productivity costs (Lashley & Chaplain, 1999). Productivity costs are more difficult to quantify and usually accounf for more than two-thirds of the total turnover cost (Hinkin & Tracey, 2008). This study was based on the turnover costs components model adapted from Cascio (2000) modified as shown in Figure 1. The theoretical model distributes the cost of turnover into several categories: costs of the employees leaving the organization, costs of replacement and costs for employee training and development.

Separation costs included administration costs associated with processing resignations, and dismissals, time taken up with conducting exit interviews, severance pay, benefits and gratuities. Recruitment costs constituted the cost of advertising, employment of job search agencies, time and resources spent in processing applications, staff time, travel costs and re-location for successful applicants; training and start-up costs (Cascio, 2000). Selection costs included HR interview, medical examination, applicant's travel, and background or reference checks. Hiring costs included costs of induction, relocation, orientation, training, uniforms, security, information and literature necessary for new applicant. Productivity costs are defined as costs incurred when "the replacement worker has a lower skill level or needs to learn the job in order to reach the level of productivity of the original worker". Literature on the turnover cost reveal that the cost of replacing workers is high, and that it can unambiguously reduce profits if not managed properly (Kersley and Martin, 1997; Denvir & Mcmahon, 1992). Tziner and Birati (1996) found that it costs at least 30 per cent of annual salary to replace a "base level" employee, rising to 150 per cent of annual salary for professional and managers. A study by Abel-Hamid (1989) found that labour turnover can extend a project's cost and duration by as much as 60 per cent. Hinkin and Tracey (2008)

found that lost productivity resulting from labour turnover may account for more than two-thirds of the total turnover cost.

Conceptual Framework of Labour Turnover Costs

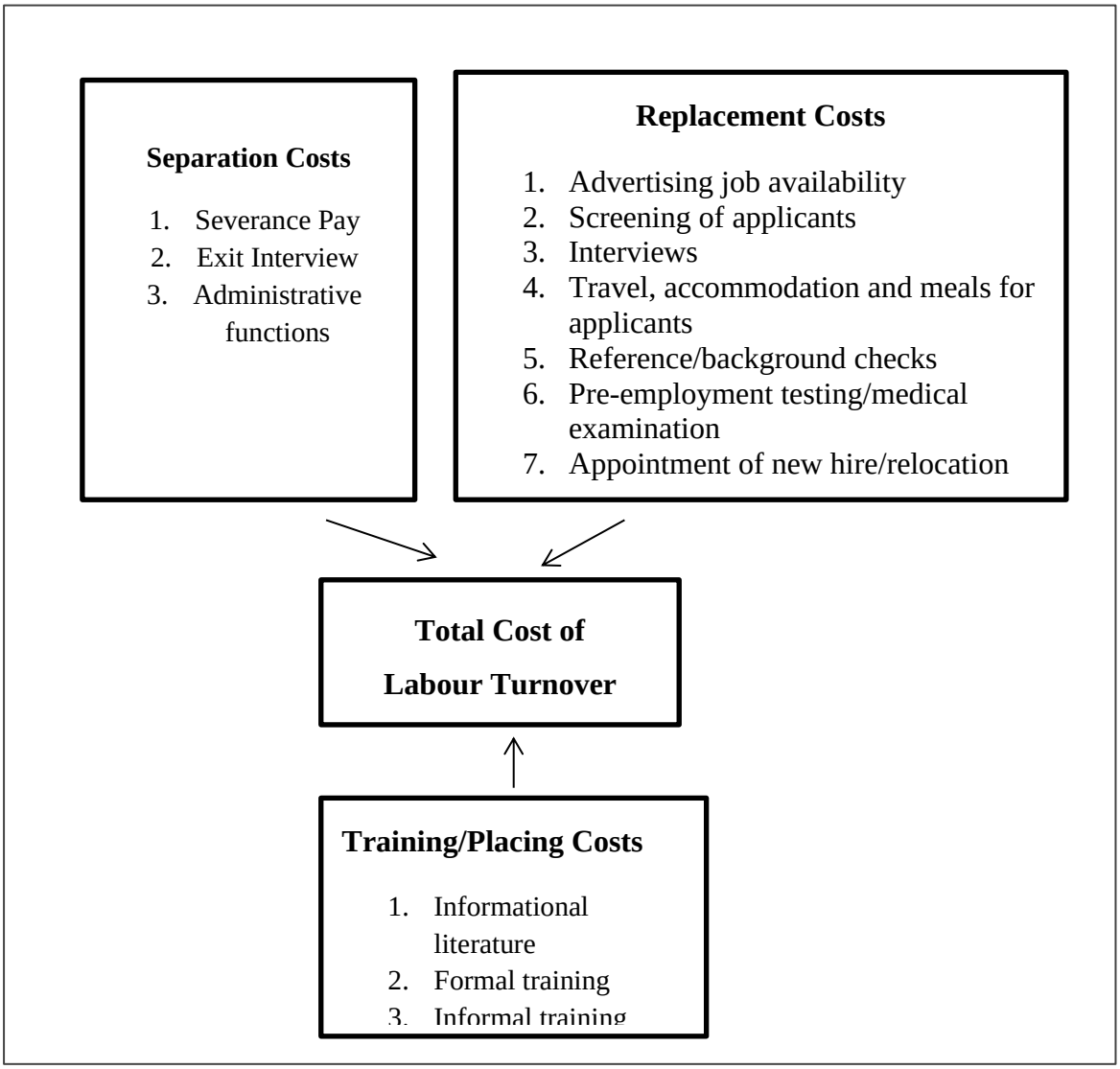

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework. Adapted from Cascio (2000) Costing Model of

Employee Turnover

Research Methodology

For purposes of this study, tour operators are defined as intermediaries who organize and put together holiday packages which include: arranging travel services, transport and accommodation booking (Bennett & Schoeman, 2005). The study considered both voluntary turnover and involuntary turnover of employees who left during the period of one year. The study adopted a descriptive research design. The target population included owner/managers and human resource (HR) managers of small and medium tour operators registered with Kenya Association of Tour Operators (KATO) operating within Nairobi and its environs. Stratified sampling and simple random sampling were used in the study. Stratified sampling

was done on the basis of number of employees, that is, small and medium. Simple random sampling was used to select a representative sample of 30 respondents. The sampling frame consisted of 300 tour operators who were active KATO members.

Primary data was collected by means of a self – administered, semi structured questionnaire. The respondents were assured of utmost confidentiality of their responses and anonymity of the source of the information (Kothari, 2004). The questionnaires were pre-tested on 10 enterprises through convenience sampling technique. After the pre-test, any items in the questionnaire that could cause bias were modified or omitted (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). The study employed descriptive statistics to analyze the data. Primary data was coded, edited and then analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. The findings were presented in form of frequency tables and percentages.

Research Findings and Discussions

Assessment of the labour turnover levels in small and medium tour operators

The study sought to find out the labour turnover rate in small and medium tour operators in Kenya for a period covering 12 months. The study findings revealed that the majority (63%) of the respondents had experienced high levels of labour turnover, while 27% had experienced medium levels of turnover, another 10% had low levels of labour turnover. The study findings also indicated a turnover rate of 66.7% for employees at operational level and a rate of 33.3% for employees at managerial level. The study findings demonstrated that most of the small and medium tour operators in Kenya experienced high labour turnover. In addition, that the turnover rate of employees at operational level was higher than the turnover rate of employees at managerial level. The result is in agreement with the findings in a study by Davidson, Timo and Wang (2009) which found that labour turnover rate of 50.74% in Australian accommodation industry was higher than expected, and that the turnover rate was lower amongst executives, supervisors and departmental managers than in other employment categories.

Employee Turnover Cost Analysis

The study sought to establish the direct costs of the small and medium tour operators within a period of one year. The study findings as shown in Table 1 revealed that replacement costs constituted 57.8% of the total turnover cost compared to separation costs which constituted 22.4% of the total turnover costs. Training costs comprised only 19.8% of the total turnover costs. The study findings showed that the average total cost of turnover was Kshs 57,710,000/=. Finally, the study findings indicate significant difference in two costs: screening and entrance interviewing (17.4%) and formal training (5.2%).

The findings revealed that the average direct cost of labour turnover was substantial which may lead to an increase in administrative costs of small and medium tour operators in Kenya. In addition, the results revealed that small and medium tour operators were spending more money in testing the knowledge, skills and abilities of employees to ensure that a qualified candidate was hired and less money is being invested in formal training of newly hired employees. The study results are inconsistent with the findings of a study by McKinney,

Bartlett and Mulvaney (2007) which found that separation costs were higher than replacement costs of employees in Illinois Public Park and recreation offices.

Table 1: **Average cost of replacing employees per annum**

Type	Expense	Costs per annum in KES	Percentage
Replacement costs	Advertisement	6,000,000	10.4
	Screening and entrance interviewing	10, 050,000	17.4
	Interview expenses	4,700,000	8.1
	Reference/background checks	3,450,000	6.0
	Pre-employment testing	5,575,000	9.7
	Appointment procedures for new hires	3,585,000	6.2
Separation costs	Severance pay	5,300,000	9.2
	Exit interview costs	3,400,000	5.9
	Administrative costs	4,200,000	7.3
Training costs	Informative literature	3,600,000	6.2
	Formal training	3,000,000	5.2
	Informal training	4,850,000	8.4
	Total	57,710,000	100

Conclusions and Recommendation

From the study findings, it can be concluded that the overall cost of labour turnover small and medium tour operators is high. It can also be concluded that employees in the operational level are more likely to quit their organizations than employees in the managerial level. Finally, it can be concluded that high replacement costs are attributed to labour turnover in small and medium tour operators in Kenya. It is recommended that small and medium tour operators need to calculate the costs of labour turnover and deal with wastage levels through reforming internal HR practices.

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Tathmini Ya Ujumi Mweusi Katika Tamthilia Ya Mashetani Wamerudi (S.A.M 2016)

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Ikisiri

Tamthilia ya Kiswahili ina historia fupi ikilinganishwa na tanzu zingine, hasa ushairi. Tamthilia za kwanza kuwahi kutafsiriwa kwa Kiswahili na zilizoandikwa kwa lugha hii zilizingatia sana maudhui ya kidini, kizalendo, utetezi dhidi ya dhuluma tawala za kigeni na hasa ukoloni mamboleo. Kinyume na hali hiyo, tamthilia ya Kiswahili katika kipindi cha kuanzia 1950 hadi miaka ya 2000 umesheheni wingi wa tungo zinazosifia Uafrika na heshima ya mtu mweusi hapa barani Afrika na kote ulimwenguni. Uchunguzi wa tamthilia hizi unadhihirisha kujitolea kwa dhati kwa watunzi wake kuelezea, kutetea na kuhimiza heshima ya Mwafrika. Maudhui yake yanakiuka yale masuala finyu ya utaifa, uraia na tawala za mataifa ya Kiafrika. Hii ndio maana makala haya yanalenga kufafanua nadharia na maoni ya wanaujumi mweusi na jinsi fikira zao zilivyoathiri na kuongoza mitazamo ya watunzi wa tamthilia. Data ya makala haya ilikusanywa katika tamthilia ya Mashetani Wamerudi (Mohamed 2016). Tamthilia hii iliteuliwa kwa kutumia mbinu kusudio. Hii ni kwa sababu usomi awali ulionyesha kuwa tamthilia hii imetumia misingi ya nadharia ya ujumi mweusi. Data yenyewe ilikuwa ya kimaelezo na ilichanganuliwa vilevile kwa njia ya maelezo. Makala yalionyesha namna ambavyo mwandishi ameweka wazi hadhi ya Mwafrika na kudhihirisha kuwa amejitambua na anapaswa kutambuliwa na kuheshimiwa na ulimwengu mzima. Hii ni baada ya Mwafrika kuelewa kwamba watu kutoka mabara mengine sio bora kumliko kama ambavyo watu hawa hutaka ichukuliwe na Mwafrika.

***Istilahi Muhimu**: ujumi mweusi, uafrika, ukoloni mamboleo, utandawazi, wakoloni na utaifa*

Misingi ya nadharia

Kwa mujibu wa Zirimu (1971), ujumi ni vigezo vinavyotumiwa kuainisha urembo wa sanaa. Kila jamii huwa na vigezo vyake maalum vya aina hii. Vigezo hivi ndivyo hutumiwa kuainisha sanaa katika jamii husika. Zirimu anaongeza kuwa, wasomi ambao wanatumia vigezo vya kigeni kuainisha fasihi za kiafrika sio wahakiki bora kwa vile wanaiga tu mambo ya kwingineko. Kwa sababu hii, anapendekeza uhakiki bora wa fasihi ya Kiafrika ni ule unaotokana na jamii yenyewe ya Kiafrika. Hivyo, ujumi mweusi unapaswa kutokana na mazingira ya watu weusi.

Kulingana na Wafula na Njogu (2007), ujumi mweusi ni zao na jaribio la Mwafrika la kushughulikia wema wa utamaduni wake pamoja na kuelewa historia yake. Hii ni kwa sababu Mwafrika amekuwa akibaguliwa na kudhalilishwa kila anapouhusiana na kuingiliana na wageni kutoka nje ya bara la Afrika.

Falsafa za kimagharibi zimekuwa wazi kuhusu uduni na ulaanifu wa Mwafrika tangu kuumbwa kwake. Kwamba, huwezi kutarajia ustaarabu wa aina yoyote kutokana na kiumbe cha aina hii. Akisisitiza kauli hii, Hume, kama alivyonukuliwa na Curtin (1964) anaeleza kuwa Waafrika ni wajinga kwa sababu wazazi wao wa mwanzo walikuwa wajinga. Mawazo haya ndiyo yaliyopalilia na kukuza falsafa ya kikoloni na utumwa. Ikamfanya mtu mweupe kumchukulia Mwafrika kuwa mtumwa wake kwa karne nyingi.

Hivyo, mkoloni alifikiri kwamba Mwafrika hangezingatia mbinu za usanii wa fasihi. Maoni ya wakoloni kama haya ndiyo yamemsukuma Mwafrika kuutetea utu wake, utamaduni wake na sanaa yake.

Ujumi mweusi kwa hivyo, umetokana na mazingira yaliyoshuhudia kukandamizwa kwa Mwafrika katika Nyanja zote za maisha. Ulizuka kama upinzani dhidi ya hujuma zilizofanywa na wakoloni dhidi ya heshima yake. Hujuma hizi ni pamoja na hali ambapo rangi nyeusi, rangi ya Mwafrika inachukuliwa na Wanamagharibi kuwa ishara ya mauti na kuzimu au ishara ya makazi ya shetani.

Katika juhudi za kutetea heshima ya Mwafrika, Waafrika wameweza kuunda istilahi zinazoonyesha ustaarabu, fahari na wema wa Uafrika. Istilahi hizi ni pamoja na: Wamerikani Weusi, Waislamu Weusi, Nguvu Nyeusi na zingine (Wafula na Njogu 2007). Kwa kufanya hivyo, wamedhihirisha kwamba Mwafrika anauonea fahari utu wake, rangi yake na hata matendo yake. Hii ndio maana Senghor anaeleza ujumi mweusi kama jumla ya ustaarabu na mapokezi mengine yanayothaminiwa na ulimwengu wa Kiafrika.

Hata hivyo, ni muhimu kutaja kuwa Mwafrika mwenyewe amekubali kwa hiari yake kujiweka chini ya himaya ya wakoloni kwa njia mbalimbali. Kwa mfano, wasomi wameamini kuwa kila chema kinatoka kwa wakoloni. Hivyo wakaiga moja kwa moja. Dini vilevile imeshadidia ushenzi na giza iliyokuwapo Afrika kabla ya majilio ya Wamishenari.

Katika harakati za kutetea Mwafrika, Senghor aliyachukua mambo yale yaliyotumiwa na Wazungu kuwakashfu Waafrika na kuyapa maana ya heshima na taadhima kuu. Anatumia lugha ya hadhi.

Naye Cesaire (1968) anachukulia kuwa vita vya wanaoteswa dhidi ya watesaji wao ni mithili ya mashua inayoelea kwenye bahari ya mawimbi mengi. Anaamini kuwa, pamoja na udhaifu na uchochole wa wadhulumiwa, ushindi na haki viko upande wao.

Katika nadharia hii, tunabaini kuwa, falsafa zilizokuwa zikitumiwa na Wazungu kuwatawala Waafrika zilikuwa na uongo. Ni nadharia ambayo inatambua matumizi ya lugha za Kiafrika kwa mapana, na kwamba pale ambapo lugha ya Kiingereza itatumika katika kuiandika fasihi ya Kiafrika, inapaswa kufinyangwa na kufungamanishwa na ujumi wa Kiafrika.

Kunayo matapo kadha kuhusu ujumi mweusi. Ipo vilevile mihimili chungu nzima ya nadharia hii ya ujumi mweusi. Kati ya mihimili muhimu ni matumizi ya nyimbo zinazousifu Uafrika na kutilia mkazo usawa wa watu wote, weupe kwa weusi. Hata hivyo, mihimili ambayo imeongoza uhakiki katika makala haya ni ile ambayo iliongezewa na Asante Molefi (1999). Mihimili ambayo ilichangiwa na Molefi ni kama ifuatavyo:

Kumtibu mtu mweusi kutokana na matatizo ya kisaikolojia yaliyotokana na athari za ukoloni pamoja na kudunishwa.

Kuboresha nafasi ya mtu mweusi kisiasa, kijamii, kiuchumi na kidini.

Kudhihirisha kuwa mtu mweusi ndiye msingi wa ustaarabu wote ulimwenguni.

Utangulizi

Tamthilia ya *Mashetani Wamerudi* (2016) imeandikwa na Said Mohamed. Mohamed ni mwandishi mashuhuri wa fani zote za fasihi zikiwepo riwaya, tamthilia, diwani za hadithi fupi na za mashairi. Lakini ametumia upekee wa aina fulani katika tamthlia hii. Anwani *Mashetani*

Wamerudi ameikuza kutokana na anwani ya *Mashetani* (Hussein 1971). Katika tamthilia ya Hussein, tunaona hafla ambapo shetani na binadamu wanacheza na kufurahia ili kuagana kwaheri. Hapa, shetani ni mkoloni na binadamu ni Mwafrika. Kuagana maana yake ni kuondoka kwa mkoloni huku Mwafrika akijipatia uhuru wa bendera. Hii ina maana kuwa hafla hii ilikuwa ni sherehe za uhuru wa Mwafrika.

Kwa misingi hii basi, Mohamed anataka tuamini kuwa ikiwa kweli wakoloni waliondoka kutoka bara la Afrika kufikia mwisho wa ukoloni mkongwe, basi wameweza kurudi kwa taswira tofauti. Kwamba wameweza kurudi kwa taswira ya ukoloni mamboleo katika miaka ya punde baada ya uhuru wa bendera, na kwa mtindo wa utandawazi katika siku za hivi karibuni.

Suala hili la utandawazi lilimchochea sana Mohamed katika kuandika tamthlia hii. Anadokeza kuwa alitarajia kwamba Hussein angeandika tamthilia nyingine baada ya Mashetani kuendeleza usawiri wa unyonywaji wa bara la Afrika na watu wa mabara mengine kupitia utandawazi. Alipoona amelimatia kufanya hivyo, akajitosa katika kuendeleza masimulizi alipoachia Hussein. Kwenye dibaji ya Mashetani Wamerudi, Mohamed mwenyewe anasema hivi:

… mpaka sasa, hajaandika au hajatoa tamthilia inayogonga kwenye usasa mpya wa 'utandawazi', ambao ni mfumo wa dunia wenye mchanganyiko wa siasa, uchumi, usafiri, biashara, uhaulishaji wa fedha kwa kasi, uanahabari, ugenini, ukimbizi wa makundi kwa makundi ya watu kuelekea nchi za ng'ambo (2016:iv)

Ni kana kuwa mwandishi wa *Mashetani Wamerudi* anaendeleza masimulizi na historia ya jamii ya Kiafrika, kisiasa kutoka pale ambapo Hussein alikomea katika *Mashetani*. Haya yanadhihirika bayana kwa njia tofauti. Katika tamthilia ya Hussein, wahusika wakuu ni Juma na Kitaru. Juma alikuwa anawakilisha wakoloni naye Kitaru akawa anawakilisha Waafrika. Hawa walikuwa ni wanafunzi wa chuo kikuu. Inaonekana kuwa naye Mohamed anawafinyanga wahusika wake wawili kutokana na hawa. Hawa ni Mzee Jumai na Mzee Kitarua. Ni kana kuwa anatuambia kuwa hawa waliokuwa vijana mapema miaka ya sabini wamekwishakuwa wazee. Kukomaa huku kwao kunawafanya hata mawazo, falsafa na matendo kubadilika. Zaidi ni kuwa, Juma na Kitaru walikuwa na mchezo wao. Mchezo wa mashetani. Kutokana na mchezo huu, Mohamed amebuni mhusika anayemwita Shetani au kwa kifupi Sheta.

Athari za ukoloni kwa Waafrika

Nadharia ya ujumi mweusi ilinuia kumponya mtu mweusi kutokana na athari alizopata kutokana na ukoloni mkongwe na baadaye ukoloni mambo leo. Athari hizi zilikuwa za kisaikolojia, kitamaduni na kilugha. Ilinuia vilevile kumponya kutokana na aina yoyote ya udunishwaji na watu kutokana nje ya bara la Afrika.

Wakoloni walitufanya tuamini kuwa chochote chenye asili ya Kiafrika ni kibaya na kiovu. Hivyo, kilicho chema kinatokana na Mzungu. Jambo hili lilipelekea Mwafrika kujichukia na kuchukia kila alichokuwa nacho. Lakini tunaona Prof. akiongoza katika kumzindua Mwafrika kutokana na hali hii. Anaonyesha kuwa baadhi ya vitu walivyokuwa navyo Waafrika ni bora kuliko vingine vya Wazungu. Anakunywa togwa ya kiasili (uk. 3). Anaeleza kuwa togwa ilikuwa tamu na bora kwa mwili wa mtu kuliko Coca Cola. Anasema hivi:

> *Aaaaa, togwa tamu hii. Tamu tokea kinywani mpaka damuni. Coca Cola itawezaje kutia fora mbele ya togwa?... kibaya kiwe chetu daima na kizuri kiwe chao daima. Kibaya chao kiwe kizuri chetu! Coca Cola si kwa siha wala si kwa ladha yoyote ikilinganishwa na togwa* (uk. 7-8).

Mwandishi atamzindua Mwafrika apende na athamini alicho nacho na kuelewa kwamba sio kila kitokacho uzunguni huwa kizuri kwa Mwafrika.

Mwafrika ametambua kuwa mkoloni hakuondoka kama alivyodai. Kwamba Mwafrika hakuweza kupata uhuru kamili kama alivyotarajia. Ameweza kutambua kuwa alichopata ni uhuru wa bendera tu. Kijana 1 anauliza kama nchi yake iliweza kusonga mbele tangu sherehe zilipoandaliwa, Mwafrika na Mzungu wakacheza wakisherehekea uhuru wa Mwafrika. Naye Prof. anamwambia kuwa mkoloni alirudi, na wala sio kama walivyodhani hapo awali. Prof. anaeleza namna hii:

> *Tokea shetani alipojidai anaondoka tukadhani eti hatarudi? Kumbe alituchezea shere kwa mchezo wa maneno. Ndani ya miaka mingi ya dhuluma tumegundua kile tulichotiwa vichwani mwetu. Lakini kugundua hakutoshi* (uk. 5).

Anaposema kuwa kugundua hakutoshi anaashiria kuwa Mwafrika anapotambua kuwa amenyanyasa na mkoloni katika kipindi cha ukoloni mkongwe na ukoloni mambo leo ni hatua muhimu kwa vile awali alidhani mkoloni alikuwa mshirika wake bora. Hata hivyo, ukweli ni kuwa mkoloni alikuwa anaangamiza watu na kukana matendo yao maovu, na kwamba analeta athari kubwa kwenye akili za Waafrika (uk. 12-13). Kwa sababu hii Mkoloni anapaswa kufurushwa kabisa (uk. 11).

Elimu ambayo mkoloni alimfundisha Mwafrika haikuwa na lengo la kumwendeleza Mwafrika. Badala yake ilikuwa na azima ya kumnufaisha mkoloni mwenyewe. Hata hivyo, mhusika Sheta anashangaa kuona kuwa elimu hiyo iliweza kumfaa Mwafrika kwa kiwango fulani, jambo ambalo halikudhamiriwa na mkoloni. Anamwambia Prof. hivi:

> *Aaa, bado unakumbuka tuliyoyatia vichwani mwenu? Tukayaficha kwa ubayakumbe mengine mazuri kwenu* (uk. 17).

Baadaye Kijana 1 anamwambia Sheta kuwa wakoloni waliwamezesha Waafrika fikra mbovu katika uchumi, utamaduni na mwenendo wa kijamii katika mifumo ya elimu waliyowaletea (uk. 49). Hii ndio maana Kijana 4 anaweka wazi mfumo mbaya wa elimu katika nchi yake kwa kusema hivi:

> *Elimu hii tulirithi kutoka kwa wakoloni* (uk. 58).

Hii ilijikita katika nadharia bila utendaji wowote. Hivyo ikawa haimpi msomi maarifa muhimu katika ujenzi wa taifa. Utambuzi huu unafaa kuendana na kubadilisha mfumo wa elimu katika mataifa ya Afrika ili kukithi mahitaji ya mataifa haya. Vilevile, mfumo huo wa elimu uliwapa Waafrika kiburi kiasi kuwa aliyesoma kuliko wenzake anawadharau sana. Anajiona kuwa bora kuwaliko. Hata hivyo, hali inabadilika. Prof. anafurahia hali ambapo vijana wanaanza mkutano bila ya kusubiri Prof. mwenyewe kuuanzisha rasmi (uk. 34). Vilevile Prof. alidhamini sana maoni na mchango wa vijana wa madaraja tofauti kielimu.

Tofauti na ilivyokuwa hapo awali, watu weusi wanajiamini. Wanajiona wanaoweza kushindana na Wazungu na wakawashinda. Hili linadhihirika katika mazungumzo kati ya Sheta na Prof. namna hii;

Prof.: Na sisi tunajiamini pia.
Sheta: Mnajiamini?
Prof.: Ndiyo!...
Prof.: Basi hutanipiga kibao wakati huu. Labda utakapojitokeza.
Sheta: Nitakapojitokeza utakubali kupigwa kibao?
Prof.: Labda tupigane vibao.

Sheta: Utaweza?
Prof.: Hukunipiga zamani utanipiga kesho? (uk. 21).

Hapa inaonekana wazi kuwa Mwafrika alikuwa tayari kupigania uhuru, nafsi na haki yake. Suala hili linashangaza Wazungu kwa vile walikuwa hawajazoea ushindani wa aina hii kutoka kwa watu weusi.

Mtu mweusi anajaribu kupigana na sheria ambazo alitungiwa na kuletewa na Mzungu. Mojawapo ikiwa kwamba Prof. na wenzake watakuwa ni sharti wapate kibali cha polisi ili waweze kukutana kujadili mustakabali wao (uk. 25). Kwa Wazungu, sheria kama hizi zitalemaza juhudi zao za kujikomboa kwa vile hawatakuwa wanakutana kila mara watakavyo. Kuthibitisha kuwa walikuwa mbioni kujinasua kutokana na sheria hizi, Prof. anamjibu Sheta kama ifuatavyo:

Sheta: Kwa sababu sheria zetu lazima mzikubali na mzifuate. (Kwa ukavu).
Prof.: Sheria gani? (Kejeli).
Sheta: Kukusanya watu makundi kwa makundi lazima mpate kibali cha polisi.
Prof.: Polisi wanawalinda serikali au wananchi?
Sheta: Serikali ndiyo wananchi na wananchi ndio serikali.
Prof.: Ikiwa sheria ni hiyo, basi wananchi hawahitaji vibali vya polisi . Mkusanyiko wa watu usiokuwa na fujo ni haki ya wananchi na ni halali kabisa (uk. 25-26).

Aidha, suala la ushirikiano na umoja limepewa kipaombele katika kupambana na athari ya ukoloni. Hili ni muhimu kwa vile mkoloni alijaribu kila aliloweza kugawa Waafrika na kuwatawanya ili wasiungane kutetea uhuru na haki zao. Prof. anawahimiza vijana na wananchi kwa jumla washirikiane ili waweze kufaulu katika kupigania athari mbaya za ukoloni mongwe na ule wa mamboleo. Hii ndio maana kila walipokusanyika na kukaa pamoja, Prof. alikuwa anawasisitizia kukaa katika duara kama ishara ya kwamba wameshikamana kabisa. Anasema hivi:

> *Duara ni dunia Kijana. Duara linafinya. Linafumba. Lina taabu kupangua. Linashirikisha. Linalinda. Linafanya tutazamane. Kisha tushirikiane* (uk. 30).

Hapa alikuwa anasisitiza umoja wa dhati uliokamilika. Huu ni umoja ambao haungevunjwa na wakoloni namna walivyozoea kuvunja hapo awali.

Kuboresha nafasi ya mtu mweusi

Nadharia ya ujumi mwesui hudhamiria vilevile kuimarisha nafasi ya mtu mweusi kisiasa, kijamii, kiuchumi na kidini. Mwandishi wa tamthilia ya *Mashetani Wamerudi* ameonyesha kuwa mtu mweusi ameweza kujipatia usemi kisiasa katika mahusiano yake na mkoloni. Hali hii ni tofauti na hapo awali. Mhusika Prof. anaeleza hali hii.

> *Mimi sijali Shetani anayepita au anayekita. Kama alipita jana Shetani ndiyo tulinyamaza. Lakini leo mwache apite. Sisi tutasema na matendo tutatenda! Tulisema wakati wa kutaka nchi yetu. Tutasema wakati huu wa baada ya kutawaliwa* (uk. 4-5).

Baadaye tunaona mkoloni mwenyewe akikubali kuwa kuna mabadiliko katika mahusiano haya ingawa hakukuwa na usawa kamili. Sheta anasema namna hii:

> *Ukweli wa kwamba hatuko katika mfumo wa zamani wa unyonyaji wa ukoloni mamboleo* (uk. 18).

Tunasoma kuwa wakoloni sasa walikuwa wameona haja ya kuwapa Waafrika msaada kidogo ili waendelee kiuchumi. Hata hivyo, kilichokuwa wazi ni kwamba wakoloni walinufaika zaidi kutoka kwa Waafrika kuliko msaada waliotoa.

Tatizo lingine ambalo watu weusi walikuwa sharti wakabiliane nalo ni uongozi wa Waafrika wenzao. Hii ni kwa sababu raslimali za watu weusi zikitwaliwa na wakoloni, natija ambayo inapaswa kuwaendea Waafrika kutokana na raslimali hizo huishia kwenye mifuko ya wachache. Hawa ni wale walio mamlakani na kuwaacha wananchi katika hali ya ukata. Hivyo, viongozi kama hawa wanashirikiana na wakoloni kuwadhulumu wananchi haki yao. Uongozi huu ni sehemu ya ukoloni mamboleo ambayo sharti ifurushwe ili kuwepo na usawa kamili. Sheta anashangaa ni kwa nini Prof. haigi tabia hii kwa manufaa ya kibinafsi. Anasema hivi:

> *… wewe peke yako ndiye unayekataa ukweli wa maisha mazuri yatayotazamiwa karibuni* (uk. 19).

Baadaye Prof. anamjibu hivi:

> *Hizo pesa mnazotupa ni tone la asali analofyonza chozi. Kisha kasma kubwa zinaliwa na wakubwa.* (uk. 19).

Angaa hii ni hatua murua kwamba Mwafrika amepata sauti ya kusimama kidete na kusema ukweli mchungu kwa wakoloni na washirika wao Waafrika.

Kwa kinywa kipana Mwafrika anasema kuwa yeye na Mzungu wanafaa kuwa sawa katika biashara na maingiliano mengine ya kiuchumi. Hivi kwamba, Mzungu asitoe kidogo kwa Mwafrika kwa kingi apatacho. Anashauri namna hii:

> *Bora tuheshimiane kwa haki za pande mbili. Lazima pande zote zipeane vipimo vya urari* (uk. 20).

Wakati huohuo inawekwa bayana kwamba uchumi wenyewe wa nchi haujapiga hatua tangu uhuru. Masuala ya uchumi wa taifa yakawa yamevumbika giza kutokana na uongozi wa kikoloni mamboleo uliorithishwa kutoka kwa wakoloni. Hii ndio maana Kijana 3 anashauri kwamba ni bora taifa lijinasue kutokana na mkwamo huo wa kiuchumi. Kwa kufanya hivyo, litakoma kutegemea msaada na ufadhili kutoka kwa wakoloni. Hii ndio njia bora ya kukwepa athari za kikoloni katika mataifa huru. Hivi ndivyo Kijana 3 anavyosema:

> *Suala la kwenda mbele ni suala la kukataa kutegemea mapato kutoka nje kwa njia ya sadaka na ufadhili… ukweli ni kwamba wao (Wazungu) ndio wahitaji wakubwa wa raslimali na pia wahitaji wa kuuza bidhaa zao zinazotoka kwenye viwanda* (uk. 57).

Baadaye Sheta anamwambia Kijana 1 kwamba upungufu ulioko nchini umesababishwa na viongozi wa nchi yenyewe, kwa hivyo si vyema kuwalaumu wakoloni kila mara (uk. 49). Naye kijana anasema,

> '*Hao pia tutapigana nao mpaka watakapoanguka*'.

Anachopigania hapa mwandishi ni uhuru wa kiuchumi. Anatambua kuwa tuna uwezo mkubwa wa kiuchumi, na kwamba tukiutumia vizuri tutakuwa wa kutegemewa na Wazungu kuliko vile tunavyowategemea.

Mfumo wa kisiasa wa mataifa ya Afrika ulirithishwa kutoka kwa Wazungu. Mfumo huu ulikuwa umebuniwa kwa lengo la kuwanufaisha wao na wala sio Waafrika. Waafrika wamepata usemi

wa kuelekeza namna ambavyo utungaji wa sheria hizo na matumizi yake yanapaswa kuwa. Suala hili linajitokeza vyema katika majibizano kati ya Askari na wananchi. Angalia mfano huu:

Askari: … Wananchi… wananchi… wananchi. Simameni! Simameni!
Maandamano haya si ya halali.
Kijana 1: (Kwa sauti kali na ya juu) Maandamano ya amani yasiyokuwa na fujo yana uhalali (uk. 75).
Kijana 3: Hatutaki sheria za mashetani.
Umma: Hatutaki… hatutaki… hatutaki sheria mbovu zinazomkuza shetani (uk. 75).

Kusuhu suala hilo la sheria naye Prof. anasema kuwa katika kutunga sheria bungeni, kusiwe na nguvu za chama tawala bali pia nguvu za upinzani. Hii ni kwa sababu kwa kushirikisha pande zote, wananchi watakuwa wameshirikishwa ipasavyo. Hata hivyo, Sheta anakataa kuamini uwezo wa Waafrika wa kujitungia sheria zozote kwa kusema hivi:

> *Nyinyi wanagenzi hamwezi kutunga sheria madhubuti* (uk. 26).

Ili kuboresha uongozi na mahusiano ya kijamii, vijana wamepewa nafasi kubwa na usemi mkubwa kuliko ilivyokuwa hapo awali. Awali ilikuwa kwamba ukweli ulikuwa ni milki ya wazee. Hivi kwamba, vijana walikuwa wa kuambiwa na wazee kile ambacho walidhani ndicho ukweli unaostahili. Hii ndio maana Prof. anatueleza hali hiyo namna hii:

> *Zamani ukweli ulikuwemo kichwani na kinywani mwa wazee na vijana waliwasikiliza na kufuata amri zao. Siku hizi vijana ndio walio na ukweli ambao wazee hawaukubali. Wanajua ukweli wa vijana ni ukweli thabiti kwa namna fulani!* (uk. 35).

Kutokubali huku kwa vijana kunazua mvutano wa kitabaka, jambo ambalo linatinga mafanikio ya Mwafrika ya kuwa huru.

Mafaniko makubwa ya mwandishi wa tamthilia hii katika kukuza ujumi mweusi ni pale ambapo anaonyesha kuangamiza matabaka yaliyozuka katika jamii ya Kiafrika punde baada ya uhuru. Kulikuwapo na tabaka la mabwanyenye waliokuwa wamepoteza mamlaka na mali yao wakati wa mapinduzi. Nalo tabaka lililokuwa limepata mamlaka lilikuwa katika harakati za kujikusanyia mali nyingi kwa njia zisizo halali zaidi iwezekanavyo.

Kisha kulikuwapo na tabaka la chini la umma maskini. Hawa waliumia sana kwa kuongozwa vibaya katika mvutano wa matabaka haya mawili. Mzee Jumai anasema kuwa wakati umefika wa kuongea wazi na kinaganaga. Ndipo Mzee Kitarua akamwambia hivi:

> *Mzee Kitarua: Aaa, nilifundishwa na fikra za ushetani ili kwenda mbele kusikokuwa na mwisho: kunyonya, kubana, kukandamiza, kudhalilisha, kuchukua vitu vya watu, kulimbikiza, kuvunja sheria…*
>
> *Mzee Jumai: Hayo yote si umesahau? Si unajua kwamba kabla ya nyinyi, sisi tulikuwepo katika kunyonya, kubana, kukandamiza, kudhalilisha, kuchukua vitu vya watu, kulimbikiza…* (uk. 41-42)

Kijana 1 anasema athari za mvutano uliokuwapo wakati huo kwao ni *…nchi yetu na sisi kuongozwa kama punguani au mabwege* (uk. 62).

Kwa makundi haya kukubali tofauti zao na kuzizika, basi inamaanisha kuwa tumepiga hatua katika kufikia usawa kiuchumi na kujivua athari za ukoloni walizotuachia za kujigawa kimatabaka. Baadaye Mzee Jumai na Mzee Kitaru, ambao sasa wameishia kuwa marafiki wa

dhati, wanaenda kumtembelea Prof. katika mazungumzo yao, wanamhakikishai kuwa walimaliza kabisa mfarakano uliokuwapo baina yao kwa sababu ya tajriba waliokuwa wamepata. Tajriba hiyo iliwafungua macho wakatambua ukweli (uk. 64-5).

Waafrika wanatambua pia kwamba namna mpya ambayo kwayo Mzungu anamtawala Mwafrika ni kupitia utandawazi. Utandawazi unachukua nafasi ya ukoloni mambo leo. Tofauti na ilivyokuwa awali, Mwafrika anauelewa ujanja huu wa kubadilisha mbinu kuendeleza maslahi ya awali. Tunabainisha haya katika majibizano kati ya Prof. na Sheta.

> *Sheta: … Kwani umesahau kwamba utandawazi ndio remote control zaidi kuliko ukoloni mamboleo?*
>
> *Prof.: Utandawazi ni remote control yenu una ukweli, lakini pale tu watu wanapokuwa wajinga. Werevu una nguvu zaidi kuliko remote control (uk. 61).*

Prof. ana imani kuwa wao watashinda katika makabiliano haya mapya. Anamweleza Sheta kuwa anashangaa ni kwa namna gani wao Waafrika walidanganyika hapo awali wakadhani Mzungu alikuwa na uwezo mkubwa waliouona kama miujiza. Kwamba wameamka na kile walichodhani ni ustaarabu wa hali ya juu (utandawazi) wakautambua kuwa mazingaombwe tu (uk. 72). Nao wananchi wanamhakikishia Prof. kuwa hawatachoka. Wataendelea na juhudi zao hadi mwisho pale ambapo watamshinda adui kikamilifu (uk. 76).

Wananchi wanajitolea kwa kila hali kutaka haki yao kutoka kwa wakoloni Wazungu na kwa viongozi wao wakoloni. Wanaamua kuandamana njiani huku wakitoa kauli mbalimbali kushinikiza watakacho. Wanasema:

> *Umma: Sisi ni wananchi… Hii ni nchi yetu… Hatutaki kutawaliwa kwa remote control… rasilimali zetu ziwe mikononi mwa wenyeji… Biashara iwe nipe nikupe. Viongozi wetu wawe macho… Viongozi wetu wawe na sisi wasiwena mashetani…* (uk. 74).

Kwa kudai kuwa viongozi wao wawe nao, wasiwe na mashetani wanaashiria kuwa wanajua na kutambua kuwa viongozi wao walikuwa wanashirikiana na wakoloni Wazungu kuwanyanyasa wananchi. Hivi ni kusema kuwa kulikuwapo na viwango hivyo viwili vya ukoloni, jambo ambalo lilidhihirisha mzigo mkubwa kwa mwananchi.

Huku Wazungu wakija Afrika kuwapora raslimali zao, Waafrika wenyewe hawaendi kupora raslimali za Wazungu. Badala yake, wakienda huko wanaenda kunyanyaswa nguvu zao zaidi kwa manufaa ya wenyeji wa huko. Matokeo ya jambo hili ni Waafrika kuendelea kuwa maskini jinsi ambavyo Wazungu wanaendelea kutajirika. Lakini wale Waafrika waliozinduka na kung'amua hali hii wanaamua kubakia nchini mwao. Tunasoma hivi:

> *Prof.: … sijapanga kwenda pahali pengine. Nitaselelea papa hapa petu.*
> *Sheta: Ndiyo maana utabakia maskini* (uk. 78).

Maneno ya Sheta yananuia kumshawishi Prof. aamini kuwa kule Uzunguni ndiko kwenye utukufu na utajiri. Kwamba kilichoko Afrika ni maovu na umaskini.

Mtu mweusi kama msingi wa ustaarabu

Nadharia ya ujumi mweusi inaadhimisha wazo kwamba mtu mweusi ndiye msingi wa ustaarabu kote ulimwenguni. Hii ina maana kuwa maendeleo na uimarikaji wa Uzunguni kiuchumi ni zao la matumizi ya nguvu za Waafrika. Prof. anamkumbusha Sheta ukweli huu alipokuwa akimjibu madai yake kwamba Wazungu wamekuza uchumi wao kwa juhudi zao tu.

> *Sheta: Hatuutegemei tena mbuyu.Uwe wa jana au wa leo. Tunachokitegemea ni nguvu na akili zetu tu.*
>
> *Prof.: (Kinamtoka kicheko kikubwa cha kejeli na tashtiti.) Bila ya nguvu zetu, zenu hazifui dafu.* (uk. 24).

Suala hili linasisitizwa na Mzee Jumai alipokuwa akimjibu Sheta. Anamwambia kuwa Wazungu hawaishi kukusanya na kuiba nguvu za Waafrika. Anaongeza huwa hata wakati mwingine wanafikia malengo haya ya kuiba nguvu hizo kwa kutumia sheria fulani walizoziweka wao (uk. 44). Kung'amua huku kunapaswa kufuatwa na Waafrika kujifunga katoka kutumia nguvu kuimarisha uchumi wa mataifa yao badala ya yale ya nje. Kijana 1 vilevile anamkumbusha Sheta kwamba ukuaji wa kiuchumi wanaojivunia na juhudi za Waafrika. Aghalabu Waafrika walifanya hivyo bila hiari yao. Hii ndio maana Kijana 1 anasema hivi: 'Aaa, miaka mingi mmezibana akili zetu ili mweze kufyonza damu yetu' (uk. 48).

Hitimisho

Makala haya yameweza kuonyesha kuwa tamthilia ya Kiswahili imeweza kuimarika sana katika kufumbata hali halisi ya Mwafrika. Imejidhihirisha kama chombo cha Mwafrika cha kujinasua kutokana na athari za muda mrefu alizopata tangu wakati wa utumwa hadi leo wakati wa utandawazi. Makala yameweka bayana kwamba Mwafrika ameweza kuzinduka vilivyo na kuona makosa yake. Haya ni makosa ambayo amekuwa akifanya, na kwa kufanya hivyo akamrahisishia mkoloni amnyanyase kwa kipindi chote hicho. Amejifaragua na kusimama kidete kutetea utu, heshima, rangi na kila kilicho na asili ya Kiafrika. Kwamba kuwa Mwafrika, na mtu mweusi kwa rangi sio ulemavu. Ni ustaarabu na nguvu. Ustaarabu ulioenea kote ulimwenguni, na nguvu ambazo ndizo chemchemi za ustaarabu katika mataifa yanayojiita makubwa kote ulimwenguni.

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QUALITY EDUCATION AS A STRATEGIC TOOL FOR ADVANCING SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN KENYA

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Abstract

World Bank in its 2018 report indicates that quality education cures a host of societal ills if it is delivered well. For individuals, it promotes employment, earnings, health, poverty reduction and livelihood. For societies, it spurs innovation, strengthens institutions, fosters social cohesion and total transformation in all spheres. It is in this light, together with other reports, that education in many countries has undergone various reviews. Kenya for a long time has had traditional education which overtime has not been able to meet various societal needs. However, indigenous education helped to form an all-round person. It equipped individuals with the necessary skills for survival. In addition, it inculcated into the individuals essential values for enhancing social cohesion, interrelatedness and interdependency among people.With the advent of colonial government, western education came into being. This kind of education was structured with the goal of equipping its recipients with skills and training to serve in white collar jobs. Consequently, western world view and language have long dominated educational systems in Kenya creating an enormous gap between school and home downplaying the importance of indigenous education. This system created the culture of dependency among the educated and socialization into western norm where people are disconnected from their societies, forming classes of haves and have not. As mentioned above, the Kenyan government has reviewed the educational curriculum several times in order to realign it to the dictates of the market needs. These reforms are; Phelps Stokes in 1924, Beecher report in 1949, Gachathi report in 1976, Mackey report in 1981, Kamunge reports in 1988, Koech report in 1999 and the most recent, competence based curriculum frameworks. Although the reforms have been well intended to bring social change and emancipation of people, the results have yielded mixed results with most of the time not being able to realize the goals. This situation has created a gap and a daunting questions of where did we go wrong? Why do we seem to be having so many reviews unlike what is happening in the west? Recent statistics from central bank shows that only 1% of Kenyans have 1 million shillings and above in their accounts, and yet so many people are educated. Will the new competency based curriculum meet its desired results? If not, what can be done?

Key Words: Education, Socio-economic development, Language, Social Change, Culture of Dependency, paradigm shift.

Introduction

In the time of pre-independence, arrival of the colonist and the beginning of independence, Kenyans have experienced an enriched history of education. Quality education and training is a vital strategic tool for advancing socio-economic development process in all nations. In this note speech a critic is made of various educational reviews and reforms that have been undertaken in Kenya since pre-colonial,

colonial and post-colonial period and their influence to sustainable socio-economic development.

Quality education is one of the Socio-economic facts affecting human resources management in Kenya history. There has been an emphasis on the importance of education that leads to improvement of the standards of living in the country. As a result of upgrading the education sector the elite are very clear on their rights, while the marginalized, women, people leaving with disability and children are yet to fully realize the socio-economic benefits of education. Educational from all form of specialization has widespread notion that educational development and reviews would lead to socio-economic growth, more wealth, greater equality of opportunity, availability of competent human resource, a declined poverty levels, long life and better health lifestyles, integrity, national unity and political stability. This notion and unrealized need has resulted in massive investment and reforms in education. But why has the education in Kenya not achieved the expected socio-economic growth despite the various education policy and curriculum reviews/reforms?

The industry players and society has expressed dissatisfaction of the curriculum output as not fitting in the job market. In most cases the education products are made fit to the job by on-job training. One component of education that has influenced socio-economic development per region is inequality across the country. Quality is skewed in favoring some regions while disadvantaging others. Quality education is highly comprised in case where the distribution of teacher is skewed favoring some areas. Distribution of teachers may be influence by adhoc policy such *'head teachers dislocation policy'.* Other determinants of quality education are cultural shock experienced by new teachers in a familiar context. While the adhoc policies may bear benefits it leads to instability in the way teaching and management is done.

UNICEF, (2012) defines quality education as ultimately determined by Learning outcomes that students take from school and the competencies they may carry into their future life and labor market. The focus in quality education is bring out the good, truthful and the divine in man in the promoting a moral life in the society. The welfare of humanity lies on scientific and technological capabilities and most importantly to enrich character. Since education is a powerful instrument of social change and human progress, it is also a powerful tool to cultivate values in an individual. The education reforms in Kenya are addressing the art of imparting values in learner. However, the question arises Are the values and skills learnt at school adequate for survival? Why are the employers not happy with the final products? Thus it is clear that quality of education goes beyond the knowledge acquired from the books, degrees and certificates after school. Work ethics and thinking positively about one's society are the two main aspects of quality education. One can think positively when you participate in production, marketing and consuming the locally goods. To inculcate values among learners there is a need to review and design curriculum from the cultural heritage perspective. This is in addition to designing tailor-made value based program for

teaching staff and inculcation of philosophical views towards life among teachers and learners.

The Kenya education reforms and socio-development has outstanding goal and aims since its independence in 1963. (Ojiambo, 2009) noted that causal relationship between schooling and socio-development in Kenya is less extensive compared to more industrialized nations. Ojiambo further points out that there is sufficient evidence to conclude that provision of quality education leads to both economic and social development. It is on this basis that the Government of Kenya has heavily invested in formal education. Kenya economic growth is considered quite low, since approximately 30% of the budget of the country finances educational investments.

The Kenya education system has focused on materialistic at the expense of collective effort and responsibility, promoting innovativeness and its rich culture, critical thinkers leading to producing docile and dependent-minded graduates ((Ogwora, 2013). Education involves transfer of values from one generation to the next, what we think, how we believe, how we should behave, what we value, what is perceive as right or wrong. Thus, education is life long search for truth, as it defines what kind of person we are and what we will become. It is worth noting that something(s) have changed that requires us to remain up breast with the changes. However, it is important to re-examine the history. The intention of the reviews is good but the outcome is wanting. The rate of review in Kenya has been frequent since independent while compared with developed nation. The question arises, where do we go wrong in review of our education? Why do we rush the review? When we rush does it compromise quality? How and to what extent can we conduct proper curriculum consultation? Has it been hijacked by those who want to commercial the process? Have the stakeholder in the know? Educator, curriculum Developer and University have around the politician dictated the pace.

Though the rest of the developed world has continually improved their education in response to modern day demands, American's public education systems has undergone three major reforms since 1607; the colonial period, the early national period and the common school movement. (Texas Education agency, 2014). Why do we seem to be having so many reviews unlike what is happening in the west? Why is the demand for review not driven by the professionals in the profession? What is lacking? Why isn't results driven?

The recognition of the noble role of education in society has led to several years of historic struggle and reviews. Within the framework of reviews and reforms there has been numerous conflicting interests and resistance to change among various actors in education sector in both colonial and post-colonial period. Why are we not able to achieve the anticipated gains of education reforms? Are the education reviews genuine? (Murira, 2013), in discussing the philosophy of education in Africa, emphasis on education that is contextualized to the African need- thus a genuine education that embraces cultural values. Amidst these contestations one question emerges: what is the

possible good that is expected to come out of the Kenyan education reviews/reforms? It is in the light of these tensions that this article critically examines and checks they have met the required expectation from the various educational reforms and interventions that have been undertaken in Kenya in both colonial and post-colonial period and their role in national development.

Historical Development of Kenya's Education System in advancing Socio-economic Development

Historical Development of Kenya's Traditional Education

Education in Kenya before independence was purely a traditional form of education that integrated itself with artistic, religious, recreational life, cultural values and social forms of education. The basic aim of this type of education was to socialize the students, in order to enhance their culture values from one generation to another. This was a wholistic and meant to fit a person in the society. This was elementary and dealing with what people should do but it was too simplistic, dealing with basic thus not applied broadly to the society, it was for immediate consumption but it served them, it was not compared to their systems in the other areas.

Historical Development of Kenya's Education System in the Colonial Period

Since pre-colonial and colonial, Kenya has placed a considerable importance in the role of education in promoting economic and social development. The aftermath of the First World War saw a number of colonist measures with regard to African education. The report by the Phelps-Stokes Commission of 1912-1925 formed the basis on which Kenyan education was anchored. Among the major aims of the report was to make the individual efficient, promote and advance agriculture, develop native industries, improve health, train people in the management of their affairs and the inculcate citizenship and service (Sifuna, 1990).

During the colonial period key commission that were undertaken to review education included; Phelps-Stokes Commission of 1924, the Beecher report of 1949, and the Binn's Commission of 1952. Phelps-Stokes Commission of 1924 recommended a practically oriented education for Africans. This was reinforced further by the permanent Advisory Committee on Native Education in Tropical Africa that was set up by the British colonial Africa office. Its purpose was to develop rural areas. It advocated for continuity in policy and fuller cooperation between governments and missions (Otiende, Wamahiu and Karugu, 1992).

The review was expected to enhance Africans access to education and socio-economic development. However, this was not the case as education remained racial. Europeans and Asians had an education that laid more emphasis on academics and aimed at preparing them for white-collar jobs while Africans on the other hand received an

education that geared them towards manual labor. Carnoy (2014), retaliated that African education system in the colonial period was intentionally designed to inculcate an inferiority notion of black Africans in making them acknowledge that they were subordinate to Europeans and Asians. After some time Africans yearned for an academic education that could promote development, since the initial form of education system was not forthcoming. They developed resistance necessitating a review of the curriculum to one that accommodates basic learning.

The Colonial Education was Elitist

The Beecher Committee of 1949 report reinforced the argument of Phelps- Stokes. However, the Africans were strongly opposed to the Beecher Report. They felt it did not meet their utilitarian, cultural and personal needs. The general African view to the report according to Bogonko (1992) was that it was to lead to Europeanization rather than Africanization of education and it sought to maintain the status quo of perpetually keeping Africans in low cadre positions. In 1952, Binns Commission of education was set up. The commission was a landmark in Kenya‘s education because it expressed concern regarding the internal efficiency of African education and its ability to address their needs (Sifuna, 1992; Gachukia, 2003). Like previous commissions it met fierce criticism from Africans because of its inability to address social and cultural goals. In addition to several commissions that were undertaken during this period, the colonial government also passed three major education ordinances in 1921, 1931, and 1934 and set up several educational committees, councils and boards aimed at improving the quality of African education (Bogonko, 1992). An examination of educational reforms undertaken during this period depicts colonial government efforts of using education to foster development that was racial.

Historical Development of Kenya‘s Education System in the Post- Colonial Period

In the post-colonial period, Kenya‘s struggle for political independence served as a major impetus for her educational development. During the struggle for independence, the nationalists’ educational aim was to provide an education that would serve immediate needs of the country. In 1961, when independence was imminent in most African countries, a conference on the development of education in Africa was held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

The conference, educational priorities was aimed at promoting economic and social development. It was upon this framework that Kenya like other African governments formulated its educational programs ((Sifuna and Oteinde, 2009)). The expansion and reform of the education system during this period was also motivated by political pressures. Sifuna writes that ―almost every politician and election manifesto leading to the independence elections had called for more educational opportunities of all types, cheaper or free education, universal primary education, Africanization of syllabuses and teaching staff.

The new competence based curriculum (CBC)

This is a departure from the earlier systems since it brings in the issue of pathways. The curriculum which is being rolled out may follow a similar script of the earlier systems since all the thorny issues have not been ironed out. Like its predecessor, the 8-4-4 system, sounded very viable and good on paper but faced a major challenge in implementation due to financial & logistical constraints. Just like the 8-4-4 suffered inadequate funding to construct enough workshops and laboratories, the 2-6-3-3 outfit may face the same fate. Constructing sports complexes for nurturing talents may be a tall order given that the country has other priority areas. The case in point is the promise by the government during the election time in 2013. The promise was to construct 5 stadia in a span of five years. This promise has not been fulfilled (Westbrook, 2013).

Theory of Change

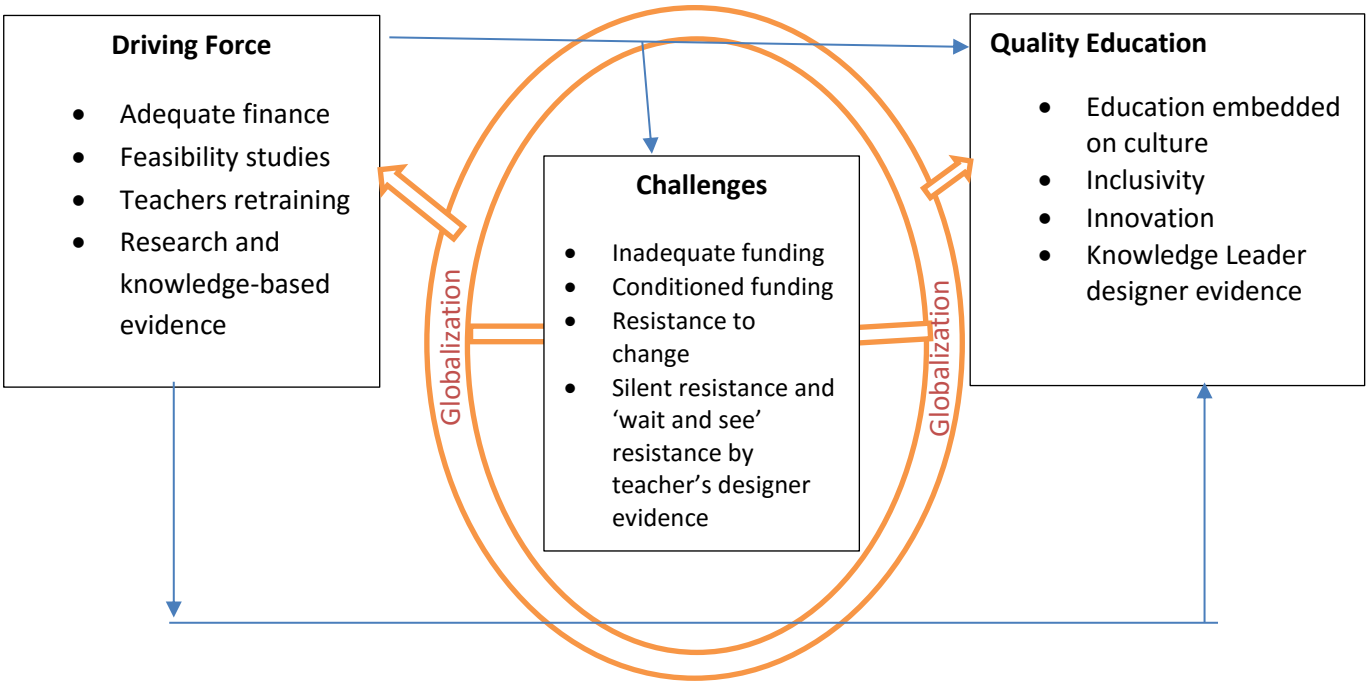
A theory of change is a method that explains a given intervention, or a set of interventions, is expected to lead to specific development change. It must be driven by sound analyses, consultation with key stakeholders and learning on what works and what does not in diverse contexts. Theory of change is relevant since the development challenges are complex, and are typically caused by many factors and layers that are embedded deeply on the way the society functions.

The theory of change provides a framework for learning both within and between the programming cycles. By articulating the causes of a development challenge, making assumptions explicit on how the proposed strategy is expected to yield results, and testing this assumptions against evidence against what has worked well or not in the past.

Moving the Theory to Practice;

1. Identify the change needed based on a set criteria including equity, comparative advantage, and feasibility.
2. Change analysis. This includes previous learning, evaluation and what the partners are already doing to contribute to this change.

Model



The final product of quality education should be realized, this is much possible if the challenges identified about are addressed. Under ideal situation in curriculum development, the process involves conceptualization in terms of the driving forces, this contributed to quality education that lead to socio-economic development, However the globalization interplay the process of curriculum development and it influence the driving forces and quality to be realized. Quality is decided locally and globally.

Since Kenya is small market that produces for local and international levels, there is need to move with the time if only we need education to stand the times. The question thus arise is; How sensitive are we are a county to know what is happening and what is not happening for the purpose of aligning. The exercise should be informed by research.

Discussion

The aim of review is ailing, but there challenges and intent purpose which is quality and meet the dictates of the market is not yet met.

Has the Country realized Quality Education? If Not what are the challenges?

To some extend quality has been realized. However, we have several challenges. The challenges facing education and training in Kenya are well known. However, their roots lie deeply entrenched within educational processes and structures that are difficult to change. The review efforts and ongoing calls for change in addressing significant challenges are often slow and solutions continue to elude us. The challenges facing education and training review includes and not limited to;

The first challenge is inadequate critical reflection on the kind of education and the kind of product we want to produce. This calls for re-designing of 21st -century curriculum that meets the test of times and better prepares learners for life and work in the 21st century.

The second challenge is political interference which focuses on short time solution as opposed to lifelong issues and their solution. This calls for a political response that prioritize long lasting solution to social-economic development through quality education is to focus on 'low-hanging fruit' and quick win thus making changes at the margins instead of focusing on real reforms and significant progress in promoting the quality and equity of Kenya education system.

The third challenge is inadequate financing reforms in the education sector. The main sources of funding are central government and development partners. The government spends approximately 30% of GDP on education sector. The currently reforms is in a tune of approximately 360 billion Kenya Shillings. The government may draw financial support towards this reform from development partners and donors. Occasionally this support is accompanied by certain conditions which to a large extend derail the progress in providing quality education with the true reflection of Kenyan socio-economic needs.

The fourth challenge is inadequate focus and support towards globalization and digital world. The education systems around the world are grappling with how to prepare learners to thrive in the 21st century. While we witness technological changes everyday in our lives the review should be in tandem with the technological changes and adaptations.

The fifth challenge is resistance to change that has been witnessed by the curriculum implementers. It is common for people to dislike change and resist new ideas and innovation presented due to; lack of ownership, Teachers often fail to accept the reviews especially when their lacks any benefit of the changes and innovation for themselves or their learners. Resistance to change is also due to teachers perceiving the likelihood for more work and additional responsibilities that change brings along. This can be expressed a silent resistance and develop a wait and see attitude. Change often brings disorder. If the amount and extent of chaos and disorder is perceived too high teachers and parents may resist. This has been witnessed in teacher decollation agenda. Education actors want change that brings order and not disorder.

The sixth challenge is inadequate stakeholder's analysis in determination of who are the education stakeholders, what are the role do they play, their power and influence in the education review. A wider and comprehensive consultation and involvement of parents, teacher, unions, employees, private sector leads to ownership is needed. This has been witnessed by the complaint from teacher's union about involvement in review contributing to limited wider acceptability of the curriculum. The success of change is better when ideas come from within s opposed from outside push. The Kenya 2010

constitution guarantees participation the question arises on, what are the parameter for determining the level of consultation and stakeholder's engagement?

The seventh challenge is insufficient research and knowledge base evidence that inform the curriculum reforms. Research addresses the gap, allows benchmarking, and offers opportunity and basis for the review. However, the concern arises on government commitment and financial support towards research and knowledge base. The west region has adequately invested in curriculum review research and evidence based. Reforms in these countries are largely driven and informed by evidence based research.

The eighth challenge involves lack of contextualization per region. The curriculum assumes uniformity, despite the individual, cultural and local difference that existing within the various regions. The examination is unified, yet the difference exists within various contexts. The examination should fit context. The distribution of teachers and infrastructure are not the same. In some school the resources are inadequate, and this contributes to the quality and final product.

The 8-4-4 system was highly borrowed from west though it was practically oriented, the curriculum was not given adequate time for it to be reviewed, Subject such as woodwork, metalwork, home science, art and craft among other were withdrawn from the curriculum. This shows influence of quality in education and final product. The system leads to examination oriented that to an extent contributed to examination cheating.

Flexibility such that once your get to the job market and find out that the job market is saturated then one should be able to adjust and fit into another area. Educational should be an eye opener towards development of an individual. The universities should stand to the dynamics in the world of work. The idea of major and minor should be encouraged, and this will prepare flexibility in the job market. The idea of pathway is good; however it may limit and deny flexibility opportunity. Thus, for curriculum should embrace flexibility.

*Way forward***;**
Quality education to be realized there should be a deliberate design of a curriculum that solves societal problems. The curriculum should have an extended technological and innovation approach.

Teachers should adopt a flexible approach towards curriculum implementation by being part of problem seekers and participants in solving the problems.

The government should go full throater to ensure that curriculum designer have what it takes to execute the process of curriculum review.

Curriculum should be designed to fit into the local requirement, and similar a national curriculum. In such case national school designed to cater for national outlook that reflect all regions.

Conclusion:

- There is a clear link between quality education and sustainable development.
- Although the link is known to exist but strategies to change the status quo has not been forth coming
- Paradigm shift is required in the way we think and act in order to position Kenya in the 21st century.

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Influence of Teacher's Preparation Of Professional Documents On Students' Academic Achievement Of Kiswahili Language In Public Secondary Schools In Kathonzweni Sub-County, Kenya

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Abstract

Poor performance in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) Examination has been of a great concern by all stakeholders particularly the students' academic achievement of Kiswahili language. For five years Kathonzweni Sub County has been posting poor results in Kiswahili language. The purpose of the study was to establish the influence of teacher's preparation of professional documents on students' academic achievement in Kiswahili language. This study was guided by Teacher Efficacy theory. The study was conducted in Kathonzweni Sub County, Kenya. The target population comprised of 60 Kiswahili language teachers and 39 principals in all the 39 public secondary schools in the Sub County. The Kiswahili language teachers and the principals were purposively sampled. The sample size was all the 39 principals and 60 Kiswahili language teachers hence Census Survey. Questionnaires for principals and teachers were used as instruments of data collection. The objective of the study was; to establish the influence of the teacher's preparation of professional documents on students' academic achievement in Kiswahili language on students' academic achievement in Kiswahili language in public secondary schools in the Sub County. Both questionnaires were piloted for reliability and yielded Chronbach Alpha Coefficient of 0.833 for principal's questionnaire and 0.838 for teachers' questionnaire. The data collected was quantitatively analyzed using Statistical package of Social Sciences (SPSS). Frequencies and percentages were used to summarize and describe data whereas Pearson correlation was used to establish relationships. The findings established that; teacher's preparation of professional documents did not have a significant influence (r=0.273, p-value=0.649).The findings of the study will be useful in advising the Ministry of Education (MOE) on ensuring thorough grounding of teachers in teacher training colleges and universities to produce fully baked Kiswahili teachers. It may be used for future researches on related studies.

KEYWORDS: *Teacher Preparedness, Student Achievement, Professional documents, Kiswahili Language.*

Introduction

Brown (1994) states that teaching is extremely complex endeavor which involves classroom management, lesson preparation, and organization of teaching and learning activities for effective classroom instruction. Rosenshine (1995) advises that planning to teach should be the first thing a teacher should do when beginning to teach in order to achieve educational goals intended. Marino (2007) indicated that teachers need initial and continuing professional development and training to have a very positive impact on students' academic achievement in the teaching and learning process. Adegoroye (2004) asserted that improving performance depends on improvement of quality of classroom practices of the subject teacher and the more organized the teacher is the better the academic achievement. Kimosop (2015) explains that teachers are required to prepare all stages of the implementation of curriculum

documents before they are actually the students' use through their assistance. Kiswahili language academic achievement has been affected by the belief that it is a native language hence lacks the seriousness it deserves from teachers and students. Odhiambo (2005) indicates that there is extremely growing demand and desire from the Kenyan government and public for accountability from the classroom teachers.

Statement of the Problem

Students' academic achievement in the KCSE at national level has been dismal over the years. Students' academic achievement in Kathonzweni Sub County has been poor in the last 5 years as shown in the Table 1.1 below. The table shows that the number of candidates in this Sub County has significantly increased from 1580 to 2070 over the years but the mean scores have decreased over the last five years. They are not only low but very poor given that the maximum mean score should be 12.00 (A).

Table: 1.1 General analyzed KNEC Results for Kathonzweni Sub County.

Year	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Entry	1580	1643	1723	1949	2070
Mean scores	5.200 C-	4.491 D+	4.662 C-	3.480 D	3.353 D

Source: Kathonzweni Sub County Examinations Office

The performance of Kiswahili language in the Sub County has been increasingly dropping for the last five years as shown in Table 1.2 below

Table: 1.2 Kiswahili Language analyzed KNEC Results for Kathonzweni Sub- County

Year	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Entry	1580	1643	1723	1949	2070
Mean scores	5.943 C	5.531 C	5.242 C-	4.112 D^+	3.719 D^+

Source: Kathonzweni Sub County of Education Examinations Office

The low academic achievement in Table 1.2 above is worrying despite the infrastructure as well as technical support from the government and other development partnerships as well as other stakeholders. This dismal academic achievement is of great concern to parents; the government and general public since each of them expect very good results especially after making a huge investment in the secondary education in terms of money and human resources.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the influence of teacher's preparation of professional documents on students' academic achievement of Kiswahili language in public secondary schools in Kathonzweni Sub County, Kenya.

Theoretical Framework

The study adopted Teacher Efficacy theory. This theory was first developed by RAND researchers in 1960's. According to Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly and Zelman (1977) teacher efficacy has been defined as the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student academic achievement. This can be done or achieved mainly through confidence in content delivery, class management and other teaching practices. Gusky and Passaro (1994) indicate that it can also mean the teachers believe or conviction that they can influence how well students learn, how they retain the subject matter, even those who may have difficulties or unmotivated. Teacher efficacy correlates with teacher preparedness and actually suggests strategies which are used for improving the efficacy of in-service teachers (Rotter, 1966). Teacher preparation according to him includes the teacher's ability to be able to deliver instructional process with confidence and be able to prepare the recommended documentation. In this case therefore documentation needed may include lesson plan, schemes of work, lesson notes, and records of work. Implementation of teaching practices as discussed by Gusky (1982) are parameters used to measure teacher efficacy. Therefore, this theory was well connected with the study carried.

Literature Review

Teacher's Preparation of Professional Documents

Urevbu (1985) indicates that the teacher needs teaching documents which are items any serious and committed teacher must know, is able to develop and use in teaching and learning process. They spell out the teaching professionalism. Any serious teacher should take the following measures before beginning to teach ;(a) Read the official syllabus description of the subject. (a) Select the broad content areas to be covered by the teacher (c) Consider teaching within the stipulated time (Oketch & Asiach, 1986). Kimosop (2015) states that a syllabus book is a document that guides a teacher to plan for effective classroom instruction where they should use it to identify objectives, write schemes of work and lesson plan. Kimosop (2015) states that effective classroom instruction entails 3 main stages. One of the stages include; preparation stage (planning stage) which involves identification of the content to be covered, identification of objectives, scheming of the content, and lesson planning. According to KICD (2017) professional documents are documents which are used by the teacher in the preparation, implementation and evaluation of teaching and learning process. They include; schemes of work, lessons plan, records of work, progress reports and Individualized Education Program (IEP).

Eshiwani (1985) that good administration practices of principals like checking of teachers' professional records are always reflected in the good performance of the school and administration have impact in teaching and learning of a given subject.

Students' Academic Achievement

Stolp and Smith (1994) defines academic achievement as the extent to which a student, teacher or institution has achieved their intended educational goals. Darling-Hammond (2006) says that classroom teachers are primary responsible for student academic achievement. They should work towards that primary goal; academic achievement. Bass (2009) on his study on under achievement in schools and colleges found that overpopulated class, teaching and learning resources as well as teachers' pedagogy significantly related to learners' academic achievement. Heneveld (1994) notes that heads of institutions should be able to supervise and support teachers' work through lesson observation, schemes work, lesson plan and work records. Dessarollo (2008) states that academic achievement is dependent of various factors including the institutional leadership, teacher motivation, student attitude and availability of resources.

Research Methodology

The study adopted mixed method research design. The target population was the 39 principals and 60 Kiswahili teachers in the 39 public secondary schools in Kathonzweni Sub County. The sample size was all the 39 principals and 60 Kiswahili language teachers hence census survey. Questionnaires for the principals and Kiswahili teachers were used as the main instruments of data collection. A Pilot study was done in accordance to a recommendation by Mugenda and Mugenda (2008) that 1% of target population is examined to ensure reliability of the instruments before the actual study. One school was selected for the study. The collected data was quantitatively analyzed using Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS).

Research Findings

Influence of Teacher's Preparation of Professional Documents on Students' Academic Achievement in Kiswahili language.

The main objective of the study was to establish the influence of teacher's preparation of professional documents on students' academic achievement on Kiswahili language in public secondary schools in Kathonzweni Sub County. The principals and teachers were asked to tick on their level of agreement on listed statements on influence of teacher's preparation of professional documents. The data were analyzed in form of percentages and frequencies. Table 1.3 Presents principals' agreement level on influence of teacher's preparation of professional documents on students' academic achievement in Kiswahili language

Table 1.3: Principals' Level of Agreement on influence of Teacher's Preparation of Professional Documents on students' academic achievement in Kiswahili language.

NO	Statement	SA %	A %	U %	D %	SD %
1	My Kiswahili language teachers prepare the professional documents always.	68.6	31.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
2	Preparation of professional documents has influence on students' academic achievement.	40.0	57.1	2.9	0.0	0.0
3	Kiswahili language teachers take preparation of professional document seriously.	28.6	68.6	2.8	0	0
4	Institutional leadership supervises the preparation of professional documents.	65.7	34.3	0	0	0
5	All the professional documents are prepared in time and well used in preparation for classroom instruction. N=35	17.1	51.4	8.6	22.9	0

Findings in Table 1.3 show that: 68.6% of the principals strongly agreed that Kiswahili language teachers prepare the professional documents always and 31.4% disagreed; 57.1% agreed that preparation of professional documents has influence on students' academic achievement, 40% strongly agreed and 2.9% were undecided; 68.6% agreed that Kiswahili language teachers take preparation of professional document seriously, 28.6% strongly disagreed and 2.8% were undecided; 65.7% strongly agreed that institutional leadership supervises the preparation of professional documents and 34.3% agreed. 51.4% of the principals strongly agreed that all the professional documents are prepared in time and well

used in preparation for classroom instruction, 17.1% strongly agreed, 8.6 % were undecided and 22.9% disagreed. This implies that the principals always play their role of supervising their teachers' preparation of their professional documents. Timely preparation of professional documents ensures that teachers are well prepared to teach which have an impact on students' academic achievement. The findings concur with Adegoroye (2004) that improving performance depends on improvement of quality of classroom practices of the subject teacher and the more organized the teacher is the better the academic achievement. Table 1.4 Presents teachers' agreement level on influence of teacher's preparation of professional documents on students' academic achievement in Kiswahili language.

Table 1.4: Teachers' Level of Agreement on teacher's Preparation of

Professional Documents in Kiswahili language.

No	Statement	SA %	A %	U %	D %	SD %
1	Preparation of schemes of work has influence on performance of Kiswahili language.	36.0	54.0	4.0	6.0	0.0
2	Reference to the syllabus in preparation of schemes of work has influence on performance in Kiswahili language.	42.0	56.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
3	Preparation of lesson plan has influence on performance of Kiswahili language.	28.0	58.0	4.0	10.0	0.0
4	Preparation of lesson notes has influence on the performance of Kiswahili language.	46.0	52.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
5	Preparation of records of work has influence on the performance of Kiswahili language.	28.0	32.0	36.0	4.0	0.0
6	Preparation of the progress records has influence on students' academic achievement in Kiswahili language. N=50	38.0	56.0	6.0	0.0	0.0

Findings in Table 1.4 show that: 54% of the teachers agreed that preparation of schemes of work has influence on academic achievement of Kiswahili language,36% strongly agreed, 4% were undecided and 6% disagreed; 56% agreed that reference to the syllabus in preparation of schemes of work has influence on academic achievement in Kiswahili language, 38% strongly agreed and 6% were undecided; 58% agreed that preparation of lesson plan has influence on academic achievement of Kiswahili language, 28% strongly agreed, 4% were undecided and 10% disagreed; 52% agreed that preparation of lesson notes have influence on the academic achievement of Kiswahili language, 46% strongly disagreed and 2% were undecided; 36% were undecided on whether preparation of records of work has influence on the academic achievement in Kiswahili language, 28% strongly agreed, 32% agreed and 4% strongly disagreed; 56% of the teachers agreed that preparation of progress records has influence on students' academic achievement in Kiswahili language, 38% strongly agreed and 6% were undecided. This implies that teacher's preparation of professional documents have an influence on achievement in Kiswahili language. The finding in line with Urevbu (1985) who

asserted that the teacher needs teaching documents which helps them in teaching and learning process.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Teacher's preparation of professional documents was found to have influence though insignificant on the quality of education standards and schools where teachers prepare their professional documents without supervision. A well done lesson helps the teacher to organize the content, plan and prepare learning resources, present concepts and skills systematically, manage time well, select and design appropriate assessment methods and make connections between components. The study suggests that a research on the role of principals in ensuring effective supervisory functions in public secondary schools could be done to find out how the principals ensure the effective supervision of the schools they head.

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Influence of participation of student councils in conflict resolution in management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools, Nyeri county, Kenya.

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine the influence of students' council's participation in conflict resolution on management in boys' and girls' public boarding secondary schools. The study adopted the descriptive survey and correlation research designs. The study was conducted in 12 boys' and 12 girls' public boarding secondary schools in Nyeri County that were identified using purposive sampling technique. A sample of 384 respondents was used. Data was collected using questionnaires. Data was analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The study found that participation of student council in conflicts resolution had statistically significant influence on management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools. The study concluded that a unit increase in participation of student councils in conflict resolution enhances school management by a factor of 0.887. The study recommended that there is need to enhance guidance and counselling among students, organize forums to train student councils on conflict resolution strategies and promote moral behaviour and characters in order to be trusted in resolving conflicts among students

Keyword: *School management; Students Council; Conflict resolution; Secondary School*

Introduction

The student council policy was embraced by secondary schools management because it was expected to address issues that made students and teachers unhappy about prefects (Indimuli, 2012). Therefore, the student councils were implemented with enthusiasm that by the beginning of 2012, 77% of schools had transited from the prefects to student councils leadership (Tirop, 2012). The establishment of student councils created democratic space among the students that was credited for the relative peace that was marked by decline in student unrest from a high prevalence of 7.4% in 2008 to 0.4% in 2011 in secondary schools in Kenya (Tirop, 2012). However, in year 2013, cases of student unrests rose to 0.49% of the number of secondary schools in Kenya. The only difference with student unrests in 2014 compared to those in 2008 were that they were accompanied with arson attacks (Republic of Kenya, 2014). In 2015 the situation was worse as 51 boys and 12 girls' public boarding secondary schools which constituted about 1% of schools in Kenya were affected by student unrests (Masese, 2015). In 2016 the situation of student unrests had deteriorated from that of 2015. In total, 126 secondary schools which was rated 1.9 % of all secondary schools in Kenya were affected (MOE, 2016). According to Ouma and Muide (2016) nationally, student unrests had affected 98 boys and 28 girls' secondary school resulting to suspension of studies for about 6000 students in the affected schools. This show more cases of student unrest among boys schools compared to the girls' schools.

The student unrests continued to be a matter of concern to education stakeholders despite the fact that there were elected student councils in those schools whose responsibility

included prevention of student unrests to enhance management of secondary schools as per the expectations of the MOE when the student councils were introduced (Ndungu & Kwasira, 2015). Student unrests often caught the school administration unaware despite fact that student council were expected to have known and presented the student grievances and negotiated a compromise in good time (Abuya & Muhia, 2016).

In 2016, student unrests were recorded in five public boarding secondary schools in Nyeri County as at 30th July where three were in boys and two were in girls' public boarding secondary schools (Ouma & Muide, 2016). It is inquisitive whether the prevalence of fewer student unrests in girls' public boarding secondary school compared to the boys' schools is as a result of well-established and effective student councils in girls than in the boys' schools. This study sought to fill the literature gap by conducting a comparative study on the participation of student councils in public boys and girls public boarding secondary schools. The study aimed at determining the influence of student council participation in conflict resolution on management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools.

Literature Review

Student Leadership in School Management

According to Leithwood, et al, 2004), student leadership is the exercise of power by a few students over the other students by setting up targets, giving direction, establishing interpersonal influence and motivation geared towards accomplishment of planned goals for the benefit of the whole school. The student leadership in secondary school management is involved in planning, organizing, directing and controlling student activities to conform to the school routine (Keogh & Whyte, 2005). According to Huddleston (2007) student leadership provides a unique opportunity for students to acquire and practice management skills in welfare, boarding, accommodation, sports, health, environment and academics depending on the establishment of their school. School management borrows heavily from Likert's Management Systems that were developed after 30 years of extensive research on how good leadership would improve efficiency in an organization. Likert's research covered various firms and organizations, including schools and universities, and involving head teacher, teachers and students. The Likert's findings revealed that leaders us a combination of authoritative, benevolent, consultative and participative styles of management to achieve their institutional goals.

In school management according to Modaff, et al. (2008) there are consultative student leader has substantial but not complete confidence with his/her ideas. As a result the general decisions are made by the student leader and then sought the opinions of the students, and makes the finally decision. The student develops positive attitudes toward the school management and the student leaders when they are consulted. If the students feel that enough consultation has not taken place, they may publicly resist orders from the student leaders and the school administration and that becomes conflict which requires quick intervention in terms of decisions for normalcy to be restored in the institution. Communication flows from top to the bottom of the hierarchy. The student leader consults through relevant channels, with students on matters they would like to bring to the attention of the school administration. The school management usually delegates tasks to control students at lower levels which is done in terms of supervision and perceived as a way of maintaining the set standard.

Student councils in school management were expected to promote peace through participation in conflict resolution. Therefore the re-emergence of devastating student unrests in public boarding secondary schools in 2015 and 2016 show that there was a gap in

implementation of the policy on participation of student council in school management. This study therefore, investigated the influence of student councils participation in conflict resolution to enhance effective management of public boarding secondary schools in Nyeri County.

Participation of Student Councils in Conflict Resolution

Conflict resolution is the processes of facilitating peaceful ending of differences and restoring respect among people (Welsh & Black, 2011). According to Kerzner (1998) conflict is part of social change which is inevitable in schools and has the potential to destroy teamwork and therefore if they are not resolved effectively, real and legitimate differences between teachers, students and school administration would get out of control, and result in an irretrievable breakdown in communication, resulting to unrest and destruction of property.

According to Gebretensay (2002) conflict in secondary schools is manifestation of hostility and antagonism where it is expected to be harmonious but caused by the fact that two people are different from one another (inter-personal). There are also conflicts that are psychological and involves the ones thoughts, values, principles and emotions (intra-personal). Also common is the intra-group conflict that develops among individuals in a team and expressed in incompatibilities and misunderstandings among these individuals and (inter-group) conflict that takes place when there are misunderstanding among different teams in a school.

In developed countries such as the USA the student councils face challenges in their effort to enhance school management. According to Leithwood, et al (2004) student councils face challenges emanating from conflict in conducting democratic student elections due to interference from students, teachers and the school administration. The conflicts emanating from failure of the student councils to conduct democratic elections make student leadership a weak entity for directly representing the students in school, community and national activities.

Besides, Oku, Emenalo and Okeke (2008) identified five types of conflict which include role conflict where a person conforms to two or more contradictory sets of roles at the same time. There is also personality conflict where what a person by principle want does not match what the counterpart wants. In such a scenario a democratic student leader finds himself operating with an autocratic principal. In school there is also a role personality conflict that exists where a student council role expectation is at variance with his or her academic need disposition. In addition there is cognitive conflict which is on play when there are differences in perspectives resulting to emergence of new approaches of solving problems (Department of Education and Early Childhood Development, 2009). Finally there is the affective conflict where student leader emotions are directed against other students' interests leading to anger, bitterness, goal displacement and outright conflict in school management.

According to Woods and Cribbs (2001) in USA and India the student council has conflict resolution councils whose responsibility is to offer peer mentorship, personal support and encouragement to fellow students who are struggling with the challenges of secondary school life. In Britain student conflict resolution councils were formed to give students opportunities to dialogue on specific issues of conflict with teachers outside the class and helped eliminate student conflict associated with bullying (Botti, 2010). Oluand and Abosede (2003) conducted a study in Nigeria that concluded that the most common types of conflicts in schools occur between the students on one hand and the school authorities on the other while other forms of conflict include interpersonal among staff and as well as the students in different classes. The studies conducted in South Africa by Mabena (2002) concluded that student councils participation in school management has more influence when the student leaders are free

from the ridicule of the school administration, teachers and students. Studies conducted in Nigeria by Otegbulu (2014) established that training the student councils on guidance and counselling is one of the sure ways of enhancing their impact in conflicts resolution among students for realization of effective school management.

In Kenya, conflicts between students and the management in secondary school are caused by misunderstanding among the students and teachers (MOE, 2010). The MOE (2010) recommended that conflict resolutions in schools should be interest based where courteous and non-confrontational approach that focus on issues rather than individuals, and listening carefully to each student's point of view is followed. In secondary schools conflict issues should be addressed in open forums where the students are supposed to openly express themselves in either English or Kiswahili which are the official languages to accommodate individual differences of students from diverse ethnic backgrounds (MOE, 2013). When people listen and explore the causes of conflict and possible solutions carefully, the conflict can be resolved thus promoting condusive learning environment in the school.

The main reason why students are in a school is to excel in their academic performance (Kamuri, 2014). Failure of a school to shine in academic performance especially national examinations has also caused conflicts, getters, desperation and low self-esteem among student leaders (Republic of Kenya, 2014). According to Tirop (2012) after results for national examinations are released the students' councils raise issues with the teachers whose subjects are being performed poorly and would challenge the school administration to promise that results will improve and as a result improve in school management.

The student councils are designed with a justice and conflict resolution secretary who is a student with s a thorough understanding of the school rules and regulations which are emphasized in every student forum. The justice officer in the student council uses the school rules to arbitrate cases of conflict between the school management and the students. The justice officer should also assist in the distribution of duties to the student by the student leaders to ensure that they are fairly distributed. In the event of conflicts involving the students, the student council should play its conflict resolution role for peace to prevail in school (Otieno, 2010).

There are rare situations where there are unresolved conflicts between some student leaders and the fellow students Indimuli (2012). If the school administration does not work to resolve such a conflict, the student leaders affected may face hostility from fellow students that at times turns tragic to claim innocent lives in brutal or arson attacks at school. At a worst case scenario such a situation may escalate to a full scale student unrest and completely put the school management off the balance. An emerging cause of conflicts in school management is worship of the students and how it is managed in the school. In the student council structure worship is managed by the directorate of student welfare. Since it is not possible for all students' faiths to worship separately, many schools have organized for four worship groups which have separate leadership structure from the student council. These are often the Catholics; Christian Union (CU); Sevens Day Adventists and Muslims (SDA). The school administration should monitor the spiritual groups' activities through patrons and leaders students to check on any emerging conflict between the religious groups in schools. Inadequate management of students' religious conflicts were responsible for the 2015, student unrest in St. Phillips High School Siakago and Kegonge (Masese, 2015).

It important that secondary school establish a conflict resolution corner where conflicts issues are discussed and in case an offender is found and is remorseful, one is forgiven and cautioned, (Kimuri, 2014). The justice and conflict resolution wing of the student councils should initiate regular dialogue with the school management on all issues affecting the

students besides confirming to all the facts and listens before passing judgment which helps to build effective teams and earn respect from all students (Otieno, 2010). Student councils justice wing should also listen settle disputes and reach a compromise with the students without necessarily involving the school management. However, all difficult issues should be presented to the school management. The student councils must behave responsibly while resolving conflicts and observe tolerance with the students to win their trust and confidence and enable them to avert student unrests in secondary schools and by so doing enhance school management (Gesito, 2005).

Studies conducted by Kinyua (2015) established that student leaders may at times find themselves in awkward situations when their interests are in conflict with that of the school administration. When such a conflict is not resolved amicably the student council members may seek sympathy from their fellow students and incite them against the school administration. If such a conflict is not resolved in time and the situation escalates to a student unrest the student leaders may passively or actively participating in student mass indiscipline.

The student councils have a duty of peer mentoring and counseling of students to enable them develop a positive attitude towards their school and orients new student to school rules and regulations to enable them settle down as fast as possible for their studies (Murage, 2014). On conflict resolution, the student councils should participate in interactive and consultative meetings (barazas) with teachers, students and MOE officials from schools, counties, regions and nationally meet to discuss emerging issues affecting students are addressed with unity of purpose being to reduce student unrests (UNICEF, 2011).

According to Giulia (2010), mediation based on the idea of peer counseling, active listening and facilitation of communication make student leaders talk about conflicts and finding their own solutions to management of conflicts. In that regard peer mediation is used as a preventive method to solve smaller conflicts before they turn to larger ones between the students and the school management. That creates a solution-oriented atmosphere where conflicts are seen as a part of everyday life and their resolution as a positive challenge more than a difficult and unpleasant task. However, according to Ndiritu (2011) student councils lack adequate peer mentorship, guidance and counseling skills. Such skills would be necessary to enable the student councils help fellow students to tone down their activism when there are issues which may results to student unrests and instead directs their energies to pursuance of academic and non-academic dreams thus managing conflict among students and the school administration which inclusively enhance school management.

From the foregoing discussion it is clear that the student councils participation in conflict resolution play a critical role in influencing management of schools. However, there is no empirical study that has been done to establish the influence of the participation student councils in conflict resolution on the management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools. This researcher therefore identified that gap in knowledge that is left thereof. It is the endeavor of the researcher in this study to establish the influence of student councils in conflict resolution on the management of girls' and boys' public boarding secondary schools.

Theoretical Framework

Contingency Theory

According to (Dubrin, 2007) the contingency theory emphasizes the importance of the leadership keeping situation under control. However, matching the situation with the leader may create problems, because the amount of control the leader exercises varies from time to

time. For example, if a relationship-oriented leader finds a good leader-follower situation for exercising control, it is almost certain that the leader would attempt to make the situation less favorable. As a result, the set goals may not be accomplished by a leader who has made the situation less favorable Virkus (2009). That is in agreement with assertion that good relationship between the leader and followers is important for making it easy for the leader to have influence and exercise control over the situation for achievement of the set goals of the organization. According to Virkus 2009 the contingency theory also explains that the difference in the participation of the student council in the management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools emanate from lack of motivation, poor task structures of the student council where the tasks for the students has not been clearly specified and which is central to task accomplishment. The contingency theory also explains that the conflicts in both public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools are as a result of the internal climate / culture of the school lacking cohesive and harmonious co-existence.

Conceptual Framework

The study adopted the conceptual framework as shown below.

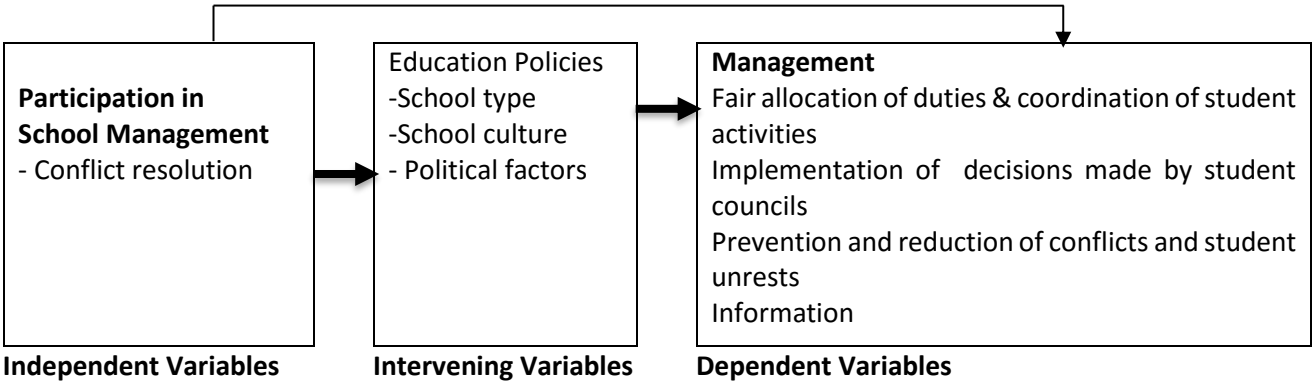

Figure 1: Participation of student councils in schools Management

Methodology

Research Design

This study adopted the descriptive survey research design. This design was appropriate in establishing, comparing and describing the relationships and the influence among the variables of the study (Kathuri & Pals, 1993) and (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2013). The design allowed descriptions and comparison of the current status of the participation of student councils in conflict resolution, to enhance management of public boys and girls in boarding secondary schools.

Location of Study

The study was conducted in the Nyeri County which neighbors Laikipia, Meru, Kirinyaga, Muranga and Nyandarua counties (Institute of Economic Affairs (IEA), 2012). Nyeri County has six sub-counties which include Nyeri Town, Tetu, Mukurweini, Othaya, Mathira and Kieni with a total of 71 public boarding secondary schools. The county has a total of 28 boys' and 43 girls' public boarding secondary schools which the researcher needed to conduct a descriptive survey between boys and girls secondary schools (Republic of Kenya, 2013). Nyeri County had also been affected by persistent and devastating student unrests over the years mainly affecting boarding public secondary schools (MOE, 2008; 2015).

Samples Size and Sampling Procedures

Sampling is the process of selecting a representative group from the target population to participate in the study for generalization of results (Mugenda & Mugenda (2013). A sample size of 384 respondents was drawn from a target population of 10,388 target population in 71 boys' and girls' public boarding secondary schools in Nyeri County as recommended by Kathuri and Pals (1993). The study used systematic random sampling to select 72 Form 3 boys and 72 Form three girls from their entry in the class registers to participate in the study. Purposive sampling was used to select a total of 192 student council members comprising of 96 boys and 96 girls from 12 boys' and 12 girls' secondary schools. Purposive sampling was used to select one Form 3 class teacher and one deputy principal in each of the 24 schools. Purposive sampling was chosen because it allowed the researcher to reach the respondents that had the required information with respect to the objectives of study.

Table 1: Summary of the Sample Size

Variable	Target Population (N)	Sample Size (n)
Form 3 boys	3386	72
Form 3 girls	3948	72
Student Council- Boys	532	96
Student Council- Girls	533	96
Class Teachers	1917	24
Deputy Principals	71	24
Total	10388	384

Research Instrument

The research instruments that were used to collect data to establish the influence of student councils participation in conflict resolution to management of public boys and girls boarding secondary schools were questionnaires.

Data Analysis

Computations were made for the data using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23. Descriptive statistics namely frequencies, percentages and measures of central tendency especially the mean and standard deviation were used to describe the characteristics of the collected data. To establish the influence of the participation of student council in conflict resolution on schools management and also test the hypothesized influence, correlation and regression analysis were used. The regression equation to estimate effective management of public boarding secondary schools in Nyeri County was stated as:

$Y=\beta_0+\beta_1X_1+e$

Where Y= School Management; X_1=Conflict resolution; β_0=Constant

β_1=Regression coefficient of conflict resolution

e=Error term (identically, independent and normally distributed with a mean of zero (0) and variance of one (1). The independent sample t-test was chosen for this study because it was a comparison between means of variables in boys' and girls' schools. The results were presented using percentages distribution tables.

Results and Discussions

The Response Rate

The study had 358 respondents, who included the student council members, Form three students, and Form three class teachers and deputy principals of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools. Results of the response rate are shown in Table 2

Table 2: Response Rate

Respondent	Sample Size	Response	Response Rate
Form 3 Students	144	126	87.5
Student Council	192	186	96.9
Class Teachers	24	22	91.7
D/Principals	24	24	100.0
Total	384	358	93.2

The results shown in Table 2 indicate that data was successfully collected from 358 respondents from the 6 sub-counties in Nyeri County which contributed to 93.2% response rate. The results indicated that deputy principals had the highest response rate of 100% which may have been contributed by the fact that the deputy principals are school administrators responsible of protecting the school image by responding to public expectations. They were followed by the student council members 96.7 %, then the class teachers 91.7% and last were Form three students with 87.5%.

School Management

There was an item in the questionnaire on the participation of student council in the management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary school. Different sets of questions anchored on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5= Strongly Agree were used to measure the participation of student councils. The findings are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics on School Management

Student council Participation in management	BOYS			GIRLS		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
S C has participated in the management of students activities	176	2.05	1.255	180	2.00	1.088
Student councils have enhanced fairness in allocation of duties	178	2.04	1.266	180	2.63	1.694
Student councils participate in decision making	178	2.33	1.300	180	2.77	1.554
Student councils have helped the school management to make good decisions	178	2.13	1.241	180	2.27	1.222
Student councils has helped to resolve student conflicts	178	2.01	1.110	180	2.28	1.320
The student councils have helped to reduce classes, ethnic and houses conflict	178	2.02	1.125	180	2.29	1.339
Creation of student councils has helped to reduce student unrests	178	2.13	1.223	180	2.10	1.242
Student councils communicate to the school administration about students	178	1.85	1.189	180	1.89	1.162
The student council communicate to the students about school administration	178	2.20	1.404	178	2.39	1.455
Overall Mean score		2.09	1.235		2.29	1.342

The results in Table 3 indicate that the respondents, on average had a low rating on aspects of participation of student councils in school management with an overall mean score of 2.09 and 2.29 (2=disagree) for boys' and girls' school respectively. This implies that student councils do not participate adequately in management in public boarding secondary schools. The student councils had 1.455 rating in communication with the school administration where students had 1.89 mean score for boys' and 1.85 girls' schools respectively. Similarly, student councils participation in conflict resolution had moderate mean score for girls' school with a mean of 2.77.

Participation of Student Councils in Conflict Resolution

There was an item in the questionnaire which sought to establish the influence of student council participation in conflict resolution to enhance school management in public boys' and girls' boarding secondary school. The study sought to establish the rate of participation of student councils in conflict resolutions to enhance management of boys' and girls' public boarding secondary schools. A Likert scale items were used measured the participation of student councils in conflict resolutions. The pertinent results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Participation of Student Councils in Conflict Resolution

	Boys			**Girls**		
Conflict Resolution	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**
Participate in open forums (baraza)	178	3.28	1.55	180	3.33	1.68
They emphasize obedience of school rules	178	4.30	1.01	180	4.33	1.02
They allocate duties to students fairly	178	4.18	1.27	180	3.36	1.68
They perform peer mentoring to student	178	3.76	1.29	180	3.39	1.35
Conduct peer counselling of students	178	3.69	1.26	180	3.60	1.42
Aware of individual differences	176	3.58	1.41	180	3.51	1.40
Listening to student	178	3.67	1.36	180	3.38	1.44
Tolerance with one another	178	3.85	1.21	180	3.78	1.27
Express themselves in English or Kiswahili	178	4.13	1.23	180	4.23	1.21
Ensuring all students have items they need	178	3.11	1.47	180	3.03	1.39
Emphasize the school vision the students	178	3.67	1.30	180	3.29	1.50
Emphasize forgiveness to students	178	3.45	1.41	180	3.43	1.47
Cooperating the student council	178	3.96	1.21	180	4.23	1.01
Control their emotions and behavior	178	3.64	1.28	180	3.50	1.45
Orient all new students to the school	178	4.13	1.19	180	4.20	1.16
Present difficult issues to administration	178	4.38	0.92	180	4.20	1.10
Mean Score		3.80	1.27		3.67	1.35

The results in Table 4 suggest that the respondents, on average indicated high agreement with aspects of participation of student councils in conflict resolutions with an overall mean score of 3.80 and 3.67 for boys' and girls' school respectively. Most notably is that student councils express themselves in English or Kiswahili had high mean score for girls, school than boys' school with a mean of 4.23 and 4.13 respectively. Similarly, they present difficult issues to school administration had highest score (mean score 4.38, SD=0.92 and mean score=4.20, SD=1.10) for boys' school than girls' school respectively. This result shows that participation of student councils in conflict resolutions was more evident in boys' than in girls' public boarding secondary schools.

Tests for Equality of Means on Conflict Resolution

The study sought to establish whether there is significant mean difference between participation of student councils in conflict resolution in public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools. The results are displayed in Table 5.

Table 5: A t-Test Group Statistics in Conflict Resolution

Variable	School Type	N	Mean	SD	SE	Mean Diff.	t-value	P-value
Conflict Resolution	Boy	178	3.80	0.88	0.07	-0.13	-1.02	0.31
	Girl	180	3.67	0.87	0.06			

The results in Table 5 show a t-test on participation of student council in conflict resolution on management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools was The results are t-value=-1.02; P-value=0.31>0.05 at 5% significance level. This implies that the participation of student councils in conflict resolution on management is the same in both boys' and girls' public boarding secondary schools. Thus, there is insignificant mean difference between the participation of student councils in conflict resolution in management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools.

Regression Analyses on Conflict Resolution

To determine the influence of student councils participation in conflict resolution and management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools, a simple regression analysis was conducted. The results are summarized in Table 6.

Table 6: Regression analysis for Conflict Resolution and School Management

(a) The Goodness - of -Fit

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
BOYS	.779[b]	.607	.605	.57854
GIRLS	.825[b]	.681	.679	.52849
COMBINED	0.802	0.643	0.642	0.55677

(b) The Overall Significance of the Model

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
BOYS	Regression	90.916	1	90.916	271.626	.000[c]
	Residual	58.909	176	.335		
	Total	149.825	177			
GIRLS	Regression	105.933	1	105.933	379.277	.000[c]
	Residual	49.716	178	.279		
	Total	155.648	179			
COMBINED	Regression	198.879	1	198.879	641.558	.000[c]
	Residual	110.358	356	0.31		
	Total	309.236	357			

(c) The Individual Significance

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	S.E	Beta	t	Sig.
BOYS	(Constant)	.262	.119		2.205	.029
	Conflict Resolution	.816	.050	.779	16.481	.000
GIRLS	(Constant)	.227	.113		2.007	.046
	Conflict Resolution	.887	.046	.825	19.475	.000
COMBINED	(Constant)	0.238	0.082		2.889	.004
	Conflict Resolution	0.855	0.034	0.802	25.329	.000

Dependent Variable: School Management

Predictors: (Constant), Conflict Resolution

The results in Table 6 reveal that participation of student councils in conflict resolution had a statistically significant influence on management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools at 5% significance level. The results explained 60.7 % (R^2 = 0.607) and 68.1 % (R^2=0.681) of its variation in management in the boys' and girls' public boarding secondary schools respectively.

The F–test statistics was used to assess the overall robustness and significance of the simple regression model. It was established that the regression equation was statistically significant at 5% significance level (F = 271. 626, P- value = 0.000 $<$ 0.05) for the public boys' boarding secondary schools and (F = 379. 277, P-value = 0.000$<$ 0.05) for public girls′ boarding secondary schools.

The t- test statistics were also used to determine individual significance of the influence. The study revealed that the participation of student councils in boys boarding secondary schools in conflict resolution was statistically significant (Regression coefficient= 0.816; t-value 16.481; P value = 0.000$<$ 0.05) for the public boys boarding secondary schools and (Regression coefficient = 0.887; t- value 19.475; P- value = 0.000 $<$ 0.05 for public girls boarding secondary schools. The findings indicate that the participation of student councils in conflict resolution enhances management of public boys' and girls' secondary schools. Therefore, the hypothesis that there is no statistical significant influence in the participation of student councils in conflict resolution to enhance management of public boys and girls boarding secondary school is not supported by this study.

The following regression equations was used to estimate influence of the student council in the management in public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools in Nyeri County for a given measure of change in participation in conflict resolution. The regression equation for the public boys' boarding secondary schools was as follows:

$Y = 0.238+0.816X_{1.}$

Where Y = school management, X_1=conflict resolution and 0.238 is a constant.

The 0.816 is an estimate of the expected increase in management of public boys' boarding secondary schools in response to a unit increase in participation of student councils in conflict resolution in boys' boarding secondary schools. The regression coefficient of 0.238 which is a constant indicates the value of school management when participation of student council in conflict resolution in public boys' boarding secondary schools is at zero while a unit increase in participation of student councils in conflict resolution in boys' schools leads to a 0.816 increase in the management of public boys' boarding secondary schools. On the basis of these findings it is concluded that participation of student councils in conflict resolution influence significantly the prediction of the management in public boys' boarding secondary schools. For a given measure of changes in the participation of girls in public boarding secondary schools in conflict resolution:

$Y= 0.227 +0.887X_1$

Where Y = school management; X_1=conflict Resolution; 0.227= Constant.

The 0.887 is an estimate of the expected increase in management of public boys boarding secondary schools in response to a unit increase in participation of student councils in conflict resolution. The regression coefficient of 0.227 which is a constant indicate the value of management of public boys and girls' secondary schools when participation of student councils in conflict resolution is at zero, a unit increase in participation of student conflict resolution would lead to 0.887 increase in management of public girls' boarding secondary schools. On the basis of these findings it is concluded that participation of student councils in conflict resolution influence significantly to the prediction of management of public girls' boarding secondary schools.

The results also indicate that the participation of student councils in conflict resolution had a statistically significant influence on management of public boarding secondary schools as they accounted for 64.3% of the variation in management (R^2=0.643). F- Test statistic was used to assess overall significance of the simple regression model. It was found that the regression equation was statistically significant at 5% significance level (F=641.56, P-value=0.000<0.05).

A t-test statistic was used to determine individual significance of the influence. The study revealed that the participation of student councils in conflict resolution is statistically significant (regression coefficient=0.855; t-value=25.329; P-value=0.000<0.05). This implies that the participation of student councils in conflict resolution enhances management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools. The hypothesis that there is no statistical significant influence of participation of student councils in conflict resolution on management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools is not supported by the current study. The following regression equation was used to estimate the significance of management of public boys and girls boarding secondary schools in Nyeri County for a given measure of changes in the participation of student councils in conflict resolution:

$Y=0.238+0.855X_1$

Where Y = School Management; X_1 = Conflict Resolution; 0.238 = constant

0.855 is an estimate of the expected increase in management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools in response to a unit increase in participation of student councils in conflict resolution. The regression coefficient of 0.238 under constant indicates the value of management when participation of student councils in conflict resolution is at zero while a unit increase in participation of student councils in conflict resolution would lead to a 0.855 increase in management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools. On the basis of these findings, the researcher concluded that participation of student councils in conflict

resolution contribute significantly to the prediction of management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools. This finding is in harmony with a study by Woods and Cribs (2001) who found that student councils' participation in conflict resolution gives students opportunities to dialogue on specific issues of conflict with students, teachers and school management and where a consensus was reached peace prevailed in the school. That is in agreement with study conducted by Gebretensay (2002) in Ethiopia that established that the major conflict handling styles when dealing with students were competing, avoiding, collaborating, compromising, accommodating and mediation. The study recommended that all issues of conflict should be attended before they escalate to out of control.

Similar studies by Duma (2011), reveals that the student councils are important agents of the school conflict management with teachers and administrators as responsive active partners who have influence on school governance. However studies by Mabena (2002) established that where student councils fail to make significant contribution in conflict resolution in schools, there lies an attitude educators' display towards students. That also concurs with studies conducted in Britain that established that student conflict resolution councils had helped eliminate that student conflict associated with bullying in England (Botti, 2010). Contributing to conflict resolution in secondary schools a study by Otegbulu (2014) established that conflict portends negative outcomes for the teachers and students. Therefore imperative and appropriate conflict resolution mechanisms have been created in secondary schools so that conflicts are resolved before they escalate into dangerous and destructive levels among the students and teachers. Similar studies by Giulia (2010), established that mediation based on the idea of peer counseling and active listening make students talk about conflicts and their solutions in secondary school. The study also found out that peer mediation is a preventive method that solves smaller conflicts issues before they escalate into serious ones.

Correlation Analysis for Participation in Schools Management

In order to assess the relationships among the independent variable and dependent variable a Pearson's Product Moment Correlation (r) analysis was conducted. Results of the analysis are presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Correlation Analysis for Variables of Study

Variable of study		School Management	Conflict Resolution
School Management	Pearson Correlation	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		
	N	358	
Conflict Resolution	Pearson Correlation	.802**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.000**	
	N	358	358

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 7 show the results of statistically significantly correlation of participation of student council in conflict resolution and management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools which were r=0.802; P=0.000<0.05. The result suggests that conflict resolution is also a major determinant of the management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools.

Conclusion

Participation of student council in conflicts resolution had statistically significant influence on management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools. The study concluded that

a unit increase in participation of student councils in conflict resolution improved in school management by a factor of 0.887. Therefore, participation of student council in conflict resolution enhances the management of public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools.

Recommendation

Since participation of student council in conflict resolution enhancing school management in public boys' and girls' secondary schools, the study recommended that there is need to enhance guidance and counselling among students, organize forums to train student councils on conflict resolution strategies and promote moral behaviour and characters in order to be trusted in resolving conflicts among students

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Comprehensive sex education in Kenya: Islamic perspective

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Abstract

This paper is an attempt to address the Comprehensive sex education debate in Kenya curriculum from a religious perspective. This is tackled from the Islamic perspective. The discussion is premised on the current debate in the country on sex education and the rejection of faith based organizations especially in its implementation in schools based on religious persuasions and reasons. The fundamental questions addressed in this paper are:

(1) What are the sexual values addressed by Islamic sharia

(2) What are the sexual lessons permitted by Islam?

(3) What are sexual behavior currently observed among Muslim students?

(4) To which extent does Islam allow teaching of sex education?

(5) What are causes and solutions to teen pregnancies in Kenya?

Sex education in Islam is paradoxical: on the one hand, Islam allows for it and actually calls for students to exercise their sexuality but, on the other hand, there seems to be discrimination between male and female sexuality due to a misinterpretation of the scriptures. It seems like

boys are given more rights with regard to the expression of their sexuality. The combination of these contradictory views with the current trends on teenage pregnancy leads to an inquiry of the Islamic perspective on sexual education.

***Keywords**: Comprehensive sex education, reproductive health, jurisprudence, Islamic sharia*

Introduction

The debate on sex education in Kenya has been ongoing for the past five years. This debate was thrust into the limelight by Senator Judith Achieng Sijeny through her presentation of a reproductive health care bill in the senate. This bill sought to have adolescents given comprehensive sexual education and confidential services in matters of reproductive health. The bill did not sail through the senate as many of the legislators termed it an attempt to "spoil" children. The then Education Cabinet Secretary Prof. Jacob Kaimenyi said that his ministry would not allow for "introduction of immorality" in schools. Religious bodies as well chimed in and were in the front line rejecting the introduction of sex education in schools. Many of the religious leaders argued that introduction of sex education would open up children to promiscuity, moral decadence and flouting religious guidelines which in turn affects their religiosity. Some people even claimed that this should be rejected as it is un-african.

Nonetheless, the reality on the ground is that even though the young ones are denied sexual education in schools they are already engaging in it. This is evidenced by the high number of pregnancy cases witnessed towards the end of 2018 as the students sat for their national examinations. Many were either pregnant or had recently given birth, while in some cases across the country, young girls had to sit for their examinations in maternity wards. This occurrence therefore calls for a sober re-examination on the whole issue of sex education. It should be noted that issues of sex education and teenage or adolescent engagement in sexual matters is not unique to Kenya. This has happened and even continues to happen in other countries within and without the continent. What is key however, is the manner in which this is approached and handled. Religions here play a key role. This is because religions are the major mobilizing and rallying institutions for many Kenyans. Religions through the religious leaders play a key role in the country and have an unmatched ability to rally masses in any social or cultural issue. Religious leadrs are the voice and conscience of many people in Kenya and therefore it is mperative that their doctrines and teachings on sex be examined and discussed. Thus, this paper addresses this emotive subject from the Islamic point of view.

Sexual values addressed by Islamic sharia

Islam teaches that sex is a form of worship as the Prophet (PBUH) said, "When one of you have sex with your wife, it is a rewarded act of charity." The Companions were surprised and said, "But we do it purely out of our desire. How can it be counted as charity?" The Prophet replied, "If you had done it with a forbidden woman, it would have been counted as a sin, but if you do it in legitimacy, it is counted as charity."(Hadith). It should be noted here that, Islam though esteemed is only permitted within wedlock or the institution of marriage. Sex within marriage is seen as a pleasurable form of worship that is highly rewarded by Allah.

To appreciate sex as a form of worship, believers are supposed to learn Sexual Health. Islam jurisprudence teaches that sexual health comprises of physical, emotional, mental and social well-being in relation to sexuality. A Muslim is supposed to maintain good sexual health to avoid divorce because failure in physical health is among the reasons that may lead to divorce in Islam. Male dysfunction, according to Islamic jurists leads to divorce. Therefore, Sexual health requires a positive approach to sexuality. Islamic teachings guide that couples must

practice safe sex for both to enjoy the act. This should be free from coercion and violence as Allah SWT and His Prophet taught.

The man in the Islamic account is perceived as a brother to the woman and the woman is the other half of the pair. The Messenger (blessings and peace be upon him) says, "Women are the sisters of men." [Narrated on the authority of Mother of Believers Aisha by Imam Ahmad (6/256); Abu Dawud (236); Al-Tirmithy (113) and others. The Qur'an, on its part, treats this issue of fraternal equality from more than one perspective. On a purely religious level for instance, the Qur'an says: "Verily, the Muslims (those who submit to Allah in Islam) men and women, the believers men and women (who believe in Islamic Monotheism), the men and the women who are obedient (to Allah), the men and women who are truthful (in their speech and deeds), the men and the women who are patient (in performing all the duties which Allah has ordered and in abstaining from all that Allah has forbidden), the men and the women who are humble (before their Lord -Allah), the men and the women who give Sadaqat, (i.e. Zakat, and alms, etc.), the men and the women who fast (the obligatory fasting during the month of Ramadan and the optional Nawafil fasting), the men and women who guard their chastity (from illegal sexual acts) and the men and women who remember Allah much with their hearts and tongues (while sitting, standing, lying, etc. for more than 300 times extra over the remembrance of Allah during the five compulsory congregational prayers or praying extra additional Nawafil prayers of night in the last part of night etc.) Allah has prepared for them forgiveness and a great reward (i.e. Paradise) (Qur'an 33:35). This infers that men should treat tier wives as they would a sister who is very close and dear to them. This calls for handling them in a way that the men would want to be handled or how they would want those near and dear to them to be handled.

The holy Qur'an establishes socio-economic and spiritual equality by maintaining: "The believers, men and women, are "Awliy," (helpers, supporters, friends, protectors) of one another, they enjoin (on the people) Al-Ma`ruf (i.e. Islamic Monotheism and all that Islam orders one to do);and forbid (people) from Al-Munkar (i.e. polytheism and disbelief of all kinds, and all that Islam has forbidden); they offer their prayers perfectly (Iqamat-as-Salat), and give the Zakat and obey Allah and His Messenger. Allah will have mercy on them. (Qur'an 9:71). Thus, here we find that in Islam equality of the genders is emphasized as a co-dependency. The husband and wife here thus regard each other as a companion, a helper and a key support of the other. The man, naturally has the duty of protecting the woman physically. In return the woman offers the man spiritual protection through prayers and service that complements the man.

In Islamic jurisprudence men are taught how to approach their spouses based on the Hadith of Prophet Muhammad (PBUH) "Let not one of you fall upon his wife like a beast falls. It is more appropriate to send a message before the act." This hadith espouses that spouses should prepare each other in good time before approaching them for sex. Some Muslim scholars advice that spouses should have certain signs signaling for the desire to engage or commence the sexual act. Among the Swahili of the East African coast,if a wife puts rose flowers or jasmine on the bed, it is a signal to the man that she is need of her conjugal rights. The same message can also be passed through putting a *Leso* with a love message on the bed. The man then needs to act upon this and please his wife.

Nonetheless, sexual issues between spouses should be treated in confidentiality as the Prophet PBUH) taught, "Do not divulge the secrets of your sex life with your wife to another person nor describe her physical feature to anyone."

What are the sexual lessons permitted by Islam

The basis of sexual lessons are enshrined in the Holy Qur'an where Allah SWT says "O mankind! Be dutiful to your Lord, Who created you from a single person (Adam) and from him (Adam) He created his wife (Eve), and from them both He created many men and women and fear Allah through Whom you demand your mutual (rights), and (do not cut the relations of) the wombs (kinship). Surely, Allah is Ever an All-Watcher over you. " [Surah 4:1]

This verse teaches that human beings (men and women) were created by Allah from a single soul or self. This self is a nucleus from which Allah created its companion i.e., wife to complete the creation of human being. Thus no human being is complete without the other. The verse refers to Adam and his wife Eve. Allah states that He created Eve for Adam in order that he enjoy the pleasure of living with her." [Surah 7:189] from this point in history Allah, blessed the two and scattered the multitudes of men and women of different races and color across the globe. All of them worshipped one God. They were all children of the same parents. This indicates that they are all united in a fraternity, embracing each other as brother and sister. It is Because of this that the Qur'an commands human beings to fear Allah as their Lord, appreciate Him as their Creator and be heedful to His teachings. The Quran also teaches respect of the duties towards parents and observing respect for the womb respect as a symbolic of human bond. This verse when observed keenly is the foundation of sex education. However, it is to be explained and expounded depending on age and mental capacity of the recipient.

Islam is a way of life which calls for education throughout one's life. However, education must be based on age Appropriateness. When we talk of Comprehensive Sexuality Education (CSE), whoever teaches should be cognizant of age of the students at different levels. Sexual education, like any other education provides opportunities to learners to explore their own value and attitude. It also helps in building learners' decision-making capacity as well as enhance respective appropriate communication skills. When this is achieved, risk as a result of sexual activity is reduced in a big way in all aspects of sexuality

Islam respects culture and appreciate is as a way of life for particular people. As long as culture does not contradict sharia principles then it is embraced. Otherwise some amendments have to be made to omit the contradiction. Therefore Islam permits sex education as long as it is culturally relevant. Nonetheless, the approach to teach children of different cultures should be customized in order to have the interests of the cultures brought on board.

What are sexual behavior currently observed among Muslim students?

Among the prevalent sexual behavior observed among Muslim students is legitimate mixing between boys and girls. In Islam socializing freely between boys and girls is prohibited unless there is a guide like a teacher or parent who observes that the fraternization is in accordance with the shariah. Currently the youth socialize freely terming it as "mingling." During the era of the Prophet (blessings and peace he upon him), the era of the companions who succeeded the prophet (PBUH), and the era of their followers, Muslim men and women met at different occasions, religious or otherwise, to discuss various issues affecting them. This was recommended by Prophet Muhammad(PBUH). The socialization of human beings which is natural is not prohibited in Islam, the only guidance given is the manner in which those gathering should conduct themselves.

In the contemporary society mingling has become very common. It is however important to mention that socialization is among the recommended activities in Islam. The religion only prohibits the kind of mingling that might lead to sin.

In meeting between boys and girls, as discussed in the second volume of *Contemporary Legal Opinions* (Fataawa Mu'aserah), the author states that greeting women, handshaking women, and the treatment of women by male doctors as matters that need a lot of sensitization. This is especially in those areas where Islam is a prevalent religion and it is advisable for one to adhere to the best guidance as given by Prophet Mohammed (PBUH), his righteous caliphs and educated companions as advocated for by the prophet (PBUH). Doing this assists in avoiding being trapped between the two extreme paths of western leniency and severe eastern asceticism.

Observance of the guidance of the Prophet (PBUH), reveals that women are not incarcerated or isolated. Similarly, this does not occur during the era of the caliphs after the death of the prophet (PBUH). Women attended major Islamic events and congregational prayers on Fridays at the Prophet's masjid. They also they prayed the night salat (Al-Esha)as well as dawn (Al-Fajr) prayers. The only guidance the Prophet (PBUH) gave was that the women were to form salat rows behind the men. This was to avoid physical mingling after prayers. This was also as a precautionary measure so that both men and women would not see the sensitive (sexualized) parts of the other. It should be noted that, when the prophet gave this directions, underwear and trousers were not common form of attire. In addition, the mosque did not have a partition between the men and women prayer halls. Moreover, during that era men and women used on entrance to the mosque, hence crowding would occur. In one instance upon seeing the crowding of men and women at the entrance, the Prophet (PBUH) said, "If only we left this entrance to the women". [Transmitted by Abu Dawud on the authority of Ibn Umar (462) (463). After this a separate entrance for women to the mosque was allocated and aptly named the "woman's Entrance." During the Friday congregation, women attended prayers behind the Prophet and listened to the sermon to an extent that some of them memorized entire sermons which they later shared with their children at home. Um`Ateyya, a prominent woman companion during the Prophet's era, said, "We were frequently instructed to go out for the Bairams."

In another account, Um`Ateyya stated, "The Messenger of Allah (PBUH) instructed us, the house helps, and the ones menstruating to go out and gather with others. The menstruating women would stay away from prayer and witness the joy (of the day) and Muslim's prayer (to Allah). So I said, `O the Prophet of Allah, there may be one of us who does not have a *Jilbaab* (dress)." He replied, `Let her sister (in Islam) give her one. [Sahih Muslim "The Prayers of the Two Eids" (890).] Analyzing the above hadith, we realize that some Muslim communities ignore women in their countries by misinterpreting the Quran and thereby misrepresenting Islam.

Other behaviors observed among some Muslim girls is nude dressing. This is proscribed in Islam as it is seen as demeaning the woman. We learn that women always attended the learning sessions of the Prophet (PBUH). During these sessions they would dress modestly. They would address Aisha with the questions they found uncomfortable or too bold to ask themselves directly to the Prophet. The Prophet's wife, Aisha (R.A), praised the women of the supporters whose shyness did not prevent them from seeking knowledge of Islam and asking questions about major issues such as impurity, complete sex or ejaculation which prevented one from performing some forms of worship, bathing from impurity, menstruation and other such matters. When women realized that they need ample time with the prophet, they demanded a special day of teaching especially for them. They said openly, "Oh Prophet of Allah, the men have taken complete possession of your company, so devote one of your days to us." The Prophet (PBUH) promised to give them a day during which he preached and gave them instruction. [Transmitted by Bukhaari in The World (Al-Alam) 1/34 on the authority of Abu Said.]. Um `Ateyya says, "I went on seven military expeditions with the Prophet (PBUH); I

would guard the fighters, provisions, make their food, treat the injured and nurse the ill ones". [Transmitted by Muslim (1812).]

Another sexual behavior witnessed today is open seduction among the youth without care or fear. When one examines the Qur'an's discourse on women affairs, especially during the era of the prophets we find that women were highly respected and men strived to avoid sin. A good example is Moses. When he met Aaron's daughters who were suffering, he asked them some questions. He got their answers without any particular feeling of guilt or embarrassment. In the end he assisted them. One of them even suggests to her father to hire Moses, describing him as a strong and honest man. This is how the Qur'an puts it: "And when he arrived at the water of Midian (Madyan) he found there a group of men watering (their flocks), and beside them he found two women who were keeping back (their flocks). He said, "What is the matter with you?" They said, "We cannot water (our flocks) until the shepherds take (their flocks). And our father is a very old man." So he watered (their flocks) for them, then he returned back to shade, and said: "My Lord? Truly, lam in need of whatever good you bestow upon me!" Then there came to him one of the two women, walking shyly. She said: "Verily, my father calls you that he may reward you for having watered (our flocks) for us." So when he came to him and narrated the story, he said: "Fear you not. You have escaped from the people who are Zalimun (polytheists, disbelievers, and wrongdoers)." And said one of them (the two women): "O my father! Hire him! Verily, the best of men for you to hire is the strong, the trustworthy. [Surah 28:23- 26] This is the kind of behavior that Islam espouses the young ones to embrace. They should always be ready to assist the other gender without intention of receiving payment or a form of reward in return for their service.

To what extent does Islam allow teaching of sex education

Islam permits teachings on Reproductive Health. These lessons are found both in the Qur'an and hadith. In reproductive health learners are supposed to be taught their body parts and their functions. Students are also taught in madrassas in jurisprudence books their state of complete physical body. They are also instructed on how to preserve their mental health through *dhikr* (remembrance of Allah at all times) as well as how to take care of their social well-being. In Islam social wellbeing is not only being physically healthy, it also includes one being fine in all aspects of life which include social, economic and spiritual well-being. The prophet Muhammad (PBUH) used to emphasize on Muslim youth marrying in his famous hadith in *sahiih Bukhaari* where he always mentioned" Oh Youth…. whoever of you who is capable…" the word capable here means all matters relating to the reproductive health as well as system, its functions and processes.

Children are a trust of Allah on parents. It is therefore the responsibility of parents to make sure that their children live the best life as was narrated from 'Abdullah ibn 'Umar who said: I heard the Messenger of Allah (PBUH) said:

"Each of you is a shepherd and each of you is responsible for his flock. The ruler is a shepherd and is responsible for his flock. A man is the shepherd of his household and is responsible for his flock. A woman is the shepherd of her husband's house and is responsible for her flock." Narrated by al-Bukhaari (853) and Muslim (1829)

Part of the responsibility that parents have towards their children is protecting them from everything that may lead to corruption or have a negative impact on their morality. Teaching children morality from covering the '*awrah*, controlling the gaze and seeking permission before entering designated private spaces, begins from an early age. When they attain puberty or reach the age of discernment, the boys and girls have and sleep in separate bedrooms. This is as per Allah (SWT) revelation "O you who believe! Let your legal slaves and slave-girls, and

those among you who have not come to the age of puberty ask your permission (before they come to your presence) on three occasions; before *Fajr* (morning) prayer, and while you put off your clothes for the noonday (rest), and after the *Isha* (late-night) prayer. These three times are of privacy for you, other than these times there is no sin on you or on them to move about, attending (helping) you each other. Thus Allah makes clear the *Ayat* (the verses of Quran, showing proofs for the legal aspects of permission for visits, etc.) to you. And Allah is All-Knowing, All-Wise" [an-Noor 24:58].

Imam Ibn Katheer (R.A) explained that in this verse Allah (SWT) instructs the believers that their servants and slaves, and their children who have not yet reached the age of puberty, should ask permission before entering rooms in three situations, the first of which is before *Fajr* prayer, because at that time people are usually sleeping in their beds. "And while you put off your clothes for the noonday (rest)" that is, at the time of siesta or midday nap, because a person may take off his clothes at that time with his wife. "And after the *Isha* (late-night) prayer" because this is the time of sleep. The reason why children should not be allowed to enter rooms at these times is for fear that the parents may be in an intimate situation or may be sleeping naked due to heat. Taser Ibn Katheer (6/82)

When children reach the age of puberty, they are obliged to seek permission before entering their parents bedrooms at all times, as Allah instructed, "And when the children among you come to puberty, then let them (also) ask for permission, as those senior to them (in age). Thus Allah makes clear His *Ayat* (Commandments and legal obligations) for you. And Allah is All-Knowing, All-Wise" [an-Noor 24:52]

In Islam children undergo basic training from birth to seven years, after which serious teaching and instruction begins as was narrated from 'Amr ibn Shu'ayb, from his father, that his grandfather said: The Messenger of Allah (PBUH) said: "Instruct your children to pray when they are seven years old, and smack them if they do not do it when they are ten years old, and separate them in their beds." Narrated by Abu Dawood (495). Separating the children in the beds when they reach the age of puberty is a precaution against provocation of desire, even among siblings.

Following these verses it is clear that when children reach puberty they should be taught the signs of puberty and be sensitized on the physical characteristics which distinguish men from women, as well as the types of discharge that may be secreted from their sexual organs. They should also be taught the rules of ablution' and *ghusl*, paying attention to the phrases used in teaching and ensuring that it is taught according to what the child needs to know. Both boys and girls are taught what their *awrah* is and that it is private, and that it should be covered from non *mahram*(non relatives who can marry them) . This is aimed at instilling in them chastity and modesty which will safeguard them from transgressing against Allah's commands.

Majority of the Muslim scholars argue that comprehensive sex education touching on intercourse, should be taught at an appropriate age when marriage is approaching. Many state from age nine or when children are mature enough to comprehend issues of *fiqh*, such as the rulings on *zina* (fornication or adultery) and the like, which have to do with intercourse and '*awrahs*.

The jurisprudence scholars also argue that basic knowledge on natural and instinctive nature is what children should be taught gradually, in accordance with the stages of their development, as taught by *fiqh*. The scholars advice that the words and phrases we use,should be modest and attention must be paid to the appropriate ages and stages of human development.Allah teaches that "And of everything We have created pairs, that you may

remember". [Surah 51:49] It is therefore upon teachers to teach students about the pairs and what the pairs entail.

Islam as per this verse teaches that there is no healthy gender existence without the other. This is why when Allah created our father Adam as the first human soul, He also created for him, our mother Eve to be his counterpart, so as to accompany each other in the journey of life and find peace in each other . After creating Eve Allah advised both, “Dwell you and your wife in the paradise and both of you freely with pleasure and delight of things therein as wherever you will, but come not near this tree or you both will be of the *Zalimun* (wrongdoers)". [Surah 2:35]

These lessons are taught to students in madrassa on daily basis all over the world. We therefore find sex education in madrassa. This approach is what might be triggering the debate on comprehensive sex education. Men and women complete each other. Indicating that none of them is complete without the other as the Qur'an emphasizes that difference: " And the male is not like the female." [Surah 3:36] They are as unlike as earth and heaven which highly complement each other without which the world would not be in existence. No gender is higher in rank than the other in creation as Allah says, : "you are from one another" [Surah 4:25] , "And Allah has given you wives of your own kind". [Surah 4:25]

In Allah's wisdom both male and female have physical and psychological construction which some are alike, while others are different. Both have elements that attract each other like a magnet. Though females have more of those elements which attract men, the ultimate reason for women attraction is Allah's wisdom to equip her with a natural desire and a strong passion that leads to their attraction which leads to communion for life to continue and generations to be brought forth.

Islam allows women to be taught sex education by female teachers not male. This is because Islam from onset set religious codes for both men and women on how they should relate and interact with each other as well other relevant codes, instructions and rules pertaining human life. The woman is to safeguard her femininity and acknowledge her respect. Allah (SWT) as per His wisdom created a barrier between men and women to protect women from predators who are out there to ‘enjoy’ their bodies then dump them. Some of the teachings of Islam on how men and women should relate are as follows:

Islam protects femininity to maintain the stream of tenderness and beauty running to remain in women. For this reason, there are things forbidden for men and permissible to women. For example women are allowed to wear gold and pure silk while it is prohibited for men as we find in this hadith , "These two (substances) are prohibited for the men of my nation and allowed for its women". [Transmitted by Ibn Majah on the authority of Ali (3595), Hadith Sahih.]

Women on their part are prohibited from putting on things that go against their femininity, such as men's wear, adopting movement and behavior which is masculine in nature. No gender is to wear the garment of the other The Prophet (PBUH) says: "Allah condemns the man who dresses like a woman and the woman who dresses like a man". [Transmitted by Abu Huraira, Abu Dawud (4098); and Ahmad 2/325; and Ibn Hibban (1904); and others.] For men to behave like women and women to behave like men is equally condemned by Allah. Again the Prophet (PBUH) taught, "Three (kinds of people) will not enter Paradise and will not enjoy Allah's gaze upon them on the Day of Judgment : a son who is disobedient to his parents, a mannish woman and an adulterer. [Transmitted by Ahmad lbn Umar and approved by Sheikh Shaker as Sahih (1680); and Al-Nisa'i 5/80; and Al-Hakim 1/72 and others.]

Islam supports the female in view of her relative weakness in some issues. It places some of her interest in men to support her. An example is in securing the costs of living and the provision for their needs especially in communities where women are restricted by nature and environment to work, as well as circumstances like after giving birth where she needs time to rest and recuperate. In this situation, her guardian, father, husband, son or brother are all obliged to look after her needs as an obligation under the Sharia. No basic need should constrain her from appreciating life.

Islam protects the female's morals and decency. It guards her reputation and dignity. It defends her chastity against evil beings who misuse their thoughts and tongues trying to misuse her to harm her. In order to achieve these, the Qur'an teaches women to lower their eyes and preserve chastity and purity. As Allah states, "And tell the believing women to lower their gaze (from looking at forbidden things), and protect their private parts (from illegal sexual acts etc.)". [Surah 24:31]

Islam teaches women to maintain a decent, unrevealing manner of dress and ornamentation. This is not intended to oppress her but protect her. Allah says, "and not to show off their adornment except that which is apparent and to draw their veils all over *Juyubihinna* (i.e,. their bodies, faces, necks, and bosoms, etc.) " [Surah 24:31] The visible or apparent ornament that the verse refers to has been interpreted to be inclusive of *kohl*, the finger ring, the face, the two hands and, some exegetes and jurisprudents establish, the two feet. [During the time of the Prophet (PBUH), it was customary for some women to cover their face. The flexibility of Islam allows the woman the option of covering her face or not. The woman is to cover the other attractions that do not show, such as the hair, neck and throat, arms and legs, from all people except her husband, and her consanguineous, non-marriageable relations or *mahrim* [Those persons whom the woman is forbidden to marry because of the proximity of the relation such as brothers, uncles etc, whom she finds it hard to hide these from. "and not to reveal their adornment except to their husbands, fathers, their husband`s fathers, their sons, their husband's sons, their brothers or their brother's sons, or their sister's sons or their (Muslim) women (i.e. their sisters in Islam), or the (female) slaves whom their right hands possess, or old male servants who lack vigor, or small children who have no sense of the shame of sex". [Surah 24:31]

What are causes and solutions to teen pregnancies in Kenya?

In response to this question, we conducted a research commissioned by Muslim education council (MEC) on Causes of Teenage Pregnancy at pumwani area of majengo Nairobi county Kenya**.**

The responses we got include:
poverty
broken home
separation of couples
single parent
death
peer pressure
Influence
Lust
religious beliefs
rape and
sexual abuse
alcoholism and drug abuse
lack of knowledge

environmental influence and
Pornography.
absence of chaplaincy services in schools

Poverty – This refers to the state of being poor. This often leaves many young girls vulnerable and at the mercy of those who provide for them. In an interview at Pumwani hospital, a pregnant teenager said her parents could not provide her basic needs like food, clothes and learning materials. She therefore used to visit a male classmate to study with him and also take some of his books home. They liked each other more and by the time she realized they were in a serious relationship that later led to her pregnancy. Others interviewed stated that their parents pushed them into commercial sex work so as to bring home an income, while others were lured by rich men using money, and the end result was pregnancy.

Broken Home - refers to a family that either lacks parental guidance due to their absence or lack of control due to influence of drugs like *khat* and alcohol. It may also refer to a home where the parents are not staying together either by divorce or separation or death of one of them. Teenagers in such a homes suffer a lot, there is no or little parental love and affection. There is also no parental control and the girl may therefore be preyed upon by school mates or some irresponsible men leading to pregnancy.

Separation of couples - is when couples are separated due to marital problems or one works in a different town. In Pumwani there are many of such cases. Some parents disappeared as it is documented and therefore their whereabouts is unknown. Some get jobs in Middle East and only come back after two years. Separation is very dangerous because naïve girls may be lured to engage in premature sex. Some of the girls also take advantage of this and get entangled in premarital sex. Some play the parents against each other by claiming she is visiting the other parent when in real sense she is not. Some take advantage of the fact that the parents are not in communication due to marital differences. In the end she goes to her boyfriend and the end result if teenage pregnancy.

Single parent – is when one of the parents is only taking care of the children due to death, or separation, or divorce. There are many single parents in Pumwani. Some of the girls therefore take advantage of the parents being away for most of the time and spent time with boyfriend(s) and at the end may get pregnant. The parents, mainly women, are out eking a living to make ends meet.

Death – some teenagers are orphaned at a very early age and therefore lack adults as a role models and guides. Thus due to lack of parental control and guidance end up in illicit relationships that lead to pre-marital pregnancies.

Peer pressure or influence – those teenagers who get pregnant in their teens in Pumwani its due to peer influence. Most young teenagers who are in boy – girl relationship laugh at their peers who are not making them view themselves as 'back ward'.

Lust – some teenagers get into sexual relationships because of lust. In adolescent stages both males and females go through some psychological and physical sexual feelings and may put into reality or act on it. This often results in teenage pregnancy.

Religious beliefs and practices – it is a practice among some Muslims to allow teenage marriage. They claim that Islamic jurisprudence allows a girl from as young as 9 yrs to marry. They believe in early marriage and some parents do not even allow their girl children to have formal education.

Rape and sexual abuse – some teenagers get pregnant as a result of rape or may be sexually abused by some of the people within the society including teachers, or an elderly person.

Alcoholism and drug abuse – many students are fond of taking alcohol and hard drugs. There is a saying that the devil finds work for an idle hand, these alcoholics and drug addicts end up indulging in casual sex which then leads to teenage pregnancy.

Lack of knowledge or ignorance – many young girls lack knowledge in matters of sex. Thus many end up in relationships with little or no knowledge on how to manage their sexuality. These end up pregnant and are clueless of what happened. This is especially the case with those who are uneducated.

Environmental influence – this refers to the social norms and values in the community. In some communities, the moment the girl child gets her first menstruation, she can get married. Sometimes too it is normal for a teenager to get pregnant in the community because the parents and grandparents were once the same. In Pumwani due to Gikomba market there are many visitors on a daily basis who prey on Pumwani girls. Those from poor families and broken families reported having sex before 18.

Pornography – pornographic videos and photos easily available to the young ones on the internet, magazines, newspapers, books, and other media lure teenagers into indiscriminate sex and may lead to teenage pregnancy. In Pumwani there are many video places where youth go to watch movies, football and other shows. This is where many boys especially learn bad behaviours which lead them to lure the girls into sex

absence of chaplaincy services in schools- Absence of chaplaincy services in schools is seen to have dealt a major blow to our children's morals. Majority of the teenage pregnancies occur in schools which do not have chaplains. Many of the causes of teenage pregnancies and teenage immorality can be solved by having chaplains in schools. For example, fatherless children can take chaplains as their father figures. Children from leaderless families can also be constantly assisted by a chaplains.

*Effects or Consequences***:**

The research by MEC team found out that teenage pregnancy has an adverse effects and consequences on the individual or victim, family, and the society as a whole. The following are some of the effects or consequences: school dropout, fatherless children, street children, armed robbery, dependency burden, death, increase of economic hardship, spread of diseases, abortion, and family conflicts.

School dropout – many teenagers who get pregnant are not able to complete their education. Furthermore, in most cases when they get pregnant they are forced out of their homes. They either go to those men who are responsible for the pregnancies, but in many instances they become prostitutes or 'waziba' the term used in Pumwani to refer to prostitutes.

Fatherless children - many children born by teenage mothers do not know their biological fathers because the men responsible deny responsibility. These children are marginalized by the community leading to stigma which they live with for their entire life.

Street children – some children born by teenage mothers end up being street children. This happens because; the teenage parent(s) may not take proper care or cannot afford to provide for the children.

Armed robbery – the study found out that many armed robbers were born by teenage parent(s) and single parents. This is due to lack of father figure. Some of the street children grew up to become armed robbers.

Death – some teenagers do not survive. Some decide to deliver at home. In some instances, they succumb to excessive bleeding and die.

Spread of diseases – teenage mothers or parents usually spread sexual transmitted diseases (STD). When the relationship starts, the guy may have indiscriminate sex likewise the girl hence increase in spread of STDs may occur.

Abortion – teenage girls usually makes the attempt to abort their babies. Abortion is not accepted in many nations and also immoral according to the Qur'an. The effects of abortion are childlessness in future, death, deformities of the teenager or the baby etc.

Family conflicts – usually teenage pregnancy results in conflicts between the girl's parents and the guy or boy's parents. This may due to tribal issues, finances, religious beliefs, etc.

Solutions to the causes is Prevention and Control of teenage pregnancy

The community should engage its members in in preventing teenage pregnancy by all means and offer counseling where necessary. There should be holiday workshops for teenagers during school holidays where they offer them sex education

Providing community outreach program, and other social interventions like visiting schools to talk to teens on how to protect themselves will be a big solution.

Education partners should offer Spiritual ***counselling*** to teens and their parents.

Our curriculum should produce studying materials geared towards guiding the young ones on how to protect themselves and being productive citizens.

MoE should enhance Adult ***education*** to parents and guardians of school going children. Through its County education boards representatives they should seek to play a role in offering advice and lectures to parents on the importance of their children education and future.

MoE should conduct ***Community outreach programs*** where known influential leaders should visit mosques, media with an aim of addressing teenage pregnancy

MoE should begin a program where all ***School dropout*** will be encouraged to go back to school and acquire necessary qualifications to make them employable hence solve poverty challenge among the youth. It should also target teenagers who get pregnant and not able to complete their education and assist them complete education.

The entire community should stop discrimination of ***Fatherless children*** for they were not part of the sin. Nonetheless the government should seek to establish the biological fathers of these children and order them to take responsibility of their deeds.

On *Street children, the county government should collaborate with partners and solving the menace of* street children.

On robbery, the GoK should partner with all stakeholders in rehabilitating some identified robbers who in turn can be utilized as detectives and investigators as well as counselors in their respective fields.

On Family conflicts, GoK should to set up conflict resolution centers in the counties where children suffering from the same, will report and get necessary assistance which involve counseling the parents

Recommendations

The government has opened the first children rights investigation center at CID training school this is commendable. Establishing 47 more branches in all the 47 counties will be a great achievement in curbing teenage pregnancies

Government administrators throughout the nation should work hand in hand with schools and other partners in bringing all sex offenders to book

The government through MoE should conduct annual symposium for schools, colleges and universities where they address teenage pregnancy and collect data on cases available

The government should deploy chaplains in all schools across the nation. The chaplains should be mandated to address all issues related to youth in collaboration with teachers, parents and all education stakeholders.

Parents should resume their duties of parenting and stop delegating that responsibility to anyone because they are the best education foundation for their children.

Conclusion

Sex education is a subject that can no longer be pushed under the carpet. Its implementation is long overdue given the rise in teenage pregnancies as reported in the media. The parents, who traditionally were mandated to undertake this task no longer do so as they are very busy trying to make ends meet. Religions on the other hand are not taking the task upon themselves. When it is done, it is shrouded in mystery and lots of "sanitization" so as to fit the religious outfit yet the repercussions are visible to all. As a country we are losing many young people through illicit abortions procured in backstreet alleys and bogus clinics. These deaths can be prevented if the young people are given comprehensive sexual education. The children need not get conflicting messages and wrong advice from social media platforms. As a country we are capable of coming up with age-appropriate sexual education that takes cognizance of the various religious ethics.

It is time for us to get our heads out of the sand and catch the bull by the horns. It should be noted that restrictive sexual education has gained a lot of mileage and become idealized as a result of the rejection of the Comprehensive sex education by faith based organizations. Currently, religion is no longer the only point of reference which provides guidance concerning sexual practices. There exists policies on sexual laws which in their own merit influence this field. This calls for a reform of societal norms through the reinterpretation of holy texts, which in this case is the Islamic text.

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Good Governance Practices And Promotion Of Child Friendly Schools Model

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Abstract

The aim of this paper was to explore how good governance practices by school boards of management can promote the achievement of the components of child friendly (CFS) model in primary schools in lower zones of Embu County. Child Friendly (CFS) model adopts its own governance or leadership procedures and practices to ensure that their jurisdiction operates in an open and transparent way as well as ensuring that the school board is accountable and responsible to the whole school community and in particular the learners. This is achieved through the practice of good governance in their schools. Good governance in schools is a set of responsibilities, practices, policies, and procedures exercised by an institution to provide strategic direction to ensure objectives are achieved and resources are used responsibly and with accountability by the school management boards. The concept of child-friendly school which was initiated by UNICEF's studies, has a nature of actualizing the following components, full child participation, inclusivity, gender sensitivity, equity and quality education, safe and friendly environment, high hygiene levels, availability and equal distribution of resources, safe school structures, teaching and learning process among others. Despite the know benefits of implementing the CFS model issues of school drop rates, children learning under trees, lack of essential commodities, like safe water, poor infrastructures low quality education and cultural factors are still being noted and happening in CFS model in some schools in Kenya. The objectives of the study were to examine how integrity practices, inclusiveness practices, and resources and commitment to excellence practices can promote child friendly schools model in

primary schools. The study was guided by transformational leadership theory and servant leadership theory. The study adopted mixed methodology and concurrent triangulation design. Qualitative data was analyzed thematically, while quantitative data was analyzed descriptively with the help of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and results presented using tables and frequencies. The study established that integrity, inclusiveness, responsiveness and resources and commitment to excellence had positive effect on promotion of child friendly schools model but at different degrees. It was however noted that practices of diversity were poorly rated and did not help in promotion of child friendly schools model. The study recommended that the Ministry of Education should formulate and organizes relevant governance and management training courses and capacity building programmes for education managers on good governance. Introduce programmes that enhance system awareness towards embracing diversity and utmost inclusiveness in schools. Ensure sustainable human development, actions must be taken to work towards this ideal with the aim of making it a reality. Putting the regulations about the democratic involvement of the stakeholders in practice of good governance in CFS.

Keywords: *Good governance Child friendly schools, Integrity, Inclusiveness, Resources and Commitment to Excellence, School management*

Introduction

The history of good governance in education may be associated with the World Bank and United Nations (UN) studies,(UNICEF 2009 ; UNESCAP ,2010). According to World Bank (2018) good governance in education means a set of responsibilities, practices, policies, and procedures exercised by an institution to provide strategic direction to ensure objectives are achieved and resources are used responsibly and with accountability. Good governance practices support schools by helping them manage their resources so they can deliver quality education. The above sighted activities are part of what school leaders or boards of management should do in order to promote and enhance child friendly schools. According to the United Nations(2002), good governance as a daily practice is measured by eight characteristics which include; participation, rule of law, consensus oriented, transparency, responsiveness, and, equity, inclusiveness, effectiveness, efficiency, accountability and implementation of policies. Good governance practices support schools by helping them manage their resources so they can deliver quality education. These assessing indicators may be applied in measuring the promotion of Child Friendly Schools (CFS) model.

UNICEF grounded the CFS framework in the 1990 Convention on the Rights of the Child's principles of children's rights, as well as other international human rights instruments and international declarations such as the Declaration of Education for All (1990). These principles emphasize the right of all children to receive free and compulsory education in settings that encourage enrolment and attendance; institute discipline humanely and fairly; develop the personality, talents and abilities of students to their fullest potential; respect children's human rights and fundamental freedoms; respect and encourage the child's own cultural identity, language and values, as well as the national culture and values of the country where the child is living; and prepare the child to live as a free, responsible individual who is respectful of other persons and the natural environment (Chabbot, 2004). CFS models is as a pathways towards quality' in education that reflect three key, and interrelated, principles derived from the Convention on the Rights of the Child as noted by UNICEF, 2009).

In order to ensure promotion of CFS and development, the schools management boards have to establish the school's strategic direction and aims, in conjunction with the other stakeholders. Ensure accountability to the public for the school's performance and to assure that the school is managed with probity, integrity and with fairness, (World Bank 2018). These

primary functions of school leaders or governors are based on the five elements of a CFS model as sight earlier on. The purpose of a CFS model is to move schools and education systems progressively towards quality standards, addressing all elements that influence the wellbeing and rights of the child as a learner and the main beneficiary of teaching, while improving other school functions in the process. Provision of Quality standards by good governance practices should make it possible for all children to access school, survive from grade to grade and complete the school cycle on time. School governors as managers should also provide an enriched educational experience through which students can thrive, develop and achieve their full potential,(UNICEF, 2002). When school managers practice good governance in CFS a participatory and comprehensive approach to planning for quality education is promised. Also stronger links between schools and their communities will facilitate the consultative process, a prerequisite for developing credible education sector plans that can attract external support in line with the good governance requirements.

According to the Imaginative mind (2008) good governance, is described as the leadership, direction and control of an organisation like a school and the primary functions of a governing body are said to be to: establish the school's strategic direction and aims, in conjunction with the executive. Ensure accountability to the public for the school's performance and to assure that the school is managed with probity and integrity. These primary functions of school leaders are bases for which institutions for education are formally organized and managed, Altbach (2005). The good governance indicators are applicable in different sectors and can be adapted to assess the governance of public services in education systems including Child Friendly Schools (CFS). Therefore, for the purposes of this study, the following indicators have been used as a framework for assessing good governance in promotion of child friendly schools. Indicators are, integrity, inclusiveness and resources and commitment to excellence. Education is one of the main priorities of the Government of Kenya. The Center for educational Policy analysis (2018) opines that governance of educational institutions has a large impact on student and teacher success by defining and regulating institutions has a large impact on student and teacher success by defining and regulating relationships both within schools as well as between schools and outside agencies.

Institutional rules and policies determine how educators train and operate, and ultimately determine how students learn. Researchers in educational governance examine how the various aspects of educational governance impact the organization, operations, and outcomes of different educational systems. This is only achievable with the practice of good governance.

Some studies in Asian countries like in Nepal by World Bank and UNESCAP (2010) indicate that good governance follows a set of responsibilities, practices, policies, and procedures exercised by an institution to provide strategic direction to ensure objectives and are achieved and resources are used responsibly and with accountability. This is applicable in CFS. In such a case good governance practices should support CFS by helping them manage their resources so they can deliver quality education. This argument has similar sentiments as the ones presented by (UNICEF 1999, 2002,) as regards adoption, and implementation of Child Friendly Schools (CFS) model whereby practicing good governance the CFS goals and objectives would be realized. Child friendly schools model is expected to be implemented in all schools.

UN and World Bank expect the running of the FCS schools to be guided by the model of good governance to the best interest of the child. Schooling is not always a positive experience for children and especially in a poorly governed school where basic necessities of learning are lacking. Studies by UNICEF (1999) indicate that some children leave home without basics of life like food, clean water, insecurity, under-nutrition, parasitic infestations, unhygienic

surroundings, chronic poverty, household chores, harmful traditional beliefs and practices, domestic overcrowding, gender discrimination, HIV and AIDS, domestic violence, child rapes defilements and other traumatic conditions, childcare deficiencies and the increasing prevalence and severity of natural disasters related to climate change are factors that can wreak havoc with a child's right to attend and complete school. School governors must therefore focus on the whole child, which means taking into account conditions in the family or community that might be hindering his or her educational progress, (UNICEF 2005, 2006). UNICEF realized that a number of children were educationally, emotionally, physically socially and educationally disadvantaged looking at the poor conditions that are in some schools even to date. So there came the introduction of CFS model which gave guidelines, policies, regulations components. CFS was then introduced and expected to be implemented in all schools worldwide. Studies from Thailand indicate that CFS has been implemented since 1998. Governing and managing of the schools was left in the hands of the schools boards of management and teachers.

In Latin America and the Caribbean, where inclusive quality education for all is a key goal, the CFS framework has been used in a number of countries such; Bolivia, Colombia, Guyana, Honduras and Nicaragua among others. The East Asia and the Pacific region has been developing and applying the CFS framework since it was first introduced in the 1990s. In India the CFS concept has been applied in emergencies as a framework for the reconstruction and restoration of primary education. In Eastern and Southern Africa, national standards exist to promote child-friendly and gender-sensitive school environments in a number of countries.

In African regions, child-friendly and girl-friendly initiatives are clearly linked as UINCEF (2016) further observes that in West Africa, girl-friendly school models have been implemented in Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mauritania, Nigeria and Senegal, and a child-friendly/girl-friendly school manual has been developed. Uganda started implementing CFS just about the same time with Kenya. Reports from MOEST (2003) in Kenya indicate that existing schools were turned into child-friendly but without other modification.

In Embu real implementation of CFS was about 2003 just the same times with inclusive education, (MOEST 2004). World Bank, (2015) report asserts that the quality of education in Kenya has been suffering for some time. Many children were progressing through primary school without having achieved the numeracy or literacy skills expected at their level (MOEST, 2014). As a result, more than 50% of pupils fail the national Kenya Certificate of Primary Education examination (KCPE) which they need to advance to secondary school (UNESCO, 2012). The object of the initiative is to provide quality education to every child, irrespective of his/her circumstances. The question here is what do the school mangers do in order to correct the problems. Through Uwezo Kenya programme it is hoped that learners will receive better and quality education which is part of the goals of CFS model, (MoEST, 2014b) but with practice of good governance. The lower side of Embu County is semi-dry areas where climatically challenges such as infrastructures, long spells of dry seasons, and others can be hindrances to achieving CFS goals. However, the government NGOs and the community have corroboratively worked together in order to promote the CFS model. From the above discussion it should be clear that good governance practices is a model which is difficult to realize in its entirety. Very few countries have come close to achieving good gov

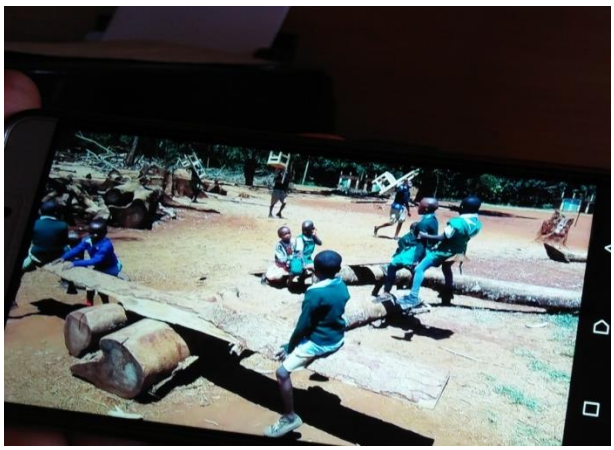
ernance in its totality.

A teachers teaching under a tree and learners sitting in the floor. A common feature in some areas in Kenya

Learners playing in muddy sandy area and others learning under a tree.

Learners writing on their knees. Children with playing in unsecure field.

The images below here are examples of poorly governed CFS where the characteristics of CFS are not met. It is noted here that children are sited on the floor and learning



under trees

Improvised play materials by the children

School play ground. Very unfriendly and insecure

All this is happening even after the recommendation of implementation of child friendly school in Kenya. In view of that this study was set out to find out whethergood governance has influence on promotion child friendly schools.

Statement of the Problem

In spite of the obvious known importance of supporting and implementing the model of CFS issues of school drop rates, children learning under trees, lack of essential commodities like water and food, poor infrastructures and cultural factors such as FGM are still a hindrance to the full implementation of CFS model. Poor leadership and governance practices are not promoting the CFS model. National plans and priorities in Kenya for CFS have only been partially successful.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore how the good governance practices can promote the FCS model in primary schools in the lower side of Embu County.

Objectives of the Study

i. To examine how integrity practices can promote child friendly schools model in primary schools in the lower side County of Embu

ii. To establish the influence of inclusiveness practices on promotion of CFS model in primary schools in the lower side of Embu County.

iii. To determine the extent to which resources and commitment to excellence can promote child friendly schools model in primary schools in the lower side of County of Embu.

Research Questions

i). How does the virtue of integrity practices promote child friendly schools model in primary schools in the lower County of Embu.

ii) What is the influence of inclusiveness practices on promotion of CFS model in primary schools in the lower side of County of Embu?

iii). To what extent do resources and commitment to excellence practices promote child friendly schools model in primary schools in the lower side of County of Embu?

Significance of the Study

The findings of study may help educational stakeholders realize the important good governance practices in promoting the model of CFS. It may also help teachers to recognize the significance and appropriateness of practicing good governance in promoting CFS model practices. This study may also be useful to stakeholders such as the government and community to channel more infrastructural resources for the successful implementation of the CFS in different in different schools so as to promote CFS framework. Finally, the study may also benefit other researchers and academicians who may be interested in carrying out research in the same area for it may lay a firm foundation.

Scope of the Study

This study was carried out in the lower side of Embu County primary schools only. School chair persons were used in the study. The study was looking at integrity practices, inclusiveness practices, and ethical leadership behaviours practices on promotion of CFS in primary schools.

Limitations of the Study

i. The study relied on self-report by respondents through filling of a questionnaire which resulted in participants self-underrating or over ratting or become suspicious as to the purpose of the study. Some may have concealed some information and especially that which was touching on performance of effective counselling and the results.

ii. The study findings may not be applicable to areas that experience different cultures and climatic conditions.

Assumptions of the Study

The following was the assumptions of the study:

i. All the respondents would be cooperative and provide reliable and or honest responses.

ii. That the teachers and school boards of management would provide the information on the challenges they faced while implementing CFS and in using good governance practices

iii. That all public CFS primary schools adhered to the Ministry of Education policy of having to adhere to proper implementation of CFS model polices by use of good governance practices.

Literature Review

This chapter discusses the literature of the previous studies related to this study.

Concept of Good Governance Practices

The concept of good governance is as old as human civilization. Expressly, governance refers to decision-making processes and practices applied in implementation of the decisions made. The concept is derived from the Latin term *gubernare or* Greek *kubernaein, which stand for steering or directing,* governance is described as the *use of power or authority by leaders, administrators or managers for the good and best interest of those being led or represented (*Kjae, 2004). Governance can also be defined as the process by which some sectors of the society wield power, and enact and promulgate policies which directly influence human and institutional interactions, and economic as well as social development. This type of power or authority must always be exercised for the common good of the learners in schools. Governance can be applied in varied contexts, in schools good governance relates to leaders and managers holding fast to ethics, good morals, and virtues in decision making, implementation of policies and in engagement with learners and the school communities for the best interest of learners.

Promotion of Child-Friendly Schools

Education is a right of every child and it is the obligation of education leadership to offer quality education to all its children. As a necessity to proper learning and human development, quality education should be as a result of factors from both within and outside of the classroom and access to appropriate supplies that are akin to the child's home environment. To achieve this conducive environment for learning, UNICEF, (1998,2002) came up with a framework guiding the process of realizing child friendly schools, a model that promotes qualities, such as inclusivity, health and protection for children all geared towards the best interest of the child. In this regard, Claire (2011) in a study carried out in Macedonia affirms that a CFS puts into consideration various dimensions, such as inclusiveness and gender friendly, quality teaching and learning, safe and protective environment, supportive of equity and equality and enhancing linkage to community as well as promoting partnership. Promotion of CFS can be achieved through complete implementation CFS model and by school board members being ethical in their ways of managing the schools, by putting emphasizes on quality teaching and learning processes, by practice of democratic participation, providing equal right of education to all children regardless of their gender, age or race, by providing safe, healthy and protective environment and preventing violence, like injury, abuse and neglect in the school. School leaders to guarantee that the school discipline practices are for the sake of the child.

How Good Governance can Benefit Child Friendly Primary Schools

World Bank (2018) contends that the following way can be practiced by school manger in order to promote CFS primary schools, these include; practice a more democratic and responsive system of school management, including more efficient utilization of resources. Have greater participation of all stakeholders (teachers, students, parents and school management) in the development of school policies, rules, plans, and code of conduct. Greater transparency in all school activities, including increased flow of information among all stakeholders about school plans, finances, rules and regulations, and programs. Practice strengthened accountability among stakeholders so as to improve school management.

Practice coordination among various levels of formal governance like Education Office, Resource Centre, or other educational institution. Through school policy and guide lines the school leaders can develop detailed rules and code of conduct through discussion in the meetings of stakeholders and apply the these rules and code of conduct accordingly. Make available and maintain a complaint box. Frame policies on professional development of teachers and preparation of training materials. Provide methods of management of penalizing teachers disobeying those rules and code of conduct as well as ways of rewarding the good teachers without discrimination. More open communication among stakeholders about how to manage schools. Practice workable evaluation and assessment of the achievement of the elements of CFS, as sighted by (Nyatuka, 2015).

Benefits of Implementing Child Friendly Schools Models

Karite (2013) outlines a number of benefits of CFS mostly to children. These include; provides students with a positive environment to exploit their talents and capabilities to their maximum. This shapes them into their respective careers and professions at an early age. CFS is gender sensitive in their enrollment and provision of services. They also offer students an opportunity to broaden their thinking and do away with certain stereotypes. It sensitizes both the boys and the girls on the need to respect each others` rights and dignity for peaceful coexistence and development. CFS also trains its learners to be law abiding and patriotic. Students in such schools are used to following simple rules and regulations. They get to understand that the outside world has rules and regulations just like the school. The extensive coverage of different cultures without bias enables learners to appreciate and love others. This in turn promotes peaceful coexistence. CFS also reduce drop out cases. The students feel comfortable and relaxed both emotionally and physically since all their needs are adhered to and this may reduce school dropout rate. CFS increases motivation both intrinsically and extrinsically to move on with their studies. This will also reduce drop out cases. Owing to the numerous benefits of child friendly schools, heads of schools should and school leaders embrace the qualities of these schools so as to improve on the performance of their learners.

School Leaders Responsibilities and Promotion of Child Friendly SchoolsThe success of every school including child friendly schools depends on the way it is managed or governed by the school leaders. School governance should take into consideration the school ecosystem and the policy makers as well in order to ensure sustainability. Teachers and leaders have the responsibility of setting high expectations and delivering top quality instruction for promotion of CFS. In Kenya the responsibility for overseeing the management of CFS is entrusted to a governing body. The terms used for such governing bodies vary, and include local school boards, boards of governors and school management committees or management. Research suggests that safe and good CFS is characterized by strong management and effective school leaders (Dunne et al, 2005; Pinheiro, 2006). School governing bodies and management in CFS structures have a duty of care in the school so as to promote CFS. School leaders should not lead CFS in unacceptable manners and should need to create a supportive and enabling environment to prevent and respond to cases of insecurity in schools. School safety is not only a matter of keeping potential threats off school compound but it also includes attending to the mental and emotional health of youth.

Leaders need to encourage school community to adopt and implement codes of conduct applicable to all staff and students that confront all forms of violence, taking into account gender-based stereotypes and behaviour and other forms of discrimination for promotion of CFS.

Leaders also have to prevent and reduce violence in schools through specific programmes which address the whole school environment including encouraging the building of skills such as non-violent approaches to conflict resolution, implementing, anti-bullying policies and promoting respect for all members of the school community. Ensure that curricula, teaching processes and other practices are in full conformity with the provisions and principles of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, free from references actively or passively promoting violence and discrimination in any of its manifestations, (United Nations, UN Study on Violence against Children,2006). Teachers' roles and responsibilities in child-friendly schools, is to strive for relevant and child centred teaching and learning. School authorities in CFS should take precautionary measures to avert risks to children's health and safety.

School leaders in CFS need to foresee imminent risk or possible dangers that could affect children within the school, its vicinity or the wider community. Good school governors ensure that there is a good range of skills, knowledge and experience amongst team members. School leaders need to develop and implement positive forms of discipline in schools. Ensure teachers and school staffs have training, and have the capacity to promote gender-sensitive and inclusive classrooms. Consult with and include children in governance and formulation of school rules. Work with families and communities to promote the use of positive discipline and the principles of gender equality and non-violence and link with community-based child protection mechanisms. Establish clear, safe and accessible procedures and mechanisms to report cases of violence and assist victims (including knowing who to and when to refer cases). Provide referral to counselling and support services,(Dunne et al, 2005; Pinheiro, 2006).

Integrity and Promotion of Child-Friendly Schools

The word Integrity is used to describe an individual's level of uprightness, honesty, moral commitments and the willingness to stand with what is just at all times. According to Bretag (2018) integrity is the cornerstone of ethical practice that is premised on a set of values. In the same way, the International Center for Academic Integrity (ICAI) (2013) identified the said values as fairness, trust, honesty, respect and responsibility. *Integrity* is one of the guiding principles behind good governance, management and professional conduct in any institution. This is a quality that guides individuals to act with honesty and strong ethical principles, as well as moral uprightness. In good governance, integrity can be termed as the ability of leaders, managers and administrators to conduct themselves in acts of truthfulness and uprightness (Bretag, 2018).

According to, UNICEF (2012) a child-friendly school should ensure a physically secure and psychological enabling environment for every child, where teachers are the most important factor when it comes to providing an effective and inclusive learning environment. The report further stipulates that, a school is as a significant, personal and social environment for all learners. Kouzes et al (2007) observed that educational leaders are faced with so many demands and influencing factors. They emphasized that school leaders must therefore have clear guiding values if they are to positively maneuver through the numerous conflicts and contradictions and deliver unwavering leadership that can improve educational systems and learning experiences of all learners. In South Africa Vyver, Myer and Westhuizen (2014) established that integrity in governance influences learner output and performance. The study established that considerate, truthful and responsive governance improves teaching outcomes thus emphasizing that indifferent leadership results to declining levels of effectiveness, negative organizational relationships, a factor that further leads to distressing school climate.

In Kenya, studies also indicate that good governance as reflected through values such as integrity is connected to learner's performance. According to Wamahiu (2015), in a synthesis report carried out in Kenya, it was established that integrity of school managers and teachers resulted to improved skill acquisition in learners. The studies however have not indicated the relationship between specific values of integrity, such as accountability, uprightness, availability and responsibility on improving equity, equality, fairness or equality.

Inclusiveness on Promotion of Child-Friendly Schools

Inclusiveness in education is described as a teaching approach that focuses on the needs of learners from diverse backgrounds. This also includes learners with various special needs, learning abilities and styles. Inclusiveness implies that learners from groups that may have ordinarily been disadvantaged or at risk, such as those living with disabilities or speakers of minority languages can equally have access to quality learning opportunities in regular education systems (UNICEF, 2016). According to WHO and WORLD BANK (2011) surveys, it was estimated that from 93 million to 150 million children aged 14 years and below live with some form of disabilities. The report also estimated that after being enrolled, such children usually have lower attendance and completion rates, making disability one of the world's biggest factors of educational marginalization. On gender, the same report analyzing 51 countries showed that there were more girls were dropping out of schools than boys. The study further established that only 41.7 girls with disabilities had completed primary school as opposed to 52.9 percent of those without disabilities.

In Kenya, Kanamba (2014), observed that majority of teachers felt that aspects such as inappropriate or inadequate educational materials were affecting inclusion and effective teaching. Conversely some of the aspects that have hampered inclusivity and gender responsiveness in sub-Saharan Africa are practices such as FGM child marriages, lack of value on girl's education and onset of menstruation. However the studies have not expressly stated how some aspects of inclusiveness such as multiplicity and involvement enhance equity, equality fairness and skill acquisition towards achieving child-friendly schools model.

Resources and Commitment to Excellence on Promotion of Child-Friendly Schools

A Child-friendly school must be managed in the best interests of children, within a healthy, safe and protective environment, supplied with adequate facilities and resources (UNICEF, 2006). School resources therefore refer to learning and teaching materials and other physical and material resources meant to facilitate learning. UNICEF (2006) CFS manual states that resources, together with existing capacities and opportunities have enormous influence in the implementation of CFS model. The report emphasized that school managers needed to be accountable and answerable in order to demonstrate good stewardship in management of educational resources. According to a United Nations Girl Education Initiative (UNGEI) (2017), report, the existing gaps in resources were attributed to persistent marginalization of children with intellectual and profound disabilities.

To promote child friendly schools model, especially in rural areas such as the lower Embu County, school leadership must obligate to advocate for and allocate appropriate and adequate resources for all learners and administer such resources in an accountable and transparent manner for the best interest of children. However, existing studies indicate that this is not always the case, making it complex to realize CFS model. As UNGEI (2017) report showed, inadequate resources, opaqueness in management and lack of specialized support as well as lack of accountability in management posed a significant danger to implementation of CFS framework. The report included suggestion that government and those in charge of policy development need to create educational policies that focus on promoting children's rights and

protecting them both within the school environment and elsewhere. In Kenya, Kanamba (2014) indicated that up to 90 percent of teachers reported that teaching materials were too little to meet their instructional needs. Concurring with this, Musila (2015) divulged that more than 70 percent of teachers who took part in the study felt that classroom materials were inadequate due to poor allocation. However the reviewed literature fell short of divulging how aspects such as reliability and transparency in commitment to resource allocation and management specifically affect promotion of child-friendly schools, thus the study.

In similar assertions, World Bank (2018), observes that in keeping up with good governance practices, of resources management, the school board of can practice the following activities; generate essential resources for the school from local and other sources through the active participation of stakeholders then manage the said resources with accountability and with responsiveness. Disclose information on the resources generated and how much of those resources are used for each areas on need in the CFS. Manage and maintain the school building, toilets, drinking water, and furniture equitably. Keep a record of resources generated from donors and local agencies. Keep a record of the property of the school both mobile and immobile. Conduct income-generating activities to support the CFS framework.

Theoretical Framework

The study was guided by Transformational Leadership Theory of James McGregor Burns (1978) and Servant Leadership Theory by Robert Greenleaf (1970). The rationale of using these theories for this study was informed by the fact that they both recognize the fact that good governance focuses on doing what is right and that being a leader calls for serving others, meeting their needs and promoting their personal development. Good governance is about who leaders are, and what they do, and school and classroom managers have to commit to the needs of all children irrespective of their gender, race or social status. Greenleaf (1970/1991) states that the effectiveness of servant-leadership is measured by how it affects the least privileged members in the society, that is whether such leadership will make them benefit or at least feel not further deprived. The rationale of using this theory is the fact that it recognizes the aspects of good governance, in the sense that school leaders have to first focus on serving the interests of children, caring for their health, growth and well-being as well as instilling values and inspiring them to become leaders themselves.

Transformational Leadership Theory

Transformational leadership theory was first developed by James McGregor Burns, in 1978.

In school management point of view, this standard implies that school managers, such as principals, teachers in their classrooms, departmental heads as well as other stakeholders in their different capacities ensure that there is teaching of high quality and improved learning. The theory is also applicable as it recognizes the role of school leader as that driven by principles and commitment to improving organizational performance and learners' and learners' academic performance.

Servant Leadership Theory

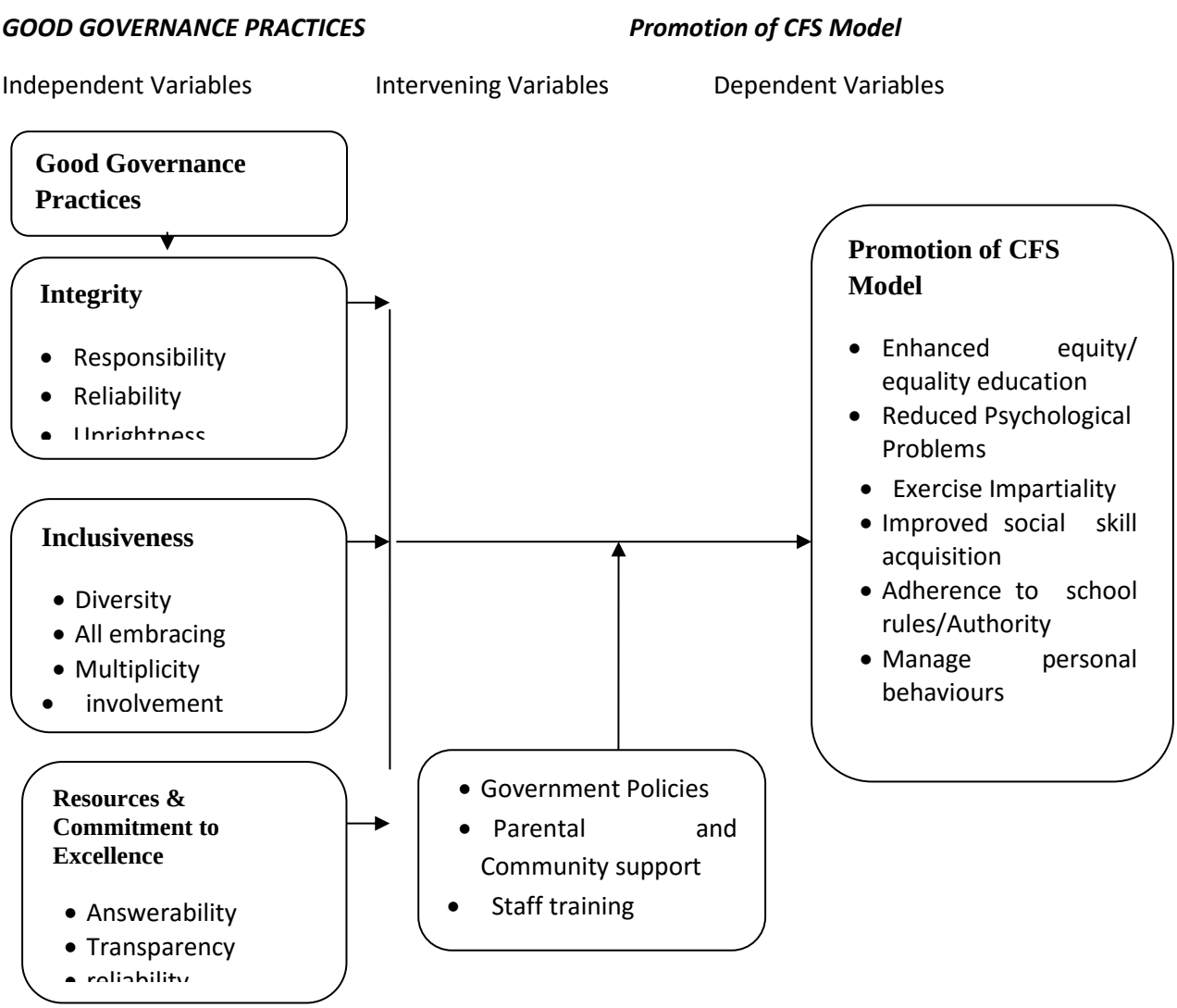
Servant leadership is defined as a philosophy, and set of practices that enrich the lives of individuals, builds better organizations and ultimately create a more just and caring world (Greenleaf Center for Leadership, 2016). The phrase "servant leadership" was first coined by essayist, Robert Greenleaf, in an essay "The Servant Leader published in 1970. Greenleaf (1977) suggests that a servant leader is a leader first, and that it all begins with a natural feeling that one wants to serve and to serve first. He argues that it is that conscious choice that makes

an individual to aspire to lead, suggesting that it is all a different case from a person who becomes a leader first than a servant later

Conceptual Framework

In this study, the Conceptual Framework shows the interrelationship of the independent variable as the good governance and the dependent variable which is promotion of child friendly schools. The independent variables were measured by use of the following variable indicators; integrity, inclusiveness, resources commitment to excellence. The intervening variables were parental and community support; government policies and staff training.

Conceptual Framework



Methodology

Mixed model approach comprising quantitative and qualitative research methods was employed. Concurrent triangulation design was employed. Both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered simultaneously as suggested by Creswell and (Plato 2013). Thematic and inferential statistics were used for data interpretation and analysis with the help of computer application SPSS version 23. Findings were presented using tables, frequencies, charts and in narrative form. Purposive sampling was used to distribute all the chairpersons in accordance

with the sub county's administrative zones. Findings and recommendations were equally presented.

Findings:

This chapter also presents discussion of the results of the study.

Data Analysis Procedures

Qualitative data was analyzed thematically while quantitative data was analyzed descriptively through frequencies and percentages, means and standard deviation, on Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and results presented using tables.

Data Analysis and Presentation

The quantitative data from questionnaires was entered into SPSS version 21 and analyzed descriptively through frequencies means and percentages.

Table 1: Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	30	83.3	83.3	83.3
	Female	6	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	36	100.0	100.0	

As shown on table 1above, more than 83 percent of respondents were male, that is 83.3%, while only 16% were female. This is a clear indication that school management in the area of study is dominated by men. However, the study shows that both genders are somewhat represented in school leadership

Table 2: Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-34	4	11.1	11.1	11.1
	35-44	10	27.8	27.8	38.9
	45-54	14	38.9	38.9	77.8
	Above 55	8	22.2	22.2	100.0
	Total	36	100.0	100.0	

The researcher sought information on the age of the respondents. The data on the table 2 above indicates that the highest percentage of chairs of boards of management was within the age bracket of 45 – 54 years, representing 38.9% of the respondents. This was followed by those aged between 35 – 44 years at 27.8% and those above 55 years representing 22.2%. The age bracket with the lease representation was those aged 18 and 34, who stood at 11.1%

Table 3: Educational Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Diploma	9	25.0	25.0	25.0
	Undergraduate	20	55.6	55.6	80.6
	Post Graduate	7	19.4	19.4	100.0
	Total	36	100.0	100.0	

The research sought to establish the level of education of the respondents and found that more than half of the chairs of the boards of management had undergraduate degrees. That is, 55.6% had undergraduate degrees, followed by 25% who had a diploma and lastly 19.4% who had post graduate degrees. The educational level of a school manager is essential as it plays a major role in upholding good governance practices. This further determines the level of competency in of policy adoption and coordination of governance activities towards promotion of child-friendly schools.

Findings and Discussions

Table 4: Results

Statements	SA %	A %	U %	D %	SD %	Mean	Std. Dev.
A. Integrity on Promotion of CFS							
1. Managers level of Responsibility	55.6	13.9	2.8	13.9	13.9	3.83	1.55
2. Effect of Responsibility on CFS	52.8	5.6	11.1	22.2	8.3	3.72	1.50
3 Managers' level of truthfulness	38.9	13.9	11.1	27.8	8.3	3.47	1.46
4. Effect of Truthfulness on CFS	44.4	16.7	8.3	25.0	5.6	3.69	1.41
B. Inclusiveness on CFS Model							
1.Embracing diversity	22.2	13.9	13.9	36.1	13.9	2.94.	1.41
2.Effect of embracing diversity on CFS	27.8	16.7	13.9	30 6	11.1	3.19	1.43
3.Leadership, community Involvement	69.4	16.7	2.8	5.6	5.6	4.38	1.15
4. Effect of involvement on CFS.	72.2	8.3	5.6	8.3	5.6	4.33	1.24
C. Resources, Commitment to Excellence							
1. Managers' level of Answerability	52.8	16.7	11.1	13.9	5.6	3.97	1.31
2. Effect of Managers' Answerability	50.0	25.0	5.6	11.1	8.3	3.97	1.34
3. Managers Level of Transparency	58.3	13.9	5.6	13.9	8.3	4.0	1.41
4. Effect of Managements' Transparency	61.1	19.4	8.3	5.6	5.6	4.25	1.18

Integrity on Promotion of CFS Model

The first objective was to examine how integrity practices can promote child friendly schools model in primary schools in lower Embu County. As shown on table 4 above, the results revealed that majority of the respondents felt that school managers did not exercised reasonably good levels of responsibility. That is 55.6%, followed by 13.9% who agreed with the same position. The findings also revealed that more than half of the respondents, that is 52.8% and 5.6% were of the opinion that the level of managers' responsibility had positive effects towards the attainment of child-friendly schools model. This implies that most of the

school managers are mildly dependable and in control in their governance roles, thus demonstrating qualities of good governance that are crucial in supporting safe, secure and healthy learning environment.

The findings indicated that truthfulness was not strongly exercised among the school leadership. Out of those sampled, only 38.9% strongly agreed that managers' demonstrated a high level of truthfulness. At the same time, only 13.9% agreed with the same view. These findings indicate that lack of satisfactory levels of truthfulness among school managers had negative effect on attainment of child friendly school model, since truthfulness is a key attribute for good governance.

Inclusiveness on Promotion of CFS Model

The research also sought to establish the influence of inclusiveness practices on promotion of CFS model in primary schools in lower Embu County. The findings revealed that inclusiveness practices were not well observed in schools. Less than half of the respondents reported that learners from diverse cultures background and abilities as well as gender were treated equally at school. That is, only 22.2% of the respondents strongly agreed that learners from diverse cultures, backgrounds, abilities and gender received equal treatment, same as only 13.9% who agreed with the same view.

This implies that schools managers in lower Embu County are yet to surmount retrogressive cultural practices that discriminate on gender, such as early marriages for girls, Female Genital Mutilation (FGM), favoring boys over girls and marginalization of learners with disabilities. Similarly, less than half of those sampled, that is paltry 27.8% strongly agreed, and 16.7% agreed that embracing inclusive culture in schools had enhanced equity, equality and fairness in schools under study.

The findings however revealed that involvement of various stakeholders was well practiced in the schools. Majority (69.4%) of those sampled strongly agreed that various actors and stakeholders such as family, community and school leadership worked together towards realization of CFS framework, while 16.7% agreed with the same view. Similarly, in response to whether involvement of family, community and school leadership helped promote CFS model, a strong majority (72.2%) strongly agreed, while 8.3% agreed with the same view. This implies that school leadership encouraged good relationships between the stakeholders for the best interest of children as such practices build positive interactions and enhance interpersonal communication, thus creating a better learning environment. The effectiveness and inclusiveness of the schools are high according to the students' perceptions. It was also indicated that they made efforts to increase the effectiveness and inclusiveness throughout the processes. The effectiveness and inclusiveness of the schools are high according to the students' perceptions

Resources and Commitment to Excellence on Promotion of CFS Model

The research also sought to determine the extent to which resources and commitment to excellence can promote child friendly schools model in primary schools in Mbeere North sub-County. The findings indicate that answerability, transparency and reliability in handling resources as well as committing to excellence were not satisfactorily exercised. Out of those sampled, 42.8% strongly agreed that school managers maintained high levels of answerability, while 16.7% agreed with the same view. At the same time, half (50%) of the respondents strongly agreed and 25% agreed that the practice of answerability by school managers played a positive role in enhancement of equity and equality for all learners.

This implies that the management maintained a reasonable level of answerability in planning and administering the available resources towards attainment of CFS model. The results were consistent with UNESCAP (2009) findings that answerability in management of resources and subsequently commitment to the laid down objectives are necessities in good governance. However the situation on the showed that

The results showed that majority (58.3%) of the chairs of the boards of management sampled strongly agreed and (13.9%) of them agreed that school managers conducted themselves with high levels of transparency. At the same time, majority (61.1%) of the respondents strongly agreed and 19.4% agreed that school managers always exercised high level of transparency in their work. This implied that leaders were committed to acceptable levels of good governance regarding resource management. The results lend credence to the findings by UNGEI (2017), which established that lack of transparency and specialized support in education leadership were a threat to attainment of CFS model. Nyatuka (2015)notes that some situations like not being able to find time from work and home, the negative school experiences of parents, economic problems, low levels of education, teachers' negative attitudes, and the cultural differences between the school and the home prevent the parental involvement and the cooperation.

Conclusion

It was thus concluded that integrity practices as characterized by responsibility and truthfulness enhanced equity and fairness as well as acquisition of skills in learners. However, although relatively low, the number of those disagreeing about truthfulness and its effectiveness on promotion of CFS model was notably significant.

In regard to inclusiveness, the study concluded that diversity of learners' needs was not properly addressed. The findings showed that children from diverse cultures, gender, backgrounds and abilities were not treated equally and fairly in their learning environment. Based on UNICEF (2017) that inclusiveness entails giving learners from disadvantaged groups, those living with disabilities and speakers of minority groups equal opportunity in regular schools, it is clear that the diversities of these groups are not being addressed thus constraining the attainment of CFS model. The study however found that involvement as an aspect of inclusiveness was significant and that it enhanced learners' acquisition of skills. The study concluded that involvement of family and community promoted good relationships between the stakeholders and enhanced positive interactions, thus creating a better learning environment for the best interest of learners

From the findings, it was noted that management of resources and commitment to excellence by school managers promoted CFS model. It was found that school managers exercised reasonably good levels of answerability and reliability in resource management. It was noted that these practices enhanced equity and fairness, thus promoting CFS model. From the findings, it was concluded that leaders' practice of transparency enhanced fairness and acquisition of skills in learners.

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Influence of Non-Governmental Organizations Education Support Activities On Academic Performance Of Students In Public Primary Schools In Kenya: A Case Of Machakos County

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Abstract

Non-governmental organizations have initiated education support activities which have improved school performance of students in public primary schools. The researcher looked at the influence of the nongovernment organizations education programs on academic performance of public primary schools. The study concentrated on influence of non-governmental organizations education support activities on academic performance of students in public primary schools in Machakos only. The study delimited itself to the target population of 176 participants in Machakos. The study adopted descriptive method because it provided a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes and opinions of a population by studying a sample population. The researcher has put in mind that participation in research is voluntary, thus quality time was taken to explain to the respondents the importance of the study thus requested them to participate in the study by giving relevant and honest information. Questionnaires were used to collect information from the selected respondents. The researcher then analysed the data using descriptive statistics, the findings will help various key stakeholders including the government and Non-governmental organizations. The results of the data analysis are presented in chapter of this report thus data has been organized and presented as per the objectives of the study and demographic information captured at the beginning of the analysis. The researcher thus concluded that multiple factors influence academic performance of students negatively for instance lack of scholarly materials, lack of well-structured school feeding programs and lack of well installed physical facilities. The study revealed that academic performance was not negatively influenced by lack of clean water.

***Keywords**: Non-governmental organizations, education, school performance and public primary schools.*

Background of the study

Various reasons have influenced the academic performance of students in public primary schools especially for the children whose parents or care givers cannot afford education in private schools. Some of these factors include; being orphaned, poverty and ignorance by parents. School going Children OVC perform poorly in academics for several reasons including poverty, need for domestic labour, need for income-generating activities, stigmatization, and parental sickness or death. School enrolment inequities among school going children have been documented throughout sub-Saharan Africa (Bicego, Rutstein, & Johnson, 2003). One estimate suggests that orphans are approximately 13% less likely to attend school than non-orphans (Monasch & Boerma, 2004). Studies have also shown that disparities in grade progression were found in several countries including Botswana, Niger, Ghana, Kenya, Tanzania, and Zimbabwe (Bicego et al., 2003). Appropriate grade progression is important because losing ground in school places children at higher risk of failing and dropping out. The completion rate of education in Africa is among the lowest in the world (UNESCO, 2006). This poor academic performance and low transition rate of primary school pupils into secondary

schools is partially attributed by the inability of caregivers to pay school fees. Even in countries where secondary school education is provided for by the government, there are additional maintenance costs to be settled.

Statement of the problem

Various factors have influenced academic performance of students in public primary schools like poverty, which leads to parents' inability to meet basic needs, therefore; various Nongovernmental organizations have initiated activities geared towards improving the academic performance of such marginalized students. These activities provide scholarly materials like school uniforms and books, school feeding programs, physical facilities and provision of health and sanitation which support the education of these children. However much these strategies have been used in various developing countries, their relative impact on education especially academic performance has not been greatly felt. Therefore, this study sought to investigate the impact of NGO education activities on the performance of Primary school children in Machakos County.

Theoretical framework

Tinto's model

The most commonly referred to model in the student academic performance in relation to school retention. It was first offered in a literature review (Tinto, 1975), and so began with the support of being broadly consistent with a considerable range of other people's research, as well as having a theoretical derivation by analogy to Durkheim's model of suicide. It probably gains most support though because it immediately appeals to people's common sense with its central notion of "integration". It is less clear whether there is much direct empirical support for it, and certainly it is hard to find direct empirical tests of and challenges to it. The literature claiming to support it seems to be about reporting weekly consistent evidence: not controlled experiments, nor comparing alternative theories against Tinto's with respect to data.

This is adapted by the researchers from Tinto, V. (1975) "Dropout from Higher Education: A Theoretical Synthesis of Recent Research" Review of Educational Research vol.45, pp.89-125". Its central idea is that of "integration": it claims that whether a student persists or drops out is quite strongly predicted by their degree of academic integration, and social integration. These evolve overtime, as integration and commitment, interaction, with dropouts depending on commitment at the time of the decision.

Empirical Review

Scholarly materials provision and academic performance of students

rovision of Scholarly materials is a critical construct for academic performance because it has some correlation with the quality of service delivery. Regular attendance for learning is associated with provision of scholarly materials. When they reach school age, research demonstrates that to achieve academically, children must attend school consistently equipped with scholarly materials like textbooks, stationeries and uniform. A child's exposure to curriculum gives him/her an opportunity to learn significantly, influence achievement and exposure from being in school (Fuller et al., 1999). A study of village-based schools in Kenya found that students with access to scholarly materials had greater learning gains and lower rates of repetition, a finding consistent with many other studies (Miske, Dowd et al., 1998).

School feeding programs and academic performance of students

Kenya is still a developing country and food as a basic need is still scarce in the country especially for orphans and vulnerable children. Kenya is classified as an upper middle-income country (World Food Programme (WFP), 2010) with frequent food deficits because of recurring droughts which have resulted in high rates of malnutrition. The country is food secure at national level; however, it is at household level that access to sufficient food for marginalised and vulnerable groups in the society remains a constant challenge, contributing to the current, unacceptable levels of malnutrition. School feeding programs are targeted as social safety nets that provide both educational and health benefits to the most vulnerable children, thereby increasing enrolment rates, reducing absenteeism, and improving food security at the household level. This has linked both food and education for poor and vulnerable children living in highly food-insecure areas.

The government has also initiated the food for work program which targets the families. All these initiatives are hoped to build capacity to the individual child and family and remarkable Improvement in enrolment has been noted in the primary schools with the enrolment figure moving from 5 million in year 2000 to 8 million in year 2010. According to United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) 2010, assessments in 2009, the estimated overall crop production was 139,000 tonnes, leaving a deficit of 150,000 tonnes, which the country had to import to meet the consumption demand of its population. The world is still recovering from the financial and food crises of 2008. A key response, especially in developing countries, was to scale up school feeding programs.

School feeding programmes are essential in any country whether it is developed or is still developing. The benefits of these programmes are immense not only at the individual level but also to the community and society at large. The primary assumption of school feeding programmes is that education and learning depend on good nutrition (Briggs, 2008). School health and nutrition also addresses the critical health and nutrition factors that keep children out of school and reducing their ability to learn effectively, such as malnutrition and hunger (Save the Children USA, 2007). Bundy, Burbans, Grosh, Geli, Jukes, and Drake (2009) defined school feeding as the provision of food to school children. There are two main groups of school feeding approaches, namely 'in-school feeding' and 'take-home rations".

School supplementary feeding programmes can therefore be implemented as in-school feeding, where the children eat the food in school or as take home rations, where the learners take dry portions of food to consume at home. In-school feeding programmes are better preferred for the learners as their eating can be monitored and they consume the full amount of their daily ration. In take home rations however, the possibility of sharing the food with family is high resulting in the learner not consuming adequate amounts of their daily ration. School feeding programmes are mainly implemented with the intention to achieve the following results: Increase enrolment and attendance, Alleviate short-term hunger, Improve nutritional status, Improve micronutrient status (WFP, 2004)

Food can act as a strong incentive for children to attend school on a regular basis. Girls especially benefit from this, as parents feel there are sufficient income-transfer benefits (Del Rosso, 1999). In many communities, girls are culturally disadvantaged such that in hardship situations, male children are given opportunity to go to school over girls. School supplementary feeding programmes can provide a way in which parents can save money by spending less on food and thereby allow the girls to attend school. It is however important to establish that school meals do not replace food that has been part of the children's diet in the household, but rather add to what the family provides. In Jamaica providing breakfast to primary school students significantly Increased rate of school attendance. The learners who benefit the most are those wasted, stunted, or previously malnourished (Del Rosso, 1999). Alleviation of Short-Term Hunger in learners is also another objective of feeding programs in

schools. Much research has also been conducted on the effects of short-term hunger related to learning capacity and in-school meals provided to learners reduce short-term hunger (World Food Programme (WFP), 2004).

Learning ability is affected greatly by hunger due to skipped meals. Many factors contribute to hunger among school children, these include long distances children have to travel to school, cultural meal practices that include no or small breakfasts due to a lack of family time and resources to provide adequate meals to children before and/or during the school day (Berliner, D. C., 2009). Poverty and potential: Out-of-school factors and school success.

Many cultures do not provide breakfast. This means the child's last meal is in the evening. The possibilities of long travelling time mean the child starts the school day hungry and is unable to concentrate. The provision of even a small snack at the start of the day or mid-morning alleviates the short-term hunger and has been linked to increased awareness, activity and learning capacity (Briggs, 2008).Improving Nutritional Status in learners is also another major objective. The physical growth of a child is a result of a number of interconnected variables, especially in areas where poverty is endemic. Environmental factors, genetics, food consumption patterns, health and illness, hygiene practices, lack of sanitation and the onset of puberty are but a few. Even though data collection on these variables has been inconsistent, some research indicated that undernourished children do benefit from school feeding programs (Bundy, Burbans, Grosh, and Geli, Jukes & Drake, 2009). The school supplementary feeding programmes help to improve the nutritional status and health status of schoolchildren, as they learn better if they are not hungry (King & Burgess, 1995).

Poorly fed schoolchildren who are provided with good meal improve their growth and school performance, and prevent anaemia, and other nutritional deficiencies. Other objective of school supplementary feeding programmes include: Increasing attention and concentration of students producing a gain in cognitive function and learning. Nutrition affects the development of factors that encourage cognitive development before and after a child is enrolled in school. Conditions such as protein-energy malnutrition and other micronutrient deficiencies can have adverse effects on attention and concentration in school (Pollitt, 1984) School feeding effectively reduces absenteeism and increases the duration of schooling, educational outcomes which includes; performance, drop out, and repetition. It increases community involvement in schools, particularly where programmes depend on the community for preparing and serving meals for the children. In addition, schools have the potential to reach out not only to orphans and vulnerable children, but also staff, teachers, parents and community members, including young people not attending school.

Rautiainen K., Nissinen M. &Lassenius C. (2000) argue that schools can teach students how to resist unhealthy social pressures since eating is a socially learned behaviour. Skilled personnel are available to provide follow-up and guidance after appropriate training of students, teachers and other service personnel. Teaching school children about nutrition can help other people in the community to learn about nutrition (King & Burgess, 1995). Evaluations show that school-based nutrition education has the ability to improve eating behaviours of young people (Del Rosso, 1999).

Framework for an Effective School Supplementary Feeding Programme needs to be institutionalized, which include; Starting point for developing an effective school nutrition component in broader efforts to improve health status. Schools can effectively deliver some health and nutritional services, provided that the services are simple, safe and familiar, and address problems that are prevalent and recognized as important within the community (Del Rosso, 1999).

Physical facilities and academic performance of students.

The relationship between school resource level and pupils' achievement can be related largely in various literatures. According to Global Education Monitoring Report (2016) outlines, that the sustainable Development Goal on Education requires availability of learning material as a key strategy for achieving inclusive and equitable quality education that promotes common lifelong opportunities. Mukami (2009) affirmed that Facilities and infrastructure greatly affect the levels of students' achievement as well as the safety of both teachers and learners. Standard classrooms, textbooks and furniture are basis for a good learning environment. Standard classrooms are an important precondition for pupils' learning and participation in school activities, this is what NGOs strive to provide. Availability of classrooms, libraries and other physical facilities enhance the learning environment which is reflected in examination performances (Gakuru 1982).

Fielmua & Bandie, (2012) carried out a study in Ghana, on the contribution of local Non-Government Organizations (NGO) in promoting basic education in the Nadowli District. He identified The Sustainable Integrated Development Services Centre (SIDSEC) which was a local operating NGO in Nadowli District in Ghana that provided physical facilities including teaching and learning material with the aim of bettering the quality of education in the district. Teachers at basic education level indicated that the reading and counting skills of pupils had improved as a result of the provision of physical facilities by NGOs. In addition it led to increased enrolment and retention in the primary schools. A poor physical facility in primary schools is one of the main barriers to excellent academic performance.

A study by Buhere (2007) in Webuye subcounty in Kenya revealed gaps in the quality of education in Kenya relative to physical facilities. The study proved that nearly all physical facilities required for teaching and learning were lacking, from textbooks, learning material and inadequacy of library services .As a result, performance in these schools is affected negatively, since learners lack practical approach in learning of the subject taught. Empirical data show that physical facilities are an important factor in both school attendance and achievement. For this reason, improving primary school infrastructure is a high priority among SMCs. Over time, communities and parents have been responsible for and have made substantial investments in school infrastructure.

World Bank (2002) did a study that involved over 89 education projects across Africa. The study found the cost effectiveness and importance of localized and customized reading materials in increasing literacy skills in school settings. In 2007-2009, a research study was implemented to analyze the impact of text and library books upon reading comprehension and fluency upon students in Tanzania (Plonski, 2009). This study used a comparative case study that incorporated a mixed methods design. The results of the investigation indicated there were some significant differences in student fluency and reading comprehension achievement scores.

In addition a study by Fuller (1985) discovered that pupils who had more than two textbooks were almost 3 times likely to pass with 67% while completing school compared to pupils who had no textbooks in school had 24% on completion. Therefore textbooks are very significant for academic achievement .In Kenya, due to the increased enrollment as a result of the free primary education, the Government funds schools to cover non-salary expenditure, including textbooks. According to the Global monitoring report 2016, these grants are vulnerable to budget reductions. The current unsustainable financing of textbooks has often left parents covering the cost of learning materials for their children, disadvantaging families who cannot afford these out-of-pocket expenses. Since a growing body of evidence has confirmed the

critical role of textbooks in improving student achievement has influenced education policies, there is need for NGO involvement.

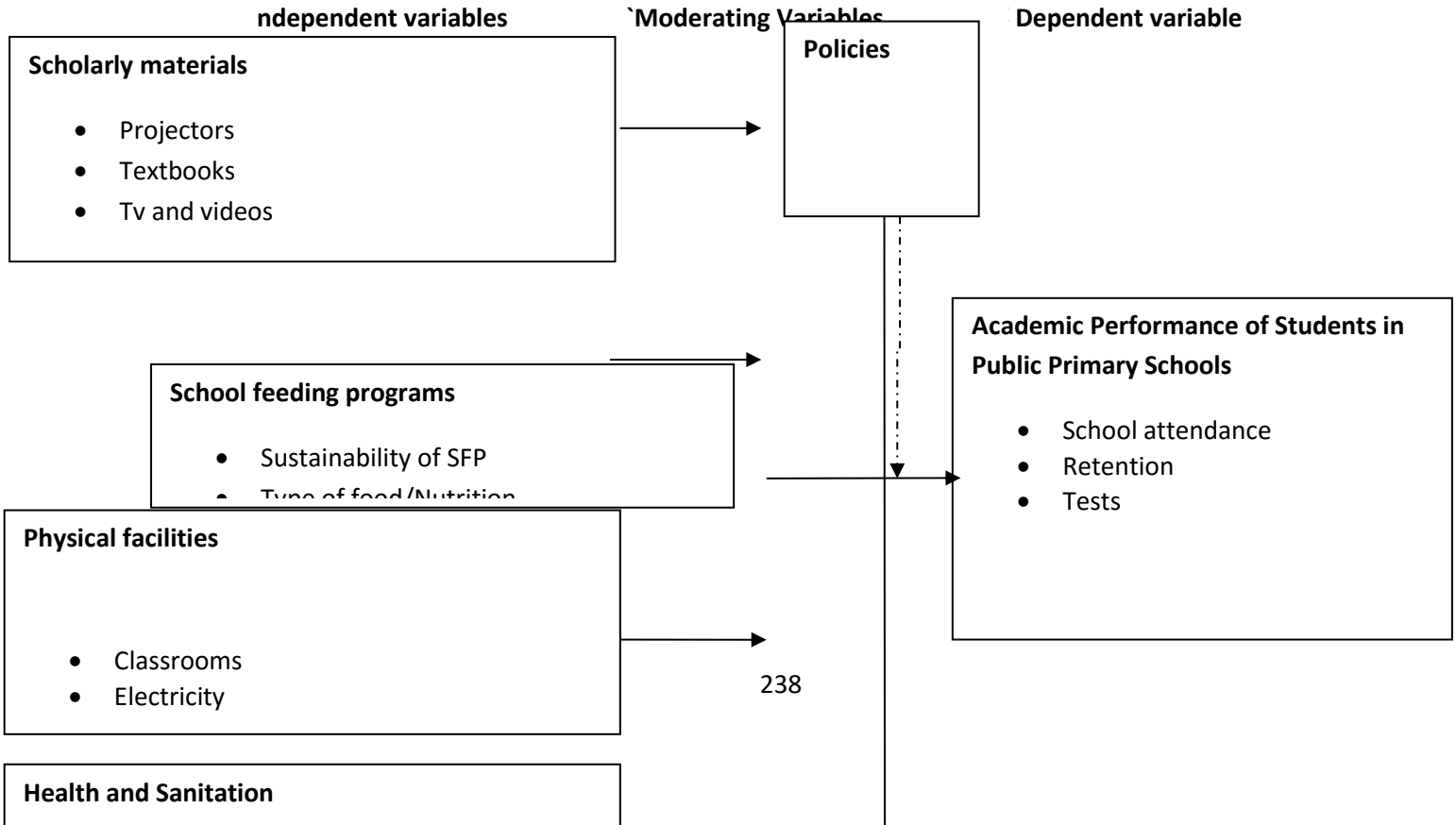
Health and sanitation and academic performance of students

To recognise and treat existing and new illnesses, the necessity to provide clinical services to treat illness and injury in schools has long been recognised, and this primary health care service forms the backbone of school health provision services. Palmiere (2000) argue that opportunities for health improvement for the majority of students in schools provide a unique opportunity for health assessment and care and for high risk behaviours and chronic, perhaps silent, diseases to be identified and treated. In their study, Pridmore, & Yates (2006) posit that health and sanitation not only fulfils the duty of care of the health providers to the students, but may enhance student's ability to perform better academically, with a subsequent reduction in the risks to themselves and the community. According to WHO (2006), clinical services can be categorised as acute care services, communicable disease control, chronic disease control and mental health. Core services in these programs are generally delivered by health centre staff, with additional services provided by visiting community-based organisations and specialist in reach.

According to Holzmann & Jørgensen, (2001) the prevalence of chronic disease in schools has led to the establishment of a systematic program run throughout the State. The chronic disease program focuses on the chronic diseases of asthma, cardiovascular disease and diabetes. The framework for the program is based on: the identification of students with a chronic disease he improvement of health care for these people through individualised services like introduction of hand washing activities which ensure there is continuous process of students washing their hands, this water containers are placed strategically especially outside the latrines, at the entry of the dining places and also provision of clean and treated drinking water.

Conceptual framework

The study was guided by a conceptual framework in a diagrammatic representation containing all variables and indicators



Research methodology

Research design

The study employed a descriptive survey research design. Descriptive survey research design was considered appropriate for the study because the purpose was to obtain information which would describe the existing phenomena by asking individuals about their perception, attitudes, behaviours or values (Mugenda &Mugenda, 2007).

Target population and sample size

According to Mugenda (2003), target population is the total number of elements that researcher specifies in his or her research. The target population for this research was 176 participants which is inclusive of principles/deputy, heads of department in schools, board of managers, subject teachers, educational officials and NGO project manager. According to the TSC records in Machakos County, there are a total of 777 public primary schools in the region. A sample of size of 88 schools was selected, the researcher used the concept of Gall and Borg, (2003) who recommended that at least 10% of the participants in the population are representative; in this case, 88 schools will be the least number to be selected. The unit of analysis was therefore represented by 1 Principal and 1Deputy Principal per school.

Data Collection Instrument

Questionnaires were used to collect information from the selected partakers. The questionnaires were self-administered by use of two trained research assistants and the researcher. The questionnaire was administered to a convenient sample in Machakos.

Data analysis and procedure

Descriptive and inferential statistics was used to analyse the data with the aid of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21 which was used in the analysis. After data collection, the data was organised and edited to remove any inconsistencies, repetitions or errors that made its analysis difficult. The cleaned data collected was then analysed using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The data was analyzed in the most logical and meaningful way and relevant comments made appropriately. Quantitative data was analysed using descriptive statistics which included meaning, standard deviation and frequency distribution. Considering the quantitative nature of the data, descriptive statistics which describes the main features of the data collected (frequency, percent, mean and standard deviation) was used. Inferential statistics was tested using Pearson method of correlations (a measure of relations between variables) which involves determining the extent of the relationship between variables (arrange of 0 to 1).

Summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations

Majority of the respondents 57% agreed that donor funded overhead projectors/transparencie*s* improves learning outcomes in public primary schools, majority of the respondents 69%. Agreed that here was no sufficient donor funded overhead projectors/transparencie***s*** in school; this implies negative learning outcomes in public primary schools. Respondents strongly agreed that enough textbooks improve academic performance of students which implies that lack of enough textbooks in school; this implies a negative academic performance for students.

The study concluded that sufficient donor provision of television and videos as learning materials improves the academic performance of students. Most of the respondents said that

there was lack of donor provision of television and videos as learning materials in school; this implies negative learning outcomes in public primary schools. Majority of the respondents 43% said that sustainability of SFP improves the academic performance of students. Respondents agreed said that there was lack of sustainability of SFP, this implies a poor academic performance in public primary schools, that food/Balanced diet in SFP improves the academic performance of students and that there was lack of nutritious food in SFP, and this implies a poor academic performance in public primary schools.

The study concluded that the academic performance of students was negatively influenced by the lack of scholarly material, lack of well-structured school feeding program, and lack of well installed physical facilities. The study revealed that academic performance was not negatively influenced by lack of clean water.

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School Learners in Meru County, Kenya

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Abstract

The school system is expected to inculcate desirable societal norms in the learners. However, cases of unacceptable norms such as immorality, destruction of property, riots, strikes, drug abuse and disrespect for authority have been on the increase despite numerous interventions put in place by the government and individual educational institutions such burning of external exams, abolition of visiting days and holiday tuition. This study sought to examine the application of Afrocentric teaching methodology to enhance societal norms among secondary school learners in Meru County, Kenya. The study adopted exploratory descriptive research approach. The study used questionnaires and interview schedules to collect data. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation and coefficient of variation. Inferential statistics used for data analysis was Linear Regression Analysis. The study found out that integration of Afrocentric evaluation methods into current Kenyan school system has statistically significant influence on societal norms among secondary school learners. The findings of this study will provide useful knowledge in regard to Afrocentric evaluation methods and societal norms and provide a basis for further studies.

Key Words: *Influence, Afrocentric, Evaluation methods, Societal norms*

Introduction

An assessment exercise refers to the process of collecting information about a student to help in making an evaluation about the progress and development of the student According to Chilisa (2012) Afrocentric evaluation strategies emphasize on making evaluation culturally relevant. It advocates for culturally responsible and acceptable practices through incorporation of African voices in the practices. This implies that an evaluation exercise should be guided by certain values that acceptable in one's society. Tests and assessment tools should use a language that is neutral, meaning that it will neither give undue advantages to some learners nor will it hurt or unduly disadvantage others. According to Guba and Lincoln (2005) the world is diverse, culture is divers and therefore evaluation methods should take care of those diversities and not see learners backgrounds in one color.

A research study by Jeng (2012) on rebirth, restoration and reclamation, the potential for Africa centered evaluation and development models revealed that evaluation strategies should not blindly rely on Eurocentric models. An evaluation that would benefit African children should take into consideration the learners cultural backgrounds because learners' cultural background and experiences form the learners' foundation of learning and understanding the world. According to a research study by Muwanga-Zake (2009) on building bridges across knowledge systems: Ubuntu and participative research paradigms in Bantu communities in Africa, an evaluation exercise should consider aspects of communal nature and collective responsibility of indigenous African communities. This would promote those African values that should live beyond the contemporary globalization which is characterized by capitalistic nature of modern societies. According to a research study by Moore and Zenda (2012) on contemporary development challenges for Africa and their implications for evaluation, an evaluation exercise should aim at building a relationship between the learner

and the evaluator. An evaluation exercise therefore ought to take into consideration the learners views and interest for that relationship to be well established.

Useful classroom assessments will provide feedback through corrective instructions in the spirit of giving students a second chance to demonstrate success thus helping them to learn and acquire intended skills, values and attitudes (Stiggins, 2002). Gronlund (2004) in his book titled assessment of student achievement shows that evaluation has numerous benefits including being an important component in improving education but not just ranking students or schools. Evaluation thus helps teachers to improve the use of results and align their teaching with desired norms and values. According to studies by Rogers (2006) on effective student assessment and evaluation in the classroom, credible evaluation guides students to know what they have learnt in the classroom, the skills and attitudes they have acquired and therefore are able to know where they need to put more effort to succeed. Evaluation thus helps students to plan and revise their classroom instructions.

According to Alberta Assessment Consortium (2005) scoring guide of an evaluation should not be complicated for students to understand and should avoid any content or language that is sensitive, sexist or offensive. After an evaluation exercise results should be promptly communicated. According to a research study by Fernard (2002) the evaluator should think of a general motivation as a reward to the learners based on their performance and collaboration. This is because students can be reinforced to learn what is desired by a physical stimuli such as food. Such an intervention would counter the learners' negative feelings and lack of assertiveness when they consistently do poorly in an assessment exercise. According to Ndambuki, Rono and Frank (2006) affirming children and encouraging them will boost their social and emotional health.

Statement of the Problem

Kenyan society has entrusted the school system with the key role of socialization. The schooling process is expected to inculcate desirable societal norms among learners. However, cases of undesirable behaviors that do not conform to acceptable societal norms such as immorality, destruction of property, riots, strikes, drug abuse and disrespect for authority have been on the increase despite interventions put in place by the government and the individual educational institutions to make the learning environment in schools learner friendly. This inconformity with societal norms raises concern on the role and effectiveness of school system in inculcating societal norms. This study sought to examine application of Afrocentric evaluation methods into the Kenyan school system to enhance inculcation of desirable societal norms among secondary school learners.

Objective

The objective of the study was to establish the influence of Afrocentric evaluation methods on societal norms among secondary school learners.

Hypothesis

The following Hypothesis was addressed:

H_0: There is no statistically significant influence of Afrocentric evaluation methods on societal norms among secondary school learners in Meru County, Kenya.

Methodology

This study used exploratory descriptive research design and correlation design. Descriptive design was applicable for the study because it embarks on investigating and finding the real

nature of the problem. The target population was 86,700 subjects and sample size was 384. The validity of the instrument was ensured through assistance of the supervisors. Reliability of the instrument was ascertained through a pilot study and a correlation coefficient of 0.774 was established.

Results and Discussions

The current study sought to determine the influence of Afrocentric evaluation methods on societal norms among secondary school learners in Meru County, Kenya. The respective research findings are presented in Table 1.

Contemporary Evaluation Methods

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for each of the contemporary evaluation methods variables measured. The researcher analyzed the information regarding contemporary evaluation methods and got means and standard deviations of the responses. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Contemporary Evaluation Methods

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	CV
Classroom assessment tests don't come as surprises to learners.	376	3.35	1.232	36.819
Teachers give clear corrective instructions after an evaluation exercise.	377	3.59	1.015	28.279
Teachers guide learners on what is to be evaluated	377	3.34	1.131	33.821
Teachers don't use test to rank learners but rather to get feedback on what they have taught.	377	3.56	0.993	27.927
Evaluation helps learners to revise what they have learnt in classroom.	377	3.63	1.036	28.506
Assessment tests do not use language that is sensitive and offensive.	377	3.29	1.217	37.036
Tests and examinations cover both cognitive and behavior attitudes.	377	3.29	1.153	35.042
Teachers evaluate what they have taught.	377	3.47	1.185	34.103
Overall Mean Score	377	3.45	1.113	32.351

The research findings presented in Table 1 show that evaluation helps learners to revise what they learnt in classroom had the highest mean score of 3.63. This implies that on average the respondents tended to agree that evaluation that is done in their schools is useful in helping the learners to revise what their teachers have covered in class. The least mean score (3.29) was registered on two parameters (Assessment tests do not use language that is sensitive and offensive and tests and examinations cover both cognitive and behavior attitudes). This implies that on average most respondents indicated that they had no opinion on the two statements. The findings further imply that the responses were neutral, meaning that the respondents could neither agree nor disagree with the given statements. Similarly these results imply that it is not very clear to tell whether the tests and examinations in secondary schools evaluate both cognitive and behavior attitudes of the learners. Information presented in Table 1 indicate that the statement teachers don't just use tests to rank learners but rather to get feedback on what they have taught had a mean score of 3.56. This implies that on average the respondents tended to agree that teachers use the feedback they get through evaluation exercises to improve their teaching. The results further indicate that all the

variables in study had close mean scores ranging from 3.29 to 3.63. The results therefore reveal that all the variables under study had moderate agreement with an overall mean score of 3.45 which implies that the responses were ranging between having no opinion and agreeing with the given statements. These results agree with research findings of a study by Hansan (2016) on teaching dispositional strategies which established that if teachers utilize feedback they get about their learners, they can reorganize their content delivery in a way that will assure them of achieving their set objectives.

Afrocentric Evaluation Methods

Information was sought on Afrocentric evaluation methods. The respondents indicated their agreement with given statements and mean and standard deviation were computed. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Afrocentric Evaluation Methods

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	CV
Evaluation by observing how the learner works promotes sense of responsibility.	377	4.22	0.806	19.107
Evaluation through participation in what is taught encourages honesty among learners.	377	4.33	0.785	18.117
Evaluating the level of engagement during the learning process promotes integrity.	377	4.27	0.790	18.489
Active involvement in productive work during the learning promotes hard work.	377	4.42	0.740	16.737
Role playing enhances transparency and honesty.	377	4.37	0.743	17.014
Evaluating the character of the learner promotes acceptable social values.	377	4.30	0.768	17.841
Overall Mean Score	377	4.32	0.772	17.884

The research findings in Table 2 indicate that active involvement in productive work during learning promotes hard work had the highest mean score of 4.42 while evaluation by observing how the learner works promotes sense of responsibility had the least mean score of 4.22. This implies that on average, the participants' responses tended toward strongly agreeing. The results therefore imply that most of the respondents believed that involving learners in productive work during learning process can encourage students to work hard. The results in Table 38 also indicate that evaluating by observing how the learners work could promote sense of responsibility had the least mean score mean score of 4.22. This implies that the least responses to the statements were agreeing, implying further that no respondent disagreed with the given statements. The findings also show that for all the variables under study, mean scores were very close ranging from 4.22 to 4.42. Therefore for all the variables in the study, the agreements were high with an overall mean score of 4.32. This implies that on average the responses to all parameters of Afrocentric evaluation methods were above agreeing.

These results agree with Wilmot (2009) on African life and customs who indicated that application of Afrocentric perspectives in schools can improve education system and enhance desired behavior by blending Eurocentric and Afrocentric ideas for the good of African children. The findings also agree with Olaniyan (2006) who established that when emphasis is laid on African cultural traditions, values and symbols of communication, desirable behaviors can be instilled in the learners. Omolewa (2007) on traditional modes of education and their

relevance in modern society supports the findings of the current study by asserting that Afrocentric principles in a school system facilitate for a holistic education in which children's home experiences are linked to school learning.

Correlation of Evaluation Methods and Societal Norms

The objective of the current study was to determine the influence of Afrocentric evaluation methods on societal norms among secondary school learners. A correlation analysis was conducted in order to assess the relationships among the research variables. The results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Evaluation Methods and Societal Norms

		Societal Norms	Contemporary Evaluation methods	Evaluation Methods
Societal Norms	Pearson Correlation	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			
	N	377		
Contemporary Evaluation methods	Pearson Correlation	.436**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		
	N	377	377	
Integrated Afrocentric Evaluation Methods	Pearson Correlation	.484**	.929**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	
	N	377	377	377

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The results presented in Table 3 show varied degree of relationship between societal norms, contemporary evaluation methods and integrated Afrocentric evaluation methods. The results indicate that contemporary evaluation methods had a fair positive correlation with societal norms ($r = 0.436$, p-value < 0.01; sig 2-tailed = 0.000 < 0.05). The research findings further show that integrated Afrocentric evaluation methods had a fair positive correlation with societal norms ($r = 0.484$, p-value < 0.01; sig. 2-tailed = 0.000 < 0.05). This fair positive correlation therefore implies that integration of Afrocentric evaluation methods into the contemporary school system in Kenya fairly influences societal norms among secondary school learners.

Regression Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

To assess the relationship between evaluation methods and societal norms, the following hypothesis was tested:

H_0: There is no statistically significant influence of Afrocentric evaluation methods on societal norms among secondary school learners in Meru County, Kenya.

In order to test this hypothesis, a linear regression analysis was done at 95% confidence level ($\alpha = 0.05$). The contemporary evaluation methods and the integrated Afrocentric evaluation methods were regressed against societal norms to establish the goodness oft, the overall

significance and the individual significance of the Model. The results are presented in Table 4, Table 5 and Table 6.

To establish the percentage of variation in societal norms that is explained by independent variable in the Model, the researcher regressed contemporary evaluation methods and integrated Afrocentric evaluation methods against societal norms. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

The Goodness of Fit of Models

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Contemporary Evaluation Methods	.436[a]	0.190	0.188	0.53375
Integrated Afrocentric Evaluation Methods	.484[a]	0.234	0.232	0.51919

The information presented in Table 4 shows that contemporary evaluation methods had influence on societal norms among secondary school learners. The coefficient of determination is 0.190. This suggests that 19% of variation in societal norms is explained by current contemporary evaluation methods. The results in Table 4 also indicate that 23.4% of variation in societal norms is explained by integrated Afrocentric evaluation methods. The coefficient of determination is 0.234. Therefore based on these results, the study revealed that integrated evaluation methods contribute significantly towards societal norms.

The researcher conducted analysis of variance in order to assess the robustness and overall significance of the evaluation Model. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

The Overall Significance of the Models

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Contemporary Evaluation Methods	Regression	25.114	1	25.114	88.154	.000[b]
	Residual	106.832	375	0.285		
	Total	131.946	376			
Integrated Afrocentric Evaluation Methods	Regression	30.861	1	30.861	114.485	.000[b]
	Residual	101.086	375	0.270		
	Total	131.946	376			

The research findings in Table 5 indicate that contemporary evaluation methods significantly influence societal norms with F statistics = 88.154 and a p-value 0.000 < 0.05. This implies that the regression Model is statistically significant at 5% level of significance. The results further show that integrated Afrocentric evaluation methods significantly influence societal norms with F statistics = 114.485 and a p-value 0.000 < 0.05. This also implies that the regression Model is statistically significant at 5% level of significance.

The researcher sought to establish the significance of the individual variables in the evaluation Model. The results are shown in Table 6.

Table 6
Individual Significance of the Model

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
Contemporary Evaluation Methods	(Constant)	2.531	0.145		17.406	0.000
	Contemporary Evaluation methods	0.388	0.041	0.436	9.389	0.000
Integrated Afrocentric Evaluation Methods	(Constant)	1.788	0.197		9.095	0.000
	Integrated Afrocentric Evaluation Methods	0.548	0.051	0.484	10.700	0.000

The results in Table 6 show that contemporary evaluation methods were considered to be statistically significantly significant with t-value of 9.389 and p-value 0.000 < 0.05. This implies that for one unit change in contemporary evaluation methods, societal norms increase by a factor of 0.388. The study further revealed that there exists a statistically significant relationship between integrated Afrocentric evaluation methods and societal norms at 5% level of significance (p-value = 0.000 < 0.05) This implies that for one unit change in integrated Afrocentric evaluation methods, societal norms increase by a factor of 0.548.

The study conclusively revealed that contemporary evaluation methods and integrated Afrocentric evaluation methods influence societal norms at 5% level of significance. The null hypothesis that there is no statistically significant influence of Afrocentric evaluation methods on societal norms among secondary school learners, is not supported in the current study. The predictive Models for societal norms in respect to evaluation methods can be stated as follows:

$Y = 2.531 + 0.388\ X_{11}$ and $Y = 1.788 + 0.548\ X_1$
Where Y = Societal norms
X_{11} = Contemporary evaluation methods
X_1 = Integrated Afrocentric evaluation methods
2.531 and 1.788 are constants
0.388 and 0.548 are regression coefficients.

The current study established that Afrocentric evaluation methods enhance societal norms. This study is in line with a study by Gronlud (2004) on assessment of students' achievements in England which shows that evaluation has numerous benefits including helping teachers to improve the use of the results in order to align their teaching with desired norms and values. Gronlud (2004) established that an evaluation should guide learners to discover their strengths as well as their areas of need. The findings of this study also agree with Guskey

(2003) who found that an evaluation assessment should not be a matter of do-or-die experience to the learners. The study confirmed that evaluation should be an on-going effort to help or guide students to learn values and that an evaluation that enhances societal norms therefore does not condemn learners on the basis of their performance outcome but rather encourages learners to revisit what was intended for them to acquire in class. Guskey (2003) further supports the findings of the current study by arguing that teachers need to be given adequate formal training on how to develop evaluation in forms of quizzes, tests and assignments.

Similar studies by Rogers (2006) on effective student assessment and evaluation in the classroom echo the findings of this study by revealing that learners' behaviors are improved by credible evaluation that guides students to review what they have learnt in the classroom and the desired values and attitudes they are expected to acquire. Similarly the findings of this study are backed by Arrasian (2005) who reveals that an evaluation should not come as a secret to the students, especially at the middle grade levels. Informing students on evaluation time and areas to be covered assists the learner to master of what is to be evaluated and enables them to live according to the desired norms and values. The findings of the current study however disagree with the studies by Perkins and Craig (2006) on a successful social norms campaign to reduce college student drinking which reveal that evaluation methods have negative impact on societal norms because most evaluations strategies are only focused on cognitive skills. The results further agree with Ndambuki, Rono and Frank (2006) who revealed that affirming children after an evaluation exercise promotes good morals.

Conclusions

The findings of the study revealed that Afrocentric evaluation method contributes significantly to enhancement of societal norms at 5% level of significance. The study shows that Afrocentric evaluation methods have significant influence on societal norms. The study indicates that the highest percentage of variation in societal norms in the Model was as a result of integrating Afrocentric evaluation methods into the current Kenyan evaluation methods in school system. A unit change in integrated evaluation methods similarly resulted to the highest increase in societal norms compared to current Kenyan evaluation methods alone. From the results of this study, the researcher therefore concludes that integrating Afrocentric evaluation methods into the current Kenyan evaluation methods would significantly improve societal norms among secondary school learners.

Recommendations

The researcher made the following recommendations:
There is need to integrate Afrocentric evaluation methods into Kenyan school system for maximum enhancement of societal norms.
There is need to sensitize teachers and students on the importance of integration of Afrocentric evaluation methods into Kenyan school system.

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Influence Of Educational Support On Academic Performance Of Orphans And Vulnerable Children In Public Primary Schools In Kalama Sub County, Machakos County, Kenya

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Abstract

Education gives children hope for life and work, and a strong protector against HIV to which Orphans and Vulnerable Children may be particularly susceptible. Despite the Kenyan government effort in mobilising and supporting community based interventions and ensuring access for Orphans and Vulnerable Children to essential services including but not limited to education, health care, psychosocial support and legal protection, OVC in Machakos County and especially Kalama Sub County have been experiencing challenges in meeting their psychosocial, nutritional, academic and health care needs. The purpose of the study was to establish the influence of educational support on academic performance of OVC in public primary schools in Kalama Sub County in Machakos County, Kenya. The study objectives were to examine the influence of class teacher's individualized support of OVC learning, to assess the influence of the school provision of OVC feeding programme and to establish the influence of teacher's/caregiver cooperation on OVC academic performance in Kalama Sub County. The study was premised on Abraham Maslow hierarchy of needs motivational theory. The study adopted descriptive survey design. The study sampled 36 teachers and 11 head teachers. The study data was collected through class teachers' questionnaire and head teachers interview schedule. Content and construct types of validity were ascertained through scrutiny by a panel of university lecturers. Using test retest technique, teachers; questionnaire was found to have a reliability coefficient of 0.78. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data. The study's three formulated null hypotheses were analyzed using multiple regression analysis. School provision of OVC feeding programme had the most significant relative contribution to the prediction of pupils' academic performance ($\beta = 0.578$) followed by level of teachers' individualized support ($\beta = 0.452$) while teacher/caregiver's cooperation had the least influence ($\beta = 0.329$). The study recommended that all the School Management Commitees in collaboration with head teachers should be proactive and start income generating programmes in order to support the home grown school food programme in situations when the government stipend is not forthcoming and when it is inadequate. Further, the SMC should collaborate with local community welfare groups and the larger community in order to extend the food programme to the OVC families.

Key words: *Academic Performance, Educational Support, Orphan, Vulnerable children, School Feeding Program, Home-Grown School Feeding*

Introduction

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) maintains that every child requires basic needs to develop and grow to a healthy and responsible adult (UNICEF, 2016). Parental love, care

and protection of a child is very crucial in the early stages of development. The immediate family and environment of a child is critical in determining how that child develops because it is in this environment that they get nurtured, thereby experiencing love and acceptance, a sense of belonging, safety and security as well as developing trust, respect and confidence (UNICEF, 2016). Gaventa and Blauert (2016) decries that vulnerable and disadvantaged group of people are often derided, devalued and unappreciated, albeit indirectly by the larger society. The Orphans and Vulnerable children (OVC) fall in the category of the disadvantaged group.

According to USAID (2008) and UNICEF (2016), an orphan is a child under the age of 18 whose mother (maternal orphan), father (paternal orphan), or both parents (double orphan) have died from any cause. Vulnerable children are defined as children whose safety, well-being or development is at significant risk. Similarly, Traflon (2009) considers a vulnerable child as one who is living in circumstances with high risks and whose prospects for continued growth and development are seriously threatened. This includes children that are emotionally deprived or traumatized. Most of these children lack access to basic needs due to high levels of poverty. Most of the orphans are vulnerable, however not all vulnerable children are orphans.

A study spearheaded by UNICEF (2013) estimated that worldwide, there were about 145 million children between the ages of 0 to 17 years without one or both parents. The situation came about due to sickness, conflict and mishaps. The report further disclosed that globally, 15 million children have become orphaned because of AIDS, with 11.6 million of this because of AIDS in sub-Saharan Africa alone (UNICEF, 2013). As such, national governments, NGOs, international and local stakeholders have recognized the plight of OVC as an issue with economic, social and human right dimensions. Thus, addressing the needs of OVC and mitigation of the living difficulties they encounter has become a priority worldwide.

Rawlings (2003) cited in Musyoka (2016) observes that in the USA, Up to 40% of ninth-grade OVC students in some states repeat ninth grade since their academic skills are found to be insufficient for high school-level work. In New Delhi, India, despite the implementation of the Right to Education (RTE) initiative with increased funding, Harvey and Bailey (2011) noted that nearly one third of the states and union territories have seen an increase in the dropout ratio from 1.2% to 4.3% of OVC in primary education level. In Ghana, the Ghana Demographic and Health Survey (2008) reported that 16.3% of children under the age of 15 have at least one parent dead, 6.6% of children under the age of 15 are not living with either parent and therefore, included in the vulnerable category (Garcia & Moore, 2010).

The OVC in countries with many cases of HIV/AIDS experience discrimination in accessing education and healthcare as orphan hood is associated with HIV/AIDS (Fleming, 2015). Fleming further observes that double and maternal orphans are more prone to failure to access education than paternal orphans. Such orphans lack education related materials and conducive home setting and above all experience financial constraints. Children who head the double orphaned families are often associated with low school participation and chronic absenteeism since they are overburdened with domestic and economic responsibilities (Fleming, 2015).

Afwai (2013) reiterates that the situation of the OVC in Kenya is an issue of concern. In 2013, it was estimated that there are over 3 million Orphans in the country, of which 47 percent were orphaned as a result of HIV and AIDS and many more remain vulnerable due to several other factors. Afwai further notes that the statistics surrounding the rising population and the corresponding increase in children in vulnerable situations depicts a grim future and which requires sustained intervention. For instance, over 25% of the population live on less than $1 per day and 12-15% of households in Kenya are headed by an orphan sibling. These orphans

sometimes become antisocial as they undergo trauma due to parents death in a society seemingly impervious to their plight (Afwai, 2013).

HIV and AIDS scourge compounded with high poverty levels has aggravated the situation of OVCs in Kenya. Children affected by HIV/AIDS are vulnerable long before their parents die (Langinger, 2011). Girls, in particular, assume caring responsibilities for their ailing parents besides parenting for their siblings. In some regions of the country, over 25% of orphans are acutely malnourished in a country whose economy is largely driven by agriculture (Munuhe, 2014).

Sloth-Nielsen, (2014) observes that with an economically weakened and overstretched traditional African extended family system that can no longer work effectively to address the high OVC burden, most children find themselves without proper social support with the incapacitation and death of their parents. The future of these children remains very unpredictable. This will deny the OVCs a chance to access their basic needs such as proper health care, education shelter and nutrition. Orphans suffer stigma, stress and trauma in addition to the loss of parental love, care and protection and more often they are disinherited by their next of kin (Kiambi & Mugambi, 2017). Further, OVC are exposed to different forms of abuse and exploitation; physical abuse, defilement, sexual exploitation, child labour, and early marriages while more flock to streets to fend for themselves. This situation diminishes their capacity to participate in matters affecting their lives. Indeed, cases of child abuse have become a common feature in this country with only a few of these being reported to the relevant authorities.

In response to OVC issues, the Kenya government has made strides in ensuring OVC are not only receiving basic education but also their upkeep through cash transfer to their care givers. The OVC response is based in the Kenya OVC Secretariat in the department of children's and gender services of the Ministry of Gender, Children, and Social Development (MOGCSD) (MOGCSD, 2009). Additionally, the multi sector National OVC Steering Committee was established to advise the government on OVC issues in policy, practice, and implementation; and to monitor OVC programming. Members include key ministries such as finance, education, and health; the National AIDS Control Council (NACC); the National AIDS and STI Control Program (NASCOP); and development partners. The steering committee meets regularly to review and advise the government on OVC issues chaired by the Permanent Secretary of the MOGCSD (MOGCSD, 2009).

Pfleiderer and Kantai (2010) observe that in an effort to quantify the OVC situation, the National OVC Steering Committee carried out a Rapid Assessment, Analysis, and Action Planning (RAAAP) Process for OVC in 2004. This eventually led to the development of the National Plan of Action (NPA) for OVC, 2007–2010. The National Plan of Action (NPA) for OVC, 2007–2010 outlines the policies and guidelines on OVC interventions in Kenya (Pfleiderer & Kantai. 2010). The policies and guidelines provide a strategic framework for the OVC response by program developers and implementers. The Kenyan Cash Transfer Programme (CTP) began in 2005 and was mainly funded by the government, the World Bank, the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID), and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). CTP provides systematic support for OVC by strengthening households to take care of OVC (Pfleiderer & Kantai. 2010).

Musyoka (2016) notes that the U.S.A. President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) was another major source of funding for OVC and which provided nearly $50 million for OVC in 2010. The fund was used to provide free medical services for children below five years; free primary school, including scholarships for OVC; and legal support for inheritance.

Despite the great effort from both national and international bodies to cater for OVC in Kenya, the aid to OVC has not been sustainable. Furthermore, some aiding projects are susceptible to politics from donor countries and terminate their services when politics change. Such sudden changes in flow of aid has left many OVC more traumatized as they drop from schools, run out of food and lack medical attention (Kiambi & Mugambi, 2017).

Discussion

School Provision of OVC Feeding Programme and Academic Performance

Santa-Ana-Tellez, DeMaria and Galarraga, (2011) says that school feeding when properly programmed and targeted on the basis of poverty prevalence and food insecurity can not only encourage children to get into school but it can also attract new enrolments from marginalised communities. Further, when combined with food fortification and deworming, school feeding can relieve short-term hunger and tackle micronutrient deficiencies.

In Sub Saharan Africa, an introduction of a free lunch programme in most schools can cause a drastic increase in the number of pupils who attend school (UNICEF, 2016). Due to hard economic conditions and breakdown of traditional social fabric, many children and especially OVC report to school hungry with no hope of getting the next meal. This condition jeopardizes their chances of attaining meaningful education. Not only does education provide a solid foundation for continued learning throughout life, but it is also critically important to children's social integration and psychosocial well-being. Most of the OVC who have a constant school attendance, do regain a sense of normalcy and recover faster from trauma and impacts of their disrupted lives. School provision of feeding to OVC can provide a social safety net which to a great extent address issues of inequity and gender imbalance. Moreover, retaining these children in school, especially girls, can reduce their vulnerability to sexual abuse and exposure to HIV, provide access to vocational training, life skills education and entrepreneurship (UNICEF, 2013).

Teachers' and OVC Caregivers Cooperation and Academic Performance

Krishnan (2010), observes that the family, neighborhood and the school have the most and earliest influence on the child's development. Thus, cooperation between family members or care givers and the school community in providing educational needs for OVC is paramount. In doing so, the OVC educational performance can be enhanced. In addition, constant communication and coordination between the teachers and the OVC care givers can help in creation of optimal home environment for a child to develop physically, psychologically and academically. On the same vein Mwoma and Pillay (2016) proffer that in order for OVC to get adequate support from guardians/parents there is a need for workshops to sensitise them to the need to fully support OVC with school/homework and to supervise their personal hygiene at home.

PEPFAR (2006) notes that strengthening the families and school environment capacity to support OVC is one of the potent measures to enhance OVC academic performance and progress. Krishnan (2010) also pointed out that what happens in a microsystem such as home where a child lives, could influence what happens in the school and vice versa. It is imperative therefore, that capacity building for OVC caregivers on how best to offer educational support by providing an enabling environment such as allowing them time to study and providing the necessary guidance and hope is an option that cannot be overlooked. Class teachers should also make an effort to know and identify with each OVC family and especially the caregiver for close monitoring of OVC welfare. Santa-Ana-Tellez, DeMaria and Galarraga (2011) posit that a social worker attached to school can enhance the link between the teacher and the caregiver.

Through various home visits, the social workers can to identify the various needs of OVC alongside the needs of caregivers with a view of identifying the appropriate ways of meeting those needs.

Methodology

This study adopted descriptive survey research design. According to Machakos County schools census report of 2016, there were 36 public primary schools in Kalama Sub County (MOEST, 2017). The study targeted 36 head teachers and all grade/class seven 46 class teachers. The study purposively sampled 36 class teachers for class seven from the 36 public primary schools. However, simple random sampling was used to select only one class teacher in schools with more than one stream in class seven.The study also aimed at gathering information about OVC by interviewing some head teachers. Kothari (2009) argues that a sample of 30% of the study population is sufficient to give reliable findings leading to valid and informed generalization and conclusion. In line with that view, the study sampled 30% of head teachers for the interview. The 11 head teachers were selected through simple random sampling. Thus the study sample consisted of 36 class teachers and 11 head teachers.

Results and Discussions

Teachers' individualized support of OVC learning and Academic Performance

The study examined the influence of class teacher's individualized support of OVC learning on their academic performance. To achieve the objective, a set of statements in form of a Likert scale were posed to the respondents to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with them. The questionnaire responses were coded such that strongly disagree (SD) was rated number 1 while strongly agree (SA) was rated number 5. The mean responses for class teachers were computed such that: a mean response of above 3.0 was considered as agree while a mean of below 3.0 was considered as disagree. Further, for easier interpretation the responses were collapsed into three columns of Agree (A), Neutral (N) and Disagree (D) as shown in Table 4.1. Table 4.1shows the proportion of teacher respondents in various levels of agreement, the mean and standard deviation.

Table 4. 1: Teachers' Response on Individualized Support accorded to OVC

Statement	**A**	**U**	**D**		
	%	**%**	**%**	**Mean**	**SD**
I normally invite the OVC individually to review their academic performance	61.1	16.7	22.2	3.8	0.8
I guide the OVC in their class assignments and homework after school	13.9	8.3	77.8	2.4	0.5
I keenly monitor class attendance of the OVC	41.2	19.7	38.9	3.4	1.1
I normally keep some learning materials such as pencils, pens, exercise books and rulers for the OVC who might not be having these items.	25.7	3.6	70.7	2.1	0.6
I normally try to intervene when a child is depressed, sad or angry due to happenings at home or at a school	86.1	8.3	5.6	4.5	0.4

I constantly enquire from the OVC about the living conditions in their homes	77.8	11.1	11.1	3.8	1.2
As the class teacher, I make sure I brief teachers about each OVC with a view to empathize and intervene where possible	41.7	16.7	41.7	3.2	1.2
As a class teacher, I occasionally instruct my class on life skills	36.1	27.8	36.1	3.2	1.4
I have the skills to handle pupils undergoing trauma and shock	27.8	13.9	58.3	2.7	0.9
I have the skills to handle pupils affected by grief and loss	27.8	25	47.2	2.5	0.8
Aggregate Score				**3.2**	**1.0**

N = 36

In reference to Table 4.1, most of the teachers (61.1%) affirmed they normally invite the OVC individually to review their academic performance. This implies that teachers are concerned with the academic progress of OVC in their classes. However, the 22.2% of teachers who disagreed and 16.7% who were undecided, shows that, there was still a considerable number of teachers who were not keen in doing a follow up on the OVC academic work.

Teachers overwhelmingly (77.8%) indicated that they do not guide the OVC in their class assignments and homework after school. This implied that, OVC who lack a conducive environment at home for academic work, were not able to accomplish their assignments leading to low academic performance. Nevertheless, 41.2% of the teachers affirmed that they keenly monitor class attendance of the OVC showing that were concerned of OVC academic performance and school participation. However, the 58.5% of teachers who disagreed and were undecided was a manifestation of nonchalance attitude assumed by teachers.

The statement that 'I normally keep some learning materials such as pencils, pens, exercise books and rulers for the OVC who might not be having these items' was refuted by 70.7% of teachers. Through the open ended section of questionnaires, some teachers indicated that they were overwhelmed by the number of pupils who required assistance in educational materials such as pens, pencils, rulers, rubbers, geometrical sets and books. It was therefore, safe not to entertain provision of any assistance.

Teachers overwhelmingly (86.1%) affirmed that they normally try to intervene when a child is depressed, sad or angry due to happenings at home or at a school (mean = 4.5, SD = 0.4). This implied that most of the teachers were empathetic towards the tribulations OVC undergo. Teachers' empathy and concern is a virtue which can help identify more pupils who may need to be classified as OVC in order to benefit from the government Cash Transfer Programme. Likewise, teachers overwhelmingly (77.8%), affirmed that they constantly enquire from the OVC about the living conditions in their homes. However, the relatively high standard deviation of 1.2, showed that there were some teachers who indicated that, they do not constantly enquire about the OVC welfare at their homes. Pupils' academic performance is also a function of the conditions at home. Pupils need psychosocial support, material support and spiritual support and constant guidance in order to function well in school.

The statement that 'as the class teacher, I make sure I brief teachers about each OVC with a view to empathize and intervene where possible' was affirmed by 41.7% of teachers and refuted by the same percentage of teachers. This implied that while some teachers embraced

team work in handling the issues of OVC, others did not. Just like the multi sector approach adopted by the National government to handle OVC issues, teachers should embrace the team work in assisting OVC. The statement that 'as a class teacher, I occasionally instruct my class on life skills' elicited mixed reactions from the teacher respondents. About 36% of teachers affirmed, 27.8% were undecided while 36% teachers disagreed. This implied that while some teachers were certain that they did teach the life skills, were not sure. Life skills are essential in order for the OVC to overcome the challenges they encounter on daily basis. For instance, as OVC matures, they encounter pressure from peers to engage in sexual activities and use of substance and alcohol. Teachings of Life skills need not be planned and a class teacher advice or a word on how to avoid the common pitfalls in life as they take roll call daily basis, can be of immense help to OVC and other pupils in general.

Over 55% of teachers refuted that they have the skills to handle pupils undergoing trauma and shock. Similarly, 47.2% of teachers refuted that they have the skills to handle pupils affected by grief and loss while 25% were undecided. Therefore, most of the teachers indicated that they lacked the essential skills that are needed to assist OVC overcome the challenges encounter. This finding was affirmed by some head teachers who lamented of the manner in which some teachers handle the OVC. The following comments exemplifies the concern as expressed by the interviewed head teachers:

Some of my teachers are very crude in the manner they handle OVC…some of the pupils undergo very traumatizing experiences especially when they have very sick people at home…when they perform below expectations or report late to school some teachers are quick to inflict physical pain or mental torture through ridicule in class… it becomes a double tragedy…. (Head teacher one-H1).

Surely, we need to be trained on how to handle pupils who have lost a parent or parents due to AIDS…on one hand the teachers would wish the affected pupils to be carefully handled in order to assist them in healing but on the other hand…much attention on these pupils would end up stigmatizing them…(Head teacher 8).

The number of pupils who need serious guidance and counseling as result of traumatizing experiences encountered at home are on increase in my school…most of the teachers are unable to handle these situations and I think that is why most of them are taking too long to recover….(Head teacher 4)

Such comments from head teachers denotes the lack of teachers' capacity to handle the specialized services required by the OVC. As shown in Table 4.1, overall the aggregate mean of responses was 3.2 with a standard deviation of 1.0. This implied that most of class teachers for grade five in Kalama Sub County accorded the OVC in their school individualized support in learning though to a small extent. The accorded support could have translated to better performance in termly examinations.

School Provision of OVC Lunch Programme and Academic Performance

The study also assessed the influence of the school provision of OVC feeding programme on their academic performance. To achieve the objective, a set of statements in form of a Likert scale were posed to the respondents to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with them. The questionnaire responses were coded such that strongly disagree (SD) was rated number 1 while strongly agree (SA) was rated number 5. The mean responses for class teachers were computed such that: a mean response of above 3.0 was considered as agree while a mean of below 3.0 was considered as disagree. The analyzed data was summarized in percentages, means and standard deviations (SD) as depicted in Table 4.2

Table 4. 2: Teachers' Response on the School Provision of OVC feeding Programme

Statement	**A**	**U**	**D**		
	%	**%**	**%**	**Mean**	**SD**
Our school has a sponsored food programme	36.1	5.6	58.3	2.6	0.9
The school has free lunch for all pupils	69.4	2.8	27.8	4.4	0.6
OVC are provided with take home package	13.8	25.0	61.1	2.6	0.8
There is a provision to cater for OVC who may lack supper and breakfast in their homes	22.2	22.2	55.6	2.7	1.0
The food provided in school is a balance diet	36.1	16.7	47.2	3.0	1.1
Our school provides lunch throughout the year	22.2	5.6	69.4	2.5	0.7
The school has food provision for OVC when the school is not in session	13.9	22.2	63.9	2.8	0.8
The school administration is keen on soliciting support for the feeding programme from different stakeholders	44.4	19.4	36.1	3.1	1.1
The school caters for OVC who require special diet	13.8	5.6	80.5	2.4	0.7
Aggregate Score				**2.9**	**0.8**

N = 36

In reference to Table 4.2, 58.3% of teacher respondents disagreed that their schools had a sponsored food programme. This implied that though some schools had a sponsor who supplied the food items, others managed without any assistance from sponsors. Incidentally, 69.4% of teachers indicated that their schools had free lunch for all pupils. The interviewed head teachers indicated that most schools in Kalama Sub County had benefitted from the food supply from drought rescue call by the Kenyan government. However, the supply was a seasonal event and could not be relied upon. The statement that 'OVC are provided with take home package' was refuted by 61.1% of the teacher respondents implying that, the free food catered for all pupils for lunch regardless of their social economic status but there was hardly any for OVC to take home. However, in some situations head teachers allowed some to have the same food for supper. One of the head teacher commented:

> We sometimes put aside some food though discreetly to cater for OVC in extremely needy situation…especially during end term examinations. The food caters for their supper and sometimes breakfast. It is normally a tricky arrangement because when other pupils and some parents happen to know, the number of pupils who will plead for their desperate cases will be overwhelming big. (Head teacher 11)

Over 45% of teachers refuted that the food provided in their schools was a balanced diet, 16.7% were not sure while 36.1% affirmed. Some teachers argued that, the mixture of maize and beans which was mostly cooked did not qualify to be termed as balanced diet since there were no vitamins. Other teachers were reluctant to commit themselves for the reason that they were not dieticians. One of the head teacher commented:

There was a time we were supplied with a fortified rice…in which all the essentials required by growing children were said to have been in cooperated…however the current batch consists of only maize and beans…and I doubt whether it can adequately cater for a growing child. (Head teacher 5).

Most of the teachers (69.4%) refuted that lunch was provided throughout the year. This implied that the supply of food stuff was not constant in all schools. According to some head teachers, the World Food Program scaled down their supply and which gave way to the

Kenyan Home Grown School Meals (HGSM) programme. The programme aimed at acting as a safety net strategy to increase food supply, improve incomes and reduce hunger and malnutrition. The government was expected to grant schools money to pay the local suppliers. However the flow of the expected funds has been erratic and schools are forced to either organize through the school committee or do without lunch programme. The gravity of the situation when the school runs out of supply was captured from one of the head teachers' comment, thus:

I dread the situation when our food store runs dry in the middle of the term…you

notice areal stress among the pupils…some stop coming to school, some become dirty, irritable and general restlessness…it is even worse with OVC, where some seek transfer to other school with running food programme and some leave school for street life…in such situations their academic performance drop drastically…teachers sometimes come together and contribute money to sustain the OVC in grade seven and eight… (Head teacher 6).

The statement that 'the school has food provision for OVC when the school is not in session' was refuted by 63.9% of teachers, 13.9% agreed while 22.2% of teachers were not sure. This implied that most schools did not have an elaborate arrangement for OVC to continue getting food assistance when the school was not in session. One of the interviewed head teachers noted:

OVC suffer from hunger and lack of supportive environment during the school holidays…this has prompted me to organize for those in grade seven and eight to board in a place nearby the school. The arrangement enables teachers to assist them in both material, psychosocial and academic work. Most of those who board end up performing well in KCPE… (Head teacher 4).

The statement that 'the school administration is keen on soliciting support for the feeding programme from different stakeholders' elicited varied responses from the teacher respondents. While 44.4% of teachers agreed, 19.4% and 36.1% of teachers disagreed (mean = 3.1 and SD = 1.1). The relatively high standard deviation arose from the fact that being an administrative task, most teachers might not have been aware of the efforts made by the administration to solicit support for the food programme. However, the researcher gathered more information from the head teachers. Some head teachers expressed their frustrations in regard to finding a reliable school programme sponsor who would supplement the government funding or fund the programme fully. Further, though some schools management committees had mobilized parents to start food programmes, they often ran into problems due the fact that some parents claimed that education was totally free and hence were reluctant to continue their contributions.

In regard to school catering for OVC who require special diet, majority of teachers (80.5%) indicated to the contrary. Only 13.8% of teachers affirmed. On the same issue, one of the interviewed head teacher commented:

…the issue of a special diet has no place in our school…in the first place we struggle to get whatever is available and when it is not forth coming we stay without…when it is a must that an OVC needs a special diet…we try to connect the affected pupil to a private children's' home. (Head teacher 9).

Overall the teachers mean response on the school provision of food programme as a function of OVC academic performance, was 2.9 with a standard deviation of 0.8. Thus, on average, teachers indicated that the educational support for OVC in terms of food was unsatisfactory

and they could not perform to their potential in the prevailing food situation in Kalama Sub County public primary schools.

Conclusion

Most of the class teachers in Kalama Sub County in Machakos County were not giving OVC the attention that their situation deserved. Apart from showing empathy, teachers should be able guide and counsel and above all instruct on life orientation skills especially after OVC traumatic experience. In addition, OVC need encouragement and guidance in academic work.

School food programmes in Kalama Sub County were found to be erratic in that most were not sustainable. In some schools the programmes collapsed the moment the free food from World Food Programme (WFP) got exhausted prompting massive OVC absenteeism and drop out. Most schools were yet to embrace fully the government initiated home grown school food programme. The School Management Commitees are expected to take the stewardship of the school food programme where parents are to contribute some funds to make it successful.

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Effect of Level of Enforcement of Knec Rules and Regulations On The Prevalence Of Examination Malpractice In Public And Private Secondary Schools In Kisii County.

Margaret Nekesa Shibo

Abstract

Examination malpractice in Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education examinations in KisiiCounty has been on the increase despite the strict enforcement of Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC) rules and regulations that govern the exercise. Thisstudy set out to examine the effect of the level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations by invigilators on the prevalence of examination malpractice in Kisii County. This study employed ex post facto and survey research design.The target population comprised of 363 principals, 726 invigilators and 30 examination officers drawn from 317 public and 46 private secondary schools in Kisii County. A sample of 109 principals, 218 invigilators and 10 examination officials was selected through stratified random sampling. The study utilized questionnaires and interview schedules to collect both qualitative and quantitative data. Pearson Correlation Coefficient wascomputed using SPSS to analyze quantitative data.Qualitative data were analyzed thematically;related themes were summarized are reported in prose. The study found that level of enforcement of KNEC rules contributed to the high level of examination malpractice. Pearson correlation results were as follows: Level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations (r = 0.087; p = 0.275). The study recommended that:KNEC should considerengaging in extensive sensitization campaigns aimed at regularly reminding all concerned stakeholders and that,the school management should consider organizing prior assessments to check on compliance levels in respect of the set KNEC rules and regulations.

Key Words: *KNEC Rules and Regulations, Examination Malpractice, Kisii County*

Introduction

Recent empirical studies show that cheating by secondary school students is prevalent in all four corners of the globe, including such far-flung nations such as Australia, Germany, Costa Rica, Austria, Japan, South Africa and Morocco (Benmansour, 2000).In Africa, examination malpractice is agreat challenge and a great concern to governments across the continents. For instance, in Nigeria, Eynestboi (2013)In Zambia, Maheka (2015) and Dagyenga (2013) observe that examination malpractice is far from being resolved. Studies in Kenya reveal that academic dishonesty is commonplace at both the national and state levels. Cheating during examinations is a widespread practice in Kenya, especially in Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) examinations and Kenya Certificate of Primary Education(KCPE) examinations. The problem with examination malpractice is that students carry along with them this bad practice to other institutions of higher learning such as colleges, universities and polytechnics. The end result is that half-baked students who are not skilled enough to join the job market (KNEC, 2012).This study is carried out in KisiiCounty, because it has the highest number of secondary schools in the country, and it has been the most affected by examination irregularities with the release of KCSE examination every year leading to cancellation of results for the affected candidates. (MoE, 2011).

The World Bank Group (2001) indicates that learners get involved in examination irregularities and malpractice mainly because, success in a public examination can have profound, immediate and long-term impact on a candidate's life. Appropriate assessment preparation

activities promote quality, long-term learning. Examinations and assessment bodies over the world should agree that the best way to promote assessment practices is to help teachers and administrators become aware of what is and is not an acceptable practice (Michigan Department of Education,2005).Kenya National Examination Council (KNEC)Act, cap 225A (1980) states that, any person:

Who gains access to examination materials and knowingly reveals the content, whether orally or in writing, to an unauthorized party, either a candidate or not or

Willing fully and maliciously damages examination materials or

Is not registered to take part in a particular councils' examination but, with intent to impersonate, presents or attempts to take part of an enrolled candidate shall be guilt of an offence and is liable to imprisonment for a term not exceeding twelve months or a fine not exceeding five thousand shillings or both imprisonment and a fine.

The KNEC Act (2012), which was enactedin 2013, provides for stiff penalties for examination offences. Anyone found leaking papers or committing other examination malpractices are liable, upon conviction, to imprisonment for a term not exceeding five years or a fine not exceeding Ksh1 million or both. Furthermore, anyone caught impersonating a candidate risks serving a jail term not exceeding two years or two millionKenya shillings fine, or both. They will also be prohibited from taking an examination conducted by or on behalf of the council for a period not exceeding three years.

In the year 2009,199 examination centreswere involved in examination malpractice across the country, up from 118 centres in the previous year. This shows that the vice has been on the increase. Examination dishonesty, also popularly known as cheating, is a vice that has bedeviled the Kenyan education system for many years. This malpractice not only occurs in primary, but also in secondary school examinations (Nyamwange, Ondima&Onderi, 2013). This vice has been phenomenalin Kisii County(Opiyo, 2015). There have been instances of breaches of KNEC measures, leading to high examination malpractices (KNEC, 2012).

Cases of cheating in national examinations in Kisii County have been reported over the years.For example, in the year 2001, 1.5% of students who sat for KCSE examination were reported to have cheated in the examinations (Opiyo, 2015). In the year 2008, KCSE examinations in Masaba District had 0.56% cases of cheating, second to MigoriDistrict which had 0.79%, while most districts in Nyanza had no cases of cheating (Ministry of Education, Kenya, 2008). In the year 2013, Education Cabinet Secretary, Prof Jacob Kaimenyi, said 3,353 candidates who sat Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education exams in 2013 wouldnot receive their results due to cheating. Siringi (2009), Khaemba (2008) and Republic of Kenya (2008), merely reported examination malpractice but failed to investigate the effects of existing rules and regulations in managing examinations cheating in public and private secondary schools in Kisii County, Kenya. Cheating cases in Kenya between the year 2008 and 2015 were as shown in Table 1.

Table 5: Cases of Examination malpractice in Kenya

Year	Cases	No. of Students
2008	2	218
2009	3	145
2010	3	197
2011	4	58
2012	7	94
2013	3	147

2014	6	241
2015	17	294

Source, MOE (2017)

According to Gibendi (2016), there was a 70% increase in examination malpractice in KCSE 2015 compared to KCSE 2014. Interestingly, Kisii County was among the leading counties in examination malpractice in 2015.In the 2016, KisiiCounty had 1,062under-age candidates,the highest number in the country (MoE, 2017). Registration of underage is in itself a form of examination malpractice.

In spite of KNEC's efforts in tightening rules and regulations in managing KCSE examinations, there is persistent and increasing evidence of examination cheating in Kisii County, especially through collusion, impersonation, and smuggling of pre-prepared information in examination rooms and use of mobile and other electronics devices. It is on this basis that this current study set out to determine the level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations by invigilators on the prevalence of examination malpractice in public and private secondary schools in Kisii County, Kenya.

Research Hypotheses

H_{o1}: There is no significant relationship between level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations by invigilatorsand examination malpractice among public and private secondary schools in Kisii County.

Scope of the Study

The study focused on the effects of KNEC rules and regulations in managing examination malpractice in public and private secondary schools in Kisii County. The respondents will be invigilators andprincipals in both public and private secondary schools,as well as KNEC officials. The study investigated the phenomenon as represented in the period between 2008 and 2014. The researcher collecteddata from principals, teachers and examination officers from different sub-counties in Kisii Countyto supplement each other for accuracy of the information given by any one party. The data from the principals, teachers and examination officers helped the researcher fill the gaps for each of the study subjects' misinformation.

Literature Review

Why Students Engage in Examination Malpractice

Although many students believe that examination malpractice is wrong, many students still engage in it (Godfrey *et al,* 1998). Research shows that there are personal, institutional, and social reasons why students engage inexamination malpractice (Brimble 2005). Students engage in examination malpractice because they want to pass. Fear of failure is one of the primary reasons for examination malpractice (Sheard*et al,* 2003). Fear of failure could be due to personal factors, like the time pressure when preparing for examinations (Shraw *et al*, 2007). Schab (1991) shows that some variables motivate students to engage in examination malpractice: fear of failure, too lazy to study, parents demanding good grades, desire to keep up with others, it is easy to engage in examination malpractice and not enough time to study.

Examination Malpractice

A study carried out by Grimes and Rezek (2005) on secondary school students in six transitional economies, Belarus, Croatia, Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Russia and Ukraine, along with

students in the USA. The results indicated that the most consistentlysignificant determinants were personal beliefs about the ethics and socialacceptability of cheating and various attributes of the classroom environment.With the exceptions of Lithuania and Ukraine, students in each transitionaleconomy had a higher probability of cheating relative to students in the USA,ceteris paribus. The relative differences ranged from 8.9% for Belarus up to17.1% for Croatia. For Russia, the difference was a relatively high 15.4%. The results also showed that a majority of students in each nation feared the punishment ofbeing caught cheating, but many students also believed that cheating was sociallyacceptable behaviour.

Ogunji (2011) observed that from Africa to Europe and to America, the issue of examination malpractice, or academic dishonesty has become a concern for educators. In Zambia, Munachonga (2014) carried out a studyto analyse the causes and effects of examination malpracticeson educational standards, the moral character of those involved and socio-economicperformance from an ethical perspective. The research revealed that examination malpractices were a big problem in Lusaka as they tended to virtually destroy the moral integrity of the persons involved. This results in a society with a corrupt and incompetent future workforce. By distorting the very essence of education, society tended to be more at a loss than a gain in terms of socio-economic performance because, most often, the certificates achieved did not reflect the actual capabilities of the holder.

According to the West African Examination Council (WAEC) (2015), examination malpractices among students are increasing at an alarming rate. According to the exam body, a lot of these malpractices are detected by markers.In Ghana, the BrongAhaforegion alone, about 4,000 students were caught cheating in last year's Senior High Schools final examinations. Having a negligible number of five breaking the examination's rules and regulations, the Upper West Region placed last in the scheme of cheaters.In 2011 the figure jumped to 4,201, and 2012 recorded 3,439 incidences. Also students caught cheating in 2013 stood at 5,653, while in 2014 the entire Ghanaian country recorded a total of 8,051 of examination malpractices, of which 4,000 came from one region. This was quite alarming and this supports the argument that examination malpractices are a common occurrence across Africa.Eynestboi(2013) noted that examination malpractice has become one of the canker worms that have eaten deep into the fabrics of the Nigerian society.

According to a study by Nyamoita and Otieno (2016) examination malpractices have always been there in Kenya.Data in Table 2 gives a summary of the malpracticetrend in the country for some of the years showing the number of students involved in examination malpractices.

Table 6: Examination Malpractice Trend in Kenya

Year	No. of Candidates Affected
2011	2,927
2010	2,393
2009	1,711
2008	1,875
2007	679
2006	375
2005	1,874
2004	1,022
2003	1,265

2002	1,208
2001	2,880

Source, Nyamoita and Otieno, 2016.

In 2000, the candidates involved in examination malpractice in Kenya were 2,880. Nyanzaprovince to which the current Kisii County belongs had 21 centres affected out of 100 centersaffected countrywide. Kisii Central, North Kisii and Kisii South sub counties led in the examinationirregularities during this period according to Saitoti (2001).

Ragaa (2001) added that these subcounties of Kisiihad reported irregularities for five consecutive years.In 2001, a total of 121centres were involved in the examination malpractices in Kenya. Nyanzaprovince had 22 centres affected by the examination malpractice (Nyambala, 2002). In 2002,1,265 candidates were involved in examination malpractices in Kenya with the then Nyanzaprovince having 368 students involved (Ragaa, 2003). In 2003, 1,022 cases of examinationmalpractice were recorded in Kenya with the province having 40 schools involved in examinationmalpractice. The leading sub counties were Kisii Central, Gucha and Kisii North that had 12, 10and eightschools respectively involved in the examination malpractices (Gakunga, 2004).

In 2010, the Education Minister noted that there was a significant decrease in malpractices from1,711 to 534. The minister as well noted that the numbers may appear low when compared to thecandidature but it is a painful experience when results of even one candidate are cancelled due tocheating (Muindi, 2012). Muindi also noted that in 2011, 2,927 candidates in 154 examinationcentres had their results with Kisii County having sevenschools affected by examination malpractice.In 2012 Nyanza province had 32 schools whose examination results were cancelled (Miruka,2013).

Level of Enforcement of KNEC Rules and Regulations by Invigilators and the Prevalence of Examination malpractice

Enforcement of KNEC rulesand regulations is key, if curbing of examination cheating is to materialize. However, it is not clear what the level of enforcement of KNEC rulesand regulations have played in relation to examination cheating. This is not unique to Kenyan situation; it is a global phenomenon. Loock, Govender and Cesare (2007) in a study titled"Dealing with Examination and Assessment Irregularities in an Era of RapidChange: A South African Judicial perspective"concluded that everyone who participates in the development or implementation of examination and assessment systems has a responsibility in ensuring that it adheres to the requirements of validity, reliability and fairness. In order to maintain public confidence in high stakes examinations in an era of rapid change, educational managers should continuously review the effectiveness of internal control measures including compliance validation and monitoring procedures. Non-compliance should be countered within the framework of the applicable legislation, in a manner that is judicially and constitutionally acceptable.

Njeru (2008) found out that poor invigilation of examinations was found to be a leading factor in examination malpractice. Teachers do not invigilate examinations well but rather spend time marking papers, or reading newspapers or novels. This provides a fertile ground for students to cheat. The study established that there was poor invigilation of examinations in Masaba District schools as some teachers invigilate from outside examination rooms while others sleep in class during the examination period. This gives students the freedom to cheat in the examinations. Poor invigilation of examinations was also found to be a leading factor in examination malpractice. Njeru (2008) in Thika District found that teachers do not invigilate

examinations well but rather spend time marking papers, or reading newspapers or novels. This provides a fertile ground for students to cheat. The study established that there was poor invigilation of examinations in Masaba District schools as some teachers invigilate from outside examination rooms while others sleep in class during the examination period. This gives students the freedom to cheat in the examinations.

Studies by Alutu and Aluede (2006) and Kpangban, Ajaja and Umudhe, (2008), indicates that students, parents\guardians, school' management and their staff, Ministry officers and examination officers are all involved in examination malpractice. According to Kpangban, Ajaja and Umudhe (2008), at the secondary level, parents provide the resources, school heads create the enabling environment, teachers do the solving and assist in cheating, Ministry officers and examination body officials cover cheats and write that all is well in centers of interest, students copy freely while supervisors collect gratifications and all forms of inducements.

Some workers in Kenya National Examinations Council have been suspected and accused of leaking out or selling examination papers to selected potential candidates(Iqbal & Khan, 2011). Such suspicion is corroborated by the Ministry of Education's frequent suspension of examination results from some schools at the end of each examination season. A goodnumber of our interviewees accused some university lecturers for the vice. For example, when some lecturers delay giving out results of some students at the end of a semester or alter their marks, this too may be interpreted as an examination malpractice. The magnitude of examination irregularity cannot be underestimated. Hence, the parents, and teachers are apprised of the dangerous practice of cheating and its adverse effects on the moral, intellectual and social development of the youth (Iqbal & Khan, 2011).

Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by the following theories; Regulation theory by Brenner and Glick (1991), Game theory by Hendricks and Hansen, (2007), Ross (2008); and the Agency theory by Mitnick, (1975).

Regulation Theory
According to the regulation theory by Brenner and Glick (1991), public interest can further be described as the best possible allocation of scarce resources for individuals and collective goods. In western economies, the allocation of scarce resources is to a significant extent coordinated by the market mechanism. In theory, it can even bedemonstrated that, under certain circumstances, the allocation of resources by means of the market mechanism is optimal (Arrow, 1985). Because these conditions are frequently not adhered to in practice, the allocation of resources is not optimal and a demand for methods for improving the allocation arises (Bator, 1958). One of the methods of achieving efficiency in the allocation of resources is government regulation (Arrow &Shibuk, 1970). According to this theory, government regulation is the instrument for overcoming the disadvantages of imperfectcompetition, unbalanced market operation, missing markets and undesirable market results.

In Kenya admissions into colleges is determined by the grades one attained in KCSE examinations. The type of college one is admitted in determining the type of course and later employment. Employers too look at college attended to allocate job carriers to our young men and women hence the relevance of this theory, whereby the allocation of resources as far as education level is concerned, that may be the cause of cheating in KCSE examinations. Those who cheat gain advantage over others.Its relevance and foundation stems from the fact that

government regulation is needed to ensure that citizens do not take undue advantage and that there is fair play ineconomic and social activities. In this case, exam cheating is not fair play and needsto be regulated.

Agency Theory

Agency theory is a concept that explains why behavior or decisions vary when exhibited by members of a group. Specifically, when it describes the relationship between one party called the principal, that delegates work to another called the agent. It explains their differences in behavior or decisions by noting that the two parties often have different goals and, independent of their respective goals, may have different attitudes towards the risk. The concept originated from the work of Adolf Augustus Berle and Gardiner Coit Means, who were discussing the issues of the agent and principle as early as 1932. Berle and Means explored the concepts of agency and their applications toward the development of large corporations (Mwanza, 2013). They saw how the interests of the directors and managers of a given firm differ from those of the owner of the firm, and used the concepts of agency and principal to explain the origins of those conflicts (Murtishaw&Sathaye, 2006).

Jensen and Meckling shaped the work of Berle and Means in the context of the risk-sharing research popular in the 1960s and '70s to develop agency theory as a formal concept. Jensen and Meckling formed a school of thought arguing that corporations are structured to minimize the costs of getting agents to follow the direction and interests of the principals (Mitnick, 1975).The theory essentially acknowledges that different parties involved in a given situation with the same given goal will have different motivations, and that these different motivations can manifest in divergent ways. It states that there will always be partial goal conflict among parties, efficiency is inseparable from effectiveness, and information will always be somewhat asymmetric between principal and agent. The theory has been successfully applied to myriad disciplines including accounting, economics, politics, finance, marketing, and sociology (Nikkinen&Sahlström, 2004).

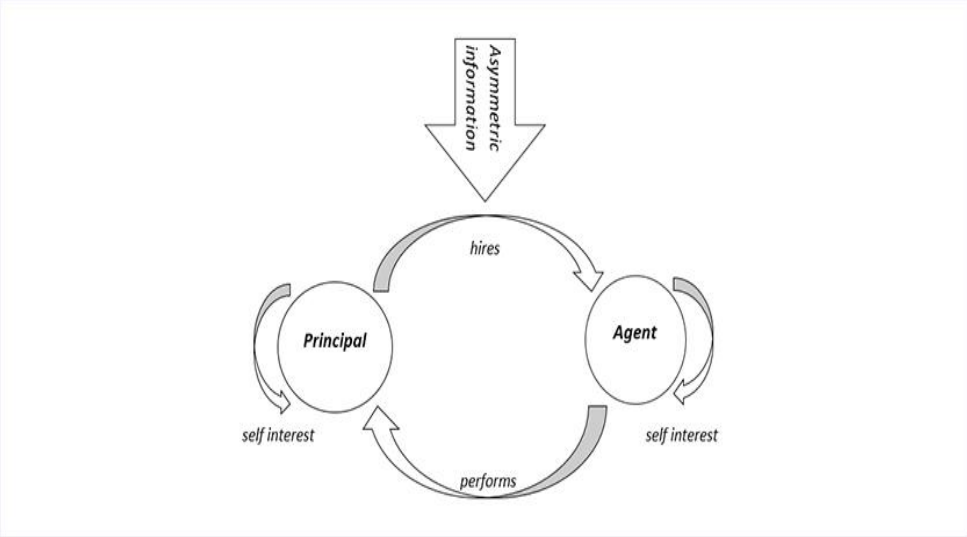

Figure 1: Illustration of Agency Theory

Source: Chelniciuc (2014)

The principals, teachers and invigilators are agents of the government who should protect the interest of the public by ensuring that there is no examination malpractice. However, the interests of the government (public) and the interest of the agents (teachers) differ and the

agents take actions that are not in the best interest of the principal (government/public). This is evidenced by corrupted invigilators, mismanagement of human resources (poor remuneration of teachers), poor board oversight in school activities.

Research Methodology

***Research Design*:**A research design establishes procedures to obtain cases for study and to determine how scores was obtained from those cases (Schwab, 2005). The study adopted both survey research design and retrospective ex post facto research design. The merit of *ex post facto* design is that it is useful where simple cause-and-effect relationships are being explored as it is the case in this study. Given the fact that the study also collected qualitative data using interview schedules, survey research design was also adopted to add value to the study. survey research designwas considered ideal, since the study also involved collecting data in order to answer questions about the current status of examination malpractice and related regulatory framework, and used formal instruments to study preferences, attitudes, practices, concerns or interest of a sample. In addition, the researcher was able to gather information regarding the respondent's opinion, perceptions, attitudes and views in a highly economical way.

***Location of the Study*:** The study was carried out in Kisii County, Kenya. Kisii is located east of Nairobi and is approximately 239 kilometres from Nairobi. The secondary schools are distributed in the following sub-counties, KitutuChache North, KitutuChache South, NyaribariMasaba, NyaribariChache, BomachogeBorabu, BomachogeChache, Bobasi, South Mugirango and Bonchari.

***Target Population*:** Kisii County has a total number of 363 secondary schoolsof which 317 were public schools and 46 private secondary schools. The study population included principals, invigilators and examination officials in Kisii County. This formed the target population (Mugenda&Mugenda, 1999); For the purpose of this study the target population comprised of 363 secondary school principals, 726 invigilators (twoteachers per school, that is, those teachers who participated in the examinations invigilation / supervision exercise) drawn from 317 public and 46 private secondary schools, and 30 examination officials.

***Sampling Procedure and Sample Size*:** The researcher used 30% of the population to arrive at the sample (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003). Stratified random sampling enabled the researcher to capture the invigilators, examination officers, and principals in two strata, from public and private secondary schools. The researcher got 95 principals, 190 invigilators from public secondary schools and 14 principals and 28 invigilators from private secondary schools.

***Research Instruments*:** The study utilized questionnaires to collect data fromthe principals and invigilators, while interview schedules were used for collection of data from examination officers. Prior to collection of data, the instruments were pilot tested and subjected to validity and reliability.

Data Analysis Methods: Quantitative data was obtained using closed ended questions and was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics with Pearson r as a methods for testing relationships. This technique shows the direction and magnitude of the relationship between given variables (Mugenda&Mugenda, 2003).All the variables were tested based on themes and relationships and were meant to supplement each other. The statistical package for social science (SPSS) programmeversion 21 was used to aid in data analysis for quantitatively collected data. Results of the analysis were presented using tables, charts and graphs. Secondary data for schools on examination irregularities at County offices was analyzed using descriptive analysis.

Findings and Discussions

Response Rate: 337 questionnaires were prepared and administered to the Principals, Invigilators, and Examination Officials, 10, 218 and 109 questionnaires respectively. However, 9respondents were not in position to help in filling the questionnaires thus only 328 were completely responded to. This translated to a response return rate of 98%. This was sufficient to enable the researcher come up with reliable conclusions and recommendations.

Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Gender:51% of the invigilators, 40% of the examination officials and 68% of the Principals that provided information were male, while 49% of the invigilators,60% of the examination officials and 32% of the Principals were female. The findings show that information provided reflects the views of both gender in respect to the effect of existing KNEC rules and regulations in managing KCSE examination malpractice in public and private secondary schools in Kisii county.

Principals' Working Experience: majority of the principals (83.0%) had served in their current place of work, as principals for a period 3 years or above, while 17.0% of the principals had served for a period of less than 2 years. Having worked in their respective schools for these periods, placed them a position to comment on the schools' efforts in the fight against examination malpractice.

Level of Invigilators Integrity and the Prevalence of Examination malpractice:

The findings in Figure 4 show that 69% of the invigilators indicated that KNEC made arrangements to ensure that Invigilators are trained on integrity to improve the standards of examination, while 31% disagreed. This implied that invigilators were trained well enough to improve standards of examination in KCSE. It also suffices that not all those participating in the invigilation exercise were well trained for this purpose.

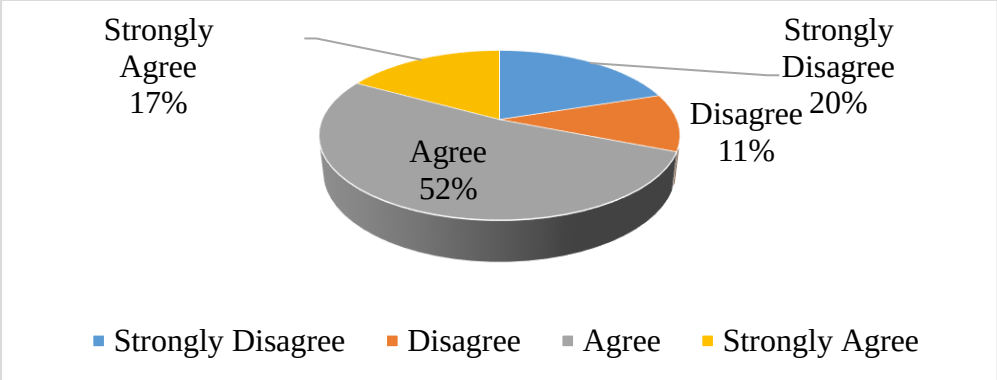

Figure 2: Effect of Invigilators training on Integrity on KNEC rules and regulations

Level of Invigilators Motivation:invigilators were well motivated, hence were committed to ensuring level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations for control of examination malpractices. Arguably poor motivation leads poor invigilation. Njeru (2008) found out that poor invigilation of examinations (9.58%) was also found to be a leading factor in examination malpractice. Teachers do not invigilate examinations well but rather spend time marking papers, or reading newspapers or novels.

Kenya National Examinations Council Staff colluding in selling Examination Papers: 76% of the respondents indicated that they did not believe that Kenya National Examinations Council staff colluded with students in selling examination papers to selected potential candidates. On

the hand, 24% agreed to this assertion. This implied that most of the invigilators did not think that there was a collusion between students and KNEC staff. However, some did not want to disagree or agree, thus implying that there was collusion to some extent.

Level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations on the prevalence of examination malpractice: The study found that despite efforts to train the invigilators the situation of examination malpractice has not changed in Kisii County. Invigilators are motivated well enough to pick up the task of enforcing the KNEC rules and regulations, yet it appears that loopholes still exist in the system. The findings rule out collusion with the school management or teachers with those involved in the malpractices. However, it suffices that KNEC rules and regulations are not enforced to the letter. This could mean that invigilation was not properly done. Past studies link poor invigilation to examination malpractice. According to Badmus (2006), extraneous variables such as poor working conditions, societal pressures and inadequate remuneration affect the school environment making students vulnerable to examination malpractice given that teachers and support staff lack necessary motivation or incentive to work hard.

Hypothesis Testing

The findings in Table 23 shows that there is a positive correlation between level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations and prevalence of examination malpractice at 0.087. This level is higher than the test significance level at 0.05; that is, $P < 0.05$, thus we reject the null hypothesis. In addition, 0.087 is less than 0.139, the study therefore, accepts the null hypothesis which read that "There is no significant relationship between the level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations by invigilators and the prevalence of examination malpractice among public and private secondary schools in Kisii County." The findings show a positive influence of the level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations on the prevalence of examination malpractice. This implied that level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations did influence the prevalence of examination malpractice in Kisii County. It means that the low level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations resulted in high levels of examination malpractice in the County.

Table 7: Pearson Correlation between Level of Examination malpractice and level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations

		Level of Examination malpractice	Level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations
Level of Examination malpractice	Pearson Correlation	1	.087
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.275
	N	212	212
Level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations	Pearson Correlation	.087	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.275	
	N	212	212

a = 0.05; df = 212, $P < 0.05$; Critical r = 0.139

KNEC Officials View on Level of Enforcement of KNEC Rules and Regulations by Invigilators:KNEC officials that were interviewed using interview schedules indicated that they were taking examination irregularities more seriously and if the council finds sufficient evidence linking any head teacher or deputy head teacher to examination fraud they shall take action. Interestingly almost all (8 out of 9 examination officers) respondents believed that the level of enforcement of the KNEC rules and regulations.For instance, respondent 5 stated as follows: *"The level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations in the school I invigilated inwas to the required standard."* According to the officers continued examination malpractices could not be blamed on the level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations by invigilators.

This was not the same view with the 9th respondent (examination officers) who indicated that he did not believe that the enforcement of KNEC Rules and regulations by invigilators in Kisii County carried out as required and suggested that more efforts need to be put in place that the level of enforcement of these rules and regulations is enhanced. 9th Respondent *"In some instances, there is laxity, given that, some of the invigilators do not take their work seriously"*

The arguments by the KNEC officials are contrary to an earlier study by Njeru (2008) who found out that poor invigilation of examinations was found to be a leading factor in examination malpractice. According to Njeru, teachers do not invigilate examinations well but rather spend time marking papers, or reading newspapers or novels. This provides a fertile ground for students to cheat.Njeruargued that examination malpracticewas a function of lack of seriousness on the part of the invigilators.

Conclusion

The study concludes that the level of laxity in the enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations by invigilators to a large extent had a negative effect on the prevalence of examination malpractice in the County.The study found that despite efforts to train the invigilators the situation of examination malpractice has not changed in Kisii County. Invigilators are motivated well enough to pick up the task of enforcing the KNEC rules and regulations, yet it appears thatloopholes still exist in the system. The findings rule out collusion with the school management or teachers with those involved in the malpractices. However, it suffices that KNEC rules and regulationsare not enforced to the letter. This could mean that invigilation was not properly done. Past studies link poor invigilation to examination malpractice. For instance, Njeru (2008) found out that poor invigilation of examinations was found to be a leading factor in examination malpractice. Teachers do not invigilate examinations well but rather spend time marking papers, or reading newspapers or novels. Perhaps the problem here would be whether invigilators are performing their tasks diligently. The irony would be in cases of examination leakages periods before examination, but then if the KNEC rules and regulations are enforced to the letter, this can be checked. There are still malpractices that the KNEC system has not been able to detect. Low level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations by invigilators could be due to collusion between invigilators and students. This is an aspect that needs to be investigated by KNEC.

Suggestions for Further Studies

While carrying out this study, certain issues emerged. Since such issues did not fall entirely within the spectrum of this study. The researcher suggests as follows:The study sought to examine the effect of level of enforcement of KNEC rules and regulations on the prevalence of examination malpractice in public and private secondary schools in Kisii County. The study did not examine the challenges facing the various stakeholders in enforcement of KNEC rules

and regulations. Questions remain unanswered as to whether there are any difficulties experienced and how this can be addressed.A study to examine the challenges faced by various stakeholdersin enforcing KNEC rules and regulations for managing examination malpractice in public and private secondary schools in Kisii County.

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E-Learning: The Emerging Technologies In Instruction

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Abstract

The digital revolution has triggered huge changes in how learners access, consume, discuss and share knowledge. E-learning encompasses a wide variety of online initiatives including utilizing electronic technologies to access educational curriculum. E-learning is being adopted as an additional method in the educational process for it extends and enrich the learning opportunities hence it is necessary for instructional designers to discover innovative ways to make e-learning more effective for learners. The e-learning is a more modern, efficient and flexible alternative thus there is need to shift to it. The researcher used mixed-method analysis of research articles to find out available and valid information on e-learning. Thus researcher conducted an extensive literature review to collect the communicable knowledge on e-learning from various sources where e-learning is analysed and discussed such as books and book chapters related to e-learning, academic and scientific journals and open virtual spaces by recognized authors. The paper reveals vital information on definitions of e-learning from the field of education and information and communication technology, myths and facts about e-learning, goals of e-learning, potential benefits and demerits of e-learning. The paper is designed to provide practitioners, instructional designers, researchers and policy makers with some insights about e- learning. The recommendations are drawn highlighting areas that academic scholars and researchers can do further research to increase the effectiveness and scalability of e-learning. It should be acknowledged that the information is by no means exhaustive but rather a starting point for critical and informative discussion on e-learning.

Keywords: *e-learning, Online Education, Electronic Technologies***.**

Introduction

In recent decades, the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) for educational purposes has increased and the spread of network technologies has caused e- learning practices to evolve significantly (Kahiigi, Ekenberg, Hansson, Tusubira, & Danielson, 2008). The concept of e-learning and society are in state of constant flux so e-learning can be expected to continuously evolve. It is also subject to constant change since it is understood from many angles and used with different meanings in the scientific community (Stein, Shephard & Harris, 2011).

E-learning provides an ideal learning environment through the effective adoption of modern Information Technology (IT) and the curriculum to achieve a new learning style which can fully reflect the main role of the students to thoroughly reform the traditional teaching structure and the essence of education, to train large numbers of high quality personnel (Ma, Wang, & Liang, 2008). In order to keep pace with the changing trends, educational systems all around the world are in the process of integrating ICTs to enhance the learning experience of students (Qureshi, Ilyas, Yasmin and Whitty, 2012). New and latest technologies are providing new ways for knowledge generation and to develop, enhance and expand learning activities (Michau, Gentil and Barrault, 2001). Hence adopting and adapting to the new technology is necessary for everyone in society and in particular in the educational context (Collis & Moonen, 2005).

E-learning has been developed to cost-effectively provide auxiliary and improved learning experiences beyond those available in the classroom (Anderson & McCormick, 2005). E-learning expands the learning opportunities of students who are time limited, live in remote communities, and/or have work or family commitments or other barriers that prevent them from attending a traditional classroom learning environment. Thus students facing economic, family, physical or geographic constraints can take advantage of e-learning opportunities. Also e-learning enables tutors to invest in more innovative teaching, whereas students are active in their own learning thus bridging the gap between the learner and facilitator, which help to improve the teaching methods and reduce pressure on resources (Makokha & Mutisya, 2016).

E-learning represents an innovative shift in the field of learning, providing rapid access to specific knowledge and information. It provides opportunities for students to complete the course content at their own pace by being flexible and time-friendly because it can adapt to varying schedules, timings and even physiological challenges and disabilities that a learner might face in life. Online educational courses can be taken up by office goers and housewives too, at the time that suits them (Gupta, 2017). E-learning also offers online instruction that can be delivered anytime and anywhere through a wide range of electronic learning solutions such as Web-based courseware, online discussion groups, live virtual classes, video and audio streaming, Webchat, online simulations, and virtual mentoring (Nagararajan & Jiji, 2010).

Definitions of E- Learning

Due to the existence of different perspectives on the concept of e-learning it has been difficult to devise an all inclusive definition of e-learning. In this paper the definition of e-learning adopted are communication oriented and education driven. Guri-Rosenblit (2005) defined e-learning as the use of electronic media for a variety of learning purposes that range from add-on functions in conventional classrooms to full substitution from the face-to-face meetings by online encounters. This implies using any electronic educational applications and processes to deliver learning and training programs to aid acquisition and development of knowledge, skills and attitudes among learners. The set of electronic educational applications and processes include computer based learning, web-based learning, computer-aided instruction, virtual classrooms and digital collaboration.

Gonzalez-Videgaray (2007) defined e-learning as learning that is based on information and technologies with pedagogical interaction between students and the instructors or among students through the web. Also Lee and Lee (2006) described e-learning as an online education defined as the self-paced or real-time delivery of training and education over the internet to an end-user device. While Meredith and Newton (2003) defined e-learning as learning facilitated by internet and world wide web technologies, delivered via end-user computing that creates connectivity between people and information and creates opportunities for social learning approaches. E- learning includes the delivery of content inform of text, audio, images, animation and streaming video via internet, intranet/extranet (LAN/WAN), audio and videotape, satellite broadcast, interactive TV, CD-ROM and more.

According to Jereb and Smitex (2006), e-learning refers to educational processes that utilise ICT to mediate synchronous as well as asynchronous learning and teaching activities. The e-learning environment can be divided into two categories synchronous and asynchronous depending on the tools and technologies involved. Synchronous e-learning require students and instructors to be online and involves studies through any learning tool that is real-time such as chat, webcasts, videoconferencing, teleconferences, instant messaging and podcasts. This allows students to easily interact and share with fellow students and their instructors during the course. Asynchronous mode allows all participants to post communications to any other participant over the internet (Algahtani, 2011). Asynchronous e-learning

involves use of e-mails, web, discussion boards, social networking (blogs, YouTube, wikis and others) and messages. It is a key component of flexible e-learning since the learners can access information at any time and so it has no scheduling conflicts.

Myths and facts about E-Learning

E-learning has been surrounded by several myths. The myths and misconceptions have led to several people criticizing the quality, viability and authenticity of e-learning. The common myths should then be busted and the real facts about e-learning exposed.

Myth 1: Getting an online degree or academic certificate is taking the easy way.

Fact: The e-learning format is more flexible but that does not make the coursework any less rigorous. Most online courses feature the same content and requirements as traditional courses and so to earn an academic certificate online is as challenging as doing it through traditional courses (Vos, 2016). It takes a serious student with a lot of self-discipline and time management skills to succeed in an online program. Students in e-learning courses must be more engaged because the responsibility is on students to attend and interact. E-learners are set up to be more active because they have made the choice to show up to their gadgets for the class even when no one is formally taking attendance. E-learning is not the lazy way out for it involves rigorous reading, writing and research assignments that require substantial time commitment and dedication. E-learning can also be quite labor intensive, requiring at least as much time as an on-campus course (Williams, 2015). It may offer a more flexible time commitment but the student must be fully engaged in the learning process in order to succeed. Students opt for e-learning because of flexibility, reduced cost, the ability to work while learning and not because it is the easy way out.

Myth 2: E-learning is isolating, lonely and unsocial giving solitary experience.

Fact: E-learners have the opportunity to interact with people from all over the world. E-learning can include social elements that let learners interact with others, collaborate, brainstorm and feel connected (Gutierrez, 2016). Teachers and students continue to interact through the additional channels of communication provided by e-learning technologies. E-learning presents an opportunity to create an interactive learning experience where the learner actively participates in his or her educational experience. The e-learning mode of interactivity provides learners with opportunity to explore and discover the learning themselves. Also use of interactive designs makes e-learning not only engaging for the users but valuable as a lesson delivery medium. In fact they have access to a highly personalized *learning* as they are able to have one-on-one interactions with teachers and fellow *students* through the internet. They can join clubs, groups and take part in online activities (Felton, 2013).

Myth 3: E-learners do not learn much through e-learning.

Fact: There is no significant difference in learning between traditional and e-learning since both hold to the same academic standards. E-learning classes are exact replicas of the traditional face-to-face syllabus. The tasks to be done in e-learning (essays to write, exams to pass and other assignments to accomplish) are of the same amount as in traditional courses (Vos, 2016). Students who embark on an e-learning class can receive the same instructions as traditional students. The quality of the curriculum is directly related to the instructor who put it together. The method of delivery does not affect its quality in any way. E-learning courses have the same tools for measuring success as a traditional classroom.

Myth 4: E-learning is just for the millennial implying it is designed for certain type of learners.

Fact: E-learning is for anyone, anywhere, anytime. E-learning has inimitable design and so all demographics can utilize e-learning resources. Not only tech savvy or technologically advanced *students* can take up **e-learning** but all *students* who have a basic knowledge of the computer may be able to enroll for **e-learning** (Felton, 2013). E-learning courses can be personalized and designed with a content specific material for the learner (tailored to learners needs). No one is left behind. E-learning is designed intuitively to make it user-friendly as possible in that all learners should be able to execute it with little or no trouble.

Myth 5: E-learning is just about technology.

Fact: The ultimate objective for e-learning is to impart learning. Technology is not the focus but exists only to aid the learning process as an enabler. The content determines how effective and appealing an e-learning course is. It is the content that addresses "why" and "what" to learn. Technology is about "how" to deliver the learning (Gutierrez, 2016). The students focus on what they want to accomplish in the course.

Myth 6: With e-learning there is no need for an instructor anymore for it replaces the teachers.

Fact: The instructors roles are extremely demanding since their roles changes, expand and diversifies**.** The instructors need to balance organizational, didactic (traditional teaching) and facilitation roles. The instructor is expected to facilitate e-learning sessions, provide coaching, take part in online discussions manage courses by organizing and formatting instructional material to suit independent study and digital delivery and provide feedback on work submitted by learners over video, chats and emails (Gutierrez, 2016). E-learning allows instructors to spend less time on basic knowledge and skill development and also make them communicate differently, thinking about engagement and effectiveness of their work.

Myth 7: E-learning moves too quickly to understand and process the information.

Fact: A lot of e-learning is about slowing down the learning process, giving participants time and space to reflect on interactions. E-learning gives learners the chance to absorb and retain information at their own pace since it will provide the opportunity to stop, pause, or replay (Foutz, 2015).

GOALS OF E-LEARNING

The major goals of e-learning are improving access for both traditional-age and nontraditional students who are not otherwise able to attend a traditional, campus-based program and improving student choice over when, where, and how to engage in the learning process; and improving efficiency and effectiveness by using e-learning media and methods to control cost or provide other efficiencies or to make large-enrollment courses more effective for students (**Mayadas, Miller, & Sener, 2015).** The Other goals include the following: to reduce the need for classroom training, to track employee progress, to track training effectiveness (or absorption)**,** to link training with knowledge management, to reduce time away from the job, to improve job performance, to improve flexibility of course delivery and to reduce learning costs (Nagararajan & Jiji, 2010).

Benefits of E-Learning

E-learning is more convenient and flexible with respect to time and place for it can be delivered virtually anywhere and anytime (real-time access). Smedley (2010), notes that the adoption of e-learning provides the institutions as well as their students or learners the much flexibility of time and place of delivery or receipt of learning information. The learners have freedom to learn conveniently, advance at their own pace and the learning sessions are available all time. A remarkable feature that only e-learning can provide

for is that it is self-paced in that it gives the learners a chance to speed up or slow down as necessary. E-learning therefore increases satisfaction and decreases stress (Algahtani, 2011) for it is accessible and can be done in short chunks of time that can fit into learners' schedule. The learners also may review course material as often as needed in that they can access the content an unlimited number of times (Gupta, 2017). Thus learners have control over their learning process and can better understand the material. Students can customize the course material as per their own needs (Fioriello, 2018) in that they can read materials online or download them for studying later. The learners have options to choose instructor-led or self-study courses and even the materials they like or enjoy to study. Thus e-learning allows learners to access material when needed and study at their own preferred pace without the stress of missing important information (Roy & Raymond, 2005).

E-learning can be tailor-made to suit the learners' level of proficiency and needs. Students have multiple learning styles for they have differences in cognitive, physiological, cultural and learning preferences. E-learning as a mode of study takes into consideration the individual learners differences (Arkorful & Abaidoo, 2014) in that it accommodates learners' preferences hence it is student-centred. The learners may use tools best suited to their learning styles. The variety of delivery methods used to reach different types of learners facilitates high retention in students as compared to traditional classroom. The instructors can also build different learning paths into their courses to provide learners with a more personalized experience.

E-learning has no boundaries and is unrestricted. This is because e-learning is not constrained by geographical considerations and time zones thus open up broader education options. Learners can learn in remote locations without physical attendance and distance is no longer a barrier to learning. E-learning simplifies the learning process greatly, allowing students from all over the world to complete courses created by world's best universities (Nolan, 2017). Delivery through E-learning allows for portability of the training like use of tablet, i-pad, laptop and mobile phones which makes the learning convenient and on-the-go (Wong & Sixl-Danieli, 2017). E-learning facilitates learning without having to organize when and where everyone who is interested in a course can be present. The learners are unbound by place so they can study at home, work or anywhere (they can access their courses no matter where they are) implying that with e-learning there is increased reach to education. With e-learning culture and nationality is no longer a barrier because the instructors can customize the courses to address different cultures in various languages making the content travel all round the world and reach the widest possible audience. This also benefits native students too, allowing them to communicate and study along with people coming from different cultures (Nolan, 2017).

E-learning is cost effective thus the costs of learning and development are drastically reduced. E-learning reduces the need for a campus site and the accompanying costs of maintaining the facilities and equipments. The travel and accommodation expenses associated with undertaking a course are cut down hence e-learning is a cheaper option. E-learning also eliminates the cost and inconveniences of getting instructor and learners in the same place (Fioriello,2018) Teachers do not have to pay for classroom rentals, travel fees, or printing costs since e-learning activities take place online (Stoeva, 2018). A lot of training time is reduced with respect to trainers, travel, course materials, and accommodation (Gupta, 2017). There is low delivery cost since once the material is developed and uploaded online it has no expiry date and could be utilized anywhere by numerous learners worldwide (Allen, 2011) and this leads to scalability of E-learning. Also with a good Learning Management System (LMS) or Massive Open Online Course (MOOC), expert knowledge can be communicated to and captured effectively by an unlimited number of learners supported by interactive user forums and communities, while updated content and information can be disseminated quickly and cost effectively (Wong & Sixl-Danieli, 2017).

E-learning is delivered with speed and ease thus there is faster delivery of content and learners get courses when they need them. According to Kearsley (2005), e-learning reduces learning time by at least 25 to 60 percent when compared to traditional learning. There is reduced time for training in e-learning because it does not take as long to roll out a learning session. Through e-learning objectives can be accomplished in the shortest time with least amount of effort (Rabah, 2005). Also learners can focus and concentrate on components of a courses they need to learn and can skip what they already know (Andrew, 2010). In other words, students can customize the course material as per their own needs and have an option to choose what they like and retrieve information when required. Learning online enables the learner to access updated content whenever they want it (Gupta, 2017). The students get fresh, consistent content and immediate access to the most current data since the instructors can update lessons and materials in the entire network instantly. In e-learning there is deep learning since the learners are required to critically engage with the bundles of information available online which induces active and deep learning rather than surface learning (Johns, 2003).

The practical benefits of e-learning to teachers can be measured in terms of time-based efforts, workload reduction, ability to track the submission of digital assignments, and reuse or reconstruct a course (Yupangco, 2018). E-learning is a channel and tool through which teachers can improve their teaching styles and focus their energies on pedagogical functionality. E-learning platforms allow teachers to stay connected to their students outside of school hours in order to exchange resources, videos, ideas, methodologies, and pedagogical practices (Stoeva, 2018). Also e-learning is flexible for it offers a variety of schedules and times for asynchronous and synchronous learning and combines a huge variety of different resources such as videos, texts, presentations, and quizzes in that it gives teachers the opportunity to adapt their teaching methods to the learning styles of their students. The teachers also have ability to automate marking, digitally issue tests and quizzes, and track student progress with reporting tools and analytics makes the education landscape a more accommodating and innovative industry that puts students first (Yupangco, 2018).

Teachers can be innovative and creative since the use of new technologies gives them the freedom to experiment in their teaching practice and have the ability to make changes if something doesn't work. The online platforms are accessible all the time so they allow teachers to develop and create their materials whenever they want to and according to their schedules. E-learning enables educators to get a higher degree of coverage to communicate the message in a consistent way for their target audience (Gupta, 2017) which ensures that all learners receive the same type of training with this learning mode. The teaching materials can be reviewed by instructors as many times as needed to suit the learners' needs. Online platforms allow teachers to support their students outside the classroom where they do not have much time together in that teachers have the opportunity to lead students to success both during and after school hours. E-learning mode allows teachers to receive constant and real-time feedback from their students and colleagues so the mode can be said to be efficient.

An e-learning platform is one of the channels that educators can use to deepen their knowledge and increase their skills so it can provide for **lifelong learning** for teachers. Thus through e-learning instructors can improve their professional development. Also using a variety of online resources for an online training it provokes and develops the creative thinking processes of educators (Stoeva, 2018). E-learning helps to build **a community** since online platforms allow educators to stay connected with colleagues from all over the world, as well as to share ideas and gain inspiration. Aspiring teachers can use e-learning platform to assess their subject knowledge, create a roadmap and enhance their interactivity (Anderson, 2018).

Shortcomings Of E-Learning

One of the disadvantages of e-learning is that practical skills that require hands-on experience are somewhat harder to acquire from online resources. Therefore, e-learning may be less appropriate in fields or discipline that need to develop practical skills (Arkorful & Abaidoo, 2014). With e-learning there is less face-to-face interaction and some learners may feel a sense of isolation. According to Arkorful and Abaidoo, (2014) e-learning as a method of education makes some learners undergo contemplation, remoteness, as well as lack of interaction or relation. E-learning is a solo act for the most part, which may give the learner the feeling that they are acting completely alone and do not have the support and reassurance that the physical presence of an instructor provides. Even though, according to Wong and Sixl-Danieli (2017), this can be overcome with the increased use of synchronous tools in the e-learning environment.

E-learning requires learners to be self disciplined since their progress may not be closely monitored in order for them to perform. Being able to learn at a comfortable pace and organize their learning on their own is a disaster for some students (Nolan, 2017). It can be challenging for some students to stay engaged and motivated in an online class. The learners may also lack control over their e-learning experience and just go through the material without paying any sufficient attention. Learners with low motivation tend to fall behind when using e-learning as there are no fixed schedule or routine to carry out various activities and so there may be danger of procrastination leading to difficulties to complete the studies successfully. E-learning also leads to devaluation of oral discourse/discussion practices due to lack of face-time between students and teachers.

Conclusion

Although there are several myths and misconceptions, e-learning is an emerging technology that we cannot wish away because it has wide set of benefits such as making learning flexible, more accessible, provide just in time learning, cost effective, faster and not restricted geographically as it removes time, place and situation barriers. E-learning also provides for increased interaction amongst learners, offers greater accountability as some platforms can monitor students' activities and participation and is also very effective in supporting life-long learning. E-learning represents an innovative way in the field of learning that provides rapid access of specific knowledge and information as needed by learners who could be working or restricted by other factors to attend traditional type of instruction. The manpower requires to keep abreast with required knowledge, abilities and technology trends which improve effectiveness in service delivery. Therefore, e-learning is a potential alternative and innovative mode of learning and a technology whose time has come.

Recommendations

E-learning is becoming increasingly viable and accessible for educational purposes and it is not a technology that is passing away thus more studies need to be carried out to explore the future of e-learning in order to improve the chances of successful e-learning adoption. There is also need to explore the digital and knowledge environment in which e-learning can be designed and delivered optimally. Research could be conducted to provide feedback to facilitate necessary revisions and keep improving the e-learning. Effective usage of e-learning tools and technologies used in e-learning should be investigated to provide tips to produce great results by decreasing costs and improving performance. The functionality of e-learning platforms could also be explored to find out how they impact on learning in order to increase the effectiveness of e-learning. Studies could also be carried out to find out the concerns of students, the issues of absenteeism, completion rate and dropout rate in relation to e-learning, in order to improve the educational perspectives of e-learning.

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An Investigation On Student-Teachers' Acquisition Of New Knowledge During Teaching Practice Exercise. A Case Study Of University Of Embu.

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Abstract

Teaching practice gives student -teachers an opportunity to apply theoretical knowledge into practical knowledge. The student- teacher is able to interact with school administration, teachers and learners as well as non- teaching staff. The study investigated student –teachers' acquisition of new knowledge during teaching practice exercise. A descriptive survey design was employed. The respondents were one hundred and sixty and they were randomly selected from four hundred and ninety-five student-teachers. The instruments for data collection were student's questionnaire, interview schedule and researcher's observation schedules. The data was analysed through descriptive statistics. The findings revealed that some student-teachers acquired new knowledge on professional ethics in teaching career while other student-teachers acquired new knowledge of interacting with school administration, teachers and learners as well as non-teaching staff. In addition, the study reported that the student- teachers acquired knowledge on how to cope with different personalities while other student- teachers acquired soft skills. Further, the study indicated that some student- teachers acquired knowledge on innovations and improvisation of teaching learning resources while other student-teachers sharpened their knowledge in co-curriculum activities. Therefore, the study recommended that all student-teachers should actively be involved in teaching practice exercise. Further, the study recommended that proper induction for student -teachers proceeding for teaching practice exercise is paramount. Moreover, the schools providing attachment to student -teachers need to provide conducive environment. The findings from this study will help universities and colleges when preparing student -teachers for teaching practice.

Key words: *Student- teachers, Knowledge, Teaching practice, Acquisition, Learners.*

Background of the Study

Teaching practice is mandatory for all student -teachers pursuing education profession in Kenya. The student- teachers are exposed to real teaching –learning environment. Mostly the exercise is conducted in a classroom set up, though the teacher can still conduct it outside classroom such as field trips and visiting the surrounding environment. This helps the student -teachers to embrace different teaching methodology (Oluloagemi, 2010). Therefore, adequate induction needs to be done before the teaching practice commences. According to Darling- Hammond et al, (2017), student-teachers who were exposed to classroom management, emerging technology and use of relevant teaching-learning resources as well as learner centred methodology usually became effective teachers. Ronfeldt et al (2015) argued that classroom management is key for effective teaching and achieving expected outcomes. In addition, Solheim et al (2018) reported that classroom management is a vital pedagogical skill since it helps a teacher to effectively deliver content. Further, Solheim (2017) observed that the teacher develops proficiency skills and mastery of new knowledge. Therefore, according to Muraina (2017) student-teachers need to observe experienced teachers in classroom teaching. This might help them to correct mistakes as well as strengthening their strong skills. It is also equally important for assessors to give

student- teachers constructive criticism as well as positive reinforcement. According to Kiggundu &Naymulill, (2009) most student- teachers were usually motivated in the teaching profession due to acquisition of different skills. Further, during teaching practice student- teachers participate in school activities such as attending staff meetings, participating in co-curriculum activities, marking learners' assignment and examinations as well as classroom management and being on duty. In addition, Quick & Sieborger (2005) observed that teaching practice exposes student-teachers to real teaching world and contextualise their theoretical knowledge to practical knowledge. It is against this background that prompted the researcher to carry out an investigation on student-teachers' acquisition of new knowledge during teaching practice exercise.

Statement of the Problem

Teaching practice is mandatory for all student -teachers pursuing Bachelor of Education in Kenya as their profession. Teaching practice gives student- teachers an opportunity to apply theoretical knowledge into practical knowledge. The student- teacher is able to interact with school administration, teachers and learners as well as professional documents from Teacher service commission (TSC). Health interaction results to acquisition of new knowledge which might help in gaining a positive attitude towards teaching career. Therefore, student- teachers need to prepare adequately for teaching practice exercise. This will help them to gain necessary skills which will prepare them to be effective teachers. Due to Kenyan examination system which is examination oriented, the learners usually focus on high grades during assessment. Therefore, forgetting that they are supposed to gain skills which will help them to be effective teachers. This has prompted the researcher to investigate student –teachers' new knowledge acquisition during teaching practice exercise.

This helps the teacher to gain skills in preparing professional documents and interpersonal relationship with learners and other members in the school.

Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following objectives:

To investigate the knowledge acquired by student- teachers during teaching practice exercise

To establish the extent of knowledge acquired by student- teachers during teaching practice exercise

Significance of the Study

The study findings will be useful to student -teachers, teachers, school and university administration and assessors. Therefore, the study will reveal new skills acquired by student-teachers during teaching practice exercise. The knowledge gained will help student-teachers to make teaching practice as practical as possible by being involved with various activities in school.

Methodology of the Study

The study adopted descriptive survey research design to investigate the knowledge acquired by student-teachers during teaching practice exercise. The respondents were student-teachers from University of Embu who carried out their teaching practice in May- August 2018 and principals of teaching practice schools. The sample consisted of one hundred and sixty student-teachers who were randomly selected from four hundred and ninety five student- teachers. Data collection was done through student's

questionnaire, interview schedule and researcher's observation schedules. The data was thematically analysed.

Discussion and Findings of the Study

To Investigate the Knowledge Acquired by Student- Teachers during Teaching Practice Exercise.

The study sought to investigate the knowledge acquired by student- teachers during teaching practice exercise. The study revealed that 47.1% of the student- teachers reported that they gained new knowledge in professional ethics while 22.4% of the student- teachers indicated that they gained new knowledge in interacting with learners. In addition, the study revealed that 20 % of the student- teachers observed that they gained new knowledge in interacting with teachers and Non-teaching staff while 7.1 % of the student- teachers observed that they gained new skills through team work. Further, the study indicated that 3.5 % of the student- teachers observed that they gained new knowledge in preparing teaching resources. It is interesting to note that most student -teachers gained new knowledge in social life. Therefore, during induction the student can be inducted on how to interact and work with people.

To Establish the Extent of Knowledge Acquired by Student- Teachers during Teaching Practice Exercise

The study sought to establish the extent to which of knowledge is acquired by student-teachers on professional ethics, interacting with learners, teachers and non-teaching staff besides preparing teaching resources during teaching practice exercise.

To Investigate New Knowledge gained in Professional Ethics

The study revealed that out of 47.1% of the student- teachers that indicated that they gained new knowledge in professional ethics, 51.6% of the student- teachers gained the new knowledge in time management, commitment, organisation of professional documents as well as increasing their confidence. On the other hand, 25.8% of the student- teachers gained the new knowledge in delivering content by integrating different pedagogical skills. In addition, 22.6% of the student- teachers gained the new knowledge in having a positive attitude towards teaching profession. Through teachers code of ethics, the student teacher gained new knowledge in maintaining professional distance with learners and also through to professional dress code. Moreover, the student-teachers learnt new methods of behaviour modifications while dealing with indiscipline learners. Over and above, the student- teachers were able to understand the importance of TSC code of ethics. It is noteworthy to note that, majority of student- teachers were able to gain positive attitude towards teaching career.

To Investigate New Knowledge gained in Interacting with Learners

The study revealed that out of 22.4% of the student- teachers that indicated that they gained new knowledge in interacting with learners 52.2% of the student- teachers reported that they were able to interact and associate with learners with individual differences. This helped them to prepare remedial lessons for weak learners and giving more work to bright learners. They also reported that they were able to vary teaching methodology depending on the ability of learners. The study indicated that student-teachers gained skills on how to make the lesson learner-centred by involving learners through discussions, role play and group work as well as class experiment. Moreover, 47.8% of the student-teachers reported that they gained skills on decision making while handling indiscipline learners as well as guidance and counselling sessions. The study observed that student-teachers gained skills on handling big classes as well as small classes. This helped them to build health relationship with learners and to prepare in order to handle different classes. The findings supported Solheim et al (2018) who reported

that classroom management is a vital pedagogical skill since it helps a teacher to effectively deliver content. It is clear from this study that majority of student - teachers understood that though learners are in the same class they are usually very different.

To Investigate New Knowledge gained in Interacting with Teachers and Non-Teaching Staff

The study observed that out of 20% of the student- teachers that indicated that they gained new knowledge in interacting with teachers and Non-teaching staff, majority indicated that they gained soft skills such as patience, cooperation and team work as well as integrity, commitment and decision making. It is interesting to note that student- teachers learnt that it is important to apply team work at all times since it usually gives the best outcome. In addition, the student- teachers learnt that soft skills are very important in life. The findings supported Muraina (2017) who observed student-teachers need to observe experienced teachers in classroom teaching. This might help them to correct mistakes as well as strengthening their strong skills.

To Investigate New Knowledge gained in Team Work

The study indicated that out of 7.1 % of the student- teachers who gained new skills in team work 50% of the student- teachers expressed that team work is key in performance of any school. On the other hand, 20 % of student- teachers indicated that team work require cooperation from administration, learners and non-teaching staff. In addition, 18% of student- teachers argued that they will start applying team work in their daily today life while 12% of student- teachers established that team work gives the best results. The findings supported Kiggundu &Naymulill, (2009) who indicated that most student- teachers were usually motivated in the teaching profession due to acquisition of different skills. Further, during teaching practice student- teachers participate in school activities such as attending staff meetings, participating in co-curriculum activities, marking learners' assignment and examinations as well as classroom management and being on duty. It is important therefore to note that team work is a pedagogical skill in producing the best results.

To Investigate New Knowledge gained in Preparing Teaching Resources

The study reported that out of 3.5 % of the student- teachers who gained new knowledge in preparing teaching resources, 60% of the student- teachers reported that relevant teaching- learning resources helped the learners to understand the concept being taught and also enhance active participation by learners. In addition, 40 % of the student- teachers observed that relevant teaching-learning resources brought reality of the concept being taught as well as assisting them to demonstrate ideas effectively. This findings supported Darling- Hammond et al, (2017) who reported that student-teachers who were exposed to classroom management, emerging technology and use of relevant teaching-learning resources as well as learner centred methodology usually became effective teachers. It is important to note that the student- teachers learnt that learners can contribute in making and gathering teaching-learning resources. The student- teachers reported that surrounding environment is easily available teaching-learning resource

Conclusion

Teaching practice helps the student-teachers to acquire skills which are beneficial in teaching career. During the exercise the student-teachers were able to practice theories and principles of education. The student-teachers gained knowledge on: TSC professional ethics, interaction with learners and teachers, importance of teaching learning resources and skills to handle different personalities. It is evident from

the study that student-teachers gained soft skills which are very important in teaching career. It is noteworthy to note that most students discovered that secondary schools syllabus has changed and also discipline of student has deteriorated as compared to when they were in school. From the findings of this study, teaching practice need to provide experiential learning which will help student-teachers to acquire different skills which are useful for effective teaching.

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Abstract

The relevance of a school curriculum is pegged on how it addresses the immediate needs of the consumer (learner). Since the inception of the 8-4-4 curriculum in Kenya in mid-1980s, the quality of its graduates has ever been questionable. This concern about the caliber and competences of the 8-4-4 school graduates has persisted for three decades, despite the several reviews and reforms made in the school curriculum. The purpose of this study was therefore to investigate the relevance of the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum in Kenya. It was guided by two research objectives, that is, to examine the content of the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum and to establish whether the 8-4-4 school curriculum equips learners with values and competences that are useful in their daily life. This study adopted qualitative research design. It was carried out in 30 secondary schools in Machakos and Nairobi counties, Kenya. The sample of study was 30 principals, 75 teachers and 160 students yielding a total of 265 respondents. The findings of the study revealed that although the content of the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum was adequate in terms of its scope, it generally focused on the acquisition of the cognitive learning outcomes at the expense of the other two domains; psychomotor and affective. The study further revealed that the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum gives little attention to the local needs of the learner. Similarly, 73.3 % principal, 75% teacher and 87% student respondents reported that much of the teaching was more examination oriented rather than developing values and capabilities of the learner. It was therefore concluded that content of the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum was not focused on developing skills, values and capabilities among the youth. In addition, the teaching was more focused on drilling students on how to pass examinations rather than equipping them with appropriate competences and life values. The study recommends that the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum should be further reviewed or overhauled to make it relevant to the needs of the Kenyan child.

Key words*: Capabilities, curriculum, learner, skills and values.*

Introduction

The teaching of values and ethics has gone through different metaphases as documented by various educational commissions and reports since Kenya got her independence in 1963. For instance, immediately after independence in 1963, the government appointed the first post independent commission of education (The Ominde Commission) to align the school curriculum to the needs of the African child. Among the objectives of the Ominde commission were; advise the government on the formulation and implementation of national policies for education and address problems inherited from colonial government to make education more responsive to the needs of the country. In attempt to address these objectives and specifically on moral values, the following recommendations were adopted by the Ominde Commission; science education, training of life skills, integration of contemporary issues in the curriculum to make it more relevant to societal needs and,

guidance and counselling be established in all learning institutions. A critical analysis of this curriculum revealed that it acknowledged the need to equip learners with living values. However, due to the limited opportunities for higher education, informally teachers shifted their efforts towards drilling learners to pass examinations. The teaching of morals, norms and values was left to the religious education teachers and school chaplains during pastoral programmes.

The adoption of the recommendations of the Mackay Report (1981) led to the introduction of 8-4-4 system of education in 1985. The introduction of the 8-4-4 system of education intended to achieve the following to goals, to; foster a sense of nationhood and promotes national unity, promote individual and self-fulfillment, promote positive attitudes towards good health and environmental protection and, promote sound moral and religious values among others. However, the achievement of these noble goals was hindered by several challenges; an imbalance between curriculum content and time allocated for coverage of the syllabus, a mismatch between curriculum content and the level of the learners necessitated very many curriculum reviews rendering the whole process and obscuring the original intention of the 8-4-4 system of education and, increased prominence on certification as the highly competitive nature of the system shifted emphasis towards learner's academic achievement rather than the learning of values and life skills.

Although, several curriculum reviews and reforms have been witnessed in Kenya, since the inception of the 8-4-4 system, these efforts seem not to have yielded the desired objectives. This argument is supported by the many dysfunctional families, increased drug abuse among the youth, escalated suicides and homicides and failing social institutions (schools and religious organizations). The effect of social media has further complicated the moral spectrum in the society today. Similarly, today many parents have also have pushed the moral obligation to teachers and administrators.

Objectives of the Study

This study was guided by two objectives: to examine the content of value development in the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum and to establish whether the 8-4-4 school curriculum equips learners with values and competences that are useful in their daily life.

Significance of the Study

The findings of this study would be of immediate benefit to curriculum developers at Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development when reviewing the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum in order to make it relevant to holistic development of the learner. In addition, the results of study would also provide teachers with new knowledge about the values that they should equip learners with in addition to focusing on quality academic performance. Similarly, the stakeholders and in particular parents would also get current information on the values and norms offered to their children in the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum. Finally, the results of this study would enhance the information to the present literature on content of about the values in the current school curriculum at in Kenya.

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited by a number of variables. First literature on holistic development in the 8-4-4 school curriculum in Kenya was scanty. For this reason, the literature review was drawn from primary sources such as syllabuses, educational commissions and government policy documents. Secondly, it was also limited by respondents' personal attitudes towards the value oriented curriculum versa vs. modernization or influence by social media. Due to financial constraints, the study was limited a small sample of only 265 respondents.

Delimitation of the Study

This study delimited itself to the content of value education at the secondary school level in the 8-4-4 system of education in Kenya. This decision was taken due time and financial constraints.

Methodology of Research

The study was qualitative in nature and it was conducted in 30 secondary schools in Machakos and Nairobi counties in Kenya. The respondents of the study were 30 principals, 75 teachers and 160 students yielding a total of 265 respondents. Stratified and simple random sampling techniques were used to select the subjects of the study. Data was collected through a document analysis of primary data; secondary school syllabuses and Working Party reports. This data was complimented by interviews with the principal respondents.

Results of the Study

The first objective of the study was to examine the content of the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum. A documentary analysis of the of the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum revealed that the curriculum covers five major areas: Languages (English, Kiswahili and foreign languages), Mathematics, Science (physics, chemistry and biology), Humanities (geography, history& government and religious education) Applied Sciences (agriculture, industrial education, wood technology, metal technology, power mechanics, electrical technology, business education, accounts, commerce, typing and office practice, home science, clothing and textiles, food and nutrition, arts, and music). The study found out that information about values and norms was integrated in languages in the topics on effective communication and emerging trends in communication such as the influence of social media among secondary school students. The other subjects which gave a lot of emphasis to formation of values and in particular the acquisition of virtues was in religious education (Christian Religious education, Islamic, Hindu). Apart from documentary analysis, 68.2% teacher respondents also reported that the content on formation of desired living values was also mainstreamed in History and Government as a way on enhancing national integration and cohesion.

According to 71.7% principal interviewees, moral development was also covered under applied sciences which comprises of the following subjects; Home science, Business Studies, Agriculture, Computer science and Industrial Education. The results of the study on the adequacy of the subject matter in the specific subjects varied from one subject to the other. For instance 43.5% teacher respondents who taught agriculture revealed that subject matter on value formation was inadequate

as reported by 67.7% whereas it was found to be sufficient in Christian Religious Education and Islamic Religious Education subjects according to 81.5% and 79% student respondents respectively. Other 56.7% teacher respondents stated that it was satisfactory in the biology, whereas 18.4% stated that it was very shallow in the Physics subject.

The second objective of the study sought to establish whether the 8-4-4 school curriculum equips learners with values and competences that are useful in their daily life. The findings of the study according to 89.0% teacher respondents who taught science subjects showed that majority of the teachers focused more on preparing students on the examinable topics instead of "wasting" time on the non-examinable ones such as the teaching of moral values and life skills in their subjects (Physics, Chemistry and Biology). This finding was supported by 92.2% student respondents who noted that the teaching of moral values was rarely done in their schools. However, according to 78.6% teacher respondents who taught Home science, the teaching of holistic development was given a lot of emphasis as the subject focused more on improving people's health and their well-being. A similar observation was made by 87.6% teacher respondents who taught Religious Education.

The study findings further revealed the teaching of holistic development and in particular good morals was also emphasized in the languages (English and Kiswahili). The concepts were covered in the teaching of effective communication skills. This finding was supported by observations made by 84.5% of the principal respondents, who reported to have witnessed teachers covering issues about moral development in their schools. According to 75% teacher respondents, the topic was frequently examined and hence the need to give it a lot of emphasis. Apart from covering the topic on value development in class, this topic was also frequently covered during the non-formal curriculum in activities such as class meetings, school assemblies, games and sports among others. Similar observations were as reported 87.5% of the student respondents.

Discussions

The results of the study as presented in the previous section revealed that although the content of the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum was adequate in terms of its scope, it generally focused on the acquisition of the cognitive learning outcomes at the expense of the other two domains; psychomotor and affective. These findings were in agreement with the principles of a good school curriculum (KICD, 2016). The findings on the other hand, were contrary to those of Kimiti (2011) who noted that although issues of moral development were integrated in the secondary school curriculum its scope was shallow and hence a need for its improvement. According to KICD (2014) the 8-4-4 curriculum had gone through several reviews but not specifically tailored to the focus on moral values as a subject. A Similar study carried out by Adhiambo (2004) also concurred with the findings of this study.

The study further revealed that the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum gives little attention to the local needs of the learner. Similarly, 73.3 % principal, 75% teacher and 87% student respondents reported that much of the teaching was more examination oriented rather than developing values and capabilities of the learner. This finding seemed to concur with that of Kithyo (2002) when he reported that in most of the syllabuses for vocational education though standard, the actual teaching did not focus on inculcation of life values. However, research findings of a study carried out in Kenya

on the quality of the secondary school curriculum agreed with the findings of the current study when it reported that not all topics are usually sufficient in terms of their content validity due to haste ways in which the school curriculum is prepared in Kenya. Thus the findings of the current study suggest that the scope of the value education in the secondary school curriculum is inadequate with respect to the set learning objectives.

The importance of proper curriculum planning had been captured in earlier studies (Otunga, 2010). In this study, documentary analysis revealed that 76.3% of the teacher interviewees who taught the at the secondary school level reported that its scope was broad and shallow. This finding seemed accurate since the process of syllabus development at Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development has been criticized for being too academic (Kavagi, 2002)

Moses (2004) pointed out that there are several challenges of curriculum design, among these; its scope may be either too broad or too shallow, which is associated with incompetence among the curriculum developers. These sentiments were supported by Narman, (1985) when he noted that any curriculum change, review or reform needs not to be done in a hurry. According to this researcher, such a situation is triggered by the desire to meet set deadlines at the expense of quality of the curriculum development process. Accordingly, this probably explains the reasons why the content on moral education was found to be shallow by many respondents. This finding was supported by the historical circumstances in which the 8-4-4 curriculum was introduced in Kenya when the country was not ready for its implementation.

Conclusions

Based on the findings and discussions of the study, two conclusions were drawn. First the content of the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum was not focused on developing skills, values and capabilities among the youth. Finally, teaching in the 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum was focused a lot on drilling students on how to pass examinations rather than equipping them with appropriate competences and life values

Recommendations

The study made the following two recommendations;

i. The content of 8-4-4 secondary school curriculum should be reviewed to make it relevant to holistic development of the learner.
ii. The teachers should ensure that they strike a balance between academic performance and inculcation of values.

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Kenyan Curriculum and Self-reliance: A Decolonizing Perspective

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Abstract

Education is meant to develop capacity and enable members of society to become productive. African indigenous education systems inculcated self-reliance among members of society and every individual had a specific defined role within the society. The colonial education system introduced the aspects of unemployment, underemployment and job seekers. In an effort to address growing mismatch between expectations by graduates and societal employment provisions, the government has regularly formed commissions and made reforms in the education system. Despite these efforts there has been growing concerns on the effectiveness of the current education system to inculcate self-reliance among graduates. This study sought to establish the influence of decolonizing the Kenyan education system on self-reliance among students. The study was carried out in universities in Kenya. This study utilized the descriptive survey design and the correlational research design. A sample size of 384 respondents made up of 60 members of teaching faculty and 324 fourth year bachelor of education students was selected to participate in the study. Data collection was done using questionnaires and interview schedules. Descriptive statistics was used for measures of central tendencies including mean, standard deviation and coefficient of variation. Inferential statistics through correlation analysis using the Pearson's coefficient of correlation was applied to measure the degree of influence of decolonizing curriculum on self-reliance. To test hypothesis, simple linear and multiple regression models were used to test significance between independent and dependent variable. Qualitative data from interviews was organized into themes, categories and patterns pertinent to the study. The study found that the contemporary Kenyan curriculum influenced self-reliance to a moderate extent and that integration of selected elements of African indigenous curriculum was capable of improving the Kenyan curriculum to a large extent. It was concluded that decolonizing curriculum had a statistically significant relationship with self-reliance among students in the Kenyan education system

***Key words**: self-reliance, decolonization, curriculum, indigenous knowledge, integrating, anti-colonial*

Introduction

The proponents of the 8-4-4 systems argued that it was relevant for the needs of the nation or it would meet the national demands for self-employment and self-reliance (Ambaa, 2015). The school curriculum adopted for 8-4-4 included learning opportunities which were meant to enable pupils to acquire a suitable basic foundation for the world of work in the context of economic and manpower needs of the nation, and to appreciate and respect the dignity of labor (Eshiwani 1993). To achieve the stated objectives, three subjects were emphasized as being of special importance: Art and Craft, Agriculture and Home Science. Art and Craft education featured content areas such as collage and mosaic, drawings, paintings, graphic design, clay and pottery, leatherwork, modeling and carving; fabric design, puppetry, wood work and metalwork. Learners in these courses were expected to produce functional and aesthetically appealing articles (Ambaa, 2015). Ideally, pupils were supposed to use the acquired knowledge and skills in order to design, implement and control small scale projects that would provide opportunities for self-reliance for both the learner and other members of the community (Eshiwani, 1993)

Other subjects introduced through 8-4-4 with the aim of training pupils for self-reliance were Agriculture and Home science. In Agriculture the learner was expected to acquire practical skills such as growing of vegetables, learning about domestic animals; poultry and bee keeping, making farm tools and caring for the soil and the environment (Eshiwani, 1993). Home science, which the syllabus defines as the study of home and family living within the environment, was designed to develop and apply knowledge, skills, principles and attitudes which would help the leaner to relate better to the social and economic realities of the community and the country (Ambaa, 2015). Its specific objectives were to give pupils basic knowledge useful in promoting the welfare of the home and family and setting standards for community living. The subject comprised three areas of learning namely, home management, clothing and textiles and food and nutrition while business education was meant to equip learners with entrepreneurship skills. However, these subjects were eventually given less prominence in the primary school curriculum remaining only as non-examinable subjects at this level (Karanja, 2008).

Various studies have been carried out examining the 8-4-4 education system with regard to its goal of producing self-reliant individuals for the Kenyan society. Ambaa (2015) observed that while the 8-4-4 system curriculum allowed for more options in technical and vocational subjects, it experienced serious shortages or lack of essential resources and facilities and the local communities could not be mobilized to provide the facilities required. This is also emphasized by Amutabi (2003) who noted that that 8-4-4 encountered numerous challenges such as lack of involvement of relevant stakeholders, infrastructures such as classrooms, workshops, curriculum, trained personnel, literature and pedagogy. This indicates that the goal of training graduates for self-reliance through introduction of a vocational oriented curriculum was bound to fail since the new curriculum required many facilities for practical subjects such as art and craft, agriculture, music and home science which were not available. Kenya has continued to grapple with the problem of production of graduates and school leavers who lack the basic capacity to be self-reliant and live their lives independently. There is growing economic dependency among the youth of Kenya.

Kenya started the process of overhauling its education system for the first time in 32 years in January 2018. The 8-4-4 system of education that the country has been operating on and whose guiding philosophy was education for self-reliance will gradually be replaced by the competency based 2-6-6-3 curriculum. Part of the reasons behind this huge overhaul is the realisation that Kenya isn't doing enough to produce school-leavers who are ready for the world of work (Sifuna, 2016). The government's own assessments have showed that the current system isn't flexible. It struggles to respond to individual pupils' strengths and weaknesses. The Kenya Institute of Education produced an evaluation report about the 8-4-4 system in 2008 which identified several weaknesses with the system of education: It found that the system was very academic and examination oriented; the curriculum was overloaded; most schools were not able to equip their pupils with practical skills and many teachers also weren't sufficiently trained (Sifuna, 2016). In this sense, the 8-4-4 system could be said to have failed in its core aim of preparing all learners to be self-reliant.

The core aim of the 8-4-4 system from its inception was to prepare learners to be self-reliant individuals. The content of the curriculum was arranged so as to impart vocational type of skills to learners, with the hope of preparing them to be self-reliant. However, it is observed that the 8-4-4 was hurriedly implemented, without adequate consultation and involvement of stakeholders, provision of adequate facilities and infrastructure and training of teachers for implementing the new curriculum (Sifuna, 2016; Ambaa, 2015, Simiyu, 2001; Amutabi, 2003; Eshiwani, 1993; RoK, 1988). Parallels have been drawn between the manner in which the 8-4-4 education sytem was introduced and the way the 2-6-6-3 system was introduced at the beginning of 2018. Sifuna (2016) raised concerns over the cost of the new

curriculum and the extent to which teachers and other implementers of the curriculum were prepared for the new curriculum approach. Kenya continues to produce graduates at all levels of education who lack knowledge, skills and attitude to rely on themselves and dependency levels continue to be a major challenge to the economy of this country. Not much attention has been payed to the role played by colonialism and the legacy of colonial education as well as the adoption of a Eurocentric type of curriculum after independence.

This study sought to deconstruct the Kenyan education system with regard to its role in inculcating self-reliance among students. Based on the gaps identified in the literature review, the researcher situated this study in the Anti-colonial theoretical framework in order to fill the gaps. Education in the African indigenous dimension trained all members of society through its curriculum, pedagogical approach, learning environment and evaluation to be self-reliant. However, colonization and introduction of a Eurocentric type of education had long lasting effects on education for Africans. This study sought to explore the influence of integrating aspects of indigenous curriculum in Africa into the contemporary Kenyan education in order to inculcate knowledge, skills and the spirit of self-reliance among learners.

Results and Discussions

The objective of this study was to determine the extent to which decolonizing curriculum promotes self-reliance among students in the Kenyan education system. A decolonizing curriculum was conceived in terms of integrating aspects of African indigenous curriculum into the contemporary Kenyan curriculum. Two sets of items were included in the questionnaire to measure the variety of subjects taught, content of subjects taught, and choice of subjects by the learner as well as the source/origin of content taught in both the contemporary Kenyan education system and in the indigenous African education system.

Contemporary Curriculum

The respondents were requested to indicate the extent to which they agreed with selected statements about the Kenyan education system. Selected statements capture indicators of a curriculum which according to literature reviewed would be associated with self-reliance. They were given fourteen items rated on a five point Likert scale ranging from: of SD – Strongly Disagree; D – Disagree; N – Neutral; A – Agree; and SA – Strongly Agree from which to choose. The findings are presented in Table 1

Table 1: Frequencies and Percentages on Contemporary Curriculum

Statement	SD	D	N	A	SA
Curriculum focuses on community-centred knowledge and skills	74 (19.3%)	122 (31.8%)	69 (18%)	95 (24.7%)	24 (6.25%)
Music and drama are highly encouraged in educational institutions	65 (16.9%)	100 (26.0%)	69 (18.0%)	102 (26.6%)	48 (12.5%)
Students have ample time to participate in communal programmes	72 (18.8%)	155 (40.4%)	78 (20.3%)	58 (15.1%)	21 (5.5%)
Technical subjects feature prominently in the education system	73 (19.0%)	112 (29.2%)	57 (14.8%)	89 (23.2%)	53 (13.8%)
Subjects in the education system enable learners to explore their creativity	55 (14.3%)	98 (25.5%)	64 (16.7%)	111 (28.9%)	56 (14.6%)

Content of curriculum enables students to develop their potential and talents.	55 (14.3%)	96 (25.0%)	71 (18.5%)	105 (27.3%)	57 (14.8%)
There's a wide variety of subjects provided in the education system	29 (7.6%)	55 (14.3%)	42 (10.9%)	151 (39.3%)	107 (27.9%)
Students are exposed to a work-oriented curriculum	68 (17.7%)	111 (28.9%)	65 (16.9%)	88 (22.9%)	52 (13.5%)
Subjects taught in the education system enable students develop strong self-esteem	36 (9.4%)	95 (24.7%)	89 (23.2%)	104 (27.1%)	60 (15.1%)
Content of curriculum nurtures spirit of independence	40 (10.4%)	110 (28.6%)	82 (21.4%)	115 (29.9%)	37 (9.6%)
Choice of subjects to study is not entirely made by learners	55 (14.3%)	71 (18.5%)	61 (15.9%)	122 (31.8%)	75 (19.8%)
Content of subjects taught in educational institutions is derived from the immediate/local environment	90 (23.4%)	125 (32.6%)	73 (19.0%)	68 (17.7%)	28 (7.3%)
Kenyan curriculum exposes learners to the world of work	63 (16.4%)	92 (24.0%)	81 (21.1%)	102 (26.6%)	46 (12.0%)
Students are presented with a challenging curriculum designed to develop independent thinking.	65 (16.9%)	91 (23.7%)	70 (18.2%)	89 (23.2%)	69 (18.0%)

Analysis of the results in Table 1 on the contemporary curriculum, reveal that majority of the respondents disagree that in the Kenyan education system, the curriculum focuses on community-centred knowledge and skills(31.8%), students have ample time to participate in communal programmes (40.4%), technical subjects feature prominently in the education system (29.2%), students are exposed to a work-oriented curriculum (28.9%), content of subjects taught in educational institutions is derived from the immediate environment(32.6%) and that students are presented with a challenging curriculum designed to develop independent thinking (23.7%).

A majority of respondents agreed that music and drama are highly encouraged in education institutions (26.6%), there is a wide variety of subjects provided in the education system according to the majority of respondents (39.3%), that subjects in the education system enable learners to explore their creativity (28.9%), content curriculum enables students to develop their potential talents (27.3%) content of curriculum nurtures the spirit of independence (29.9%), Subjects taught in the education system enable students develop strong self-esteem (27.1%) and that Kenyan curriculum exposes learners to the world of work (26.6%).

The frequencies presented on Table 1 show that the majority of the respondents disagreed about the presence of curriculum aspects that would promote self-reliance among students in the Kenyan education system. The findings in this study are supported by other studies on curriculum in Kenya which found that although the 8-4-4 system of education was designed to prepare learners for a life of self-reliance through

inculcating in them skills that would lead to self-employment; the implementation of this curriculum has been largely ineffective. Simiyu (2001) found that although the 8-4-4 system curriculum provided for more options in technical and vocational subjects, training in these areas did not bear the expected results since there were no trained technical and vocational subjects teachers and local craftsmen could not be used. Amutabi (2003) found that the Kenyan education system was theoretically oriented due to lack of infrastructure and therefore did not adequately provide learners with adequate skills for self-reliance. According to Owino (1997) vocational subjects and activities introduced in the 8-4-4 curriculum to provide students with skills for self-reliance were viewed by teachers and students as an extra burden both in practical daily activities in schools and in national examination.

African Indigenous Curriculum

Decolonizing the curriculum involves integration of African indigenous curriculum elements into the contemporary Kenyan curriculum. Respondents were requested to rate the extent to which integrating of selected elements of the indigenous African curriculum could enhance the Kenyan education system using a scale of NE – To no extent ;SE – To a small extent; N – Neutral; LE – To a large extent; and VLE – To a very large extent; The findings are presented on Table 2

Table 2
Frequencies and Percentages on Decolonizing curriculum

Statement	NE	SE	N	LE	VLE
Aligning content to immediate needs of society	22 (5.7%)	57 (14.8%)	57 (14.8%)	142 (37.0%)	106 (27.6%)
Teaching subjects that develop practical skills	17 (4.4%)	43 (11.2%)	49 (12.8%)	122 (31.8%)	153 (39.8%)
Teaching subjects that emphasize hands-on experiences	18 (4.7%)	38 (9.9%)	60 (15.6%)	131 (34.1%)	137 (35.7%)
Emphasizing on individual talents in the choice of subjects	29 (7.6%)	50 (13.0%)	39 (10.2%)	103 (26.8%)	162 (42.2%)
Teaching subjects that promote creativity among learners	16 (4.2%)	45 (11.7%)	47 (12.2%)	124 (32.3%)	152 (39.6%)
Presenting learners with a curriculum that instills skills to exploit their immediate environment	20 (5.2%)	47 (12.2%)	48 (12.5%)	123 (32.0%)	146 (38.0%)
Focusing on the local environment as the main source of content for the curriculum	42 (10.9%)	65 (16.9%)	47 (12.2%)	118 (30.7%)	112 (29.2%)
Integrating objectives of African indigenous education in the curriculum	32 (8.3%)	81 (21.1%)	66 (17.2%)	116 (30.2%)	89 (23.2%)
Involvement of local communities in curriculum development	39 (10.2%)	66 (17.2%)	58 (15.1%)	109 (28.4%)	112 (29.2%)

Analysis of results in Table 1 indicates that “teaching subjects that develop practical skills” was rated as useful to a very large extent by majority of the respondents (39.8%). Other elements of the indigenous African curriculum rated by the majority of respondents as useful to a very large extent include: teaching subjects that emphasize hands-on experiences (35.7%), Emphasizing of individual talents in the choice of subjects (42.2%), Teaching subjects that promote creativity among learners (39.6%), presenting learners

with a curriculum that instills skills to exploit their immediate environment (38.0%) and involvement of local communities in curriculum development (29.2%). African indigenous curriculum elements rated as useful to a large extent by majority of the respondents include: aligning content to immediate needs of society (37.0%), integrating objectives if of African indigenous education in the curriculum (30.2 %) and focusing on the local environment as the main source of content for the curriculum (30.7%).

The findings in this study confirm the assertion by Omolewa (2007) that following the indigenous African model of teaching, it is wise to start with the knowledge about the local area, which students are familiar with, and then gradually move to the knowledge about regional, national and global environments. Omolewa further observed that indigenous people have developed enormous volumes of knowledge over the centuries about different subject matters especially in the areas of informal and vocational training, where each person in the community is practically trained and prepared for his/her role in society. Ambaa (2015) also reported that teaching in learning institutions in Kenya should be related to one's interest and experience and as a result, the inherent abilities that individuals possess will be developed which may be vital in realizing self-reliance as an aim of education.

Correlation Analysis for Curriculum and Self-reliance

The Pearson's Product Moment technique was used to carry out Correlational analysis to determine the relationship between indicators of contemporary Kenyan curriculum, indigenous African curriculum, decolonized (integrated) curriculum and self-reliance. It was meant to identify the strength and direction of the association between the indicators of these variables. Values of correlation coefficient range from -1 and +1. A correlation coefficient of +1 indicates that the two variables are perfectly and positively related in a linear sense, while -1 shows that the two variables are perfectly related but in a negative linear sense. Hair et al (2006) observe that correlation coefficient (r) ranging from 0.81 to 1.0 is very strong; from 0.61 to 0.80 is strong; from 0.41 to 0.60 is moderate; from 0.21 to 0.40 is weak; and from 0.00 to 0.20 indicates no relationship. The results are presented on Table 3.

Table 3 Correlation Analysis of Curriculum and Self-reliance

		Contemporary Curriculum	Decolonizing Curriculum	Self-reliance
Contemporary Curriculum	Pearson Correlation	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			
	N	384		
Decolonizing Curriculum	Pearson Correlation	.869**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		
	N	384	384	
Self-reliance	Pearson Correlation	.786**	.736**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	
	N	384	384	384

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Results on Table 3 indicate a strong positive and significant correlation between the indicators of the contemporary curriculum and self-reliance (r=786, p-value 0.000<0.01). There is also a strong positive and significant correlation between the decolonizing curriculum (integrated curriculum) and self-reliance (r=736, p-value 0.000<0.01).

Regression Analysis and Hypothesis Testing for Decolonizing Curriculum and Self-reliance

The objective of the study was to determine the extent to which decolonizing curriculum promotes self-reliance among students in the Kenyan education system. A decolonizing curriculum was conceived in terms of integrating elements of African indigenous curriculum into the contemporary Kenyan curriculum. The measures of the curriculum comprised the variety of subjects taught, content of subjects taught, and choice of subjects by the learner as well as the source/origin of content taught in both the contemporary education system and in the indigenous African education systems. Respondents had been asked to indicate the extent to which the Kenyan education system focused on the selected curriculum dimensions. Respondents were also asked to rate the usefulness of integrating the curriculum dimensions conceived from an African indigenous perspective into the Kenyan education system. Self-reliance measures were composed of attitude, creativity, responsibility, autonomy, hard work, confidence in own capabilities and self-esteem. To determine the relationship between decolonizing curriculum and self-reliance, the following hypothesis was tested.

$H_{01:}$ There is no statistically significant relationship between decolonizing curriculum and self-reliance among students in the Kenyan education system.

The regression results are presented on Table 4.

Table 4 Regression Analysis of Curriculum and Self-reliance

a). Goodness of Fit

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Contemporary	.786[a]	0.617	0.616	0.40308
Decolonizing	.736[a]	0.542	0.541	0.44091

b).The Overall Significance of the Model

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Contemporary	Regression	100.113	1	100.113	616.185	.000[b]
	Residual	62.065	382	0.162		
	Total	162.178	383			
Decolonizing	Regression	87.918	1	87.918	452.256	.000[b]
	Residual	74.260	382	0.194		
	Total	162.178	383			

c).The Individual Significance of the Model

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
Contemporary	(Constant)	0.506	0.117		4.340	0.000
	Curriculum	0.827	0.033	0.786	24.823	0.000
Decolonizing Curriculum	(Constant)	-0.050	0.162		-0.312	0.755
	Curriculum	0.936	0.044	0.736	21.266	0.000

a. Dependent Variable: Self-Reliance

The results in Table 4 show that decolonizing curriculum had a statistically significant relationship with self-reliance. The coefficient of determination is 0.617 for the contemporary curriculum and 0.542 for the Decolonized curriculum. This suggests that 61.7% of variation in Self-reliance is explained by the contemporary curriculum. In addition, Decolonizing curriculum explained 54.2% of variation in self-reliance. On the basis of this result the study revealed that Decolonizing curriculum has marginal significance towards self-reliance.

Results on Table 4 further reveal that the contemporary curriculum significantly influenced self-reliance with F Statistic =616.185 and a P-value of 0.000<0.05. Similarly, the decolonized curriculum, with an F statistic=452.256 and a P-value of 0.000<0.05 was also shown as having significant relationship with self-reliance. This implies that the model is statistically significant at 5% level of significance.

The results on Table 4 also reveal that the contemporary curriculum was considered statistically significant with a regression coefficient of 0.827, a t-value of 24.823 and a P-value of 0.000<0.05. This suggests that one unit change in the contemporary curriculum corresponds to increase in self-reliance by a factor of 0.827. Further, the study reveals that there exists a significant relationship between decolonizing curriculum and self-reliance at 5% level of significance (regression coefficient=0.936, P-value 0.000<0.05). This implies that for one unit change in decolonizing curriculum, there is an increase in self-reliance by a factor of 0.936.

In conclusion the study revealed that the current curriculum and the decolonizing curriculum contributed significantly towards self-reliance. The Null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between decolonizing curriculum and self-reliance is not supported in the current study. The regression model for the prediction of self –reliance can be stated as follows:

$Y = 0.506 + 0.827X_{11}$
$Y = 0.936X_1$
Where:
X_{11} = Contemporary Curriculum
X_1 =Decolonizing Curriculum
Y = Self-reliance
0.506 = Y-intercept (constant). Estimate of expected value of self-reliance when contemporary curriculum is Zero.

0.827 = an estimate of the expected increase in Self-reliance in response to a unit increase in contemporary curriculum

0.936= an estimate of the expected increase in Self-reliance in response to a unit increase in Decolonizing curriculum.

Based on the findings of this study, it was revealed that decolonizing curriculum (with a regression coefficient =0.936) would improve the contemporary curriculum (regression coefficient= 0.827) in promoting self-reliance among students. Although studies on decolonizing curriculum for self-reliance are difficult to find, many studies have been carried out on integration of Indigenous knowledges to contemporary education systems. Since integrating of indigenous knowledges into contemporary curriculums is part of the efforts to decolonize education, reference can be made on these studies. The results of this study support Hamilton-Ekeke and Dorgu (2015) who posited that since indigenous knowledge was generated from the local wisdom and culture, it fits to the local situation natively and that this knowledge could contribute to solve existing problems and achieving the intended objectives. The findings also supports Omolewa (2007) who observed that integration of traditional education into school curriculum enables schools to act as agencies for transferring the culture of the society from one generation to the next and links the learning process more closely to learners' everyday experience in order to help them to make better sense of what they learn

Conclusions

Judging from the findings resulting from the data collected for this study, the results reveal some vital facts upon which the conclusions can be drawn. We can conclude from this study that decolonizing the curriculum in the Kenyan education system would have a positive influence on self-reliance among students. The study revealed that decolonizing curriculum through integrating aspects of the indigenous African curriculum had significant relationship with self-reliance among students. Teaching subjects that develop practical skills, those that promote creativity among learners and those that promote hands-on experiences were considered as crucial for promoting self-reliance. Presenting learners with a curriculum that instills skills to exploit their immediate environments was also highly rated in promoting self-reliance.

Recommendation

Based on the findings of the current study, the researcher made the following recommendations:

The is need for curriculum developers to focus more on the learner's immediate environment so as to develop curricula that responds to immediate needs of the learner.

There is need for curriculum developers to explore ways of developing and designing locally and regionally relevant curricula where focus is on instilling skills and competencies relevant for survival in the learner's immediate environment and to ground them firmly in their own cultures before introducing them to knowledge from other areas and cultures.

Curriculum planners should be encouraged to help to integrate self- reliance skills modeled along the lines of African indigenous educational practices into contemporary Kenyan education.

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Analysis of Human And Social Capitals And Community Participation In Development Initiatives Among The Rural Households In Coastal Region Of Kenya

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Abstract

Community participation in development initiatives as beneficiaries of the intended outcomes is important to the Government and development partners as implementing agencies. Community capitals which include cultural, human, social and built capitals play a crucial role in determining the extent communities participate in projects and programmes implemented by development agencies. The present study sought to establish the human and social capitals that determine community participation in projects and programmes implemented by the Kenya government and development partners among the rural households within the coastal region of Kenya. The research was carried out in the three counties of the coastal region. Multi-stage sampling techniques namely purposive, proportionate random and simple random sampling was used to select the study area and the study sample. Data were collected using semi-structured questionnaire Focus Group Discussion and observation schedules. The data analysis was done using descriptive statistics and regression analysis with the help of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences Version 22. The findings revealed that households heads with human capital namely Primary and Secondary education, training, and occupation have a higher likelihood of participating in development initiatives. While households with the social capital namely membership to groups engaged in economic activities and have linkages with development agencies, have a likelihood of participating in development initiatives. Key policy recommendations for county government and development partners includes: encourage the community members to enrol in adult education, provide support for vocational and technical training, register as members in existing groups or form groups based on common interest and engage in economic activities. The county government to enhance advisory services to ensure close contact with professional who will facilitate training, meetings and interactions with groups consequently members' empowerment.

***Keyword**: Household, Participation, Human capital, Social capital, Development initiatives*

Introduction

Community participation has been recognised by many international development agencies as a vital component for sustainable development (Cornwall, 2009). The concept of community participation originated about 40 years ago from the community development movement of the late colonial era in parts of Africa and Asia. The concept has been recognized as an important element since the early 1990s as a means of improving local welfare, training people in local administration and extending government control through local self-help activities ((Ayman, 2011; McCommon, 1993).Today, community participation has developed as one of the major models of development gaining acceptance across the spectrum of development actors as a means of improving development practice related to grassroots community development initiatives and viewed as a basis for project success (Cornwall, 2009). In recognition of its vitality to community development, community participation has been referred to as the heart that pumps the community life blood (Reid, 2000).

The concept of participation came to be popularised and institutionalised in the 1990s as a novel, common-sense way of addressing development discourses and practices of many mainstream development organizations. It has earned its status as an orthodoxy with promises of giving 'the poor' a voice and a choice in development and an essential ingredient in getting development interventions and policies right (Cornwall, 2006). Participation is commonly understood as the collective involvement of local people in assessing their needs and organizing strategies to meet these needs in partnership with the national government, county government, local organizations and external development partners. (Zaku and Lysack, 1998 cited in Cuthill, 2010).

Community participation in development initiatives is associated with attainment of benefits. The accrued benefits include: a) enhancement of the relevance of programmes to ensure that they are all suited for the needs and circumstances of the beneficiaries (Kironde & Kihirimbanyi,2002 cited in Cuthill, 2010); b) ensures that the views of many stakeholder groups are represented in the development process (Cullen, Coryan & Rugh, 2011); c) expectations that the programmes decisions that feed on the insights of many stakeholders are not just relevant to the beneficiaries, they are generally smarter (Weaver & Cousin, 2004, Cullen et al., 2011); d) greater programme outcomes such as greater access to social services (Bedelu, Ford, Hilderbrand & Reuter, 2007), consumption and demand for services (Kilpatrick et al., 2009); e) programme sustainability due to greater sense of ownership and responsibility for programmes activities by stakeholders by willing, able to mobilize and commit local resources to continue some or all of the programmes proceeds after external support is withdrawn or reduced (Oakley, 1992).

In an attempt to understand effective community participation in development initiatives implemented by government and development partners either on their own or in partnership to attain the benefits associated with it, it is important to examine the factors that influence their participation. Research on community participation in development has focused on demographic and socio-economic factors among other s as factors that influence community participation. For instance, Bauma et al., (2000) argues that the level of participation in social and civic community life is significantly influenced by individual socio-economic status and other demographic characteristics. Supporting this line of thought, Plummer (2002) describes factors such as skills and knowledge, employment, cultural beliefs, gender, education and literacy social and political marginalization to be key in affecting community participation. Recent research on community participation in development has broadened focus and included community capitals namely: human, social and institutional factors and the interaction among these components of the community (Cote, 2001, cited in Cuthill, 2010). A theoretical analysis of community participation by Nkwake, Trandafili, & Hughey (2013) revealed that Communities have seven types of capital which influence community or individual participation in development initiatives. Community capitals include cultural capital, social capital, human capital, built capital, natural capital and political capital. Assessing levels of community capital is an effective way of measuring a community capacity to participate in development initiatives for change (Flora & Flora, 2008). It is important to examines the extent the community capitals influence community participation in development initiatives among households.

Human capital is defined as a key factor of individuals' Cadile et al. Human capital includes characteristics of individuals that strengthen one's ability to earn a living and provide for one's community, family and self-improvement. It consists of one's personal assets such as health of individual, formal education, skills, intelligence, leadership and talents (Flora & Flora. 2008). While human capital consists of a variety of personal assets, Becker (2002) states that human capital which includes, schooling, on-the-job training, health information and research, is the most important form of capital in economies of success of individuals and the whole economies which depend on how extensively and effectively people invest in themselves. Becker (2002) asserts that human capital stimulates technological innovations and high tech

sector and identifies education and training as the most essential forms of human capital which are associated with individual occupation. In the theoretical analysis of the scientific literature, Ciutiene and Railaite (2014), concludes that human capital includes a wide range of different components, such as knowledge, experience, competency, health among others which are necessary for achieving development.

While there are many definitions of social capital, Fine (2001) defines social capital as the development of networks in which community residents can identify problems, share information, and implement strategies designed to solve problems for the benefit of all. Putnam (1993) defines social capital as features of social organizations such as networks, norms and trust that improve performance of a society by facilitating coordination actions for mutual benefits. Social capital is manifested in the relations among people (Coleman, 1988). According to Coleman, social capital resides in people's minds and influences their relationships with each other or plan to interact and may produce potential benefits, advantage and preferential treatment from another person of group beyond that expected in an exchanged relationship. Narayan and Pritchett (1997, cited in Lindon et al., 2002) and Heller (1996) argue that increased social capital leads to increased community cooperative action and solves local community property problems and economic development, strengthens linkages among the individuals that speed the diffusion of innovations, quantity and quality of information, reduces transaction costs, pools risks and allows households to pursue more risky and higher return activities. Social capital is within two context of economic development policy. The one that is bottom-up development depends on intra-community ties which is referred to as integration and extra-community networks referred to as linkages. The other is top-down development which involves state-society relations referred to synergy and institutional coherence, competence and capacity which are called organizational integrity (Woolcock, 1998). In other words, social capital is inherent in individuals and interaction with others.

In Kenya today, participation of the community is mostly done through structures such as groups namely: Community Based Organizations (CBOs), Common Interest Groups (CIGs), and Faith Based Groups (FBGs) which according to Putnam (1993, cited in Cuthill, 2010) are social capital specifically formed for the purposes of achieving common good projects (Hassan et al., 2018; Ong'ayo et al., 2017) and which are among the growing mechanism for channelling development assistance (Khwaja, 2004). The groups have served as instruments for consultation with supposed beneficiaries about planning and implementation of community projects (Hassan et al., 2018; Ong'ayo et al., 2017). The groups are formed on the basis of interest and for the purpose of sharing of technologies and information on new innovations, networking, forming linkages with other likeminded individuals, groups and professional the viability of the groups is determined by the both acquired and inherent in the individual (Ong'ayo et al., 2017) The participation is strengthened by both inherent and acquired individual ability and anticipated gains which include literacy levels, gender, skills, knowledge, and training (Flora & Flora, 2008).

The Kenya government both at national and county level and development agencies have implemented various development initiatives at the coastal region with the goal of alleviating poverty among the rural households. About 69.7% percent of the coastal population live below the poverty line, with some areas such as Ganze in Kilifi scoring an alarming 84 percent making it the second poorest region of Kenya's eight regions after North Eastern with 73.9 percent (Government of Kenya, 2008). Many development initiatives have been implemented with a focus on ensuring community participation for empowerment. The projects include Kenya Coastal Development Project (KCDP), Hazina Ya Maendeleo ya Pwani sub-component of KCDP, Health Service Project (HSP) funded by Danish Development Agency (Danida), Agricultural Sector Projects (ASP) funded by Kenya Government in collaboration with development

partners, Regional Water Development Projects, United Nation Development Programmes (UNDP) among others (Danida Ministry of Foreign affairs, 2004).

Objective of the Study

The study was guided by the following specific objectives: To identify the human and social capitals of the households, and to establish the extent the two forms of capitals determine rural households' participation in development initiatives implemented among them by the government and development partners and organizations.

Methodology

The study was carried out in three counties of the coastal region of Kenya namley namely: Tana River, Kwale and Kilifi. The climate of the region varies with distance from the coast and it becomes drier towards the inland from the ocean and from south to north (Nicholson et al., 1999).Covering an area of approximately 83,000km^2, the coast region has a population of approximately 3.3 million people with a birth rate of 3% (Government of Kenya, 2009). About 69.7% percent of the coastal population lives below the poverty line, with some areas such as Ganze in Kilifi scoring an alarming 84% making it the second poorest region of Kenya's eight regions after North Eastern with 73.9% (Government of Kenya, 2013).

The target study population was an estimated 3.3 million people of the communities living in coastal region currently (GoK, 2009). The accessible population was the 2,160 community members drawn from the groups that participated in different development initiatives implemented in the region by the government either on its own or in partnership with development partners.

The study used a combination of simple random sampling, proportionate random sampling, purposive sampling and techniques. First simple random sampling was used to select three Counties since participatory approaches have been used for implementation of development initiatives in all the six counties. Purposive sampling was used to select the three sub-counties. Proportionate random sampling was used to select households. Two hundred and twenty six households were sampled. According to Kathuri and Pals (1993), a sample of 100 respondents or more is appropriate for a survey study. This is large enough for data collection. With a large sample, the researcher is confident that if another sample of the same size were to be drawn, findings from the two samples would be similar to a high degree (Bordens & Abbort, 2008). Sampling Frame for households from the selected sub-counties was obtained and arrangements made on when to visit the field and administer the questionnaire to the selected household heads.

For successful data collection in the field, one set of semi-structured questionnaire, Focus Group Discussion schedule were used. The questionnaire was administered to households to collect personal profile of the respondents which included demographic data, individual characteristics which included: socio economic diversification, frequency of interaction with development professionals and to obtain suggestions from households on the way forward on development initiatives implemented in the field by the government and development partners, NGOs and CBOs. Observation schedule was used to collect data on the performance of socio economic activities for various categories of respondents and Focus Group Discussion was used to elicit more information from groups of households converged by the researcher. Data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics namely percentages and frequencies and inferential statistics regression with the help of the SPSS version 20.0. Regression analysis was used to determine the influence of human and social capitals on household participation in development initiatives.

In this study, human capital is captured in terms of the education level, training, and occupation and years of work experience. The data analysis was done using the following regression function predictor equation

$CP = ß_0 + ß_1Ag + ß_2Ms + ß_3Ed + ß_4Sa + ß_5Occ + ß_6Exp + Ɛ$ (1a)

CP is not observable but what is observable is defined by

$$CP \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } HP > 0 \\ 0 \text{ if } HP \leq 0 \end{cases} \quad (1b)$$

Where

Ag = 1 if the household member 26 years, 0 if otherwise.

Ms = 1 if married, 0 if otherwise.

Educational level

Ed = A vector of dummy variables indicating household member's level of education

These are:

Primary = If household member has primary level of education

Secondary = If household member has secondary level of education

Tertiary = If household member has tertiary level of education

(Base category: no schooling)

Training

Trn = A vector of dummy variables indicating household member's type of training

These are:

Vocational = If household member attended vocational training

On-job training = If household member attended on-job training

(Base category: no training)

Occ = 1 if the household member is engaged in socio-economic activities, 0 if otherwise.

Exp = 1 if the household member is has 2 years of experience, 0 if otherwise.

$ß_s$ are the coefficients to be estimated from equation (1b), while Ɛ is the error term with the assumption CP (Ɛ) = 0.

Equation (1b) can be estimated using a Probit model because the dependent variable is binary.

The characteristics of the household such as education, age and gender of the individual may have either positive or negative relationships with PC. Households with basic or higher levels of education may influence positively the degree with which they participate in development because it enhances ones chances of participating in training such as workshops and seminars and other development initiatives. Individual marital status may also influence the participation training and access to funds for economic activities due to lack of collaterals.

Social capital is captured in terms of the membership to groups, interaction with other groups and linkages with development agencies. The data analysis was done using the following regression function:

$CP = ß_0 + ß_1Mg + ß_2Ig + ß_3Lda + Ɛ$ (1a)

CP is not observable but what is observable is defined by

$$\begin{cases} CP = 1 \text{ if } SP > 0 \quad (1b) \end{cases}$$

0 if SP ≤ 0

Where

Mg = 1 if the household member to a group, 0 if otherwise.

Ig = 1 if interacts with other groups, 0 if otherwise.

Lda = 1 if interacts with development agencies, 0 if otherwise.

$ß_s$ are the coefficients to be estimated from equation (1b), while Ɛ is the error term with the assumption CP (Ɛ) = 0

Results and Discussion

The bio data of the respondents are shown in Table 1.

Table 1:Bio data of the respondents

Variables	**Frequency (n)**	**Percentage (%)**
Age:		
<25 Years	3	0
26 - 30 Years	20	7
31 - 50 Years	151	53
>50 Years	111	40
Gender:		
Male	124	44
Female	161	56
Marital status:		
Married	135	47.2
Single	70	24.6
Widow/widower	80	28.2
Membership to Group	160	55.9
Interaction with other groups	146	51.1
Linkages with Devt agencies	170	58.5
Household size		
1 – 5 Persons	122	42.8
6 - 10 Persons	118	41.4
11 – 15 Persons	24	8.4
16 Persons and above	21	7.4
Level of education:		
None	89	31.2
Primary school	96	33.7
Secondary School	70	24.6
College	22	7.7
University	8	2.8
Training		
Vocational training	90	24.6

Informal training	129	45.0
None	67	23.4
Socio-economic activities		
Farming	183	64.2
Fishing	02	0.7
Trading	54	18.9
Formal employment	23	8.1
Others	23	8.1

Field survey data, 2018

Majority (53%; n =151) of the respondents fell within the age group of 31 - 50 years, whereas an additional 40% (n = 111) were above 50 years of age and only 3 respondents were below 20 years (Table 3). More than half (56%, n = 161) of the respondents were females, while 46% (n = 133) were males. More than half (56%, n = 161) of the respondents were single, widows and widowers. In terms of household sizes, slightly more (42.8%, n = 122) of the respondents had small households of 1 - 5 persons while 41.4% (n = 118) had household size of 6 – 10 persons. Very few respondents (7.4%, n = 214) had household sizes of 11 - 15persons. The educational attainments of respondents were relatively low. Only 7.7% (n = 22) and 2.8% (n = 8) had college and university education. More than 70% (24.6% & 45%) had undergone training. Interaction with other groups was over 50% of the households while 51% had linkages with development agencies. About 64% (n = 183) of the respondents engaged in farming as their main source of livelihood. Very few respondents engaged in fishing (0.7%, n=2). Given the fact that the region is endowed with marine and specifically fishery resources this finding is of great concern. Versleijen and Hoorweg (2008) confirm that challenges such as reduced catches, more competition from fellow artisanal fishermen as well as foreign fishermen, tourism and human settlement have made many fishermen to resort to other income-generating

Households Participation in Development Initiatives in relation to Human and social capitals

Table 2 and 3 presents human and social capitals attributed to community participation in development initiatives in three counties of the coastal region of Kenya. The table shows the results of the Probit estimations.

Community Participation by Human Capitals

Using a Probit regression, the study assessed the influence of bio data comprising age, marital status, level of education, training, type of economic activity and experience attained by the household member on community participation in development initiatives (Table 2). In this model the reference category was “those who did not participate”. Table 2 and 3 show the output from the Probit model and the z-statistics.

Table 2: Human Capital influencing Household Participated in Development Initiatives

Variables	Probit dF/dx.	z-stat
If aged above 26 years	-0.16*	-1.67
Education level:		

Primary school	-0.16**	4.57
Secondary School	-0.14*	1.60
Tertiary	0.13	-1.44
Training (base no training):		
If attended Vocational training	0.35***	-0.18
If attended on-job training	0.23***	0.29
If engaged in Socio-economic activities:	0.53***	4.95
F-stat (wald chi^2)	97.40***	
R^2 (Pseudo-R^2	0.529	
Number of observation	286	

The coefficients on dummy variables indicate changes in probability for each outcome category when the value of the dummy variables changes from zero to one. The second column reports the z-statistics based on robust standard error.

*, **, and *** denotes significant at 10%, 5% and 1% significant levels respectively.

According to the results, tertiary level of education does not predict the likelihood of household head's participation in development initiatives. Household heads who are younger (25 years or below) are more likely to participate in development initiatives. The probability of participating is 16 percent each. Although these results are weakly significant at 10 percent level, the results for age are consistent with those in table 1. The household head's with primary education, have attended vocational and on-job training, and are engaged in socio economic activities have the probability of 35 percent, 23 percent and 53 percent respectively have a higher likelihood of participating in development initiatives. In overall, the results show that household heads who have attained primary education and have undergone vocational or on-job training and are engaged in economic activities predict with higher probabilities the chance of participating in development initiatives. This therefore means that basic education is a determinant of community participation in development projects.

Table 3: Social Capital influencing Household Participated in Development Initiatives

Variables	Probit dF/dx.	z-stat
If member of a group	0.51**	2.21
Interaction with other groups	0.23*	0.29
Linkages with Devt agencies	0.44**	1.95
F-stat (wald chi^2)	92.40**	
R^2 (Pseudo-R^2	0.519	
Number of observation	286	

The coefficients on dummy variables indicate changes in probability for each outcome category when the value of the dummy variables changes from zero to one. The second column reports the z-statistics based on robust standard error.

*, **, and *** denotes significant at 10%, 5% and 1% significant levels respectively.

The Probit results show that households who are members to groups and have linkages with government and development agencies that include private, NGOs and CBOs have higher likelihood of 51 percent and 44 percent of participating in development initiatives. The interaction with other groups has a lesser

likelihood of the individual participating in development projects and programmes. Groups as a social capital provides ground for developing sense of belong and empowerment of individuals. This is achieved when the groups hold meetings and it is at these meetings that learning skills takes place either through interaction or from invited professionals.

Discussions

Although on-job training which include workshops and seminars are used by many organizations a avenues for gaining knowledge, skills and competency in performing various activities, the results show that training has a less probability than the workshops and seminars. This could be attributed to the methods used in the dissemination of knowledge and information. The beneficiaries who participate in projects are adults whose level of education is majorly basic education. The category of participants requires more interactive and dialectic process of knowledge acquisition. The interaction allows for sharing of knowledge, information, creation of awareness of new ideas and manipulation. The three aspects have a long lasting impact on the knowledge and skills the development initiatives intend to involve the community. Kwon (2009) argues that human capital is based on the knowledge and skills that are received during the learning process. The knowledge, skills and competency are among the important human capitals acquired during the learning that takes place during the training and workshops. Human capitals are inherent in an individual and active participation in any development process or activities gives the individual the chance opportunity to acquire them.

Human capitals are inherent in an individual and active participation in any development process or activities gives the individual the chance opportunity to acquire them. The knowledge, skills and competency are among the important human capitals acquired during the learning that takes place during the training. The type of activity undertaken by an individual or household during the training influences to a great extent the development of human capital and as such it may imply that the income level was a factor determining individual participation.

Kwon (2009) argues that human capital is based on the knowledge and skills that are received during the learning process. Tanner et al. (2002) states that vocational training are an effective means of producing changes in practice especially in relation to acquisition of individual human skills. The lack of predictability of the likelihood of development of human capital by the participation of stakeholders in evaluation of projects is could be due of professions or extension workers lack of facilitation skills. According to Nweke et al. (2013), lack of the likelihood of community participating in evaluation of projects is alluded more to the professionals development workers playing a leading role even if the aim is to build the capacity of communities or empowering them. High education level can also be a hindering factor in community participation as explained by Dorsner (2004) in which she indicates that educated members of the communities at times are not available for their community even if they have interest as they tend to have other business commitments.

The study findings contradict with those of Aworty (2012) who asserts that education as a human capital is in itself is not entirely a determining variable in community participation. He asserts that many uneducated households scored even better than those with secondary school education in variables such as: membership of community organization, attendance at meetings and participation in planning while those with good education level speak more in meetings than those without education do.

According to Seferiadis et al. (2015), Membership to groups strengthens the social fabric. It's a network that enables individuals to access resources and information and achievement of common goals. Social capitals provide an avenue for collective action. through different mechanisms, development projects are

able to strengthen social capital for positive development outcomes which includes human competency and acquisition of skills and access to information. One way this is achieved is through group meetings often organized when development initiatives are set up. At these meetings, learning of skills takes place. Brodie et al. (2009) found out that the socio economic group a person belongs to has an impact on his/her level of participation as people from lower socio economic groups often have less access to resources and practical support making their participation in community development initiatives rather difficult.

Conclusion

The study has shown that individual participation in development initiatives requires a set of human and social capital. Social and human capitals are intertwined. Human capital is associated with active and interactive engagement of the individual in development activities such as workshops, training and other practical activities. The interactive process inherent in group activities increases individual members' ability to acquire knowledge and skills which are essential for decision making on the use of new ideas introduced to them for longer period and improved welfare. Although education as a human capital is necessary especially in acquisition of technical knowledge, one does not require tertiary education to participate in development initiatives implemented in the community.

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Philosophical Foundations And Ethics: A Deconstruction And Reconstruction Of Kenyan Education System

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Abstract

One of the objectives of education is to promote ethical behaviour among learners. This is emphasized by various commissions and reports on education. Despite the enormous investment in education over the years and the high academic qualification, the level of impunity, corruption and intolerance among graduates and other leavers has become a major concern among educationists and stakeholders. Efforts through reforms and commissions have not yielded much in developing ethics among learners. This raises concern on the influence of contemporary philosophical foundations on ethics. The current study aimed at determining the influence of deconstruction and reconstruction of Kenyan philosophical foundations on ethics among learners in all levels of education. The study was carried out in Kenyan universities and communities. Descriptive survey and correlation research design were adopted for the study. A sample size of 384 respondents comprising of 324 students and 60 academic staff participated in the study. Data collection was done using questionnaires and interviews. Instrument validity was enhanced through expert judgement by supervisors. Reliability of instruments was estimated by use of Cronbach Alpha. Descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data. Research hypothesis was tested using regression and correlation analysis at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$. The study found out that the contemporary philosophical foundations and reconstructed philosophical foundations contribute significantly towards ethics. The null hypothesis that there exists no significant influence on deconstruction and reconstruction of philosophical foundations on ethics is not supported in the current study. The study recommends the need to deconstruct and reconstruct the contemporary philosophical foundations in order to influence ethics among learners in all the levels of education.

Key words: *Deconstruction, reconstruction, contemporary, philosophical foundations, ethics*

Introduction

According to Singer (2001) ethics is the standard of good and bad distinguished by a certain community or social setting. Bewaji (2004) defines ethics as the character or attribute of an individual dealing with what is good and evil. In this study, ethics is defined as a set of guidelines that define acceptable behaviour and practices for a certain group of individuals or society. Ethics is important in the society because it is an essential part of the foundation on which a civilized society is built (White, 2016). Ethics safeguards the total way of life, which forms the culture of people. African traditional communities conceived ethics as an integrated whole (Kinoti, 2010). For instance, an honest person was described as one who could be relied upon because he or she was truthful, generous, courageous and had sense of justice.

In Kenya, the notion of ethics dates back to pre-independence period. Indigenous education emphasized on normative and expressive skills through instilling the accepted behavior and creation of unity respectively (Sifuna & Otiende, 2006). Indigenous education forms part of African heritage and therefore it is inseparable from African way of life. Indigenous knowledge is often perceived as primitive and

historical comprised of ancient practices of the African people. While that could have a meaning to those who propagate such views, to Angioni (2003); Dei (2002); Purcell (1998) and Turay (2002) the word indigenous refers to specific groups of people defined by ancestral territories, collective cultural configuration and historical locations. Owour (2007) observes that indigenous denotes that the knowledge is distinctive and belongs to people from specific places with common culture and societies.

From studies by researchers on African indigenous education, it is clear that indigenous education was grounded on specific aims of education which were realized through a well thought out philosophical foundations intended to guide social and moral behavior. But, like African philosophy itself, the ideas and beliefs of the African society that acknowledge ethics have not been given detailed investigation and clarification in the Kenyan education system and thus, stand in real need of insightful and extensive analysis, interpretation and implementation. Attempts have been made by contemporary African philosophers to give continuous reflective attention to African moral ideas however; this has not been fully achieved.

According to Owuor (2007) an examination of education reports, such as the Ominde Report of 1964, Gachathi commission of 1976, Kamunge commission of 1988 Constitution of Kenya 2010 and Basic education Act 2014 indicates that the government fully recognizes the importance of promoting ethics in the formal education system. While these reports seem to be inclined towards inclusion of indigenous discourses and perspectives in the education system, there have been obstacles at the implementation stage. There exists a glaring mismatch between the goals of education and the expected outcomes. The current study sought to determine the influence of deconstruction and reconstruction of philosophical foundations on ethics in the Kenyan education system.

Statement of the Problem

Education is critical in producing ethical people in the society. The African educational system inculcated ethics among members of society and produced ethical and morally upright individuals for generations. With the introduction of colonial education the responsibility of inculcating ethics to children was taken up by the new education system. Ethics has been a key focus for education policy in Kenya since independence. An examination of education reports including Ominde, Gachathi, Kamunge, constitution of Kenya 2010 and Basic education Act 2014 indicates that the government fully recognizes the importance of promoting ethics in the formal education system. Despite the enormous investment in education over the years and the high academic qualification among graduates, the level of impunity, corruption and intolerance manifested in theft of public resources, nepotism, ethnic hatred, religious intolerance, hate speech among others has become a major concern among educationists and stakeholders. Efforts through reforms and commissions have not yielded much in developing ethics among learners. The current study sought to determine the influence of deconstruction and reconstruction of Kenyan education system on ethics among

Literature Review

This chapter reviewed literature on the influence of deconstruction and reconstruction of philosophical foundations on ethics in the Kenyan education system. The chapter contains information about concept of contemporary and African indigenous philosophical foundations.

Contemporary Philosophical Foundations

The Kenya Education Commission Report (RoK, 1964) identified the eight national goals of education which formed the philosophical foundations of education. Ominde Report outlined six national goals of education which the educational system was expected to fulfill (ROK, 1964). These goals were later revised to become eight in number as follows: One to foster nationalism, patriotism and promote national unity; Two, education to promote the social, economic, technological and industrial needs for national development: Three, education to promote individual development and self-fulfillment; Four, education to promote sound moral and religious values; Five, education to promote social equality and responsibility; Six, education to promote respect for and development of Kenya's rich and varied cultures; Seven, education to promote international consciousness and foster positive attitudes towards other nations and Eight, education to promote positive attitudes towards good health and environmental protection.

African Indigenous Philosophical Foundations

African indigenous education as practiced by many communities simple or sophisticated rests on firm and sound philosophical foundations. This implies that this system of education used its own principles on which it was built. Sifuna, 2006, like Omona (1998) has outlined five pillars upon which African Indigenous Education rests. These are preparationalism, functionalism, perennialism and holisticism and communalism. The philosophy of communalism (Sifuna 2006, Mush, 2009 and Ocitti, 1973) attest that communalism or group cohesion, parents sought to bring up their children within a community in which each person saw his well-being in the welfare of the group. Sifuna, (2006), like Omona (1998) contends with Mush (2002), that preparationalism as a philosophical base for indigenous knowledge implied the role of teaching and learning to equip boys and girls with the skills appropriate to their gender in preparation for their distinctive roles in the society. Functionalism implied becoming useful to oneself as well as to one's family, community, clan or society to learn what was of relevance and utilitarian to both the individual and the society.

The principle of perennialism which is also considered same as conservatism explains most colonial societies were backward oriented much more than being future–oriented. African indigenous education did not allow the progressive influence of the mind of young people. Most traditional communities in Africa perceived education as a vehicle for maintaining or preserving the cultural heritage and status quo. This partly explains why traditional teachers discouraged pupils from experimenting with the unknown and imposed heavy sanctions on those who tried to do so. The principle of wholisticism as the name implies referred to multiple or integrated learning where a learner was required to acquire multiple skills. The holistic nature of customary education enabled young people to acquire a variety of skills that made them productive in many ways.

Methodology

The study was carried out in Kenya universities and communities. Descriptive survey and correlation research design were adopted for the study. The target population of the study was comprised of 537,211 subjects. A sample size of 384 respondents comprising of 324 students and 60 academic staff participated in the study. Data collection was done using questionnaires and interviews. A research permit was obtained from the National Commission of Science, Technology and Innovation after which a pilot study was conducted in order to improve on the reliability of the research instruments. Reliability of instruments was estimated by use of Cronbach alpha method. A reliability coefficient of 0.789 for the academic staff questionnaire and 0.792 for the students' questionnaire were realized. Validity of research instruments was ascertained by university supervisors and other experts. Descriptive statistics and inferential statistics

were used to analyze the data with the aid of Scientific Package for Social Sciences version 25.0. Research hypotheses were tested using regression and correlation analysis at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$.

Results and Discussions

The study sought to determine the influence of philosophical foundations on ethics in the Kenyan education system. Philosophical foundations are elements of philosophy that have a bearing in regard to the purposes and content of education. During analysis of data collected a Likert scale indicating Strongly Disagree (SD) $1 < SD < 1.8$; Disagree (D) $1.8 < D < 2.6$; Neutral (N) $2.6 < N < 3.4$; Agree (A) $3.4 < A < 4.2$; and Strongly Agree (SA) $4.2 < SA < 5.0$ was used. Descriptive statistics of the mean and standard error were used to analyze the results.

Contemporary Philosophical Foundations

The respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with several statements of contemporary philosophical foundations in influencing ethics in the Kenya education system. The results are shown in Table 1.

Descriptive Statistics on Contemporary Philosophical Foundations

Statement	N	Mean	Std. Error
Education system helps learners acquire a sense of national unity	383	3.99	0.055
Social responsibility is enhanced in the curriculum	384	3.80	0.053
Education promotes respect for culture	384	3.77	0.056
Individual development is achieved through education	384	3.89	0.055
The knowledge acquired in school helps in inculcating moral and religious values	384	3.83	0.053
Education helps learners to protect and conserve the environment	383	3.80	0.056
Education helps in character building	384	3.91	0.053
Education aims at preparing learners for various roles in the society	384	4.00	0.053
Education promote positive attitudes towards other nations	384	3.93	0.053
Overall Mean score		3.88	0.054

The results in Table 1 show that that the overall mean score of contemporary philosophical foundations was 3.88. Education aims at preparing learners for various roles in the society had the highest mean score of 4.00 and Std. error of 0.053. Education system helps learners acquire a sense of national unity was second highly rated with a mean of 3.99 and Std. error of 0.055. According to Ojiambo (2009) education underlines the importance of education in promoting national unity is a prerequisite component for national development. Through school curriculum, education enables a country to achieve its needs and aspirations. National Cohesion and Integration Commission (NCIC) has emphasized the importance of

education in the achievement of long term cohesion and integration among Kenyan communities. The Kenyan government promotes national cohesion and integration by ensuring political, social and economic stability. It is the responsibility of government to create a stable and predictable environment for citizens to pursue their life-long aspirations and endeavors. KICD (2013) emphasized the importance of education in the achievement of national cohesion among Kenyan communities.

NCIC in conjunction with KICD are involved in instilling among the young people the appreciation of diversity through education. Education promotes respect for culture was the lowest rated with a mean of 3.77 and Std. error of 0.056. Kinyanjui (2012) notes that all nations in the world possess a vast assortment of different people, customs, languages, traditions and lifestyles. This means that every nation is multi-ethnic and multi-lingual in its makeup and hence multiculturalism is destined to be one of the distinctive features of the world of the future. According to ROK (2012) every school whatever its intake and wherever it is located is responsible for educating individuals who will live and work in a country which is diverse in terms of culture, religion or beliefs, ethnicities and social backgrounds.

African Indigenous Philosophical Foundations

The respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with several statements of African indigenous philosophical foundations in influencing ethics in the Kenya education system. The pertinent results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics on African Indigenous Philosophical Foundations

	N	Mean	Std. Error
Emphasizing on an education system that promotes a spirit of communal cohesion	384	4.23	0.039
Preparing learners for various roles in the society	384	4.35	0.036
Emphasizing on holistic development of learners	384	4.25	0.043
Promoting moral and religious values in education	383	4.38	0.035
Emphasizing on an education that promotes continuity of desired societal values	384	4.30	0.038
Having an education that prepares learners for future responsibilities in society	384	4.51	0.033
Emphasizing on equal opportunities to all learners	384	4.35	0.042
Emphasizing on education that inculcates value of environment protection and conservation	384	4.30	0.037
Promoting positive attitudes of mutual respect	384	4.39	0.034
Providing learners with necessary skills and knowledge for national development	384	4.46	0.033
Overall Mean score	-	4.35	0.037

The results in Table 2 suggest that the respondents, on average indicated high agreement with integrating aspects of African indigenous philosophical foundations in the Kenyan education with an overall mean score of 4.35. Most notably, having an education that prepares learners for future responsibilities in society had the highest mean of 4.51 and a Std. error of 0.033. Emphasizing on an education system that promotes a spirit of communal cohesion had the lowest mean score of 4.23. According to Woolman (2001) the main purpose of education is to educate individuals within society, to prepare and qualify them for work in economy as well as to integrate people into society and teach people values and morals of society. Role of education is a means of socializing individuals and to keep society smoothing and remain stable. Education in society prepares youngsters for adulthood so that they may form the next generation of leaders. One of the education essential tasks is to enable people to understand themselves. Students must

be equipped with knowledge and skills which are needed to participate effectively as member of society and contribute towards the development of shared values and common identity.

Correlation Analysis Philosophical Foundations and Ethics

Pearson's Product Moment Correlation (r) was used for data analysis. Correlation is a value between -1 and +1. In the interpretation of results for the linear relationships in the study, for a weak correlation, "r" ranged from + 0.10 to + 0.29; in a fairly weak correlation, "r" ranged between + 0.30 and + 0.39; in a fairly strong correlation, "r" ranged from + 0.6 and + 0.79 while in a fairly strong correlation, "r" ranged from + 0.8 and + 0.99. The interpretation for the strength of the correlation by use of 'r' values was as indicated by Shirley et al. (2005). The values of "r" and "R2" were considered while interpreting results and a confidence level of at least 95% in the tests of hypotheses was required.

This objective of the study sought to determine the influence of deconstruction and reconstruction of philosophical foundations on ethics among learners in the Kenyan education system. In order to assess the relationships among the independent variable and the dependent variable, a correlation analysis was conducted. Results of the analysis are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Correlation Analysis Philosophical Foundations and Ethics

		Ethics	Contemporary philosophical foundations	D & R philosophical foundations
Ethics	Pearson Correlation	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			
	N	384		
Contemporary philosophical foundations	Pearson Correlation	.552**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.000**		
	N	384	384	
D & R philosophical foundations	Pearson Correlation	.445**	.853**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.000**	**0.000**	
	N	384	384	384

The results of the Pearson's product moment correlation analysis as presented in Table 42 show varied degrees of interrelationships. The contemporary philosophical foundations are statistically significantly correlated with ethics (r=0.552; Sig. 2tailed (P-value) =0.000<0.01). Similarly the D & R philosophical foundations are statistically significantly correlated with ethics (r=0.445; Sig. 2tailed (P-value) =0.000<0.01). Ndofirepi and Ndofirepi (2012) state that any education system is developed under philosophical foundations that guide its processes. Education is influenced by philosophical, social, economic, political and cultural norms of the society. Philosophical foundations must be capable of stabilizing social order, conserving culture in the society and acting as an instrument of social reconstruction. Okoro (2010). Education being a multipurpose process not only inculcates social, economic and cultural awareness in humanity but is also an important medium for grasping and promoting life enhancing values among human beings which form ethics. To enhance the whole education system there is need to address more fundamental issues of the social and moral consequences of the

unregulated activities in education. Well stated philosophical foundations help in promoting ethics among lerarners.

Regression Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

The objective of the study was to determine the influence of deconstruction and reconstruction of philosophical foundations on ethics among learners in the Kenyan education system. Respondents were asked to rate the extent in which they agreed with several parameters of philosophical foundations in the Kenyan education system. The following hypothesis was tested.

H_{03}: *There is no statistically significant influence on deconstruction and reconstruction of philosophical foundations on ethics among learners in the Kenyan education system.*

The results are presented in Table 4

The results in show that the contemporary philosophical foundations had influence on ethics. The coefficient of determination is 0.304. This suggests that 30.4% of variation in ethics is explained by contemporary philosophical foundations. Similarly the study found out that 19.8% of variation in ethics is explained by the D & R philosophical foundations. On the basis of these results, the study revealed that the contemporary philosophical foundations has marginal significance towards ethics.

F-statistic was used to assess the overall significance of the simple regression model. Results in Table 4 indicate that contemporary philosophical foundations significantly influence ethics with F-statistic of 167.207 and a p-value=0.000<0.05. This implies that the regression model is statistically significant at 5% level of significance. Similarly D & R philosophical foundations significantly influences ethics with F-statistic of 94.222 and a p-value=0.000<0.05.

T- test was used to determine the individual significance of the influence. The results in Table 43 show that the contemporary philosophical foundations was considered to be statistically significant with regression coefficient of 0.648 with a t-value=12.931 and p-value=0.000<0.05. This implies that for one unit change in the contemporary philosophical foundations, correspond to an increase in ethics by a factor of 0.648. Further the study revealed that the D & R philosophical foundations were considered to be statistically significant with regression coefficient of 0.855 with a t-value=9.707and p-value=0.000<0.05. This implies that for one unit change in D & R philosophical foundations, ethics increases by a factor of 0.855. Beta coefficients indicate that contemporary philosophical foundations had a stronger influence of 0.552 and D & R philosophical foundations with a Beta coefficient of 0.445.

Table 4

Regression Analysis of Philosophical Foundations and Ethics

The goodness of Fit

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Contemporary philosophical foundations	.552[a]	0.304	0.303	0.77955
D & R philosophical foundations	.445[a]	0.198	0.196	0.83716

The Overall Significance of the Model

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Contemporary philosophical foundations	Regression	101.612	1	101.612	167.207	.000[b]
	Residual	232.143	382	0.608		
	Total	333.756	383			
D & R philosophical foundations	Regression	66.035	1	66.035	94.222	.000[b]
	Residual	267.721	382	0.701		
	Total	333.756	383			

The individual Significance of the Model

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Std Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
Contemporary philosophical foundations	(Constant)	0.853	0.198		4.298	0.000
	Contemporary philosophical foundations	0.648	0.050	0.552	12.931	0.000
D & R philosophical foundations	(Constant)	-0.163	0.366		-0.445	0.656
	D & R philosophical foundations	0.855	0.088	0.445	9.707	0.000

Conclusively, the study revealed that the contemporary philosophical foundations and D & R philosophical foundations contribute significantly towards ethics. The null hypothesis that there exist no significant influence of philosophical foundations on ethics is not supported in the current study. The regression model for the prediction of ethics can be stated as follows:

$Y=0.853+0.648X_{31}$

$Y=3.084$

$Y=0.855X_{3}$

Where;

Y=Ethics

X_{31}=Contemporary philosophical foundations

X_{3}=D & R philosophical foundations

0.853 is an estimate of the expected value of Y where $X_{31}$is zero.

3.084 is an estimate of the expected value Y where $X_{3}=0$

0.648 is an estimate of the expected increase in Y for a unit increase in X_{31} where X_{31} is the contemporary philosophical foundations.

In that regard, 0.648 is the estimate of the expected increase in ethics of the contemporary philosophical foundations in response to a unit increase in parameters of philosophical foundations. The regression

coefficient of -0.163 which is a constant, indicates the value of ethics when philosophical foundations is at zero while a unit increase in philosophical foundations would lead to an increase of 0.648 in contemporary philosophical. On the basis of these findings, the study concluded that philosophical foundations had statistically significantly influence to ethics.

The results in Table 43 show that philosophical foundations had a statistically significant influence on ethics. It explained 19.8% of its variation (R^2=0.198). T- test statistic was used to determine individual significance of the relationship. The regression coefficient value of the computed (composite index) scores of D & R philosophical foundations was 0.855 with a t-test of 9.707 and significance level of P-value=.000<0.05. This implies that for a unit increase in philosophical foundations, results in an increase in ethics by a factor of 0.855. Therefore, D & R of philosophical foundations influences ethics in the Kenyan education system.

The F-test was used to assess overall significance of the simple regression model. It was found that the regression equation was statistically significant at 5% significance level (F=94.222, P-value=0.000). The hypothesis that there is no statistical significant influence of philosophical foundations on ethics is not supported by the current study. The regression equation to estimate ethics in Kenyan education system was stated as:

$Y=-0.163+0.855X_3$

Where

Y= Ethics

X_3=D & R philosophical foundations

-0.163=constant

0.855= an estimate of the expected increase in Y for a unit increase in X_3 where X_3 is the D & R philosophical foundations.

Angioni (2003) notes that the philosophical foundations employed in the traditional African education are still relevant today. No serious educator in Africa can afford to ignore the principles draw from indigenous education. The assumption is that there is a certain degree, in which traditional education is still being promoted all over Africa in spite of the modifications which have come up as a result of adopting the western style of schooling. African traditional education is focused on the attainment of quality education, with centres of excellence that are recognized and profoundly appreciated by the stakeholders of the educational systems. Adeyemi and Adeyinka (2002 indicate that African indigenous education had its foundation in the five principles of preparationism, functionalism, communalism, perennialism and wholisticism.

Conclusion

The study concluded that deconstruction and reconstruction of Kenyan philosophical foundations had a significant influence on ethics among learners. Having an education that prepares learners for future responsibilities in society had the highest influence compared to emphasizing on an education system that promotes a spirit of communal cohesion which had the lowest mean score in relation to all the other dimensions of the African indigenous philosophical foundations.

Recommendations

This study endeavored to determine the influence on deconstruction and reconstruction of Kenyan education system in the bid to influence ethics among learners. Following a reflection on the same, the researcher recommended that there is need to integrate African philosophical foundations into the contemporary Kenyan educations in order to influence ethics among learners in all the levels of education.

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Teachers' Professional Development Issues and their Impact on Teachers' Service Delivery. A Case Study of Msimba Secondary School in Mombasa County, Kenya

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Abstract

The controversy between Teachers Service Commission (TSC) and Teachers Unions on teachers' professional assessment and development (TPAD) and its impact on teachers' service delivery has been an issue since the parties signed CBA in 2016 that needs to be investigated. The purpose of the study was therefore to document the issues the TSC and Unions have on TPAD and how they impact on teachers' performance in service delivery. The study was carried out at 'Msimba' Secondary School in Mombasa County, Kenya. The study employed ethnographic research design. The target population was 324000 teachers employed by the TSC in schools in Kenya. Respondents were 43 teachers at Msimba Girls Secondary schools in Mombasa County, Kenya. Data was collected using observation, probing and document analysis. The descriptive statistics used were frequency and percentage to compare the issues on teachers' professional development, between teachers' union, TSC and their effect on teachers' service delivery. The data collected in this study was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer programme version 20.0. The research findings established that it was not clear who was in charge of quality standard in schools between TSC and MoES&T; TPAD was not used to promote teachers; certificate teachers earned after attending management courses were not recognised by the TSC; and that junior teachers were used by head teachers to manage and rate senior teachers on TPAD in the school. There is a silent war between TSC officers and MoES&T officers in trying to win control over teachers' management, quality and standards and students' management. Teachers are demoralised, frustrated and prepared professional documents that they never used in classroom. It was therefore recommended that TSC, teachers unions and MoES&T should solve the identified issues on TPAD for better teacher's service delivery in schools

Key Words: *issues, professional development, service delivery, content* knowledge, teaching skills, in-service training,

Introduction

Professional development is formal in-service training to upgrade the content knowledge and pedagogical skills of teachers. It is widely viewed as an important means of improving teaching and learning standards (Meichen, Prashant, Yaojiang, Fang, Chengfang & Scott, 2017). The professional development that is required goes far beyond the one-shot workshop approach that has been widely criticized. Professional development includes intensive in-service, follow-up group sessions, and coaching of individual teachers (Quint, 2011). Kubitskey, Fishman, and Ron (2004) points out that there are four components of quality professional development which are supported through plan, structure, community, and activities. According to Ogbonnaya (2007) teachers' professional development refers to the opportunities offered to practicing teachers to develop new knowledge, skills, approaches and dispositions to improve their effectiveness in their classrooms. It is advancement that enhances teachers' knowledge of the students, the subject matter, teaching practices, and education-related legislation (Professional Affairs Department, 2005). It also includes use of ICT and counselling interventions in teaching and learning activities (SMASE,

2017; Thuo, 2008). Kwang, Teresa, Sylvia, and Kathy (2008) argues that professional development improve teaching and raises students' achievement. If one link is weak or missing, better student learning cannot be expected. If a teacher fails to apply new ideas from professional development to classroom instruction, students will not benefit from the teacher's professional development. The effect of professional development on students learning is possible through two mediating outcomes; teachers' learning, and instruction in the classroom (SMASE, 2017).

Wanzala (2016) reports that, in recognition of the fundamental shift in policy in public employment and with a view to promote, enhance and maintain high performance standards in the teaching service, TSC and unions agreed to ensure continuous professional development and annual performance evaluation system in the CBA. The parties also agreed upon the annual performance evaluation which was to be undertaken by TSC using tools that was to be developed with the participation of the unions (Wanzala, 2016). However, TSC has reneged on its earlier promise and issued fresh guidelines that emphasise performance over academic qualifications in regard to promotion. Under the new arrangements, no teacher will be promoted based on the academic qualifications or any professional development certificates. The TSC argues that job evaluation they carried out in conjunction with the Salaries and Remuneration Commission agreed that promotion be based solely on work done rather than mere academic papers (Mbaka 2018).

Research studies show contradiction effect of teachers' professional development on students' academic outcome. According to UNESCO (2006), researches from developed countries show that quality of teaching is an important factor that may affect educational outcomes among both advantaged and disadvantaged students. Literature reviewed by Linda (2000) also show that differential teacher effectiveness is a strong determinant of differences in student learning, far outweigh the effects of differences in class size and heterogeneity in Dallas, USA. However, a study carried out by Bonney *et al* (2015) revealed that even though the quality of teachers was high in terms of their academic and professional qualifications, it did not reflect much in the performance of the students. Thuo (2018) in a study carried out in Coast girls shows that although there was a relationship between teachers' professional development and students' academic performance, the students' academic performance could not have been attributed to teachers' professional development. There is therefore need to investigate why students' academic performance remained low despite the high standard of teachers' professional development in some schools.

Statement of the Problem

Professional development is an important aspect in supporting green growth and knowledge economy through research, innovation and technology for sustainable development. Professional development that is not supported by the employer encounters challenges that may eventually affect the objective of the programme initiated and knowledge gained by the teacher during professional development. The researcher during literature review did not come across a research carried out to determine the impact of teachers' professional development on their service delivery since the TSC initiated TPAD and at the same time reneged on recognising certificate achieved by teachers after attending professional development programmes. The present study therefore investigated the impact of teachers' professional development on their service delivery in Msimba Secondary School in Mombasa County, Kenya.

Objective of the Study

The study investigated the impact of teachers' professional development on their service delivery at Msimba Secondary School in Mombasa County, Kenya.

Research Questions

The study was based on the following questions; -

What is the level of professional development of teachers at Msimba Secondary school in Mombasa County, Kenya?

What is the status of teachers' professional development at Msimba Secondary school in Mombasa County, Kenya?

What is the level of teaching experience for teachers at Msimba Secondary school in Mombasa County, Kenya?

At what job group are teachers in at Msimba Secondary school in Mombasa County, Kenya?

What is feeling of teachers on professional development advocated for by the employer at Msimba Secondary school in Mombasa County, Kenya?

What is the level of qualification, job group and experience for teachers' appraiser at Msimba Secondary school in Mombasa County, Kenya?

Which body is mandated to evaluate learning standards in schools and appraise teachers in Kenya?

Do teachers prepare professional documents before going to class at Msimba Secondary school in Mombasa County, Kenya?

Do teachers use prepared professional documents when teaching at Msimba Secondary school in Mombasa County, Kenya?

Do teachers attend classes on time as required by TSC at Msimba Secondary school in Mombasa County, Kenya?

Methodology

The study employed *ethnographic* research design. The design allows the researcher to carry out extensive data collection on many variables over a long period of extended time in a natural setting (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). The design fit in the study in that the researcher has been in the institution for a period of nine years under two different managements. The name of the school studied was changed to protect the participants and the school from victimisation. The researcher has been recording what has been happening in the institution and understands teachers' feeling as well as how they do their work. The researcher during his interaction with other members and during staff meetings obtained data on teachers' professional development as well as information on service delivery. The researcher obtained informed consents from the school administration and teachers to publish the findings of the study. Data obtained was analysed using descriptive statistics that included frequencies and percentages. Data is presented inform of tables.

Results and Discussion

The first question was designed to establish level of professional development of teachers at Msimba Secondary school in Mombasa County, Kenya and the finding is summarised in Table 1.

Table 1:

Teacher level of education

Level of education	Diploma	Degree	Masters	PhD
Number of teachers N=42	5 (11.9%)	32 (76.2%)	4 (9.5%)	1 (2.4%)

Table 1 shows that the number of teachers with first degree was the highest (76.2%) followed by teachers with diploma (11.9%). The high number of teachers with degrees and above compared to teachers with diploma was an indication that teachers in this institution were highly qualified. The TSC has been advocating for training of teachers with high qualification and has insisted that teachers who train with lower grades would not be employed by the TSC. However, since 2014, TSC has refused to recognise certificates obtained by teachers after attending institution of higher learning even when such teachers had grade C+ and above and with C+ in their teaching subjects (Wanzala, 2016). The research also established that teachers had other professional qualification attained during teachers' professional development which were different from levels of education. The findings are summarised in Table 2

Table 2:Teachers' professional development

Professional Development	KEMI	SMASE	ICT	Counselling	Others	None
Number of teachers N=42	4 (9.5%)	14 (33.3%)	5 (11.9%)	4 (9.5%)	2 (4.8%)	13 (31%)

Table 2 shows that 29 out of 42 teachers had attended professional development courses with the highest number being in strengthening of mathematics and sciences in secondary school education (33.3%). The SMASE course is for teachers who teach mathematics and sciences in secondary schools and last for one week. However, TSC insist of professional development that last for two weeks and this made the certificate obtained during SMASE training irrelevant.

The second question aimed at establishing the level of teaching experience for teachers in the institution. The data generated was summarised in Table 3

Table 3: Teachers Teaching experience

Teaching experience	Below 4yrs	Between 4 and 8yrs	Above 8yrs and below 12yrs	12yrs and above
Number of teachers N=42	5 (11%)	4 (9.5%)	4 (9.5%)	29 (70%)

Information in Table 3 shows that majority of teachers in the institution had taught for more than 12 years (70%). This indicate that most of the teachers in the institution had seen at least 11 group of Form 4 candidates leave school and therefore fall under highly experienced teachers. Kenya National Examination Council recognises teachers who have taught for five years as having experience in teaching. The relationship between teachers' teaching experience and their service delivery in other fields has generated contradicting findings. Teachers' experience has been associated with their high self-efficacy in teaching (Nabeel, 2001) but at the same time an experienced teacher can have low self-efficacy if not well rewarded in certain areas (Hoy, 2000). Thus, teacher's professional development alone is insufficient in promoting their service delivery.

The third question was designed to establish the number of teachers in each job group at Msimba Secondary school in Mombasa County, Kenya and the data generated was summarised in Table 4

Table 4 : Number of teachers per job group

Job group	BOM	J	K	L	M	N
Number of teachers N=42	4 (9.5%)	1 (2.4%)	5 (11.9%)	18 (42.3%)	11 (26.2%)	3 (7.6.%)

It can be observed from Table 4 that majority of teachers were in job group L (42.3%). These teachers as shown in Table 3 have teaching experience of above 12 years an indication that most teachers had stagnated at job group L for a long period of time. It takes three years for a graduate teacher and six years for diploma teacher to reach job group L where they seem to stagnate. Lack of promotion is a demotivating factor especially when teachers reach the maximum pay rise and no longer get yearly increment (Buchana & Andrzefa, 2010).

The forth question was meant to gather information on teachers' feeling on professional development advocated for by the employer at Msimba Secondary school in Mombasa County, Kenya. Teachers were asked whether TSC recognises the certificates they are awarded after attending teachers' development programmes or not. The question was posted to teachers who are employed by the TSC. Teachers response was summarised in Table 5

Table 5: Do you think TSC recognises TPD certificate you have obtained?

Response	YES	NO
Number of teachers N=37	7 (18.9%)	30 (81.1%)

Table 5 shows that majority of teachers (81.1%) felt that TSC does not recognise their certificates awarded after attending professional development courses. According Wanzala (2016) the Kenya National Union of Teachers (Knut) and Kenya Union of Post Primary Education Teachers (Kuppet) have been demanding that serving teachers, upon attainment of higher qualifications and professional development courses, should be promoted automatically. However, TSC has been contradicting itself by refusing to recognise certificates obtained by teachers after attaining either higher qualification or after attending professional development courses. The TSC also insists that teachers must attend professional development courses

to stand a chance of being promoted to higher grades and even gives teachers paid study leave for higher education (TSC, 2012; Mbaka, 2018; Mirror, 2016).

The fifth question was concerned with the qualification of head of department who are the appraisers of teachers at Msimba Secondary school and other schools in general. The data obtained was summarised in Table 6.

Table 6: Appraisers Qualifications

Appraiser	Job group	Teaching experience	Academic level	Other qualifications
Principal	N	26	Bachelor	Education admin
D/principal	M	24	Bachelor	None
HoD English	L	20	Bachelor	None
HoD Kiswahili	M	32	Bachelor	None
HoD Mathematics	L	22	Bachelor	None
HoD Religion	M	22	Bachelor	None
HoD Humanities	L	26	Bachelor	None
HoD Biology	M	26	Bachelor	Examiner/SMASE
HoD Chemistry	M	24	Bachelor	Examiner /SMASE
HoD Physics	M	28	Dip	Counselling/SMASE
HoD Applied sc.	M	24	Bachelor	None
HoD Counselling	M	24	Dip	Examiner/SMASE
HoD Boarding	L	24	Bachelor	None
HoD Games	L	04	Bachelor	None

Table 6 shows that five of the head of department were in job L and seven in job group M. There were two teachers in job group N and three teachers in job group M who were not assigned any administrative duties. These teachers were among the most highly qualified in terms of teaching experience, academic level (except one who had Dip) and had other certificates advocated for by their employer ie certificate in education administration, counselling and other certificates. There were three teachers who had attended administrative courses yet they were not in the management in the institution. This is an indication that some teachers' appraisers were below those they appraised and that in some department, a none professional counsellor was in charge of the department when there were trained counsellors in the school. This indicates unclear policy from the TSC how head teachers should allocate administrative duties in school or lack of follow up where such policies exist. This study supports the unions demand that TSC should come up with clear policies on teacher promotions and redeployment to administrative duties (Wanzala, 2016). This situation is replicated by the TSC where Deputy principals are appointed from lower job than those of HoDs that she/he was supposed to supervise and appraise.

Question six was based on teachers feeling on whether the TSC was the rightful body to evaluate and appraise them on teaching standards and job evaluation. The information generated was summarised in Table 7

Table 7 : Teachers' evaluation and standard

Teachers' feelings	TSC harass teachers during inspection N=42	Teachers' evaluation is the work of TSC N=42	Teachers' evaluation is the work of QASO N=42	I don't know who is supposed to evaluate teachers N=42
Number of teachers	36 (85.7%)	9 (21.4%)	30 (71.4%)	3 (7.1%)

Majority of teachers (85.7%) felt that their employer was harassing them, 21.4% of teachers felt that evaluation of teachers during teaching was the function of TSC while 71.4% felt that evaluation of teachers is the docket of quality assurance and standard officers who fall under the ministry of education. There has been disagreement between TSC, unions and Ministry on who is supposed to evaluate teachers in teaching (Mbaka, 2018; mirror, 2016). However, under the article 237(2) of the constitution of Kenya 2010, inspection and teacher appraisal is not the mandate of TSC (GoK, 2010). This mandate is placed under QAS in the MoES&T. These disagreements have resulted in teachers' deviant behaviour where some of them were reported to have burnt their appraisal form (Obebo, 2018).

Question seven was based on preparation of professional documents required by the employer before a teacher goes to class. Teachers were required to state whether they prepared the documents, show evidence and state whether they use them as they teach. The data generated was summarised in Table 8.

Table 8: Professional Documents

Professional documents	Scheme N=42	Lesson plan N=42	Lesson notes N=42	Mark book N=42
Number of teachers with the document	30 (71.4%)	15 (35.7%)	24 (57.1%)	42 (100%)
Number of teachers who use professional document to teach	9 (21.4%)	4 (9.5%)	5 (11.9%)	42 (100%)

Table 8 shows that 71.4% of teachers had scheme of work but only 21.4% of teachers used their scheme of work an indication that teachers prepared scheme of work as a formality. Table 8 also show that 35.7% of teachers prepared lesson plan but 9.5% of teachers used the lesson plan in class and others prepared them as a formality. The researcher perused the mark books and found out that most of them had marks for Continuous Assessment Tests (CAT) and examination marks but most of them did not have analysis or entry behaviour of their learners as recommended by the employer. According to Kwang *et al* (2008) argument, when a teacher fails to apply new ideas from professional development to classroom instruction, students do not benefit from the teacher's professional development. The effect of professional development on students learning is possible through two mediating outcomes; teachers' learning, and instruction in the classroom.

Question eight was based on class attendance, use of ICT, checked and marked students exercise book. The data generated was summarised in Table 9

Table 9: Class attendance

Class attendance	Arrive in class on time always N=42	Leave class early most of the time N=42	Use ICT in class regularly N=42	Check learners' exercise book N=42
Number of teachers	29 (69%)	9 (21.4%)	5 (11.9%)	19 (45.2%)

Table 9 shows that 69 of teachers regularly go to class on time, 21.4% of teachers do not teach the full lesson and leave early and 11.9% of teachers used ICT regularly in teaching. Teachers argues that staying in class for 40 minutes did not mean teaching was taking place throughout the lesson. The number of teachers who check students' note was 19 and that meant that majority of students notes went unchecked. When asked why they do not supervise teachers in their department on class attendance, some HoDs stated that some of the teachers in their department were actually their seniors and felt intimidated by them. The HoDs also felt that they do the donkey's work while their seniors earn higher salaries. The HoDs during management meeting had complained to the principal on the issue where senior teachers were not being allocated duties yet they received higher salaries compared to acting head of departments. The TSC circular to principals and County directors TSC had directed teachers in administrative job group be assigned administrative duties which has been ignored (TSC circular, 2016).

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study objective was to investigate the impact of teachers' professional development issues on teachers' service delivery at Msimba secondary school in Mombasa county. The study established that some teachers in this school were highly qualified, experienced and had attended various forms of teachers' professional development courses. The study established that some of the teacher who attended professional courses had not been given a department to head. The findings also established that the school had some highly experienced teachers who were managed by teachers who had lower experience and lower job group. The study findings also showed that teachers were preparing professional documents for paper work only and never used the prepared document in teaching and learning activities. Teachers felt that there was war between their unions, TSC and MoES&T that negatively impacted on teachers' service delivery.

The researcher recommends that TSC, Teachers' unions and MoES&T should sit together and iron out their differences for the better working conditions for teachers so as to improve on teachers' service delivery. The TSC should also enforce their appointments and deployment of teachers to make sure that teachers perform duties they are appointed to do and that leadership in school respect teachers' seniority as delegated to teachers by the TSC.

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A New Dimension in School Discipline in Secondary Schools in Kenya

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Abstract

Graffiti is writing or drawings made on a wall or other surface, usually without permission and within public view. Graffiti ranges from simple written words to elaborate wall paintings, and it has existed since ancient times, with examples dating back to ancient Egypt, ancient Greece, and the Roman Empire. In modern times, paint and marker pens have become the most commonly used graffiti materials. In most countries, marking or painting property without the property owner's permission is considered defacement and vandalism, which is a punishable crime. Many students in our public secondary schools have embraced the use of graffiti in books, buildings and even on their bodies which is also done by our various worldly sportspeople, heroes and heroines in various fields. The kind of graffiti the youth draw is a replica of who they are. This literary paper investigates the various types of graffiti drawn by our secondary school students, interpret their meanings and determine their effects on students' performance and discipline. This paper is guided by Behaviour Modification theory by B.F. Skinner on "how our voluntary actions are influenced by what happens to us immediately after we perform a given act". Controversies that surround graffiti continue to create disagreement amongst city officials, law enforcement, school administrators and writers who wish to display and appreciate work in public locations. This paper finds that many students enjoy the use of graffiti but they are not so specific about the meaning they are portraying. The paper concludes that there is need to develop guidelines especially on use of graffiti in our schools. Interventions are needed which include all stake holders to ensure change is effected and lastly sensitization programs need to be put in place to help the youth understand the effects of graffiti.

Keywords: *Academic performance, Dimension, Graffiti, School discipline &Secondary school*

Introduction

Graffiti is the term given to letters, images or artwork that is painted, sketched, marked or drawn in any manner on property (Mores G,1992). It is a form of social expression and an art movement that is on the rise on global scale. The use of graffiti dates back to centuries, where walls and trees and mountain rocks were used as a canvas for people to leave messages and express themselves over various issues of human existence, however majority of the world is against graffiti (Senator Campell,1996).

Graffiti started in the early 1960's but can be argued that the first ever pieces of artwork located in the caves, where our ancient ancestors resided, were graffiti. These cave drawings were how the people of that time would express themselves by telling a special story correlated to their lives, and the style the cave men used is pretty similar to the same principles used in graffiti today, (Watson T,1996). The media used obviously has progressed from berries and dirt, to the modern aerosol spray paint can, marker pen but it is still just art on a wall.

Rolling through the dusty roads of Nairobi capital city, you see wild, fanciful vehicles zipping by, their sides daubed with vibrant messages of graffiti, this is "Matatu" culture in Kenya, the practice of pimped-out, colour-exploding, happy-tatted local transit buses and matatus.

Statement of the Problem

School administrators have the responsibility of maintaining discipline and high academic performance as one of their most important areas of emphasis. Recently schools are faced with modern acts of indiscipline including fighting, bullying, insubordination and of recent graffiti drawings which summarily results in poor academic results.

Graffiti drawings can form just one tool in an array of resistance techniques. It's often a subculture that rebels against authority, although the considerations of the practitioners often diverge and can relate to a wide range of attitudes. Many students in our public secondary schools have embraced the use of graffiti in books, buildings and even their bodies.

Purpose of the Study

This research paper examined emergence of graffiti in our secondary schools and its effects on discipline and academic performance. Not considered here is graffiti which is legal and commissioned by property owners for example matatu and buses.

Research Objectives

The current study investigated possible co-variates of graffiti drawings in relation to behavioral characteristics that affect discipline and academic performance. This is because graffiti is used almost everywhere now and is really starting to adapt more to our schools' culture it's on high spread. To some its seen as a form of indiscipline and measures are being taken to discourage it but the more its discouraged the more it spreads.

Literature Review

Most studies in graffiti to date have used either content analysis to determine the reasons behind graffiti behavior, (Norlander, T .1996). There are no studies to date that use a school sample to examine the prevalence of 'tagging' in adolescents and its indiscipline and psychological covariates. However, studies on general antisocial behavior including vandalism provide some insight into the possible covariates of graffiti behavior (Marcus, R,F .1999).

Antisocial behaviors including vandalism have been associated with family and parental factors, drug and alcohol use, self-esteem, and locus of control.

A study of girls referred for out-of-home placement because of repeated and chronic juvenile indiscipline, (Chamberlain and Moore, 2002) noted several risk factors including family fragmentation, physical and sexual trauma, mental health problems, official arrest and self-report offending histories. In addition, apart from sexual trauma histories, these sample characteristics were similar to those found in a sample of chronically offending boys.

Another study (Vermeiren, Deboutte, Ruchkin and Schwab-Stone,2002) assessing 955 students in Belgium, 1,026 in Russia, and 1,391 in the United States, all aged between 14 and 17 years adolescents

were assigned antisocial group status according to the nature of their reported indiscipline behavior. A non-antisocial group, a moderate antisocial group (non aggressive behavior) and a severe antisocial group (mainly aggressive behavior) were identified. Results show that in both genders and in all three countries, depression, somatization, negative expectations for the future and sensation seeking gradually increased from the non-antisocial group to the moderate antisocial group, and finally to the severe antisocial group. Levels of anxiety were insignificant across most groups. The study concluded that although cross-national differences exist, the variables of interest showed markedly similar trends between antisocial groups across countries. Despite some work in these areas there is still much to understand about indiscipline behaviors in our schools this forms the basis of this study.

Research Design

This study adopts cross-sectional survey research design recommended in collecting data from a sub-set of cognitive constructs.

Sampling

Participants in the study were 3603 (n = 1942 males; n = 1654 females; n = 17 undefined) secondary form three students (aged 15-19 years) from 28 public and 28 private schools. Participating schools were from both rural and suburban areas and in low to middle and high socioeconomic status in fourteen counties.

Research Instruments

Items of interest reported here form part of a comprehensive questionnaire – the Youth Assessment Checklist [20]. Socio-demographic information collected included school, gender, age, county of birth, vernacular language.

(i) Graffiti behaviour was assessed by a single item drawn from the DSM-IV criteria for conduct discipline: "I have graffitied (tagged) things in school " with a yes/no response.

(ii) Indiscipline behaviour was assessed with an adaptation of the Self-Report Delinquency Scale [21]. Students responded 'yes' (score 1) or 'no' (score 0) to statements such as "I have stolen from a colleague". Three items were added to bring the scale closer to DSM-IV diagnostic guidelines for conduct discipline disorder. These were: "I have imagined setting fires to things"; "I have deliberately tried to physically hurt fellow students"; "I have deliberately tried to attack someone in a sexual way". Reliability for the adapted 21-item scale was good (α = 0.82). Total scores were calculated and recoded to new 2 category variables based on cut-offs calculated from the mean (2.38) plus one standard deviation (SD) (3.24) and mean + 2SD. Thus, total scores 0-5 were coded 'low indiscipline', scores between 6 and 8 coded 'serious', and scores ≥9 coded 'extreme'.

(iii) Drug use was assessed by asking, "Which of the following drugs have you used in the last year? alcohol; cigarette; bhang, acid or LSD; sniffed glue, petrol, or solvents; injected illegal drugs (heroin); oral stimulants". Respondents rated frequency of use for each on a five-point scale: 0 (never), 1 (less than once per month), 2 (one to three times a month), 3 (once a week) or 4 (more than once a week). Total scores (0-32) were recoded to new 2-category variables based on cut-offs of the mean (1.82) plus SD (2.87) and mean + 2SD. Thus, total scores ≥5 coded 'serious', and scores ≥8 coded 'extreme'. Internal reliability for the summed items was good, (α= 0.82).

(iv)Risk-taking was assessed with the 'Brief Adolescent Risk-Taking Scale' (BART), a 9-item measure. Items include, "I accept rides in cars from people I do not know"; "I take part in dangerous activities"; "I usually talk things over with my parents before doing something new". Responses are 'never' (score 0 or 2), 'sometimes' (score 1) or 'often' (score 0 or 2). Reliability of the summed items is good (alpha=0.72). Principal components analysis indicates two factors – danger and caution.

(vi)Students were asked to rate their current overall academic performance as; 'failing', 'below average', 'average', or 'above average'. For this analysis, scores were recoded to a 2-category variable of failing/below average ('failing') or average/above average ('ok').

(vii) Sexual and physical abuse were assessed simply: "Have you ever been sexually abused"; and "Have you ever been physically abused, bullied or beaten up", with yes/no responses.

Research Findings

Characteristics of the sample and prevalence of graffiti and indiscipline behaviour are presented in Table 1. Similar proportions of graffiti occur girls (10.9%) and boys (12.3%), while the prevalence of serious or extreme indiscipline behaviour is between 2 and 3 times more likely in boys. Six participants indicated 'yes' to graffiti and 'no' to all other forms of indiscipline behaviour.

Table 1; Characteristics of the sample and prevalence of graffiti and indiscipline behaviour

	BOYS (%)	GIRLS N(%)
TOTAL	1942	1654
Born in study counties	1838(92.9)	1550(93.4)
Kiswahili main language	1386(96.4)	1111(96.3)
Other counties	17(1.2)	7(0.6)
Graffiti	169 (12.3)	121 (10.9)
No ASB†	407 (29.2)	516 (45.9)
Low ASB (scores 0-5)	1139 (81.7)	1038 (89.9)
Serious ASB (scores 6-8)	145 (10.4)	62 (5.4)
Extreme ASB (scores ≥ 9)	110 (7.9)	25
Graffiti + No ASB	2	4
Graffiti + Low ASB	45	74
Graffiti + Serious ASB	49	30
Graffiti + Extreme ASB	75	17

Note. Other counties; ASB=antisocial behaviour. †Antisocial Behaviour is a 22-item Scale excluding graffiti item.

Those in the graffiti group are more likely to report serious or extreme drug use, perceived academic failure, physical and sexual abuse, suicide thoughts and behaviours, and are more likely to indicate higher family pathology, parental overprotection and criticism, depression, hopelessness, anxiety, external locus of control and risk-taking behaviours, and lower parental care and self-esteem.

Graffiti is also significantly related to low, serious and extreme antisocial behaviour. Given this strong association, the sample was grouped to aid elucidation of effects uniquely associated with graffiti. Thus, low antisocial behaviour (Low ASB) with graffiti was compared to Low ASB without graffiti, serious

antisocial behaviour (SASB) with graffiti was compared to SASB without graffiti and extreme antisocial behaviour (EASB) with graffiti was compared to EASB without graffiti. Results of these group comparisons using chi-square analysis and analysis of variance are summarised in tables 3 to 5 and the in following sections.

(Table 2) Graffitti groups

		BOYS			GIRLS	
	G (%)	NoG (%)	x^2	G (%)	NoG (%)	x^2
Low ASB	26.6	89.4	388.57	61.2	96.1	186.13
SASB	29	7.9	70.11	24.8	3.1	97.02
EASB	44.4	2.7	353.90	14	0.6	95.705
'failing' PAP	19.9	7.7	41.52	15.9	4.3	30.46
Physical Abuse	42.2	32.8	5.70*	44.2	16.4	52.43
Sexual Abuse	4.8	1	14.60**	12.5	5.9	7.55**
Serious Drug	49.1	5.3	291.96	40.5	5.2	162.65
Extreme Drug	26.3	1.3	219.84	22.3	1.7	119.02
	15.4	2.1	67.96	21.5	4.4	53.79
	G (M)	NoG (M)	F	G (M)	NoG (M)	F
FADGF	2.10	1.81	64.73	2.15	1.74	80.02
Depression	16.98	10.50	81.23	21.62	12.58	71.05
Hopelessness	5.26	3.18	53.33	6.23	3.38	61.18
LOC	16.09	13.48	29.86	17.19	13.49	48.65
Self-Esteem	37.26	41.14	45.50	34.15	39.62	58.96
Anxiety	5.95	3.59	55.13	7.80	4.54	53.54
Risk-Taking	10.00	6.61	227.30	8.66	5.36	166.60

*Low Antisocial Behaviour With or Without Graffi**ti***

For boys, there are significant differences between the Low ASB plus graffiti group and the Low ASB minus graffiti group, including for suicide thoughts, deliberate self-injury, drug use, family functioning, locus of control and risk-taking with those in the Low ASB and graffiti group (Table 3). In addition to those presented in Table 3, groups are significantly different for perceived academic performance (15.6% vs 6.6%; =8.50, $p<0.05$), mother care (M=25.63 vs M=27.65;F=6.00, $p<0.05$), father care (M=23.46 vs M=25.69; F=5.13, $p<0.05$), and father overprotection (M=13.32 vs M=11.16; F=5.75, $p<0.05$) with boys in the Low ASB plus graffiti group more likely to report 'failing' perceived academic performance, and lower parental care and higher father overprotection.

Girls in the Low ASB plus graffiti versus Low ASB minus graffiti groups are significantly different on all variables measured in this study (Table 3). In addition to those results reported in Table 3, groups are significantly different in mother care (M=25.07 vs M=28.37; F=24.67, $p<0.001$), mother overprotection (M=14.70 vs M=12.08; F=13.38, $p<0.001$), mother criticism (M=11.36 vs M=9.12; F=12.62, $p<0.001$), father care (M=21.75 vs M=26.12; F=29.52, $p<0.001$), father overprotection (M=14.84 vs M=11.45; F=19.63, $p<0.001$) and father criticism (M=12.52 vs M=9.21; F=22.82, $p<0.001$). Those in the Low ASB plus graffiti group reported lower parental care and higher parental overprotection and criticism.

Table 3;Boys and Girls in the Low ASB plus graffiti versus Low ASB minus graffiti groups]

	Boys with low ASB			Girls with low ASB		
	G (%)	NoG (%)	x^2	G (%)	NoG (%)	x^2
Physical abuse	-	-	ns	36.5	15.5	21.45
Suicide Thoughts	25.6	12.6	6.07*	48.6	21.5	28.14
Suicide Plans	-	-	ns	27.4	10.1	20.22
Suicide Threats	-	-	ns	30.1	7.3	42.98
DSI	20.9	9.6	5.87*	34.2	12.9	25.10
Suicide Attempts	-	-	ns	14.9	3.6	20.88
Serious Drugs	22.2	3.2	40.57	20.3	3.4	44.40
Extreme Drug	4.4	0.4	13.15*	10.8	0.8	44.03
	G (%)	NoG (M)	F	G (%)	NoG (M)	F
FADGF	1.98	1.79	8.19**	2.03	1.72	30.57+
Depression	-	-	ns	18.61	12.16	25.51
Hopelessness	-	-	ns	4.96	3.29	16.45+
LOC	15.58	13.23	7.07**	16.32	13.37	20.88
Self-Esteem	-	-	ns	35.94	39.76	19.64
Anxiety	-	-	ns	6.56	4.41	16.38+
Risk-Taking	8.42	6.30	30.10	7.23	5.18	49.53

*Serious Antisocial Behaviour With or Without Gra*ffiti

For boys, there are several significant differences between the serious antisocial behaviour (SASB) plus graffiti and the SASB minus graffiti, including with deliberate self-injury, drug use, mother criticism, depression, anxiety and risk-taking. Group percentages, chi-square statistics, means and F values are reported in Table 4.

For girls, there are several significant differences between the SASB plus graffiti group and the SASB minus graffiti group including on suicide plans, serious drug use, self-esteem and anxiety. Details are provided in Table 4.

Table 4; Group percentages, chi-square statistics, means and F values

	Boys with SASB			Girls with SASB		
	G (%)	NoG (%)	x^2	G (%)	NoG (%)	x^2
Suicide Plans	-	-	ns	60	33.3	4.29*
DSI	44.9	28.6	3.77**	-	-	ns
Serious Drug	34.7	17	5.67**	73.3	46.7	4.44**
Extreme Drug	16.3	4.3	6.11*	-	-	ns
	G (M)	NoG (M)	F	G (M)	NoG (M)	F
Mother Criticism	12.77	10.91	4.42*	-	-	ns
Depression	18.91	13.08	9.30**+	-	-	ns
Self-Esteem	-	-	ns	31.46	36.37	4.56*
Anxiety	5.93	4.22	4.90*+	9.33	6.50	5.06*
Risk-Taking	9.90	8.93	4.79*	-	-	ns

Extreme Antisocial Behaviour With or Without Graffiti

For boys there are several significant differences between the extreme antisocial behaviour (EASB) plus graffiti group and the EASB minus graffiti including suicide thoughts, deliberate self-injury, suicide attempts, drug use, mother care, mother overprotection, mother criticism, and depression. Details are provided in Table 5. For girls, there were no significant differences between these same groups on any of the variables measured in this study.

Table 5; Extreme Antisocial Behaviour With or Without Graffiti

	Boys with EASB		
	G (%)	NoG (%)	x^2
Suicide Thoughts	52.8	33.3	3.44*
Deliberate Self-Injury	58	24.2	10.19**
Suicide Attempts	29.2	6.1	6.98**
Serious Drug	75.3	40.6	11.75**
Extreme Drug	46.6	21.9	5.70*
	G (M)	NoG (M)	F
Mother Care	21.35	26.61	13.48
Mother Overprotection	16.24	12.97	4.33+
Mother Criticism	14.41	11.00	6.26*
Depression	19.04	14.09	4.82*

Summary

In all the results reported in Tables 3 to 5, those groups that included graffiti showed higher reported perceived academic failure, physical abuse, suicidal thoughts and behaviours, drug use, family pathology, parental overprotection and criticism, depression, hopelessness, external locus of control, anxiety, risk-taking and lower self-esteem and parental care.

Discussion

The results of this study suggest that adolescent who graffiti ('tag') are significantly different to those who do not graffiti on all of the factors measured in this study. Although this is the first population-based study to date comparing these groups, the result is similar to the differences found with general indiscipline and antisocial behaviour groups. Adolescents who graffiti show higher reported drug use, perceived academic failure, physical and sexual abuse, suicide thoughts and behaviours, and are more likely to indicate higher family pathology, parental overprotection and criticism, depression, hopelessness, anxiety, external locus of control and risk-taking behaviours, and lower parental care and self-esteem.

Results also suggest that antisocial behaviour (low, serious and extreme) with graffiti is significantly different from antisocial behaviour without graffiti. Adolescent who graffiti in addition to various levels of antisocial behaviour show higher reported perceived academic failure, physical abuse, suicidal thoughts and behaviours, drug use, family pathology, parental overprotection and criticism, depression, hopelessness, external locus of control, anxiety, risk-taking and lower self-esteem and parental care.

One limitation of this study was the one-item measure of graffiti behaviour. Our focus in this study was 'tagging' but there are several other forms of vandalism that may be defined as graffiti. In addition, we

did not measure the severity of the problem behaviour. The number of graffiti acts may have been an important factor to include in the analysis. Our measure of graffiti may have captured wrongly, graffiti art and other forms of doodling, which would not be considered vandalism.

Graffiti is not only a significant community problem but should be considered a serious action, which may have many other coexisting family, parental, behavioural and psychological problems. Clinicians may need to ask about graffiti even when an adolescent present with low levels of antisocial behaviour.

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Rediscovering The Core Cognitive Processes That Define Scientific Competence.

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Abstract

Scientific competence has largely been portrayed in terms of observable attributes like: observation, classification, experimentation, problem-solving, explanation among others. This conceptualization ignores the cognitive processes involved in the construction and assessment of scientific knowledge. This paper argues that the greater focus should be on the justification of the central cognitive processes if scientific competence is to be the goal of any science curriculum.

Key words: A*ssessment, cognitive, competence, construction, core, , process scientifi,.*

Introduction

Great scientists have displayed puzzling mental abilities in contributing to the growth of scientific knowledge. Johannes Kepler systematized the laws of planetary motion; Galileo invented the telescope; Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone and gramophone; Albert Einstein for example formulated the special theory of relativity (1906) and the general theory of relativity (1916) besides his research in Quantum Physics.

The great scientists had a unique mental focus and demonstrated thinking modes that not only questioned what was known, but also provided new explanatory insights for new knowledge. This paper contends that an insight into the central cognitive processes of their scientific competence may build a good foundation for the science curriculum.

The key question are:

(i) How did great scientists represent knowledge in their minds?
(ii) What logic guided their processing of new information?
(iii) What criteria did they apply to scientific explanations?
(iv) *What methodology can be infused into the science curriculum to develop the core cognitive competences for scientific knowledge?*

We shall take note that Instrumental generic competences across disciplines, Sánchez, A. & Manuel P. Eds. (2008) have been construed to include the following:

1. **Analytical thinking: T**his is the mental behaviour that enables one to distinguish and separate the parts of a whole to arrive at its principles or elements. Analytical thinking is thinking in detail, accurately, Enumerating and distinguishing.

2. **Systemic thinking:** This is the mental behaviour that enables one to organize and integrate interrelated components to form a whole.

3. **Critical thinking:** This is the mental behaviour that questions things and concerns itself with the foundations on which our own and others' ideas, actions and judgements are based.

4. **Creative thinking:** This is the mental behaviour that generates searches to find new and unusual solutions that make sense in different areas of life.

5. **Reflective thinking:** This is the mental behaviour that facilitates the recognition and growth of the modes of thinking that we use in solving problems or performing tasks.

6. **Logical thinking:** This is the mental behaviour that develops ways of thinking that lead to knowledge in general and to scientific knowledge in particular, paying close attention to its structure. It means proceeding in a reasoned, sufficiently argued way.

7. **Practical thinking:** Is the mental behaviour that makes it easier to select the best course of action on the basis of available information and to decide how to proceed to achieve objectives with effectiveness and efficiency. It is the action-oriented way of thinking.

8. **Team thinking:** This is a way of working with other people to arrive at shared views.

9. **Time management**: Is the distributing of time wisely according to priorities, taking into account short-, medium- and long-term personal objectives and the areas of personal and professional life that one spends most time on.

10. **Problem-solving**: identifying, analyzing and defining the significant elements constituting a problem in order to solve it effectively and with good criteria.

11. **Decision making**: choosing the best course of action, following a systematic process and assuming responsibility for the scope and consequences of the option taken.

12. **Planning**: deciding effectively the objectives, priorities, methods and controls for work to be done, by organizing tasks within deadlines and available means.

13. **Computer skills**: utilizing computer skills or information and communication techniques (ICTS) as tools for expression and communication, for accessing information sources, for data and document filing, for presentation.

14. **Data management**: effectively organizing (structuring, gathering, processing and obtaining results from) information in a situation or phenomenon, and making best use of the possibilities afforded by computer systems for database management.

15. **Oral communication**: expressing clearly and opportunely one's ideas, knowledge and feelings in speech, adapting to the audience and situation to ensure good comprehension and attention.

16. **Writing skills**: relating effectively to other persons through clear written expression of what one thinks and/or feels, using graphic support as necessary

The Information Processing Model as a **framework used by cognitive psychologists to explain and describe mental processes** describes representational systems that fall into three basic families:

1. ***Propositional representations***-a set of discrete symbols or propositions equivalent to formal statements.
2. ***Analogical representations- a*** correspondence between the represented world and the representing world as direct as possible in terms of maps, models, images and pictures.
3. ***Procedural representations***- where knowledge is represented in terms of active process or procedures directly interpretable by an action system.

Scientific knowledge on the other hand is generated through five processes:

(I) ***Observation-***making use of the five senses to gain information about the real world.

(II) ***Experimentation-*** the systematic process of gathering data in order to test the validity or authenticity of a given hypothesis.

(III) ***Speculation-***the process of going beyond available data in order to anticipate relationships that can be used to make predictions.

(IV) ***Imagery-***the process of constructing images in the mind for representing interactions, mechanisms, processes or structures in the real world.

(V) ***Intuition-***the faculty of mind that generates true knowledge without a clear or immediate explanation.

The concept of Scientific Competence

Ornstein(1986) asserts that, ''the content of our consciousness is a representation of outside reality'' and thus consciousness must include a process for constructing a 'representation' or a model of the world; and a mental operating system endowed with acts of creation…. to process, infer, as well as analyze information to arrive at a reliable solution the percept.

Miller (1984) observes that Quantum Physics and Relativity Theory have changed the conception of scientific visualization. Practicing scientists now admit to the use of:

(i) Mental Imagery and Thought experiments as tools for advancement of scientific knowledge;
(ii) Probabilistic/statistical notions in constructing explanations;
(iii) Contextual considerations in constructing an acceptance criteria for scientific explanations.

The cognitive process of science therefore demands higher competences and it may be necessary to review curriculum focus to effectively develop such competences. This task will further require an integration of memory theory and information processing models.

A brief discussion of a model of Scientific Competence by Embeywa (1990) is presented below.

In this model three cognitive competences are identified and their interactive nature is discussed.

Embeywa (1985) explains that:

A decision on the part of a scientist that an explanation is valid or invalid ……is usually taken after a period of active processing of the input data (p.15).

The active processing is enabled by four competences:

C1: An ability to construct clear representation of events described in scientific language defined as ***visualization competence.***

C2: An ability to discern logical structure in sentences relating to scientific Knowledge called ***logical sensitivity***.

C3: An awareness of the role of logical laws in science called ***logical competence.***

C4: A readiness to subject scientific statements to logical scrutiny referred to as ***logical predisposition.***

In relation to C1, Embeywa (1990) explains three categories of visualization:

(i) ***Pictorial Visualization-*** the construction of mental pictures, models and images.
(ii) ***Mechanistic Visualization-*** the construction of propositions about the underlying mechanisms of natural events.
(iii) ***Formal Visualization***- the use of known formal/mathematical models relevant to the situation.

The other three competences are prerequisites to ***Mental Manipulation and Explanation-Perception*** and are more energized by ***Imagery, Intuition and Speculation.***

Manipulation involves:

(i) **Logical reasoning**- the recognition of logical structure in discourse and the search for consistency and completeness to avoid errors of implication, tautology and contradiction.
(ii) **Causal reasoning**- reasoning of the type:
A is the cause of B.
A causes B.
A is a causal factor for B.

(iii) **Analogical reasoning**- the transfer of knowledge to new situations by tracing similarities and differences between knowledge representations to enable: pattern completion; pattern extension; or pattern deletion.

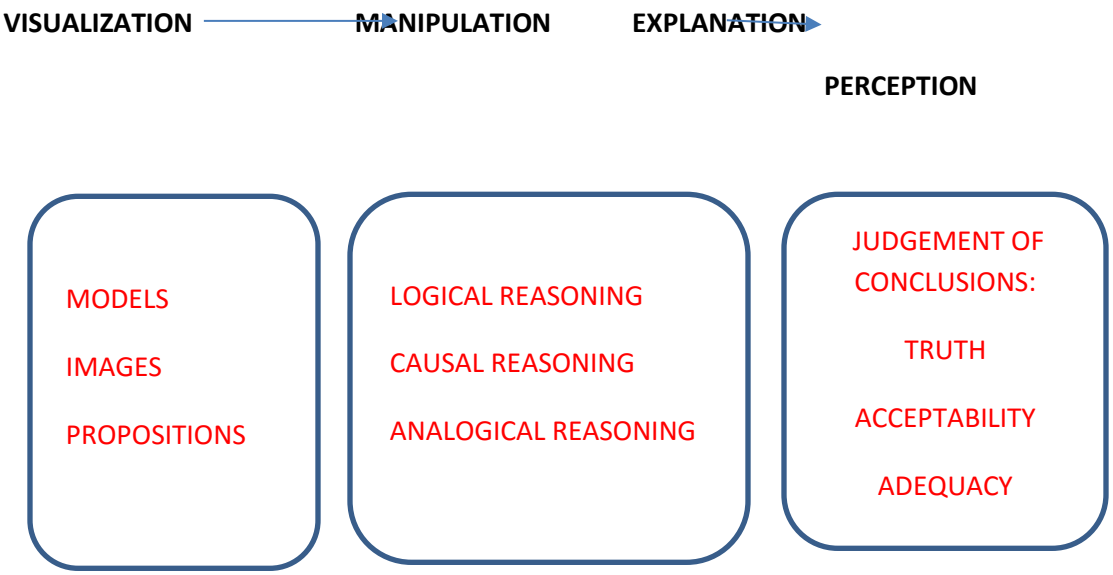
Explanation-Perception is the final act of comprehension that involves:

(i) Explanatory **conceptions**.
(ii) Explanatory **models**.
(iii) **Acceptance criteria** for explanations.

Embeywa's model of Scientific Competence.

STRUCTURE

COGNITIVE INTERPRETATION	MANIPULATIVE INFERENCE GENERATION	EVALUATIVE CONCEPT SYNTHESIS



ESSENCE

Some aspects of Scientific Competence in the History of Science.

In 1923, Louis de Broglie, a French physicist, proposed a hypothesis to explain the theory of the atomic structure. By using a series of substitution de Broglie hypothesizes particles to hold properties of waves. Within a few years, de Broglie's hypothesis was tested by scientists shooting electrons and rays of lights through slits. What scientists discovered was the electron stream acted the same was as light proving de Broglie correct.

Although de Broglie was credited for his hypothesis, he had no actual experimental evidence for his conjecture. In 1927, Clinton J. Davisson and Lester H. Germer shot electron particles onto onto a nickel crystal. What they saw was the diffraction of the electron similar to waves diffraction against crystals (x-rays). In the same year, an English physicist, George P. Thomson fired electrons towards thin metal foil providing him with the same results as Davisson and Germer.

Kekule is regarded as one of the principal founders of modern organic chemistry, the chemistry of carbon-based compounds. In 1858 he showed that carbon can link with itself to form long chains. In 1865 he reported his discovery of the benzene ring as the basis for another major group of carbon molecules.

Erwin Schrödinger was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics in 1933. He is best known for his work regarding quantum theory, particularly about his **thought experiment involving a cat** in order to explain the flawed interpretation of quantum superposition.

Schrödinger's cat is a thought experiment, sometimes described as a paradox, devised by Austrian physicist Erwin Schrödinger in 1935.It illustrates what he saw as the problem of the Copenhagen interpretation of quantum mechanics applied to everyday objects.

In 1957, Hugh Everett formulated the many-worlds interpretation of quantum mechanics, which does not single out observation as a special process. In the many-worlds interpretation, both alive and dead states of the cat persist after the box is opened, but are decoherent from each other. In other words, when the box is opened, the observer and the possibly-dead cat split into an observer looking at a box with a dead cat, and an observer looking at a box with a live cat. But since the dead and alive states are decoherent, there is no effective communication or interaction between them.

Paul Adrien Maurice Dirac was an English theoretical physicist who is regarded as one of the most significant physicists of the 20th century.

Dirac made fundamental contributions to the early development of both quantum mechanics and quantum electrodynamics. Among other discoveries, he formulated the Dirac equation which describes the behaviour of fermions and predicted the existence of antimatter. Dirac shared the 1933 Nobel Prize in Physics with Erwin Schrödinger "for the discovery of new productive forms of atomic theory" He also made significant contributions to the reconciliation of general relativity with quantum mechanics.

The key questions in this paper were:

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(iv) *What methodology can be infused into the science curriculum to develop the core cognitive competences for scientific knowledge?*

Conclusion

It has been argued that a decision on the part of a scientist that an explanation is valid or invalid ……is usually taken after a period of active processing of the input data (Embeywa , 1985).

The active processing is enabled by four competences:

An ability to construct clear representation of events described in Scientific Language defined as ***visualization competence;*** an ability to discern logical structure in sentences relating to scientific

Knowledge called ***logical sensitivity***; an awareness of the role of logical laws in science called ***logical competence; and a*** readiness to subject scientific statements to logical scrutiny referred to as ***Logical predisposition.***

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Explanation-Perception is the final act of comprehension that involves:

i. Explanatory **conceptions**.
ii. Explanatory **models**.
iii. **Acceptance criteria** for explanations.

The ***Embeywa Model*** captures the essence of the scientific process of knowledge construction and assessment. It is therefore the conclusion of this paper that Pedagogy in Science needs to use the above discussed competences to guide both the delivery and assessment in Science.

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Abstract

Academic mentorship has been practiced in a number of universities including Machakos in Kenya though ineffectively due to the big student numbers and the presumably misconceived assumption that all students are in need and will voluntarily seek assistance. Most of the students admitted in public universities have the potential to excel academically if properly guided, supported and challenged. For academic mentorship to be successful and profitable to students, there is need to identify areas of need for purposes of prioritization. Study findings have identified academic advising needs of university students including maintaining high grades, handling heavier academic workload, setting career goals, setting academic goals, time management, personal development, social relationships, financial management and study skills among others. This survey was conducted on 187 students from Machakos University. Data was analysed using descriptive statistics. The findings show that students have a fairly positive (mean 3.62, n=187) perception towards academic mentorship. Despite rating themselves highly on various competences, the respondents expressed need for mentorship on orientation (73%), examination preparation (88%), financial management (79%), developing a good study schedule (78%), maintaining high grades (78%), setting academic goals (83%), setting career goals (85%) among other areas. It was concluded that students have a positive attitude towards academic mentorship, mentorship can provide information required by students to excel academically and advantage can be made of students' feelings of inadequacy in certain competency areas that are necessary for academic excellence. It was recommended that Schools and departments should take advantage of the positive perception to operationize and institutionalize academic mentorship and the mentorship programme should focus on areas that students expressed need for academic advising.

Key words: *mentorship, academic advising, needs, students.*

Introduction

Academic advising has been practiced in a number of universities in Kenya. In most cases it involves assigning students to academic mentors irrespective of whether they are in need of it or not. The assumption that every student is in need of academic advising has resulted to a scenario where students hardly seek assistance from designated faculty staff. The growing numbers of students in our Kenyan universities have resulted to a situation where academic members of staff are assigned unmanageable numbers of mentees. This has resulted to a negative attitude towards academic mentorship. It has been assumed that students who are faring poorly in their academic work will see and feel the need to seek academic advising which has not been the case. Many students who are admitted to the university do not consider themselves poor academically since they were able to perform significantly above average to gain admission to the university which is normally very competitive for government sponsored students. Despite all deliberate efforts by universities to minimize the number of students failing in university examinations, the numbers have continued to rise.

It is the conviction of the researchers that students who were able to pass their end of secondary examination to an extent of being admitted to university competitively have the potential to excel academically all other factors held constant.

Academic mentorship is practiced in Machakos University in an unstructured manner and hence not fully operational. The university does not have a policy to guide academic mentorship of newly admitted and continuing students.

The aim of this survey was to assess students' perceptions and need for academic mentorship. The survey also aimed at documenting the areas of focus on academic mentorship and students' rating on various competences/skills which they need to possess to be able to do well academically. The findings informed the choice and implementation of an appropriate mentorship model focusing specifically on students at risk academically.

Mentoring is a 'personal, helping relationship between a mentor and a mentee that includes professional development and growth and varying degrees of support. While mentoring relationships are reciprocal, mentors tend to be those with greater experience' (Hansford et al. 2003, p. 5). Mentorship focuses on maximizing performance (Whitmore, 2002) and the person's overall life development. The process of mentorship aims at unlocking people's potential to maximise their own performance. In mentorship, the mentor tries to develop the skills, knowledge and attitudes required to complete a task or perform a job.

Mentoring is a personal relationship which develops over time between a mentor and a mentee. This relationship has to exist in an atmosphere of confidentiality based on the sharing of thoughts, questions, life and work experiences such that trust is built up. It is an unequal relationship in the sense that the mentor is deemed to have knowledge, experience and skills to offer to the mentee. At the same time, it is a dynamic relationship in which the mentee is growing in capacity to reflect, make decisions and offer ideas.

In formal mentoring programs, the purpose of mentoring is likely to be articulated in a set of guidelines or via training that is provided for both parties, where they are informed of the goals and purposes of the program. As an example, the purpose of a formal mentoring program for new university students might be to help them develop skills and strategies, to adjust to life in the university, become socialised into the university's values and culture, and develop a good working knowledge of university policies and procedures.

In contrast, in informal mentoring arrangements, the parties may not have any set goals or specific expectations except to get together informally and discuss university-based issues as they arise. The purpose of the relationship may change depending on the needs of either party. Whether the mentoring relationship is organisationally driven or informal and more personally driven, it is likely that the overall purpose of the relationship will be for both parties to learn, engage in knowledge transfer, and support one another's development and growth.

The findings of a study by Muola and Migosi (2012) showed that the top ranking academic advising needs for university students were maintaining high grades, setting career goals, handling heavy academic workload, and setting academic goals irrespective of the year of study and gender.

In a study of 920 undergraduate students conducted in Nigeria, it was found that there is need of counseling on time management, drug abuse, domestic problems, career needs, relationship problems, finance, sexual harassment, academic ability, personality types and anxiety/depression (Aluede, Imhonde,

& Eguavoen, 2006). Among other areas in which students seek help include improvement of their study skills; career uncertainty; self-confidence problems; lack of motivation; fear of failure; depression; lack of purpose in life; anxiety and nervousness (Gallagher, 1992). Other areas include: academic and school related problems, study skills; time management; overcoming fear about taking examinations; meeting academic and career needs (Bertocci, Hirsch, Sommer & Williams, 1992). Fear of examinations and worries about getting a job seems to be a common theme in many of the highly ranked concerns of students (Gallagher, Golin & Kelleher, 1992).

Guneri, Aydin and Skovholt (2003) did a study on university students in Turkey and found that students' academic related needs ranked as follows:

Managing time (60%),

Identifying and planning goals for life and concentrating on studies (53%),

Getting a job after school (50%),

Getting better grades (46%) and

Completing assignments on time (45%).

In a study conducted in Spain (Arco, Fernandez, Heilborn & Lopez, 2005), it was reported that the profile of university students, revealed that students rated academic needs such as getting easily distracted, need to improve their study skills, problem of time management and problem of test taking anxiety as the areas desiring significant attention. Despite the context and location of study, the foregoing research findings seem to show a lot of concurrence on the general academic areas in which students need assistance. Academic advising programmes in Kenyan colleges and universities can benefit from these findings in planning for academic mentorship and prioritizing the areas to be addressed.

According to available literature, mentoring is a very positive experience (Clutterbuck, 2004; Long, 1997; Hansford, Tennent, & Ehrich, 2003). To discover the outcomes of mentoring, Hansford et al., analysed and coded 159 pieces of research on mentoring in schools and universities to determine the benefits and the shortcomings for the mentee, mentor and the organisation.

Hansford et al. (2003) found that benefits for mentees included psycho-social supportive outcomes such as support, encouragement, friendship, role modelling and increased confidence. For teachers, they included the development of teaching strategies and subject knowledge, as well as the opportunity to learn and develop through discussion and sharing ideas, reflection on their practice, and feedback and constructive criticism. Mentoring benefited mentees by having their careers affirmed and enabling them to be committed to their academic work and profession.

The availability of caring mentors is important for the retention (Walker & Taub, 2001) and success of college students who do not have role models at home. Research on mentoring indicates that it has a positive impact on the personal and professional development of young adults (Levinson, 1978). Research shows that students highly value academic advisors who are perceived to be accessible, approachable, and helpful in providing guidance that connects their present academic experience with their future life plans (Gordon, Habley, & Associates, 2000; Frost, 1991).

The most frequently cited benefits for the mentors included collegiality, collaboration and networking, cross-fertilisation of ideas and the opportunity to exchange ideas. Other outcomes according to Hansford

et al. (2003) related to providing opportunities for reflection on mentors' practice, professional development, improvement in interpersonal skills and teaching practice, personal satisfaction, and enjoyment and challenge in their work.

The most frequently cited outcome regarding benefits for the organisation was improved grades, good peer relationships, less work for staff because mentees provide help; increased retention of staff; and better communication between parties. Organisationally, mentoring can also increase retention of students and their psycho-social functions in a learning institution (Harvard Business Essentials, 2004 p. 86).

A number of studies have indicated that the quality of academic advising can directly affect a student's chances of graduating (Backhus, 1989; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Steingass and Sykes (2008) reported a positive relationship between effective academic mentorship and student retention, especially for first-year college students. Students who receive quality professional academic advising tend to have better retention and graduation rates (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Steingass & Sykes, 2008).

A study by Pargett (2011) reported a positive relationship between academic advising and student development and student satisfaction with college life. Students who are satisfied with college life are likely to be adjusted and focused as a result of which they may do well in their studies.

This was anchored on Daloz's (2012) theoretical model which is more recent and was assumed to appropriate to the current study. Daloz's (2012) model was developed within the context of mentoring in community college environment. The model demonstrates that optimal learning in a mentoring relationship (between a lecturer learners) occurs when two key constructs are said to be apparent. These constructs are **challenge** and **support**, as in the diagram below.

Table 1. The developmental model of mentoring

High challenge	High challenge + low support = **retreat**	High challenge + high support = **growth**
Low challenge	Low challenge + low support = **stasis**	Low challenge + high support = **confirmation**
	Low support	High support

Adapted from Daloz, L. (2012). *Mentor: Guiding the journey of adult learners*. Wiley: New York, p. 208.

Daloz (2012) argues that there are four possible ways of understanding learning outcomes for a learner (or mentee), and these relate to the key functions performed by the mentor: **challenge** and Support.

By challenge, Daloz (2012) referred to stretching the mentee - questioning, providing thoughtful questions that have the effect of encouraging the mentee to question his/her values, beliefs and behaviours.

By support, Daloz (2012) referred to psycho-social support such as listening, encouraging, being a sounding board and being there for the mentee.

Daloz (2012) claims that when: a mentor provides **low support** and **low challenge** for his/her mentee, then little learning is likely to occur from that relationship (he refers to this as stasis, since not much change occurs)

support is low, but challenge is high, the learner is likely to retreat from development

Support is high, but challenge is low, the potential for growth increases, but the learner may not engage productively with the environment, and therefore he/she may not move beyond his/her present situation. Daloz refers to this as confirmation.

Dolaz argues that high challenge and high support is the combination where development is likely to occur to the greatest extent. He coined this as growth.

At the moment there is no well-structured mentorship programmes in most of the Kenyan universities including Machakos. Student mentorship is offered informally by various university organs including the offices of the dean of students, deans of schools, departments, counselling, among others. These organs concentrate on general mentorship that may not be specially focused on academic matters. Hence the need to have a well-structured student mentorship focusing on raising learning outcomes which is the ultimate reason why students enrol for studies in various programmes in university. Most of the other services available to the students are instrumental in ensuring that they realize their sore purpose of being in the university.

The main purpose of this survey was to establish the need and priority areas of academic mentorship in Machakos University.

The survey was guided by the following objectives:

To assess students' perceptions on academic mentorship

To determine areas in need of academic mentorship

Determine the priority areas of academic mentorship among students

To establish students' rating on personal attributes/skills

Methodology

Research Design

The survey employed the descriptive research design in which a sample of 187 randomly selected sample of students from the school of Education. A questionnaire seeking information about respondent's background and demographic characteristics, areas of focus in mentorship, need for academic mentorship and rating on academic related competences/skills was administered.

The responses of the students were analysed descriptively to determine the status of academic advising in the university and the need for a more formal academic mentorship programme.

Data Analysis Procedures

The filled questionnaires were coded and scored. Descriptive statistics including means and percentages were applied to determine students' level of need for academic mentorship. The was hoped that in addition to providing other useful information for this study, the questionnaires will provide information to determine the appropriateness of Daloz's model of academic mentorship which is anchored on the assumption that learners who are highly challenged and given high support will register improvement in

academic growth and learning outcomes. The opposite is true that leaners who feel unchallenged and are not adequately supported will tend to retreat or maintain a status quo (Daloz, 2012).

The findings were used to determine and inform the suitability of the proposed model whose main emphasis is to offer significant challenge to the low achieving students while at the same time giving them the support they need to improve their academic performance. The survey was aimed at determining areas which provide a challenge to students.

Research Findings and Discussion

Data collected from students and lecturers was analysed and the findings were discussed in relation to the objectives of the survey. The data that was collected and analysed was mainly on respondents' background information, perceptions on academic mentorship, priority areas in academic advising, need for academic mentorship and rating on personal attributes/skills.

The study involved a total of 187 respondents, 88 female and 99 male first (154), second (7) and fourth (26) year students. A big proportion (80%) of the students involved in the survey were not aware on whether they had been assigned to a mentor or not. The few (20%) who had experienced mentorship were second and fourth year students who at one time in their stay in the university had been formally assigned to a mentor and at least were aware of it. According to about 20% of the respondents surveyed, students should be the ones to initiate the academic mentorship process while 19% felt that it should the academic mentor himself. Twenty five percentage (25%) felt that the dean of school should be the one to trigger the mentorship process as compared to 27% who felt that the dean of students should initiate the mentorship process. This means that the responsibility of the academic mentor should be seen as a shared responsibility between various stakeholders for the process to be active and productive.

According to 33% of the respondents, lecturers do not have time to engage in student mentorship. On the other hand, twenty five (26%) of the respondents indicated that lecturers have time to get involved in student mentorship. The rest (41%) were not sure on whether or not lecturers have adequate time to mentor students.

Interesting, a majority (78%) of the students were of the opinion that they should be given an opportunity to choose their academic mentors. As much as this may be possible, it may be difficult to implement because some lecturers may be overwhelmed by the number of students who may prefer them to be their mentors whereas others who may be less popular. A smaller percentage (7%) felt that students need not be given the opportunity to choose their academic mentors. The remaining 13% were non-comital on whether students should be given the opportunity to choose their mentors or not.

Students' Perceptions on Academic Mentorship

The first objective of the survey sought to assess students' perceptions on academic mentorship. The data was analysed and the findings are presented in table 2.

Generally, the students who responded to the questionnaire on perceptions on academic mentorship have a fairly positive (mean 3.62, n=187) perception towards academic mentorship. This implies that given an opportunity they would embrace it. Schools and departments should take advantage of the positive perception to operationalize and institutionalize academic mentorship. This will hopefully reduce the number low achieving students.

Table 2. Students' perceptions on academic mentorship

Key: SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, U = Uncertain, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree

SNo	**Statement**	Rating/percentage			Mean
		A	U	D	
1	Academic mentorship is for students who fail in their academics	35(18%)	4(2%)	148(79%)	1.99
2	Academic mentorship is an important component of University life	172(92%)	12(6%)	11(6%)	4.48
3	Many students are in need of academic mentorship	152(81%)	20(11%)	14(7%)	4.24
4	It is not right for the administration to impose academic mentorship on students	41(22%)	23(12%)	123(81%)	3.75
5	Academic mentorship can reduce the number of students who fail	161(86%)	9(5%)	16(9%)	4.18
6	A formal academic mentorship activity can help to reduce the number of students who fail every year	150(80%)	21(13%)	13(7%)	4.12
7	Academic mentorship can help me to develop a successful academic plan	169(90%)	13(7%)	5(3%)	4.45
8	I understand what academic mentorship is all about	92(49%)	48(26%)	47(25%)	3.37
9	My academic performance could improve if I consulted an academic mentor	158(84%)	19(10%)	10(5%)	4.24
10	My academic performance could improve if I consulted my subject lecturers	151(81%)	22(12%)	14(7%)	4.12
11	Before and during the examination period, students need to consult their academic mentors	143(76%)	201(11%)	24(13%)	3.93
12	During the examination period students need to consult their lecturers	113(60%)	30(16%)	44(23%)	3.55
13	I feel confident whenever I sit for my examinations	109(58%)	38(20%)	39(21%)	3.55
14	Academic mentorship is a waste of time	31(17%)	21(11%)	134(72%)	3.98
15	Academic mentors should be available for consultation	152(81%)	16(9%)	19(10%)	4.07
16	Academic mentors should communicate consultation hours to their students	158(84%)	18(10%)	11(12%)	4.2
17	Academic mentorship should be made compulsory for all students	89(48%)	30(16%)	68(36%)	3.25
18	Academic mentorship should be made compulsory for only the students who fail	51(27%)	18(10%)	118(63%)	2.41
19	Academic mentorship can be enhanced by the use technology (e.g., sharing of information through social groups and students portal)	141(75%)	15(8%)	30(16%)	3.97

Seventy nine percent (79%) of the respondents felt that academic mentorship should target all the students and not just the low achievers. A big percentage (92%) of the students were of the opinion that academic mentorship is an important component of university life. According to 81% of the respondents, many university students are in need of academic mentorship. This implies that mentorship should be an important aspect for all students. Equally, a reasonable percentage (86%) of the students were in agreement that academic mentorship can reduce the number of students who fail. This means that if

academic mentorship is strongly embraced the number of students who sit for supplementary examinations every year can reduce significantly.

Ninety percent (90%) of the students agreed that academic mentorship can help them to develop a successful academic plan. This implies that there is much that students may not know about their programmes that can be clarified through academic mentorship.

Students expressed need to be in consultation with academic mentors during (76%) the examination period and as they sit (58%) for the examinations. They need to be reminded about revision strategies, examination taking skills and regulations governing the examination process. On the same note, three quarters (75%) of the students were of the opinion that academic mentorship can be enhanced by the use technology. For example, sharing of information through social groups and students portal. At this age of technology, this is important since one academic mentor can be able to reach as many students as possible.

A high percentage (81%) of the respondents felt that academic mentors should be available for mentorship and also communicate the hours/time (84%) when they are available for consultation.

Seventy two (72%) of the respondents felt that academic mentorship is not a waste of time as compared to 17% who thought that it is a waste of time and 11 % who were undecided. Forty eight (48%) were of the feeling that academic mentorship should be made compulsory for all students while 36% and 16% were of the contrary opinion and undecided respectively. In general it was concluded that students have a positive perception on academic mentorship.

General Priority Areas in Academic Mentorship

The second objective of the survey sought to determine priority areas that academic mentors need to focus on as they offer academic advising to students. The data was analysed and the findings are presented in table 3.

Table 3. Areas of Priority in Academic Mentorship (N=187)

SNo	Area of focus	Frequency	Percentage
	First year orientation	**137**	**73.26%**
	Unit registration	**77**	**41.17%**
	General guidance and counselling sessions	**132**	**70.58%**
	Mentorship during lecture time	**59**	**31.55%**
	Counselling students who fail	**109**	**58.28%**
	Counselling students whose academic performance drop	**113**	**60.48%**
	Counselling students who want to improve their academic performance	**107**	**57.21%**
	Advising students when they want to defer a course	**99**	**52.94%**
	Talking to students when they are not sure about University regulations and policies	**58**	**31.01%**
	Career development after college	**118**	**63.10%**
	Further studies after the first degree	**109**	**58.28%**

Sixty percent (60%) of the students involved in the study felt that academic

advising should be focused on students whose academic performance drop. Seventy three (73%) were of the opinion that mentorship should put more emphasis on student orientation when students report on campus for the first time. This implies that majority of students see orientation as an appropriate time during which a great deal of information concerning their studies can be conveyed band clarified. New students are yet to learn college culture and may be more receptive to information concerning their academic life. As much as first year orientation is focused on general university life, it is a time when a lot of emphasis need to be put on academic related issues.

Sixty three percent (63%) expressed the need for guidance on career development after college. Fifty eight (58%) wanted academic mentorship to be focused on guidance on further studies after the first degree. Two other areas that were ranked relatively highly are improvement on academic performance (57%) and deferment (52%). There has been cases of students who just disappear out of college when they are unable to pay fees or overwhelmed by other problems without proper deferment. Although not all the areas were highly ranked, the information in table 3 can assist academic mentors to decide on what to give priority.

Need for Academic Mentorship

The third objective of the survey sought to determine the need for academic mentorship among students in a number of areas. The data was analysed and the findings are presented in table 4.

Table 4. Students' perception on competences that need upgrading through mentorship

SNo	Statement	HN	MN	LN	NN	Mean
		Freq(%)	Freq(%)	Freq(%)	Freq(%)	
	Academic mentorship	139(74%)	35(18%)	8(4%)	4(2%)	3.66
	Writing skills	43(22%)	69(36%)	42(22%)	32(17%)	2.66
	Oral expression	56(30%)	84(44%)	31(16%)	16(16%)	2.96
	Communication skills	83(44%)	66(35%)	21(11%)	17(10%)	3.15
	Study habits	94(50%)	53(28%)	24(13%)	15(8%)	3.22
	Note taking	67(36%)	63(34%)	30(16%)	26(14%)	2.92
	Examination preparation	103(55%)	61(33%)	15(8%)	8(4%)	3.39
	Test-taking skills	90(48%)	60(32%)	25(13%)	12(6%)	3.22
	Time management	88(47%)	60(32%)	23(12%)	16(9%)	3.18
	Financial management	94(50%)	54(29%)	26(14%)	13(7%)	3.22

	Developing a good study schedule	102(55%)	44(23%)	29(15%)	12(6%)	3.26
	Answering examination questions	90(48%)	62(33%)	19(10%)	16(9%)	3.21
	Organizational skills	79(42%)	62(33%)	35(19%)	11(6%)	3.12
	Awareness of university rules and regulations	60(32%)	75(40%)	31(17%)	21(11%)	2.92
	Maintaining high grades	101(52%)	48(26%)	20(11%)	10(5%)	3.28
	Managing academic workload	97(52%)	58(31%)	20(11%)	10(5%)	3.29
	Setting academic goals	100(52%)	58(31%)	19(10%)	10(5%)	3.33
	Knowledge of programme requirements	70(37%)	79(42%)	25(13%)	13(7%)	3.1
	Setting career goals	98(52%)	61(33%)	18(10%)	10(5%)	3.32
	Social relationships	61(32%)	68(34%)	32(17%)	31(17%)	3.82

The percentage of respondents who felt that there is a high and moderate need for academic mentorship was 74% and 18% respectively. Few students felt that there is low (4%) or no need (2%) for academic mentorship. The mean score of 3.66 on the area on general Academic mentorship shows that students feel that there is need for advising by mentors. This implies that there is need to institutionalize and operationalize the academic mentorship programme.

Most of the areas in which the researchers sought to find out whether students see them as of high priority were confirmed to be so from the average scores that ranged above the mean (between 2.66 and 3.82). The possible range of average scores on the various items was between 1 and 4. The respondents scored above average in all the 20 items. The findings in table 4 can serve as guide on areas that academic mentors can concentrate on.

Students' Rating on Personal Attributes/Skills

The fourth objective tried to establish students' rating on personal attributes/skills. These are competences that students need to possess to be able to excel in their studies. Data from the respondents was analysed and the findings are presented in table 5. **Table 5. Students' Rating on Personal Attributes/Skills (N=103)**

Key: 1 = Low, 2 = Average, 3 = Good, 4 = Very good

SNo	**Statement**	**Rating/percentage**				**Average**
		L	**A**	**G**	**VG**	
		1	2	3	4	
	The expectations you have for yourself and your future	17(9%)	20(11%)	41(22%)	107(58%)	3.29
	Academic performance	14(8%)	45(24%)	76(41%)	50(27%)	2.88
	Articulation of ideas	13(7%)	47(25%)	84(45%)	39(21%)	2.8
	Ability to revise for examinations	16(9%)	29(26%)	76(41%)	44(24%)	2.8

	Preparation for examination	27(14%)	44(24%)	78(42%)	39(19%)	2.66
	Ability to pass examinations	17(19%)	47(25%)	77(41%)	44(24%)	2.8
	Answering examination questions	15(8%)	35(19%)	81(44%)	54(29%)	2.94
	Self-discipline	12(6%)	25(14%)	64(35%)	84(45%)	3.19
	Setting future goals	10(5%)	26(14%)	75(41%)	74(40%)	3.15
	Self-motivation	12(6%)	32(17%)	70(38%)	71(38%)	3.08
	Ability to solve problems alone	32(17%)	54(29%)	57(31%)	42(23%)	2.59
	Working in groups	25(14%)	57(31%)	53(28%)	50(27%)	2.69
	Organizational skills	19(10%)	66(56%)	58(31%)	42(23%)	2.66
	Time management skills	25(14%)	60(32%)	64(35%)	36(19%)	2.6
	Knowledge of requirements for employment	27(15%)	60(32%)	65(35%)	33(18%)	2.56
	Awareness of the benefits of academic mentorship	31(17%)	52(88%)	52(28%)	50(27%)	2.65
	Understanding of university rules and regulations	21(11%)	47(25%)	54(29%)	63(34%)	2.56
	Awareness of referral services such as counselling and medical services	24(13%)	52(28%)	72(39%)	37(20%)	2.86
	Setting career and life goals	21(11%)	57(23%)	64(35%)	43(23%)	2.66
	Awareness about available educational recourses	35(19%)	48(26%)	56(30%)	46(25%)	2.7
	Decision making skills	20(11%)	41(22%)	76(41%)	48(26%)	2.61
	Understanding of programme requirements	27(15%)	56(30%)	52(28%)	50(27%)	2.82
	Making notes in class	27(15%)	38(21%)	70(38%)	50(27%)	2.68
	Time management	28(15%)	43(23%)	62(33%)	52(28%)	2.75
	Handling academic workload	18(10%)	59(32%)	61(33%)	47(25%)	2.74
	Setting academic goals	21(11%)	47(25%)	73(39%)	44(24%)	2.76
	Test-taking skills	23(12%)	61(33%)	66(36%)	35(19%)	2.71
	Oral expression	24(13%)	51(28%)	68(37%)	42(23%)	2.69
	Study habits	16(9%)	49(26%)	79(43%)	41(22%)	2.78
	Developing a good study schedule	21(11%)	58(31%)	67(36%)	39(21%)	2.67
	Following my study schedule	28(15%)	55(30%)	57(31%)	45(24%)	2.64

Despite the high rating on the need for academic advising in various competences (Table 4), the respondents rated themselves slightly above average (mean 2.78) on the personal attributes measured. The mean rating was between 2.56 and 3.29. They rated themselves as being good (above the mean of 3.00) in only 4 areas, as follows:

Future expectations (3.29)

Self-discipline (3.19)

Setting future goals (3.15)

Self-motivation (3.08)

The respondents rated themselves average (between 2.56 and 2.94) in 27 out of the 31 statements that were meant to elicit responses on how they saw their academic related competences. This was the scenario with a possible mean score of between 1.00 (lowest) and 4.00 (highest). This implies that they felt that there is need to improve and perfect competences related to academic excellence including, organizational skills (2.66), time management skills (2.6), understanding of university rules and regulations (2.56), setting career and life goals (2.76), making notes in class (2.68), test-taking skills (2.71), developing a good study schedule (2.67) among other key competences. This can be possible through a well-coordinated institutionalized academic mentorship programme.

Student academic mentorship need to strongly focus on advising students on how they can improve competences in the areas in table 5. These findings are important in that they can be used to inform the preparation and induction of academic mentors as well as the areas to focus on in Machakos University where the main study was to be conducted and other institutions of higher learning.

Conclusion

Following the findings it was concluded that:

Students have a positive attitude towards academic mentorship. It can therefore be concluded that given an opportunity, many students would be willing the embrace the academic mentorship programme.

Active academic mentorship can go a long way in supplementing the efforts made by chairmen of departments and deans of schools in ensuring that students are up to date with all the information they require to excel academically.

Academic mentorship should take advantage of students' feelings of inadequacy in certain competency areas that are necessary for academic excellence.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the survey, the following recommendations were made:

Schools and departments should take advantage of the positive perception to operationalize and institutionalize academic mentorship.

There is need to encourage students to be consulting widely with their chairmen of departments, deans and academic mentors instead of fellow students who are less knowledgeable on academic matters.

Academic mentorship should be focused on areas that students expressed need for academic advising.

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