



AFRICAN RESEARCH JOURNAL OF EDUCATION AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

VOLUME 4, 2017



ANTHONY, MW
Editor-in-Chief

Publisher

Kenya Projects Organization

St. Marks Academy School Administration Block

P.O Box 15509 – 00503, Mbagathi – Nairobi, KENYA

Email: kenpropublications@gmail.com | Website: www.kenpro.org**Journal Contacts****Mobile:** +254725 788 400**E-mail:** editor@arjess.org**Website URL:** www.arjess.org**Editorial****Editor-in-Chief:** Anthony MW (MSc, PGDE, DPM)**Assistant Editor:** Karen Afandi (BSc., PGDRM)**Designer**

Samson Epuat

Contributors

Ann Kiriru,

Charles Zakayo,

Joyce K. Nyabuti,

Eleen Yatich,

Innocent Sanga,

Joel Peter Ogutu,

Joy Kelemba,

Joyce Pere,

Lucy Ghati,

Meremiya Hussein,

Ronald Chepkilot



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 4.0 International License

Disclaimer: *Articles on African Research Journal of Education and Social Sciences have been previewed and authenticated by the Authors before sending the publication. The Journal, Editor and the editorial board are not entitled or liable to either justify or responsible for inaccurate and misleading data if any. It is the sole responsibility of the Author concerned.*

EDITORIAL NOTE

I am pleased to point out the year 2017 was a fulfilling one based on the high number of quality papers submitted. All the received papers were published in the Journal's Volume 4 within the stipulated timeline. Thanks to the tireless effort of a well-coordinated team of reviewers and editors!

The African Research Journal of Education and Social Sciences, with an internationally acclaimed editorial team regularly publishes peer-reviewed content in all formats of reporting covering major specializations of Education and Social Sciences. The Journal, in association with reputed Universities, scientific societies and organizations, publishes peer-reviewed papers online. Consequently, the journal publications appear in several indexing databases and are very popular among academicians, researchers and students. ARJESS greatest strength lies in the gold open access mode of publishing, enabling the content to be accessible to the world's remotest corners free of charge.

This volume looks into the following education issues: education as a tool for liberation in the context Tanzania's educational philosophy, barriers to girls' participation in free day secondary education in Kenya. Social issues such as drug abuse and other key issues present in the society.

As the Editor in-Chief, I am grateful to all contributors, reviewers and editorial team members. We at ARJESS look forward to receiving more contribution from authors in the forthcoming issues. We are committed to bridging knowledge in the fields of Education and Social Sciences in Africa's context!

Anthony, MW
Editor-in-Chief
African Research Journal of Education and Social Sciences

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Education as a Tool for Liberation: Seeking Nyerere’s Understanding	1
Barriers to Girls’ Participation in Free Day Secondary Education in Kenya	8
Effects of Online Learning on Students with Disabilities in Public Universities in Kenya	16
Influence of Parental Communication on Pre-school Children’s Socio-emotional Development in Ngong Ward in Kenya.....	25
Challenges Hindering Effective Reduction of Drug Abuse among Undergraduate Students in Public Universities in Kenya	34
Socio-Economic Factors Influencing Community Participation in the Redevelopment Planning of Nairobi: A Case of Muthurwa and Kaloleni Estates.....	46
Investigating the Challenges of Student Centered Learning in Higher Education Institutions in Eritrea	55
Health and Social-economic Effects of Alcohol Abuse in Kenya’s Context	68
Influence of Teamwork Practices on Employee Performance in Public Service in Kenya	74
Influence of Organizational Culture on the Employee Performance in the Civil Service in Kenya	83

Education as a Tool for Liberation: Seeking Nyerere's Understanding

Author: Innocent Sanga
The Catholic University of Eastern Africa,
Department of Philosophy & Religious Studies,
P.O. Box 62157 – 00200, Nairobi – Kenya.
Email: innocentsanga@yahoo.com

Abstract

Nyerere understood education as a tool for liberating both an individual and the society; a tool which should liberate an individual socially, economically, psychologically, culturally, physically, intellectually and spiritually. Further, education should add value to learners through effective transformation that lead to the growth of society and development of a nation. The main purpose of this paper was to examine the concept of Education as a Tool for Liberation in Nyerere's understanding. The paper presents a theoretical framework based on Dewey, upon whom Nyerere's concept of education for liberation could have taken roots from. Dewey viewed education as a problem-solving process which should liberate not only an individual but also a society. For him, a genuinely liberated society could be more splendidly achieved through education which must change as per the changing needs and prerequisites of the evolving society. The paper also covers various elements of education as a liberating tool. Nyerere brought out various liberating elements of education including psycho-physical elements, mental-moral elements, socio-political elements and economic elements of education. Given Nyerere's understanding of education, this paper is expected to provide a more realistic view of education as a liberating tool that should be used to address various contemporary societal issues.

Keywords: *Education for liberation, Education as a tool, Liberating education, Nyerere's education understanding, Liberating elements of education*



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

1. Introduction

In his speeches, Nyerere did not separate an individual and society. He understood education as a tool for liberating an individual and society, since an individual is the member of the society. Thus, when an individual is liberated, the society too automatically enjoys that liberation. Consequently, this education would liberate an individual socially, economically,

psychologically, culturally, physically, intellectually and spiritually (Hinzen & Hundsdorfer, 1982). This could create a self-reliant person in the society (a creator not a creature), because this system of education is set up in such a way that upon completion, graduates are able to create their own employment in their respective societies (Nyerere, 1967). Moreover, education liberates an individual and society from the chains of colonialism, neo-colonialism, imperialism and all forms of exploitation.

Nyerere's understanding of liberation retains a specific concern with self-reliance, both collectively and individually. He maintains that a truly liberated individual is a self-reliant person, free from economic and cultural dependence (Gerard, 1993). Education is essential for every person in a society. When a person gets through education and is able to apply the knowledge in solving challenges facing the society, then this person is free from community forces including; culture, ignorance, poverty and parochial ways of doing things. This paper examines the concept of education as a tool for liberation basing on Nyerere's understanding. It highlights the theoretical framework based on Dewey's understanding of education and as well presents various elements of education as a liberating tool.

2. Theoretical Framework

Julius Kambarage Nyerere's rationality of education is a standout amongst the most persuasive and broadly examined hypotheses of training. Nyerere's concept of education for liberation appear to have taken roots from philosophers and educationalists like John Dewey (1859-1952) from America, and who is accepted to be the most critical educational scholar of the 20th century (Devendorf, 2012). Dewey was the founder of the philosophical development known as pragmatism, a pioneer in functional psychology, and a pioneer of the dynamic development in education in the United States (Alphonse, 2005).

Dewey propagated the theory of inquiry which holds that education is a problem-solving process and we learn by doing and by having an opportunity to react in real life situation; it should bring about equality, liberty and fraternity (Alphonse, 2005). The education framework which Dewey promoted ought to teach democratic values such as liberation, equality, sharing among others. Dewey thought that school should reflect the community so that when children graduate from school they will be well adjusted to assume their place in society. He trusted that a genuinely liberated society could be more splendidly achieved through education which must change as per the changing needs and prerequisites of the evolving society (Devendorf, 2012).

In Nyerere's argument on allegory of the mountain, Dewey's concept of education for democracy is considered supportive. In the allegory of the mountain, those who climb the mountain of knowledge to the apex and manage to come back to the valley of challenges become the source of liberating the illiterate societal members towards realization of their political, social, economic, psychological, health and other related problems (David, 2014). Therefore, liberating education should add value to learners through effective transformation that lead to the growth of society and development of a nation.

3. Liberating Elements of Education

Nyerere brought out various liberating elements of education. These include; psycho-physical elements, mental-moral elements, socio-political elements and economic elements.

3.1 Psycho-physical elements

Education ought to set both the mind and the body of man free from psychological and physical constraints. It should liberate him/her from the chains of ignorance and enable him/her to take control over him/her-self and to enjoy his/her own environment. Nyerere argues that when a man succeed to unite his/her wrists and to liberate his arms, he can therefore liberate his feet from shackles by using his hands. He further emphasizes that a man can be free from restraint physically and still remain in captive if at all his/her mind is limited by attitudes and habits that restricts his/her humanity (Hinzen and Hundsdorfer, 1982).

Nyerere observed that education should liberate man's mind and the body. Education creates awareness among human beings and helps them realize their potential as human beings; enhance relationship with oneself, his/her neighbour and the surrounding. This enables a man to throw off his/her obstructions which restrict his full mental and physical development liberty (Hinzen and Hundsdorfer, 1982). Therefore, education develops human attitudes and skills and it is considered partial if it enlightens a man to find complex schemes for universal peace without teaching him/her how to provide bread for the family.

A human person is a complex being whose physical education needs exercise for his /her well-being (Locke, 1960). This is why physical education is very much emphasized in order to liberate an individual from physical constraints. Similarly, in the area of psychological liberation, the individual learner undergoes guidance and counseling in order to grow psychologically and be free from both internal and external forces that distort thinking. Education is partial and counter-productive if it only teaches man how to efficiently use and make tools but neglects his personality and his relationship with other people (Hinzen and Hundsdorfer, 1982). There is a need for an education system that builds both hard and soft skills.

3.2 Socio-political Aspect

Education should also free a person from social and political limitations according to Nyerere. He/she should be free socially and politically, whatever the case, as he stated, "A man develops himself by joining in free discussion of a new venture, and participating in the subsequent decision; he is not being developed if he is herded like an animal into the new venture". Therefore, education has the responsibility to liberate a person from the constraints, which prevent him/her from socializing with others. Aristotle who rightly held that, man is a political animal, destined by nature for state life, and that as a human being by nature he/she is a social animal who needs to participate in political and social matters in his/her society (Jonathan, 1995). Therefore, education should set man free from the chains which limit him/her to participate in matters of decision making, leadership and participatory democracy in the society

(Hinzen and Hundsdorfer, 1982). Liberating education helps the society to have liberative structures, and consciously participate in its governance.

Learners are expected to acquire the kind of education which will liberate them from the social and political constraints. The argument given by Nyerere above deduces that an educated individual is one who can freely socialize with others and participate in state affairs consciously. Nyerere's social political liberation is backed by many other philosophers especially existentialists like Martin Buber with his 'I-Thou'. Buber (1984) shows how an individual needs others for his/her existence as he says, "through the Thou a man becomes I". Gabriel (1964) with the concept of inter-subjectivity, shows the sense of belonging as he says, "I belong to you, you belong to me, I belong to myself". Scheler (1970) with the concept of friendship says that, "through genuine sympathy people can be together and share the same world". Like these existentialists, Nyerere (1975) has shown the importance of social liberation, therefore, quality education has also to do with sociopolitical stability, which is a delicate issue in Africa today.

3.3 Economic Dependence

A sound education system for liberation should create competent citizens who are capable of eradicating their economic dependency and embracing self-reliance. Education which Nyerere proposes is education which enables people to be free and fully developed. Freedom and development are compatible and to explain this Nyerere gives an analogy that the two are as completely linked together as are chickens and eggs where without one the other can not exist. Nyerere's objective is to have a system of education, which can create a person who is capable of promoting his/her own economy. He asserts that technical and practical education is an education for creators, not for creatures. Thus a school system cannot educate a child in isolation from the social and economic system in which it operates (Hinzen and Hundsdorfer, 1982). Nyerere argues that the only way in which you can influence people to undertake their own development is through education and leadership. Thus he stated that Tanzanian education should be set as a tool for economic liberation. Similarly, education will show its true meaning and significance if it enables the poor, the illiterate, the marginalized and the oppressed to overcome their problem and attain freedom that is the basis of authentic human development (Gerard, 1993). When the nation makes economic plans, it should not forget that education and economies are two things which go together; education plays a greater role in economic liberation (Thompson, 1990).

3.4 Mental and Moral Aspects

Education should liberate an individual both mentally and morally; mental liberation will enable an individual to be creative and competent in making use of his/her own natural resources for the development of himself/herself and the society in general (Gerard, 1993). For Nyerere a man will work with others to use whatever resources are at hand which may be his/her own knowledge, the knowledge of others, the land, the water, or simply his/her own sweat. Thus, by this kind of self-reliant struggle, a man will be further liberating himself, because by fighting the things, which humiliate humanity, he will be increasing humanity (Eleishi, Lema, Mbilinyi, Marjorie, Rajani & Rakesh, 2004). Therefore, mental liberation will make members of the

society to be creators rather than skillful users of tools, and to be self-confident and self-reliant rather than marketable commodities (Gerard, 1993).

Moral liberation will enable the individual to value and use properly what he/she has discovered or created by his/her intelligence. For example; an individual with creativity can come up with scientific discoveries; if he/she is not morally liberated, he/she will abuse this discoveries by degrading humanity. According to Nyerere (1975), a good quality education is that which brings an integral liberation of an individual including mental and moral liberation. He held that ethics are important in schools.

4. Features of a Liberated Person

Nyerere tried to show the difference between a liberated and unliberated person by using two different Swahili words; “Msomi” (A person whom education has not transformed) and “Aliyeelimika” (A person whom the education has transformed). According to Nyerere, the former is a person who has lead through books and is “a learned friend” as lawyers say but the latter is a person who has fully integrated and applies in life what he/she has studied. This implies the liberated person is able to appropriately use the knowledge acquired to his/her own situation.

The target of educational system is to set free individuals into skillful users of tools and make them creators not creatures (Hinzen and Hundsdorfer, 1982). For this target to be successful, there must be a sound and authentic system of education; well-planned curriculum and education content. This type of education can be measured or seen in the features of a liberated person. These features are briefly highlighted as follows:

First, a liberated person is one who becomes an active member of the society; he/she gives contribution to it, and is aware that it is the society, which has educated him (Nyerere, 1969). Similarly, a liberated individual will see the moral necessity of putting the wisdom of his knowledge into use for the common good of the society.

Second, an educated person should be able to fit into the communities from which he/she comes from (Nyerere, 1969). At this point, this educated person will be of importance in solving the challenges facing the community and building the societal capacities by bridging the gaps for society’s need.

Third, a liberated individual is one who uses his/her education properly for the benefit of the society not as a tool for its exploitation (Hinzen and Hundsdorfer, 1982).

Forth, a liberated individual is a self-reliant person who can be creative and productive in the society, for the sake of his/her own community. On the other hand, unliberated individual will spend his/her life sucking the community to the maximum and contributing the minimum (Hinzen and Hundsdorfer, 1982).

Fifth, a liberated person is one who integrates himself/herself with the masses, does not isolate from the community, and tries his/her level best to counteract the temptation of intellectual arrogance.

Sixth, a liberated person fosters the social goals of living together, working together and having a sense of commitment to the total community, that is, all of us have a need to belong but not all of us will have an identical concept of community.

Seventh, a liberated individual is one who has an inquiring mind; who is able to learn from what others do, and reject or adapt it to his/her own needs; and have a self-confidence, value others, and is valued by them for what he/she does but not what he/she obtains (Nyerere, 1969).

Eighth, a liberated person recognizes that his/her task is not yet ended, as Nyerere used the maxim. For he will reject disease, poverty and ignorance similarly as he rejects slavery, knowing that these are effective in destroying the humanity of man as an overseer.

Ninth, a liberated person is a creative person whose education has made him/her an integrated person, and has received a holistic formation. These make him/her to be transformed in character, hence, making him/her come out strongly and liberate the society with that knowledge and the skills he/she has acquired from that education.

Without these features, one cannot be said to have education that liberates; education that sets one free and the very society he/she lives. Thus, education for liberation should be understood as an an integral education which is holistic.

5. Conclusion

Having undertaken a diligent review of education as a tool for liberation, it clearly comes out that quality education can liberate an individual and therefore, a society. Nyerere's proposals for educational system in Tanzania and Africa puts forward invaluable need for clear vision of society in terms of what it ought to be. Nyerere asserted that since an individual is a product of the society, then when he/she is liberated, he/she should share the liberation with his or her society. Similarly, education should also develop the subjectivity; uniqueness of each individual. This subjectivity or 'self' should be the one that thinks, decides and acts. This, in turn, should ensure that educational products are creators and not submerged creatures. Education then becomes a tool for liberating, not only an individual but also the society at large.

References

- Alphonse, F. (2005). *A new perspective on education: A Comparative study of John Dewey and Paulo Freire*. Retrieved from <http://snphilosophers2005.tripod.com/alphonse.pdf>.
- Barnes, J. (1995). *The Cambridge companion to Aristotle*, p. 239. New York: University Press.

Buber, M. (1984). *I and Thou*. Translated by Ronald Gregor Smith. Ednburgh: T&T Clark Ltd.

David, M. (2014). *Mwalimu Julius Nyerere remembered*. Retrieved from <http://www.sardc.net/en/mwalimu-julius-kambarage-nyerere-remembered-a-candle-on-kilimanjaro-by-david-martin/>.

Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and Education*. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Devendorf, S. (2012). *John Dewey: A Pioneer in Educational Philosophy*. Retrieved from <http://www.oswego.edu/~waite/JohnDeweyV2ByDevendorf.doc>.

Hinzen, H. & Hundsdorfer, V. (1982). *Education for liberation and development: The Tanzania experience*. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0003/000372/037278eo.pdf>.

Gabriel, M. (1964). *Creativity fidelity*. Translated by Robert Rosthal. New York: Farrar, Straus and Company.

Gerard, B. (1993). *Ethics, education and development: An Introductory Text for Students in African Colleges and Universities*. Dar es Salaam: East Africa Publishers.

Hinzen, H. & Hundsdorfer, V. (1982). *Education for Liberation and Development: The Tanzania Experience*. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0003/000372/037278eo.pdf>.

Locke, J. (1960). *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding*, pp. 140-147; edited by A.S. Pringle-Pattison. London: Oxford University Press

Nyerere, J. (1975). *Some aspects of liberation: Speech given by Julius Nyerere*. Dar es Salaam: Tanganyika Library Service.

Nyerere K. (1969). *Ujamaa-Essay on Socialism*. London: Oxford Printing Press.

Sambuli, R. (2000). *The Heartbeat of Indigenous Africa: A Study of the Chaga Educational System*. New York: Garland Publishing.

Scheler, M. (1970). *The Nature of sympathy*. London: Archon Books Press.

Sifuna, D. (2006). *An Introductory history of education*. Nairobi: Nairobi University Press.

Barriers to Girls' Participation in Free Day Secondary Education in Kenya

Authors: Eleen Yatich¹ and Joyce Pere²

¹ a lecturer at Kisii University Campus in Kenya.

² The Catholic University of Eastern Africa, P.O. Box 62157 – 00200, Nairobi
Email of the corresponding author: eleenchesaro@yahoo.com

Abstract

While the Kenyan government made secondary education free for day scholars since 2008, most girls do not participate in Free Day Secondary Education (FDSE) due to various barriers. This study sought to examine the barriers to girls' participation in Free Day Secondary Education (FDSE) in Baringo Central Sub County, Kenya. The study adopted a cross-sectional survey research design. The sample included a hundred and thirty seven (137) respondents (including principals, teachers and students) who were selected from ten (10) day secondary schools in Baringo Central Sub County. Questionnaire was the main data collection instrument which was used. Quantitative data were analyzed with the help of a statistical application, namely SPSS. The results were reported using frequencies and percentages. The study revealed that girls' participation in FDSE was low owing to various barriers including school related barriers, home related barriers, cultural, personal and environmental related barriers. The study concluded that while school, home, cultural, personal and environmental related barriers to education contributed to girls' participation in free secondary education, there were other underlying barriers that included poor girl child education policy implementation framework. The findings of this study provide information to all stakeholders in the education sector that could be useful in ensuring success of the free day secondary education program. The government, through the Ministry of Education, could use the study results to examine and therefore address the issue of girl child access to secondary education.

Keywords: *Free day secondary education, Girl child education barriers, Girl child schooling, school access barriers, home school barriers, cultural school barriers, personal school barriers, environmental school barriers.*



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.

1. Introduction

Despite the fact that the gender gap has lessened significantly over the last 15 years in most countries of the world, particularly with the high priorities placed on girls' education, the girl child enrollment at secondary education level in developing countries has remained low. The problems affecting the girl child's participation in education include but not limited to child labor, poverty, lack of sponsorship, quest for wealth, truancy, family conflicts and children engagement as house helps (World Bank, 2008). In their study, Simatwa and Dawa (2010) found that a permissive environment coupled with poor role models inculcate a negative attitude towards education for the girl child. A study conducted by Chimombo (2009) revealed that low income for parents and lack of role models for girls to emulate cause girls to drop out of school. Studies on access and retention in primary and lower secondary education in Ghana show that although the FCUBE made an overall enrollments increase, children from poor households continue to be underrepresented in enrollments (Akyeampong, 2009; Rolleston, 2009). Akyeampong (2009) and Rolleston (2009) made it explicit that not only indirect costs hinder access by the poor but also opportunity costs substantially affect the chances of poor children to enroll in and complete basic education. In Argentina, access, retention and transition equally faces a myriad of challenges as indicated by Otega (2012) in his study based on addressing social gaps in society through education. He observed that personal challenges experienced by individual learner, particularly girls from low social family background were to blame for failure to obtain substantial education, since retention rate was low.

The initial goal of Free Day Secondary Education (FDSE) was to allow students who had no chance to access education to attend school in order to contribute to the development of the country and to fulfill and reaffirm the vision of the world declaration on Education for All (Jomptien, 1990). In Pakistan, Balochain Education Fund, provided fees to students who were unable to pay fees in the slums, those from urban and able families would subsidize the cost of girl's education channeled directly to schools. This led to an increase in enrollment by 33% of girls. The free education in Britain is financed up to secondary level, parents only ensure that their children attend school and the government is responsible to avail education facilities (Moon and Mayes, 1994). According to UNESCO (2003) there are situations in countries of Europe and Asia where textbooks present different gender roles of women, predominantly undertaking domestic activities at home. For example, in Romania text books depict women as school villagers, fruit or flower sellers, whereas men are viewed as astronauts, policemen, physicians, actors, conductors and masons. These have greatly affected the girls' participation in school. In Canada, the government provides fees for those students who are not able to pay fees, which is an integral part of education system. This is done to ensure that the child is not denied participation in education.

The universal right to education has been affirmed by the world's governments for more than 50 years, most recently by the Millennium Development Goals adopted by the 191 member states of the United Nations in 2000. However, some 115 million children among them 62 million girls are still denied an opportunity to participate in education. In Uganda, free education was introduced in 2006 by the government aiming to increase the number of students enrolling in

secondary education level (UNESO, 2007). According to a study conducted by Bilkisu (2012) on education in northern Nigeria, the national summary statistics recorded girls' enrollment rate as low as 22% which was caused by parents' unwillingness to send their daughters to school due to gender discrimination in the family. In Mogadishu, local non-governmental organizations engage in educating girls and more so those who have come from poor family backgrounds and those unable to pay school fees and through such efforts, 40% increase in girls' enrollment in secondary schools has been realized (Mogadishu Times, 2010).

According to Graham, (2002) the enrollment figures in secondary school for girls in Zimbabwe have continued to decline in relation to that of boys. For example, in 1987, Matabeland South, had 45.5% girls in form one compared to the national average of 43.6%, but by form four, they were 36.6% against the national average of 38.9%. African Child Policy Forum (2006) found that majority of gender based violence within schools in Africa is perpetuated by male peers and male teachers are also responsible. Donkey Project for fetching water in Eritrea was introduced to help girls minimize their energy and time wasted for their education (World Bank, 2008).

The Constitution of Kenya (2010), chapters 4 article 53, states that every child has a right to free and compulsory education. It also forbids discrimination by religion, race, ethnicity and sex in all areas; education being inclusive. The government of Kenya has placed a lot of emphasis on education as a way of empowering citizens economically, socially and as a tool for national development. A report by Koech (1999) reveals that there are persistent constraints that hinder girls from effective participation in education in Kenya. Jacky (2011) observes that girls face a lot of challenges while in institution of learning and are readily frustrated when they experience financial difficulties and consequently drop out of school. She believes that, due to the unique financial needs of girls, society should be ready to spend much more to keep them in schools, she cited that lack of funds and preference of boys' education has contributed to low enrollment of girls in schools. Ohba (2009) found that cultural activities are among the problems affecting the girl child's school enrollment and participation in arid and semi-arid land (ASAL) areas. Aosa (2012) notes that, in communities where social-cultural ties were still strong, women were continuing to face discrimination such that they were often viewed as for marriage in their tender ages a factor that put to focus their low access to higher levels of learning in most public institution. Despite the introduction of FDSE in 2008 by the government of Kenya, the girl child's participation in secondary education continues to be limited. Thus, the study sought to examine barriers affecting girl child participation in Free Day Secondary School Education in Baringo Central Sub County, Kenya.

2. Methodology

The study employed a cross-sectional survey design that adopted a quantitative method. This design was suitable because it is useful in describing the characteristics of a large population; it makes use of large samples, thus making the results statistically significant even when analyzing multiple variables. The study targeted ten (10) mixed public day secondary schools in Baringo Central Sub County and consisted of a sample of ten (10) Principals, ten (10) teachers and a hundred and seventeen (117) students. The sample for the study was selected using non-

probability and probability sampling procedures. These procedures included purposive sampling for principals and teachers and systematic sampling for students. The instruments used for this study were questionnaires. These included questionnaires for principals, teachers and students. To ensure validity of the instruments, the researcher sought expert evaluation from the Faculty of Education, Research and Evaluation Department at Catholic University of East Africa. Split Half method was used to estimate reliability of instruments where a value of 0.85 was obtained, thus making the instruments to be considered as reliable. Data were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The processed quantitative data were reported using frequencies and percentages and summarized using tables.

3. Results

3.1 Demographic Characteristics of the respondents

The demographic characteristics of the teachers included sex, age bracket, duration spent in present school and their academic qualifications where 90% of the respondents were male and only 10% were female. Three quarters (75%) were between ages 36-45 years, slightly less than a quarter (20%) were over 45 years and only 5% were below 35 years. Basing on duration spent in the present school, nearly two thirds (65%) of the respondents had spent more than 4 years, 20% had spent 2-4 years and 15% had spent less than 2 years. On top academic qualifications attained by the respondents, those at masters and bachelors level accounted 40% each while other qualifications accounted 20%. The sex of students' respondents in the study consisted of 58% girls and 42% boys.

3.2 Barriers Influencing Girl Child Participation in FDSE in Baringo

3.2.1 School Related Barriers in FDSE

The study sought to establish the views on various school related barriers that could affect girls' participation in FDSE. The participants were asked to indicate whether books, sanitary facilities and lack of mentorship programs affected their participation.

Table 1

School barriers to girls' participation in secondary education

Item	SA	A	D	SD
Books are not enough	50%	17.4%	6.7%	3.9%
Sanitary facilities not available	68.1%	8.4%	8.7%	14.9%
Mentorship programmes not available	20.5%	23.2%	5.3%	51%

Key: SA-Strongly Agree, A-Agree, D-Disagree, U-Undecided, SD-Strongly Disagree; n=137

Slightly more than two thirds (67.4%) of the respondents indicated books were not enough. In regards to the availability of sanitary facilities, 76.5% indicated that these facilities were not

available in schools. With reference to mentorship programs, slightly over half (51%) of the respondents indicated the programs were not available.

3.2.2 Home Related Barriers

The study aimed to find out how home related barriers influence girl child participation in FDSE in Baringo. The participants were asked to indicate their extent of agreement on whether parents absent girls from school, parents prefer educating boy than girls and girls attend home activities before reporting to school.

Table 2

Home related barriers affecting girl child participation in day education

Item	SA	A	D	U	SD
Parents absent girls from school	67.7%	21.3%	3.9%	1.6%	9.4%
Parents prefer educating boys	17.3%	14.2%	20.5%	3.1%	46.5%
Girls attend home activities	52.7%	20.7%	8.4%	1.7%	16.5%

Key: SA-Strongly Agree, A-Agree, D-Disagree, U-Undecided, SD-Strongly Disagree; n=137

Slightly more than two thirds (67.7%) of the respondents strongly agreed that parents absent girls from school. With reference to parents prefer educating boys than girls, nearly half (46.5%) strongly disagreed with this statement. Slightly more than half (57.4%) agreed with regard to girls attend home activities before going to school.

3.2.3 Cultural Barriers

The study also sought to investigate the views of respondents on cultural barriers. They were to rank the extent to which early marriages influence girl child participation in FDSE. In regard to influence of early marriage on girl child participation in FDSE in Baringo, slightly more than half (54.1%) indicated that it affect their participation but 30.4% indicated it does not.

3.2.4 Personal Barriers

The study further sought to establish out personal barriers that influence girl child participation in FDSE in Baringo. The responses were based on the extent to which the respondent agree with the statements that early pregnancy and lack of role model influence girl child participation in FDSE. Slightly more than half (55.2%) positively concurred while 23.2% strongly disagreed that early pregnancy among secondary school going children influence their participation in FDSE. Over two thirds (68%) of the respondents indicated that lack of role models influence girl child participation in FDSE.

3.2.5 Environmental Barriers

In order to find out on whether environmental barriers affect girl child participation in FDSE, The participants were to indicate if the distance to school was long or not. More than three

quarters of the respondents (85%) indicated distance to school was long while only 15% indicated it was not.

4. Discussion

The findings of the study showed that more than two thirds of the respondents indicated there were no adequate resources in schools. 67.4% indicated books were not enough and 76.5% indicated sanitary facilities were not available. This concurs with an earlier study conducted by Akyeampong (2009) and Rolleston (2009) made it explicit that not only indirect costs hinder access of the poor but also opportunity costs substantially affect the chances of poor children to enroll in and complete FDSE education. A study of access patterns in Malawi also concludes that access to education in the country continues to reflect household wealth (Chimombo, 2009). Thus, despite direct fees being abolished, these studies clarify that the abolition of fees has not been enough to ensure access to education for the poor. He established that more funding allocated to rural day secondary schools to boost resources also curtail drop outs, as well as assisting in the completion of outstanding infrastructure like libraries and laboratories. Majority of the school principals (80%) in the study indicated that there are inadequate spaces in class rooms. This observation agreed with a study conducted by Chabari (2010) which found that the major challenge faced in FDSE is overcrowding in classrooms. However, not in all representative schools were the physical resources inadequate.

According to the study findings, home related barriers affected girl child participation in FDSE in Baringo. Nearly three quarters (73.4%) of the respondents indicated girls attend to home activities even before they report to school. Most parents do not prefer sending their daughters to school in fear of losing support at home. Another study by World Bank (2008) asserted that the main challenge facing girls is that of being given most of the household work than boys. In addition, a study by Scharff (2007) revealed that girls are expected to help their mothers with household work before going to school. However, two thirds of the participants (67%) disagreed that parents prefer educating a boy child than a girl child in Baringo. This contradicted with a study conducted by Jacky (2011) who found that due to lack of funds, parents prefer educating boys than girls. According to Lloyd and Brandon (1992), more siblings in families affect girls' participation in school. They added that in such cases, families' first priority is given to boys' education, while girls are involved in home chores. This could be attributed to variation of socio-economic status among community members in Baringo. The low income levels among most families in Baringo discourage parents from taking their children to school as well as settling home chores without involvement of their children.

The findings of the study showed early marriage influence girl child participation in FDSE in Baringo. This coincide with a study done by Ohba (2009) which asserted that girls in Samburu are allowed to attend school and are withdrawn out of school before completing their studies. This is done by their fathers who do not want to waste their resources in educating a girl child who will eventually be given out for marriage. Another study done by Mwambui (2005) revealed that in Giriama girls are married while they are still young and that there are wide spread beliefs that women's place is in the kitchen. Another study by Ohba (2009) showed that cultural activities are among the problems affecting the girl child's schooling in ASAL areas.

According to Chege and Sifuna (2006) in their study on girls and women's education in Kenya, girls are viewed as an important source of income for their families in terms of bride price and household production. However, 30% of the respondents indicated that early marriage does not influence girl child participation in FDSE. This is an indication that cases of early marriage in Baringo are sporadic.

The study found that over a two third of the participants (68%) indicated that lack of role model among girls influenced their participation in FDSE. This concurs with a revelation of a study conducted by Chimombo (2009) that indicated lack of role models for girls to emulate led girls to drop out of school. Slightly more than a half (55.2%) of the respondents' views showed that early pregnancies among secondary school going girls in Baringo remains a cause to school dropout among girls. This corresponds to a study carried out by Molosiwa and Moswela (2012) which indicated that early pregnancy among school going girls is an international crisis that influence the social economic wellbeing of societies and families as it remains a cause of female students' dropout from school. Another study done by Musonga (2014) found that nearly a half of the girls who enroll in form one in Bungoma County, Kenya, drop out before they complete secondary school education due to unwanted pregnancies. These implied that there are underlying factors that predispose school going girls to early pregnancy.

A big proportion of the study respondents indicated that environmental barriers influence girl child participation in FDSE. More than three quarters (85%) of teachers indicated long distance from home to school discourage girls' participation in FDSE in Baringo. The finding match with a study done by Chacha, 2012 on parameters as access, transitions and retention of girls across educational levels in Gwasi noted that personal characteristics, family networks, households chores, long walk to school hinders girls from exercising their full participation in school also negate the call for retention of girls through levels of learning. However, some of the students who were adjacent to schools in Baringo did not participate in FDSE.

5. Conclusion

Lack of girls' participation in Free Day Secondary Education in marginalized areas cannot be attributed only to school, home, cultural and environmental barriers but also to lack of sound policy provisions and implementation framework. This study has implications in terms of informing gender mainstreaming policy provisions in education.

References

- Akyeampong, K. (2009). Revisiting free compulsory universal basic education (FCUBE) in Ghana. *Comparative Education* 45 (2), 2009.
- Aosa, J. (2012). *The place of the Girl Child in African Social Studying: Girls for Marriage in Society*. A Workshop Paper on Gender Issues on Development in Nakuru, Kenya.

- Chabari, B. (2010). *Challenges facing effective implementation of free secondary education in public secondary schools in Kangundo*. Thika: Mount Kenya University Press.
- Chimombo, J. (2009). *Changing patterns of access to basic education in Malawi. A story of a mixed bag comparative education*. Brighton: University of Sussex.
- Creswell, J. & Plano L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed method research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- De Jaeghere, J. (2004). *Quality education and gender equality*. Geneva: UNICEF.
- Jacky, D. (2011). *Focusing on Enhancing Retention in Learning Institution: Over Coming Challenges for Academic Success for all*. Dar es Salaam: Homming Publication.
- Moon, B. & Mayes, A. (1994). *Teaching and learning in secondary school*. London: Routledge.
- Musonga, P. (2014). *Factors Influencing Girl Child Dropout Rate in mixed secondary schools in Kenya: a case of Bumula Sub County*. Nairobi: Nairobi University Press.
- Ohba, A. (2009). Does free secondary education enable the poor to gain access? A study from rural Kenya, *Pathways to Access, Research Monograph 21*, 25-35.
- Orodho, J. A. (2004). *Financing basic education: What are the equity and the quality Implications of FPE and FSDE policies in Kenya? An international journal of development research vol. 4, Issue, 3, pages 477-487*.
- Otega, H. (2012). *Addressing Social Gaps Society through Education*. A paper presented in gender and social workshops in Ugilo Argentina.
- Rolleston, C. (2009). Human Capital, Poverty, Educational Access and Exclusion: The Case of Ghana 1991-2006. *CREATE Pathways to Access Research Monograph No. 22*. London: Institute of Education.
- Scharff, X. (2007). *Primary school is not enough: Proposal for safe and affordable secondary education for girls in Malawi*. Washington: World Bank.
- UNESCO (2008). *The road to 2015, reading the education goal*. Annual report 2008. Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO (2003). *EFA information kit, educating women and girls*. Paris: UNESCO.
- World Bank, (2008). Transition in secondary education in sub-Saharan Africa: Equity and efficiency issues. *World Bank Working Paper, 123*.
-

Effects of Online Learning on Students with Disabilities in Public Universities in Kenya

Author: Joel Peter Ogutu,

Department of Educational Psychology,
Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology,
P.O. Box 190 – 50100 Kakamega – KENYA
Author E-mail: joelogutu@yahoo.com

Abstract:

Online teaching and learning pedagogy creates a community of inquiry where participants interact to jointly construct knowledge. Special education policies and practices that ensure students with disabilities receive a free, appropriate public education in the least restrictive environment are coming under pressure from the rapid expansion of online learning. Study findings demonstrated an increase in the number of Universities providing online instruction with limited anticipated barriers to students with disabilities participating in online learning. As a result, students bring to their university education a wide range of perceptions, attitudes, and prior experiences that may affect their learning outcomes. The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of online learning on students with disabilities in Kenyan public Universities. The objectives of this study were: to determine the effects of online learning model on students with disabilities and to establish strategies that have been put in place to support online learning for students with disabilities in universities. This study employed descriptive survey design. The sample size was made of 150 students sampled from four universities campuses in Kakamega town, Kenya. Stratified sampling, simple random sampling and purposive sampling were employed in the study to sample the participants of the study. A self-report questionnaire was used for data collection. Pilot testing of the instrument was done by administering the questionnaires to 10% of the total sample size. Validity of the research instrument was determined through content validity while reliability was measured by use of Cronbach's alpha. A score of 0.729 was attained thereby qualifying the research instrument as acceptable and reliable. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. Processed data were presented using frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviations; and summarized in Tables. The study established that online learning model is effective in relation to student to student interactions but denies them opportunity to interact with lecturers frequently. The model enable students to accomplish tasks conveniently, though is inflexible and prone to internet connectivity failures. The study recommends that university management should direct adequate resource to develop online learning technology that is adaptive to needs of all students particularly those with disabilities.

Keywords: *Students with disability, education policies, online learning, Special education, e-learning*

1. Introduction

Education of special needs learners in the society is a global issue. In recent years efforts have been put in many countries to ensure that the right to educational opportunity and rehabilitation is extended to all members of the community (UNESCO, 2005). The current strategies and programmes have not been sufficient to meet the needs of learners who are vulnerable to marginalization. Previous studies on effective strategies in special needs education have established that, inclusive education teaching strategies can be modified to meet the learning needs of those with learning difficulties (Davis & Florian, 2004; Lewis & Norwich, 2005). Online teaching and learning classes' strategy creates a community of inquiry where participants interact to jointly construct knowledge (Borstorff & Lowe 2007). The social stratification theory by Rumberger (2004) focuses on school characteristics, policies and practices. Rumberger argues that structural features of school such as the size, the resources available to the school and access to high quality teachers may influence academic performance among learners. Universities being learning institutions have also embraced inclusive education as was presented in the Salamanca Statement which contained the principle of equal access for all students in mainstream classrooms, and the demand for necessary accommodations and support for meeting the diverse needs of all children (UNESCO, 1994). According to a Commonwealth guide to implementing article 24 of the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, inclusion in education is a process of enabling all learners to attain education and participate effectively within conventional school systems, without segregation. It is about shifting the focus from altering disabled people to fit into society, to transforming society and the world; by changing attitudes, removing barriers and providing the right support. The UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities requires the development of an inclusive education system for all (UNESCO, 2005). Booth (2005) asserts that the key principles of inclusion are; access, quality, equity, social justice, democratic values, participation, balance between community, compassion and respect for diversity. Today, Universities are providing online learning instructions with limited anticipated barriers to students with disabilities which is a form of inclusive education.

Centre for studies on inclusive education (CSIE, 2002) reported that inclusion focuses on the reconstruction of curricular provision to remove barriers to learning and participation. Learners with difficulties have unique needs and it is vital that their individual strengths and weaknesses are realized. However Mukuria and Korir (2007); and Kiptarus (2005) state that the Individual Education Plan (IEP) and systems of services to provide for the learner's needs are not obvious in Kenya. Without an IEP, the unique special need for the learner will not be made transparent. Philosophical notion of inclusion holds the view that interaction between the learner and his or her socio-ecological environment facilitates or hinders his or her educational development (Peters, 2007).

In Kenya, Persons with Disabilities Act of 2003 aims to ensure that persons with disability issues and concerns are mainstreamed. The Act also provides that no person or learning institution shall deny admission to a person with a disability to any course of study by reason only of such disability, if the person has the ability to acquire substantial learning in that course.

Since Kenya embraced the Persons with Disabilities Kenyan Act of 2003 it has since attempted to adopt inclusive learning practices (Ministry of Education, 2008). Thus, this study attempted to examine the effects of online learning strategies on persons with disabilities with reference to selected universities in Kenya.

2. Methodology

The study adopted a descriptive survey design. According to Creswell (2009), descriptive survey design provides a qualitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a study population through a sample population, which was essential for achievement of this study. In addition, this design was selected due to its suitability as it is commonly used in preliminary and exploratory studies (Kothari, 2010). The design also allowed the researcher to collect data, summarize, present and interpret it for the purpose of making concrete generalizations and suggestions for further research.

The target population consisted of 1200 students with disabilities in four university campuses in Kakamega town. According to Kerlinger (2004) an ideal sample should be between 10% and 30% of the target population depending on the purpose of data to be gathered and analyzed. The study used a sample of 150 subjects that took part in the study. Since the target population was heterogeneous, stratified and simple random sampling techniques were employed. Purposive sampling was also used to ensure representation by participants from all the five university campuses.

Data collection was by means of a questionnaire. The questionnaire had both open and close ended items. Pilot testing of the instrument was done by administering the questionnaires to 10% of the total sample size. Validity of the research instrument was determined through content validity while reliability was measured by use of Cronbach's alpha. A score of 0.729 was attained thereby qualifying the research instrument as acceptable and reliable. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. Quantitative responses based on Likert scale were coded in the computer using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21. Processed data were then presented using frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviations; and summarized in Tables. Qualitative data that were collected through open ended questions were first classified on the basis of common attributes then tallied to obtain statistical frequencies, tabulated and finally analyzed using descriptive statistics. According to Kothari (2010), this helps to collapse large volume of qualitative data in numerical form for ease of statistical interpretation. The researcher also observed ethical and legal issues in research like the principle of confidentiality, anonymity, and acknowledgement of other people's input throughout the whole study.

3. Results

3.1 Demographic characteristics of the population

The study sought to determine the gender of the study respondents. Nearly two thirds (65%) of the respondents were male and the remaining 35% of them were female. This shows a good representation by gender.

The age bracket of the study participants was also established by the study. The age brackets included: 17-25 years, 26-34 years, 35-43 years, and 44 and above years. Over a two thirds (72%) of the study respondents were between the age group of 17-25 years old. Another 17% of them were aged between 26-34 years. The remaining 11% were above 34 years. This implies that majority of students with disabilities in Universities are below 25 years.

3.2 Effects of Online Learning on Students

The researcher collected data from the respondents regarding the effect of online learning to students with disabilities. The data was collected on a five – point Likert scale. The variables that had a mean close to 3.0 represented ‘agree’ while those, which had a mean close to 2.0, represented ‘disagree’. Standard deviation was used to indicate the extent of variability of the responses. A standard deviation of less than 1.0 shows low variability while standard deviation with 2.0 and above shows high variability among the responses. Table 1 shows the rates of the study participants’ responses on a Likert-scale.

Table 1
Effects of online learning on students

Perceived effects of online learning	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.
E-learning helps to accomplish tasks more quickly	120	1.13	0.83
E-learning enhances efficiency	120	1.12	0.84
E-learning allows for interaction with other students	120	3.72	1.07
E-learning increases interaction with the lecturer	120	1.63	1.06
E-learning provides flexibility of undertaking studies	120	1.07	0.97
E-learning allows learning at ones convenience	120	3.72	1.11
E-learning makes it easy to become competent	120	3.94	0.98
E-learning makes it easy to do what one want	120	1.91	0.98

As reflected by the study findings shown in Table 1, the study respondents disagreed that use of online learning enabled them to accomplish tasks more quickly (M=1.13) and does not enhance their efficiencies as students (M=1.12).

The respondents agreed that use of online learning allowed them to interact with other students and work together on assignments (M=3.72) but denies them opportunity to interact with teachers and get assisted within reasonable time frames (M=1.63). Further the study found that the use of online learning was inflexible faced with internet connectivity failures (M=1.07), although the students could learn in the most convenient learning style at anytime, anyplace and at their own pace (M=3.72).

On ease of learning, the respondents agreed it was easy to become competent by the use online learning (M=3.94). However, the respondents reported that it was not easy to do what one need using online learning model due to limited access to efficient internet connections (M=1.91).

3.3 Strategies for facilitating E-learning

The respondents also provided information on the availability of strategies and enabling environment to facilitate E-learning by students with disabilities in the universities using a five – point Likert-scale. The variables that had a mean close to 3.0 represented ‘agree’ while those, which had a mean close to 2.0, represented ‘disagree’. Standard deviation was used to indicate the extent of variability of the responses. A standard deviation of less than 1.0 shows low variability while standard deviation with 2.0 and above shows high variability among the responses. The data were analysed using mean and standard deviation as shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Strategies for facilitating E-learning

E-Learning facilities	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev
E-learning facilities in my university are adequate	120	2.67	1.24
ICT staff in my university are always available to help students with disabilities	120	2.54	1.27
E-learning facilities in my university are always available to disabled students	120	2.41	1.23
My university provides all students with equal opportunity to access E-learning	120	2.84	1.23
Students with disabilities are supported to access E-learning model	120	2.71	1.22
Academic staff in my university are trained on use of e-learning model	120	3.18	1.20
My university has provided special ICT facilities for students with disabilities	120	2.92	1.33
E-learning environment in my university is user friendly with students with disabilities	120	2.86	1.25
Lecturers provide support to students with disabilities to access E-learning facilities	120	3.12	1.13

On online learning infrastructure, the respondents were in agreement that Information Communication Technology (ICT) facilities to assist students were adequate (M=2.67). The respondents agreed that ICT staff in the university were always available to help students with disabilities to access e-learning (M=2.54). However, the respondents indicated that E-learning facilities are not always available when needed (M=2.41) in the institutions by disabled students.

On institutional policies, the respondents were affirmative that the institutions provided equal opportunities to access e-learning to all students ($M=2.84$), trained students with disabilities on access to e-learning model ($M=2.71$) and even trained the lecturers who facilitate the e-learning model ($M=3.18$).

On provision of e-learning facilities to students with disabilities, the respondents agreed that the university management had provided special ICT facilities for students with disabilities ($M=2.92$). Also the respondents were confirmatory that e-learning environment in the university is user friendly to students with disabilities ($M=2.86$) and also Lecturers provided support to students with disabilities to access e-learning facilities ($M=3.12$).

4. Discussion

The study found that the respondents disagreed that use of online learning enabled them to accomplish tasks more quickly while on interactivity; the respondents agreed that use of online learning allowed them to interact with other students and work together on assignments. However, online learning denied them opportunity to interact with teachers and get assisted within reasonable time frames. These findings concur with the assertion made by Borstorff and Lowe (2007), that e-learning enables student at higher learning institutions to obtain their education alongside pursuing their personal goals and maintaining their study without a need to attend classes or being subjected to a rigid learning schedule. However, the findings are in disagreement with a study conducted by Kennedy and Geoffrey (2012) that found out that majority of students believe that their results would improve with e-learning implementation. This could be attributed to student's familiarity with online learning system used in the Universities.

The study also found that e-learning facilities are not always available to disabled students whenever they required them in the institutions. This shows that the facilities were not adaptive to learners with disabilities. This finding agrees with a study conducted by Collins, Kennedy and Geoffrey (2012) that found, e-learning implementation in developing countries is inefficient due to costs and poor internet connectivity especially in institutions of higher education. Thus, the Universities should lobby for required resources from their partners in order to ensure effective online learning among students with disability.

On institutional policies, the respondents agreed that higher learning institutions provided opportunities for e-learning or trained students with disabilities on access to e-learning model and even trained the lecturers to facilitate the e-learning model. The participants' responses were interpreted to mean that institutional policies on implementation of ICT for e-learning model are not clearly emphasized in the universities. These findings agreed with those of Mumtaz (2000) and Elloumi (2004) who found out that training and availability of technology is the best predictor of technology use.

From the study findings, the university management had not provided special ICT facilities for students with disabilities to use. Further, it was clear that e-learning environment in the

universities was not user friendly to students with disabilities. These findings contradicted a claim by Liu and Wang (2009), that management in any learning institution supported integration of technology in teaching and learning by empowering both the staff and students through capacity building. This could be attributed to the region or nation where the studies were carried out; in developed nations ICT management in higher learning institutions is much advanced than developing in nations.

5. Conclusion

The overall results of the study shows that majority of the students are of the view that online learning is effective in relation to student interactions but denies them opportunity to interact with lecturers frequently. The model enables students to accomplish tasks, is convenient and easy to achieve competence. However, it is inflexible and restrictive due internet connectivity failures.

This study also emphasize the need for higher institutions of learning to focus on empowering students with various forms of disabilities to access online facilities with ease. To improve the use of online learning the university management should direct adequate resources to technological facilities and institutional policies on ICT use in the universities. Further research should be conducted on best practices online learning that is inclusive for all students in institutions of learning.

References

- Booth, T. (2005). Keeping the Future Alive: putting inclusive values into action. *Symposium Journal*, 47 (2), 21-28.
- Borstorff, P., & Lowe, S. (2007). Students' perceptions and opinions toward e-learning in the college environment. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*, 11 (2), 13 – 30.
- Kessy, K., & Gachoka, M. (2006). *The reasons for under use of ICT in education: in the context of Kenya, Tanzania and Zambia*. Nairobi: Government Press.
- Creswell, J. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches*. New Delhi: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Davis, P., & Florian, L. (2004). *Teaching strategies and approaches for pupils with special educational needs: A scoping study*. London: Oxford Press.
- Elloumi, F. (2004). *Value chain analysis: A strategy approach to online learning. Theory and practice of online learning*. Athabasca, Canada: Athabasca University.

- Kennedy, O., & Geoffrey, M. (2012). A framework for E-learning implementation in developing countries: students' perspective. *International Journal of Emerging Sciences*, 2 (4), 579-597.
- Kerlinger, F. N. (2004). *Fundamentals of Behavioural Research*. New York: Holt Rinehart and Wiston Inc.
- Kiptarus, Y. (2005). *Including the deaf in the mainstream in Kenya*. Retrieved from http://www.isec2005.org.uk/isec/abstracts/papers_k/index_k.shtml.
- Kothari, C. (2010). *Research Methodology*. New Delhi: New Age International.
- Lewis, A. & Norwich, B. (2005). How specialized is teaching children with disabilities and difficulties? *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 39 (2), 127-150.
- Liu, Y., & Wang, H. (2009). A comparative study on e-learning technologies and products: from East to the West. *Systems Research & Behavioral Science*, 26 (2), 191 – 209.
- Ministry of Education (MoE) (2008). *Education on inclusive education: The way of the future*. Geneva: UN Press.
- Mukuria, G. & Korir, J. (2006). Education for children with emotional and behavioral disorders in Kenya: problems and prospects. *Preventing School Failure*, 50 (2), 49-54.
- Müller, E. (2009). *Serving students with disabilities in state-level virtual k–12 public school programs*. Alexandria, VA: Project Forum.
- Mumtaz, S. (2000). Factors affecting teacher's use of information and communications technology: Review of the literature. *Journal of Information Technology for Teacher Education*, 9 (3), 319 – 342.
- Nwachukwu, P., Egba, A., & Elemchuku, E. (2007). ICT and distance education programmes in a Sub-Saharan African country: a theoretical perspective. *Journal of Information Technology Impact*, 7 (3), 181-194.
- Parry, M. (2010). *Colleges lock out blind students online: The Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved from <http://chronicle.com/article/Blind-Students-Demand-Access/125695/>
- Peters, J. (2007). Education for All? A historical analysis of international inclusive education policy and individuals with disabilities. *Journal of Disability Policy Studies*, 18 (2), 98-108.

Romiszowski, A. (2004). How's the e-Learning baby? Factors leading to success or failure of an educational technology innovation. *Educational Technology*, 44 (1), 5-27.

Rumberger, J., (2004). Introducing ICT into schools in Rwanda: Educational challenges and opportunities. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 31 (1), 37–43.

Salmon, G. (2002). E-moderating: the key to teaching and learning. *Epping Forest*, 3 (5), 159-174.

Szpaller, K. (2012). *Disabled UM students file complaint over inaccessible*. Retrieved from http://missoulain.com/news/local/disabled-um-students-file-complaint-over-inaccessible-online-course-components/article_d02c27ac-0145-11e2-bc26-001a4bcf887a.html

Tinnerman, L. (2007). *University faculty expressions of computer self-efficacy and personal attitudes regarding the viability of distance learning*. Retrieved from <http://proquest.umi.com>.

UNESCO, (2005). *Challenges of Implementing Free Primary Education in Kenya*. Retrieved from <http://www.portal.unesco.org/education/en/ev.php-url>.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (1994). *The Salamanca statement and framework for action on special needs education*. Retrieved from http://www.unesco.org/education/pdf/salama_e.pdf.

Yusuf, M. (2006). Problems and prospects of open and distance education in Nigeria. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, 7(1), 22-29.

Suggested Citation

Ogutu, J.P. (2017). *African Research Journal of Education and Social Sciences*, 4 (2), 1-9. Retrieved from <http://arjess.org/education-research/effects-of-online-learning-on-students-with-disabilities-in-public-universities-in-kenya.pdf>

Influence of Parental Communication on Pre-school Children's Socio-emotional Development in Ngong Ward in Kenya

Author: Lucy Ghati. Email: lghati@gmail.com

Abstract:

Parents influence a lot how children interact with their social surroundings as well as play a part in children's social and emotional behaviours. Children who can use language effectively to negotiate social situations or those who have the intellectual ability to consider another's point of view are more likely to acquire strong social skills. Sound parent-child relationship is based on effective communication that is friendly and respectful in manner. This study sought to examine the influence of parental communication on pre-school children's socio-emotional development in Ngong Ward in Kajiado County, Kenya. The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design. The study population was constituted of 1,707 parents and teachers from 82 private and public pre-schools in Ngong Ward. The study used a sample of 199 subjects. Since the target population was heterogeneous, stratified and simple random sampling techniques were employed during sample selection. Data collection was conducted by means of a questionnaire which had close ended items. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data. Quantitative responses based on Likert scale were coded in the computer by the use of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21. Processed data were then presented using frequencies, percentages and summarized using Tables. The study found that parental communication is vital for the development of socio-emotional development in children. Further, the ability of the parent to keep communication lines open and to interact with the emotional side of their children goes a long way in influencing positive emotional responses in the pre-school children. The study recommends that there is need to engage parents at all levels of the child's engagement in school to not only maximize the child's potential in academics and performance but also to help build confidence and self-efficacy in pre-school learners.

Keywords: *Parental communication, parental involvement, preschool children, socio-emotional development*

Introduction

Despite the fact that children's emotional well-being during their early years has a powerful impact on their social relationships, between 9.5 and 14.2 percent of children between birth and five years old experience social emotional problems that negatively impact their functioning, development and school-readiness (Janice, Rachel & Jessica, 2009). According to a study conducted by Trawick-Smith (2014), children who are emotionally healthy are able to establish and maintain positive relationships with adults and peers. Children's social-emotional development involves more than just expressing emotions. It entails taking turns, becoming independent in following routines, interacting more with peers, engaging in meaningful relationships with others, controlling emotions, and developing a positive self-image. These

skills are crucial for children's successful participation in school and home experiences and for their overall growth.

The emotional well-being of parents largely determines a young child's social and emotional development (Michigan Department of Community Health, 2009). For instance, parents who have had positive life experiences are better equipped to be emotionally available and responsive to a young child than are the parents who have not. When parents and young children are emotionally tuned in to each other, caregivers can more easily read the child's emotional cues and respond appropriately to his or her needs. This responsive relationship between the young child and parents supports healthy development in communication, cognition, social-emotional competence, and moral understanding. A study carried out by Susan and Lisa (2008), found that the interactions and experiences that children have in the home and family setting provide a framework for how the child will interpret his or her environment and give meaning to culturally-framed events. Even the degree to which children are prepared to benefit from later schooling is predicated in part on what transpires before they enter the school door.

Other studies have illustrated that high levels of parent involvement in the development of children are associated with high and positive levels of academic achievement and social-emotional development (Flouri & Buchanan, 2004; Overbeek, Stattin, Vermulst, Ha, Engels & Engels, 2007). According to Raver (2002), children draw upon positive styles of self-regulation and social skill to help them cope with new contexts of pre-school. However, children who are persistently emotionally deregulated and behaviourally disruptive have been found to receive less instruction from teachers and to have fewer opportunities for learning from peers (McClelland & Morrison, 2003). Socio-emotional development for children's later academic achievement has been seen to relate to preschool experiences which, according to Magnuson, Ruhm and Waldfogel (2007), may pose both risks and benefits to children's long-term chances of success in school.

Young children's expression of positive and negative emotions may play a significant role in their development of social relationships. Positive emotions appeal to social partners and seem to enable relationships to form, while problematic management or expression of negative emotions leads to difficulty in social relationships (Denham & Weissberg, 2004). The use of emotion-related words appears to be associated with how likable preschoolers are considered by their peers. Children who use emotion-related words were found to be better-liked by their classmates (Fabes, 2001). Infants respond more positively to adult vocalizations that have a positive affective tone (Fernald, 1993). Social smiling is a developmental process in which neurophysiology and cognitive, social and emotional factors play a part; seen as a "reflection and constituent of an interactive relationship" (Messinger & Fogel, 2007). It appears likely that the experience of positive parental emotions is a particularly important contributor to pre-school children emotional well-being and psychological health (Fredrickson, 2003; Panksepp, 2001). Thus, the study sought to examine the influence of parental communication on pre-school children's socio-emotional development in Ngao Ward in Kajiado County.

Methodology

The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design, which is suitable in describing the characteristics of a large population; it makes use of large samples, thus making the results statistically significant even when analysing multiple variables. The design also allowed the researchers to collect data, summarize, present and interpret it for the purpose of making concrete generalizations and suggestions for further research.

The study population constituted of 1,707 parents and teachers from 82 pre-schools in Ngong Ward, both private and public pre-schools. The study used a sample of 199 subjects which was calculated using Nassiuma (2000) finite sample size computation formula. Since the target population was heterogeneous, stratified and simple random sampling techniques were employed during sample selection. Data collection was by means of a questionnaire which had close ended items. Pilot testing of the instrument was done by administering the questionnaires to 10% of the study sample.

Validity of the research instrument was determined through content validity while reliability was measured by use of Cronbach's alpha value. A score of 0.854 was attained thereby qualifying the research instrument as acceptable and reliable. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data. Quantitative responses based on Likert scale were coded in the computer using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21. Processed data were then presented using frequencies and percentages; and summarized in Tables. The researcher also observed ethical and legal issues in research like the principle of confidentiality, anonymity, and acknowledgement of other people's input throughout the whole study.

Results

Demographic Information

The study sought to investigate the following demographic information: gender and age bracket. Nearly two thirds (64%) of the study respondents were female and the remaining, 36%, of them were male. This shows a good representation of the study population by gender. On the other hand, more than half (56%) of the study participants were between 18-35 years, a third (33%) of them were within 36-50 years and the remaining, 11%, were 51 years and above. This implies that the respondents were fairly distributed by age thus the findings were not biased. In addition, the study return rate was 65% (129) which was considered to be a good sample representation as it surpassed 50% of the total sample.

Influence of Parental Communication on Preschool Children's Socio-emotional Development

The study sought to establish the extent to which parental communication influences pre-school children's socio-emotional development. Both parental communication characteristics and parental involvement behaviours were assessed the extent to which they influence pre-school children's socio-emotional development.

Characteristics of Parental Communication

The respondents were required to rate various items on characteristics of parental communication basing on how often one thought the item takes place. Table 1 shows the distribution of the study participants by opinions on various items that measure the extent to which parental communication characteristics influence pre-school children’s socio-emotional development.

Table 1
Parental communication

Item	Very Often		Often		Sometimes		Never	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
I keep lines of communication open to my children;	43	33	65	50	21	17	–	–
I listen to my children patiently;	86	68	22	18	21	16	–	–
I know what makes my children sad;	–	–	43	33	65	50	31	24
I let my children know when I am pleased with them;	86	66	43	33	–	–	–	–
I let my children know when I am angry with them;	43	34	65	50	21	16	–	–
My children tell me when he/she is annoyed;	–	–	21	16	43	34	65	50
I like to have fun with my child;	43	31	21	16	68	53	–	–
I plan enjoyable activities for my children;	–	–	–	–	108	84	21	16

As shown in Table 1, majority (83%) of the respondents, with 50% “often” and 33% “very often”, indicated that parents keep the line of communication with children open. Only 17% of the respondents reported that they keep lines of communication open sometimes. On the other hand, slightly over two thirds (68%) of the respondents indicated that they listen to their children with patience always.

On whether the parents knew what make their children sad, half (50%) of them indicated that they only know sometimes, a third (33%) of them pointed out that they never know when their children are sad. With regard to whether parents let their children know when they are pleasant, two thirds (66%) of the study participants were affirmative to the statement.

Majority (84%) of the study respondents reported that they always let their children know when they are angry with them. On whether the children tell their parents when they are annoyed, half (50%) of the respondents were never told. A third (34%) of them agreed that sometimes their children tell them when they are annoyed.

Slightly more than half (53%) of the respondents indicated that sometimes they like to have fun with their children. Another 47% of them reported that in most times, they like having fun with their children. In addition, 16% of the respondents indicated that they had never planned enjoyable activities for their children.

Parental Involvement Behaviors in Communication

This study sought to establish the extent to which parental involvement behaviours in communication influence pre-school children’s socio-emotional development. The respondents were required to indicate the rating of the tool basing on the extent they agreed or disagreed with the statement provided. Table 2 shows their responses.

Table 2
Parental involvement behaviours in communication

Item	Very often		Often		Sometimes		Never	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
I normally smile to my children;	40	31	46	36	43	33	-	-
I am keen on appreciating my children when they do something good;	26	20	66	51	16	12	21	16
I encourage my children to talk about their feelings;	36	28	-	-	93	72	-	-
I give my child alternatives when they express sadness;	6	1	43	33	81	63	-	-
I encourage my children when they are feeling disappointed or frustrated;	64	49	65	51	-	-	-	-
I observe my children’s facial expressions to understand their feelings;	70	54	59	46	-	-	-	-
I respond to my children’s expressions (i.e. facial, verbal, etc.);	43	33	86	66	-	-	-	-
I give my children attention when they express sadness;	43	33	43	33	20	16	23	18
I ignore my children’s positive feelings like joy;	21	16	-	-	21	16	86	67

From Table 2, two thirds (67%) of the study respondents indicated that they normally smile to their children. On whether the respondents were keen on appreciating their children when they do something good, over two thirds (71%) of them reported they appreciate their children frequently.

On the item with regard to encouraging children to talk about their feelings, over two thirds (72%) of the respondents pointed out that they do it sometimes. Another 63% of the respondents reported that sometimes they give their children alternatives when they express sadness. On the other hand, all of the study respondents indicated that they encourage their children when they get disappointed or frustrated.

On whether the respondents observe their children’s facial expressions so as to understand their feelings, all of the respondents noted that they do so frequently. As well all of them pointed that they even respond to their children’s expressions. Two thirds (66%) of the respondents reported that they give their children attention when they express sadness. Only 18% of them noted that they have never given their children attention when they express sadness. Further, two thirds (67%) of the study participants have never ignored their children’s positive feelings like joy.

Discussion

The study found that majority (83%; with 50% “often” and 33% “very often”) of the respondents indicated that they keep the lines of communication open to their children. Another two thirds (66%) of the respondents indicated that they listen to their children with patience always. These findings are in congruence with a study that was conducted by Stright, Gallagher and Kelley (2008) that found, children’s early emotional development takes place in the

dynamic interaction between the parent–child relationship and the environment that they are developing in.

A third (33%) of the respondents pointed out that they never knew when their children are sad. Besides, on whether the children tell their parents when they are annoyed, half (50%) of the respondents indicated that their children never told them. This could be attributed to poor relationship between parents and children or family conflicts. On the other hand, two thirds (66%) of the study participants were affirmative that when parents are pleased with their children, they let them know. Roberts and Strayer’s study (as cited in Zhou *et al.*, 2002) has shown that children who have more experience with expressing their emotions, both positive and negative, are better at understanding the feelings of those around them. In the same vein, Parental impact on the social behavior may be the cause for positive and negative responses from a child (Goddard, 1994).

The study also found that majority (84%) of the respondents pointed out that sometimes they plan enjoyable activities for their children. When parents spend time with their children, they get to understand them well and can handle them easily without neglecting their expressions. Studies show that children whose parents spend enough time with them show greater social and emotional development, including more resilience to stress, greater life satisfaction, greater self-direction and self-control, greater social adjustment, greater mental health, more supportive relationships, greater social competence, more positive peer relations, more tolerance, more successful marriages, and fewer delinquent behaviours (Allen & Daly, 2007; Desforges & Abouchaar, 2003). Thus, for children to develop completely in both socially and emotionally parents must create enough time with them in order to nurture and understand them.

All the study respondents reported that they were always keen to their children’s emotional expressions. Two thirds (66%) of the respondents also indicated that they give their children attention when they express sadness. The study finding was in agreement with previous studies that revealed that minimizing children’s emotional expression or punishing them for expressing negative emotions increases children’s intensity of emotional expression, making them more emotionally reactive and less emotionally self-regulating (Eisenberg, Fabes, Shepard, Guthrie & Murphy, 1999; Fabes, Leonard, Kupanoff & Martin, 2001; Topham, Hubbs-Tait, Rutledge, Page & Kennedy, 2011). In the same vein Balson (1994) found that effective communication between parents and children is a two-way process involving listening and expressing. Further, Balson reported that to listen effectively that parent needs to give the child their undivided attentions, notice the child’s feelings and the words used and actively neglects on what is being conveyed.

Conclusion

Although this study was parental-centric involvement on children socio-emotional development, other stakeholders such as teachers and the general community play a big role in socio-emotional growth of children. The ability of the parent to keep communication lines open and to interact with the emotional side of their children goes a long way in influencing positive

emotional responses in the pre-school children. Children whose parents spend much time with them are more understanding, sociable, perform well in school and are able to handle personal problems even when they grow up. In addition, parental involvement influences the way children display socio-emotional competences in school. Thus, there is need to engage parents at all levels of the child's engagement in school to not only maximize the child's potential in academics and performance but also to help build confidence and self-efficacy in pre-school children.

References

- Allen, S. & Daly, K. (2007). *The effects of father involvement: An updated research summary of the evidence inventory*. Guelph, Ontario: Centre for Families.
- Denham, S. & Weissberg, R. (2003). *Social-emotional learning in early childhood: what we know and where to go from Here: a blueprint for the promotion of pro-social behavior in early childhood*. New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers.
- Desforges, C. & Abouchaar, A., (2003). *The Impact of Parental Involvement, Parental Support and Family Education on Pupil Achievement and Adjustment: A Literature Review*. New York: DfES Research.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R., Shepard, S., Guthrie, I. & Murphy, B. (1999). Parental reactions to children's negative emotions. Longitudinal relations to quality of children's social functioning. *Child Development*, 70 (2), 513-534.
- Fabes, R., Leonard, S., Kupanoff, K. & Martin, C. (2001). Parental coping with children's negative emotions: relations with children's emotional and social responding. *Journal of child development*, 72 (3), 907-920.
- Fabes, R. (2001). Preschoolers' spontaneous emotion vocabulary: relations to likability. *Early Education & Development*, 12(1), 11-27.
- Fernald, A. (1993). Approval and disapproval: Infant responsiveness to vocal affect in familiar and unfamiliar languages. *Child Development*, 64(3), 657-74.
- Flouri, E. & Buchanan, A. (2004). Early father's and mother's involvement and child's later educational outcomes. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 74 (2), 141-153.
- Fredrickson, B. (2003). The value of positive emotions. *American Scientist*, 91(3), 330-335.
- Janice, L., Rachel, M. & Jessica, V. (2009). *Social emotional development in early childhood: What every policy maker should know*. Retrieved from http://www.nccp.org/publications/pdf/text_882.pdf.

- Magnuson, K, Ruhm, C. & Waldfogel, J. (2007). Does prekindergarten improve school preparation and performance? *Economics of Education Review*, 26 (1), 33–51.
- McClland, M. & Morrison, F. (2003). The emergence of learning-related social skills in Pre-school children. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 18 (3), 206-224.
- Messinger, D. & Fogel, A. (2007). *The Interactive Development of Social Smiling. Advances in Child Development and Behavior*. Burlington, MA: Elsevier.
- Michigan Department of Community Health, (2009). *Social emotional development in young children*. Retrieved from https://www.michigan.gov/documents/Social_Emotional_Development_in_Young_Children_Guide_88553_7.pdf.
- Nassiuma, D. (2000). *Survey sampling: Theory and methods*. Njoro, Kenya: Egerton University Press.
- Overbeek, G., Stattin, H., Vermulst, A., Hah, T. & Engels, R. (2007). Parent–child relationships, partner relationships, and emotional adjustment: A birth-to-maturity prospective study. *Developmental Psychopathology*, 43(3), 429–437.
- Panksepp, J. (2001). The long-term psychobiological consequences of infant emotions: prescriptions for the twenty-first century. *Infant Mental Health Journal*, 22 (2), 132–173.
- Raver, C. (2002). Emotions matter: Making the case for the role of young children’s emotional development for early school readiness. *Social Policy Report*, 16 (2), 3–6.
- Susan, M. & Lisa L. (2008). Parent engagement and school readiness: Parent-child relationships in early learning. Retrieved from <http://cyfs.unl.edu/docs/Publications&Presentations/Parental%20Engagement%20and%20School%20Readiness.pdf>.
- Stright, A., Gallagher, K. & Kelley, K. (2008). Infant temperament moderates relationships between maternal parenting and children’s adjustment in first grade. *Child development* 79 (3), 186-200.
- Topham, G., Hubbs-Tait, L., Rutledge, J., Page, M. & Kennedy, T. (2011). Parenting styles, parental response to child emotion, and family emotional responsiveness are related to child emotional eating. *Appetite*, 56(2), 261-264.
- Trawick-Smith, J. (2014). *Early Childhood Development: A Multicultural Perspective*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.

Zhou, Q., Eisenberg, N., Losoya, S., Fabes, R., Reiser, M., Guthrie, I., Murphy, B., Cumberland, A. & Shepard, S. (2002). *The relations of parental warmth and positive expressiveness to children's empathy-related responding and social functioning: a longitudinal study*. New York: National Institute of health.

Suggested Citation

Ghati, L. (2017). Influence of Parental Communication on Pre-school Children's Socio-emotional Development in Ngong Ward in Kenya. *African Research Journal of Education and Social Sciences*, 4 (2). Retrieved from <http://arjess.org/education-research/influence-of-parental-communication-on-pre-school-childrens-socio-emotional-development-in-ngong-ward-in-kenya.pdf>

Challenges Hindering Effective Reduction of Drug Abuse among Undergraduate Students in Public Universities in Kenya

Authors: Joyce Pere¹ and Eleen Yatich²
Pere,¹ The Catholic University of Eastern Africa.
Dr. Yatich,² a lecturer at Kisii University Campus in Kenya.
Email of the corresponding author: perejoyce@yahoo.com.

Abstract:

The increase and devastating effects of drug abuse among university students have continued to raise major concerns on how the various preventative strategies that have been put in place have contributed to the reduction of drug abuse among students. This study sought to examine challenges hindering effective reduction of drug abuse among undergraduate students in public universities in Kenya. The study applied the mixed method design where a cross-sectional survey design was adopted for quantitative data and phenomenological design for qualitative data. A sample of 306 subjects was used in the study out of which 300 responded. Both probability and non probability sampling methods were used to select the study sample. Questionnaire and interview guide were used for data collection. To ensure that the instruments were valid, content validity was used. Split half method was used to estimate reliability of instruments where a Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient value of 0.78 was obtained which is higher than the reasonable threshold of 0.7, thus making the instruments to be considered as reliable. Collected data were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative data analysis approaches. Data from questionnaire were coded and entered in the computer using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) Version 21. Quantitative approach involved the descriptive analyses such as frequencies and percentages. Data collected through an interview with key informant were analyzed qualitatively. Qualitative data generated from interviews were categorized in themes in accordance with the research objectives and reported in narrative form along with quantitative presentation. The study found that the major challenges hindering effective reduction of drug abuse included: ease access and availability of drugs, peer pressure, poor policy implementation, family challenges, low self-esteem and frustrations. The study suggests the need for all stakeholders in education to combine their efforts in order to fight against every challenge that hinders reduction of the prevalence of drug abuse among university students in the institutions of learning in Kenya.

Keywords: Drug abuse, substance abuse, drug abuse reduction, peer pressure effect, drug abuse reduction strategies

1. Introduction

Despite that various policies against drug abuse has been set across the world, there are cases of increased drug and substance abuse trends particularly in developing countries where there are few interventions towards its prevention and poor implementation of the existing policies, United Nations Drug Campaign Programme (UNDCP, 2010). A report by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2011) estimated that between 3.3% to 6% of the world total population aged 15-64 years abuse drugs annually. The same report indicated that a significant percentage (45%) of this population comprise of students in colleges and universities. A study carried out by Great Lakes University (2009) found that, alcohol and drug abuse among secondary school students in Kenya have doubled in 10 years time (Lonah, 2013). To curb the menace it was suggested that alcohol and drug abuse curriculum should be prepared in partnership between the Ministry of Education, national authority for the campaign against drug abuse (NACADA) and other relevant agencies.

Drug abuse among the global youth population has become a serious problem affecting everyone. Addiction leads many people, young people prominent among them, into downward spiral of hopelessness that in some cases ends fatal (Patricia, 2014). They range from glue-sniffing street children and teenage ecstasy users, to hard core heroin and cocaine addicts (NACADA, 2005). Drug abuse is responsible for lost wages, destruction of property in schools, soaring health care costs and broken families. It is a problem which affects everyone including parents, children, teachers, government officials, taxpayers and workers (Patricia, 2014). United States of America was found to have citizens who were four times (16%) more likely to report using cocaine in their lifetime than the next closest country, New Zealand (4%), Marijuana use was more widely reported worldwide, and the United states also had the highest rate of use at 42.4% compared with 41.9% of New Zealanders (Warner, 2008). The problem of alcohol and illicit drug use on college and university campuses is significant. Pakistan had an approximately 25% to 44% of students reporting alcohol and/or illicit drug use, and prevalence rates on the incline, this problem is a significant concern for Pakistani colleges and universities (Khattak, Iqbal & Ullah, 2012). In the United Kingdom (UK), drug abuse reduction among university students involved formulation of drug abuse legislations such as Criminal Justice Act of 2000 and Drug Acts of 2005 (UNODC, 2010). These Acts introduced compulsory drug testing on any student who was found with a criminal offence. Consequently, the analysis of the UK drug report (2012) showed a 10% decrease in alcohol and drug abuse among the university students' population compared to 35% prevalence rate in 2011 (UNODC, 2012).

In Africa, the problem of drug abuse among students has been a constant presence for years. In Nigeria for instance, abuse of drugs such as alcohol, tobacco, bhang and Khat have been on the increase among college and university students with varying prevalence rates found for both overall and specific drug of abuse (Oshodi, Aina & Anajole, 2010; Abasiubong, Alphonsus & Uwemendimbuk, 2012). A study conducted by Oshikoya and Alli (2006) at the Ilorin University of Nigeria on drug abuse showed that, the lifetime prevalence rate of drug abuse among university students was found to vary between 5.0% for tobacco, 47% for alcohol, 3.5% for bhang while cocaine and heroin varied at 1.5%. In Sokoto a cross-sectional study by Sue (2014) among the undergraduate students in Usmanu Danfodiyo University revealed an increase in

prevalence rates of drug abuse from 10.9% to 17.8%. On the other hand, Maxwell (2009) reported an increasing prevalence rate of 19.5% to 50.7% in Rivers State College of Science and Technology in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. South African study found an alcohol use prevalence rate of 39.1% and a cigarette use prevalence rate of 10.6% among high school adolescents. Other drugs that are commonly used in these settings include cannabis, inhalants, tranquilizers, heroin and cocaine, among others (Peter, 2008). A study conducted by Wood, Nagoshi and Dennis (2013) among Ugandan undergraduate students revealed that 17% of students were currently abusing cannabis, 5.5% abused inhalants, 2.0% opiates, 1.2% cocaine and 2.5% abused hypo-sedatives. In Tanzania, a study carried out by Simbee (2012) revealed that in Dar es Saalam, the prevalence of current drug abuse among students was 5.1% and that the abuse was higher by 6.2% among male students compared to female students 3.9%. The same study revealed that 39.7% of students abused drugs daily, 10.8% once in a month and 8.6% abused drugs more than three times in a year. On the hand, policies to reduce drug abuse among university students have been made, for instance, Universities in Nigeria (Abia State University, Anambra State University and Adamawa State University) adopted the policy established by the National Drug Law Enforcement Agency (NDLEA) in order to deter university students from drug possession, trafficking and consumption. The policy advocated that trafficking of cocaine, Lysergic Acid Diethylamide (LSD), heroin and similar drugs is punishable by life imprisonment (NDLEA, 1990).

In Kenya, drug abuse among college and university students remains an important area of concern due to the implications of early drug dependence on the future of the youth (Atwoli *et al.*, 2011). Other studies (Chesang, 2013; Rintaugu, Ngetich & Kamande, 2012; Rintaugu, Mwisukha & Mundia, 2011) have reported high rates of drug abuse among students in Kenyan public universities, with rates as high as 84% for alcohol abuse and 54.7% for tobacco abuse. According to NACADA (2012) drug abuse continues to emerge as a strategy for most students to cope with their prevailing problems such as sexual abuse, poor academic performance, and financial difficulties. In addition statistics from the Rapid Situation Assessment of Drug and Substance Abuse in Kenya (NACADA, 2010) showed that 11.7% of students aged 15 to 24 years abuse alcohol, 6.2% abuse tobacco, 4.7% khat and 1.5% abuse cannabis. To reduce the cases of drug abuse, the Kenyan government established NACADA in March 2001. The organization was given the mandate to provide drug abuse education, develop an action plan and sensitize parents on drug abuse among students all over the country (NACADA, 2010). Universities in Kenya have also joined NACADA in the fight against drug abuse among the students. Drug abuse university policy that forbids possession, trafficking and consumption of drugs of abuse within the university premises have also been established (Larimer, Kilmer & Lee, 2010). Almost all universities in Kenya have well established guidance and counseling departments that deal with students' personal issues as well as issues that deal with drug abuse (Otingi, 2012). However, there are still underlying issues that continue to hinder effective reduction of drugs in the institutions of learning. Thus, this study intended to examine the major challenges hindering effective reduction of drug abuse among undergraduate students in public universities in Kenya.

2. Methodology

The researcher used the mixed methods design so as to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic to best understand the research problem, and to bring together the differing strengths and weaknesses of quantitative methods with those of the qualitative methods (Creswell & Clark, 2007). Validating quantitative data model was used, which involved collecting quantitative and qualitative data within one survey instrument, and then analyzing the data simultaneously. The quantitative research design used was cross-sectional survey, which was an appropriate strategy for obtaining information on the nature, opinion and characteristics of people so as to estimate one or more population parameters (Kerlinger, 2002). The qualitative research design that guided this study was phenomenology.

Phenomenological research seeks essentially to describe rather than explain and starts from a perspective free from hypothesis or preconceptions (Creswell, 2014). As a naturalistic design, it enabled the researcher to interact deeply with the studied group in order to obtain detailed and holistic data from the natural settings. In this case, the peer counsellors, university counsellors and the deans of students described their experiences in regard to the influence of preventative strategies in the reducing drug abuse among undergraduate students in public university campuses in Nairobi County.

This study had a target population of 60,000 full time University students from the twenty (20) public university Campuses in Nairobi County (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, MoEST, 2013). In addition, twenty (20) peer counselors, twenty (20) dean of students, and twenty (20) university counselors were also targeted for qualitative data. A sample size of three hundred and twenty one (321) respondents was obtained using sample size determination formula for finite population (Nassiuma, 2000). Three hundred and six (306) of them took part in the study which accounted to a response rate of 95%.

The study applied both probability and non-probability sampling procedures to obtain the respondents for questionnaire and interviews. Purposive sampling method which is a non-probability sampling procedure was used to select the key informant who participated in the study basing on years of experience in public service. For probability sampling procedure, stratified sampling method was used to select the study sample representatives from selected Universities. To arrive at two (2) Universities that took part in the study, the researcher also used stratified random sampling method, where all universities in Nairobi County were classified into two groups where one (1) university was drawn from every group.

The study instruments used in the study were questionnaire and interview guides. To ensure that the instruments were valid, content validity was used. Split Half method was used to estimate reliability of instruments where a Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient value of 0.78 was obtained which is higher than the reasonable threshold of 0.7, thus making the instruments to be considered as reliable. Collected data were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative data analysis approaches. Quantitative approach involved the descriptive analyses such as frequencies and percentages. Data from questionnaire were coded and entered

in the computer using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) Version 21. Data collected through an interview with key informant were analyzed qualitatively. Qualitative data generated from interviews were categorized in themes in accordance with the research objectives and reported in narrative form along with quantitative data presentation. The emerging themes of concern were integrated within the framework of the quantitative analysis.

3. Results

3.1 Background Information

The background information of the respondents that took part in this study included gender, age bracket, educational level and working experience. Among the students, slightly more than half (59%) of them were male and the remaining 41% were female. Majority (75%) of them were below 23 years and the remaining 25% were 24 years and above. A vast majority (84%) of the students were single. Only 16% of them were married. On the other hand, among the key informants, two third (67%) of them were male and the remaining 33% of them were female. All the key informants were above 30 years age. In addition, majority (83%) of them had a working experience of 5 years and above and the remaining 13% had an experience of up to 4 years. In terms of academic qualifications, two third (67%) of the key informants had master's level and above while the remaining 33% had bachelor's qualification.

3.2 Challenges Hindering Effective Reduction of Drug Abuse among University Students

The study sought to examine the challenges hindering the effective reduction of drug abuse among public university students in Nairobi County. Various items were presented to the students. The students were asked to indicate their opinions on whether the statement was most pressing, pressing, least pressing or not pressing.

Challenges hindering effective reduction of drug abuse among university students in Kenya

Item	Most pressing		Pressing		Least pressing		Not pressing	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Students having excess money enable them to buy drugs	143	48	78	26	54	18	25	8
Availability and accessibility of drugs within university compound	134	45	112	37	29	10	25	8
Peer pressure has hindered effective reduction of drugs abuse among students	136	45	107	36	39	13	18	6
Poor implementation of drug abuse policies	120	40	90	30	53	18	37	12
Family challenges	105	35	90	30	83	28	22	7
Low self esteem among students	76	25	130	43	63	21	31	10
Bad examples by role models	110	37	119	40	39	13	32	11
Personal/individual frustrations (social, academic)	92	31	126	42	50	17	32	11

Key: n=300, F-Frequency, %-Percentage

Nearly half (48%) of the respondents indicated that the challenge of “students having excess money enable them to buy drugs” was ‘most pressing’, 26% of them reported it was ‘pressing’. This implies that excess money among students could be a major challenge against drug abuse reduction strategies in public universities. On ranking “availability and accessibility of drugs within university compound” as among the challenges hindering drug abuse reduction in public universities, a vast majority (82%) of the respondents were in agreement that the item was pressing. This shows that this challenge could also be a key hindrance towards reduction of drug abuse among university students.

When the respondents were asked to indicate their views on “peer pressure has hindered effective reduction of drugs abuse among students”, an overwhelming majority (81%) of them were affirmative that the this was a pressing challenge to drug abuse reduction. This means that if no interventions are put to counter peer pressure among university students, drug abuse reduction in the public high learning institutions will remain a dream to be achieved. Another challenge that was subjected to general views among study participants was “Poor implementation of drug abuse policies”. Over a two thirds (70%) of the respondents pointed out that this challenge is pressing. This implies that over two third of the respondents were aware that poor implementation of drug abuse policies could be among challenges hindering drug abuse reduction among students in public universities.

“Family challenges” was another item that was subjected for respondents’ views. Nearly two third (65%) of the students indicated that family challenges are “pressing” and “most pressing” hindrances toward reduction of drug abuse among public university students. Another 28% of them pointed out that the challenge was “least pressing”. Only 7% of them indicated that the challenge was “not pressing”. This implies that family challenges influence drug abuse reduction among public university students.

Slightly more than two third (68%) of the students reported that “low self-esteem among students” hinder drug abuse reduction among public university students. The remaining 32% either indicated the challenge is “least pressing” or “not pressing”. This shows that self-esteem among students could be a determinant on why drug abuse reduction among students in public universities is still hard.

Majority (77%) of the students pointed out that “bad examples by role models” could be a challenge hindering drug abuse reduction among public university students. The remaining 23% of them either reported that the challenge was “least pressing” or “not pressing”. This means that majority of those who are supposed to be role models of the university students in the war against drug abuse do not take their responsibilities.

Over two third (73%) of the students indicated that personal/individual frustrations (social, academic) have made students to abuse drugs. Another 17% of them reported academic challenges as ‘least pressing’ challenge that hinder drug abuse reduction among students in

public university. Only 11% of them pointed out that “academic challenges” have not made students to abuse drugs. It is clear that majority of the students indicated that academic challenges could be among challenges hindering drug abuse reduction among students in public universities.

Commenting on the challenges hindering the effective reduction of drug abuse, the key informants gave various thoughts towards questions asked by the interviewer. For instance, dean of students I said:

The environment in which we are in makes it hard to deal with the menace of drug abuse. Drugs are sold all over...sometimes even with our tight security we still find some drug traffickers finding their own ways into the campus. Some students avoid the office because they have an attitude that the office is meant to punish them, thus, it becomes difficult to reach them and the fact that the town campuses have no hostels to host the students has posed a major challenge in fighting against drug abuse. Some parents are also not supportive to reduce drug abuse among their children where they protect them when called in the office. In addition, the university management some time does not give the expected financial support to the dean’s office.

University counselor I reported that:

“Majority of the students who abuse drugs have low self-esteem. In fact they lack confidence with their great potentials to overcome heads on life challenges. Some of them even do not share the problems they go through with their peers or a higher person who can intercede their challenges. Therefore, it becomes so easy for such group of students to be victims of peer influence that lead them to drug abuse as they try to find the easiest way to manage stress.”

Peer counselor II noted that:

“Amongst the people who are expected to lead by example in the fight against drug abuse among university students, for instances political and university leaders, they are the very same people who organize how the drugs will get to their target customers, students, through their agents. Beside, majority of the parents do not care for their children safety during study sessions as they consider them to be adults.”

University counselor II said:

“Policy implementers need to seek partnership with higher learning institutions in order to raise awareness level among all stakeholders on dangers and effects of drug abuse. They should organize campaigns against drug abuse that fully involve university students, parents, lecturers and any other advocate of the strategy.”

Dean of students II had this to say:

“Some parents provide their children with much money while in the university. This could be attributed to deceptions among students to their parents on high living standards in Nairobi. Excess money among students draws them to leisure activities along which one joins a bad company of drug addicts. Also, some students adopt some behaviors from their culture or

families. In addition, there have been cases reported in my office where students abuse drugs with perception that it will help them to improve academically or achieve high workload in a short time more especially during examination period. Some of these students approach us when they are already addicts.”

Further, peer counselor I at one point said:

“The reason why some students abuse drugs is to avoid reflecting back family problems more especially when they compare themselves with well financial doings colleagues and when avoided by their peers for their destitute nature. Drug barons targeting youths are also increasing every day and this makes drugs to be available at affordable costs and as well drug accessibility has become easy.”

4. Discussion

Majority (74%) of the respondents indicated that excess money among students enable them to buy drugs. This is in agreement with a study conducted by Leong, Kim, and Gupta (2011) in USA that revealed, availability of cash to the youth as pocket money and travel allowances especially if excessive can be redirected into purchasing of drugs. The researchers stated that youth from rich families abuse drugs because they can afford them while those from poor families abuse cheap drugs due to frustrations.

A vast majority (82%) of the students pointed out that availability and accessibility of drugs is a challenge hindering drug abuse reduction in public universities. This was further supported by peer counselor I who noted that drug barons targeting youth increases every day and this makes drugs to be available at affordable costs and as well drug accessibility has become easy. This study finding is in agreement with a cross-sectional study that was carried out by Onifade, Somoye, Ogunwobi and Fadipe (2013) on drug abuse’s consequences and perceived accessibility in three Nigerian universities. The study revealed that drugs such as amphetamine types, solvents, heroin, tranquilizers and cannabis were perceived as easy to get. The study further revealed that some students work in cahoots with watchmen, cooks and cleaners to peddle drugs into the universities. In addition small shops and kiosks built near the universities were in booming business of selling drugs to students. Another study conducted by Masese, Nasongo and Ngesu (2012) on the extent and panacea for drug abuse and indiscipline in Kenyan learning institutions revealed that most of the students who participated in the study used illegal drugs because of their availability. It also revealed that availability of illegal drugs promoted the interests of those who are in a position to benefit financially from selling them. The researchers argued that if there is easy access of drugs, a student may decide to abuse them despite the governing rules that prohibit the abuse of drugs.

An overwhelming majority (81%) of the respondents reported that peer pressure has hindered effective reduction of drugs abuse among students. This finding concurs with a study that was conducted by Adeoti and Edward (2010) on the factors influencing drug abuse among undergraduate students in Osun State, Nigeria. A sample of 1,200 undergraduate students were randomly selected from three tertiary institutions in Osun State. The findings of the study

showed that peer influence was the major factor that influenced substance abuse among undergraduate students.

Poor implementation of drug abuse policies was also rated highly (70%) as a challenge hindering drug abuse reduction among public university students. This was supported by university counselor II who said that policy implementers need to seek partnership with higher learning institutions in order to raise awareness level among all stakeholders on dangers and effects of drug abuse. Nearly two third (65%) of the students indicated that family challenges create hindrances toward reduction of drug abuse among public university students. Dean of students I reported that some parents are also not supportive to reduce drug abuse among their children where they protect them when called in the office. This was also in line with a comment given by peer counselor II that indicated majority of the parents do not care for their children safety during study sessions as they consider them to be adults. Further, peer counselor I said that the reason why some students abuse drugs is to avoid reflecting back family problems more especially when they compare themselves with well financial doings colleagues and when avoided by their peers for their destitute nature. The study finding is in agreement with a study done by Parry et al. (2010) that revealed, most families in Britain are characterised by issues of immorality, spiritual emptiness, lack of direction and purpose in life among other problems. Another study carried out by Pasche et al. (2010) on 325 undergraduate students' drug abusers and an equal number of abstainers found out that the drug free students were feeling closer to their parents and highly considered important their parents' guidance, drug abusers were found to have characteristic such as loneliness, rejection, isolation and constant punishment. In addition, a study conducted Tavolacci et al. (2013) among the undergraduates in Australia revealed that students from disrupted families tend to get involved in drug abuse more easily than those students from functional families.

Slightly more than two third (68%) of the students who were involved in the study reported that low self esteem among students could be a hindrance to drug abuse reduction among public university students. This was further supported by university counselor I who reported that majority of the students who abuse drugs have low self-esteem to an extent of lacking confidence with their great potentials to overcome heads on life challenges. The study finding agrees with a study that was carried out by Kumwenda, Kambala, Mwendera and Kalulu (2011) on examining how low self-esteem influence students in drug abuse. The findings indicated that, self-esteem has to do with an individual's sense of value or worth and that students with low self-esteem reported to have abused drugs more than those with high self-esteem. Further, Parry, Brook and Kekwaletswe (2010) found that psychological factors such as depressive symptoms, low self-esteem, and poor decision-making together with poor social interactions were highly associated with drug abuse among university students. Other researchers; Abasiubong, Alphonsus and Akinade (2013) and Lee (2012) suggested that health-damaging behaviour such as drug taking might result from low self-esteem reinforced by poor social relationships.

The challenge on bad examples by role models as a hindrance of drug abuse reduction among university students accounted 77% of the respondents who indicated it was "pressing" and

“most pressing”. This was supported by peer counselor II who noted that amongst the people who are expected to lead by example in the fight against drug abuse among university students are the very same people who organize how the drugs will get to their target customers, students, through their agents. This is in agreement with Beckerleg, Telfer and Handt (2010); Bhullar, Simon and Joshi (2012) who carried out a study on the rise of injecting drug abuse in East Africa. The studies indicated that students from homes where parents or guardians abuse drugs tended to imitate the behaviour of their parents by taking illegal drugs and that having a parent with a drug problem increased the chances of developing the same problem in the offspring.

Over two third (73%) of the students indicated that academic challenges have made students to abuse drugs. This was further supported by dean of students II who noted that there have been cases reported in the office where students abuse drugs with perception that they would improve academically or achieve high workload within a short time more especially during examination period.

5. Conclusion

In Kenya, the problem of drug abuse among university students is eminent. This has been believed to be contributed by availability and accessibility of drugs, peer pressure, low self esteem, excess money among students among other contributing factors. Besides, poor policy implementation methods have curtailed the effectiveness of drug reduction strategies that has been set aside to curb this menace in public universities. However, some parents and core individuals like leaders who should serve as role models to young stars in universities towards refraining from drugs and substance abuse are the very same people who introduce and distribute drugs to the students. Therefore, there is a need for all partners to combine their efforts in order to fight against the challenges that hinder reduction of the prevalence of drug abuse among university students.

References

- Abasiubong, F., Alphonsus, U., & Uwemendimbuk, S. (2013). Parental influence on substance use among young people in the Niger Delta Region, Nigeria. *African Journal of Drug and Alcohol Studies*, 11(1), 689- 795.
- Adeoti, F., & Edward, S. (2010). Factors influencing substance abuse among undergraduate students in Osun State, Nigeria. *An International Multi-disciplinary Journal*, 4(4), 330-340. Retrieved from <http://www.ojol.info/index.php/afrev/article/view/69233/51268>
- Atwoli, L., Munjla, P. A., Ndungu, N., Kinoti, C. K., & Ogot, E. M. (2011). Prevalence of substance use among college students in Eldoret, Western Kenya. *BMC Journal*, 11 (1), 34- 90.

- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action*: Englewood Cliffs, HJ: Prentice hall.
- Beckerleg, S., Telfer, M., & Handt, G. L. (2010). The rise of injecting drug use in East Africa: A case study from Kenya. *Harm Reduction Journal*, 2 (3), 12-34. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/7639107>.
- Bhullar, N., Simon, L., & Joshi, K. (2012). The significance of gender and ethnicity in collegiate gambling and drinking. *Journal of Addictive Disorder and their Treatment*, 11(3), 154-164.
- Chesang, R. (2013). Drug abuse among the youth in Kenya. *International Journal of Scientific and Technology Research*, 2 (2), 2277-8616.
- Khattak M., Iqbal, M.N and Ullah I (2012). *Influence of drugs on students' performance: a qualitative study in Pakistan university students*.
- Kimilu, C. N. (2011). Solving drug and substance abuse problems among youth in Kenya. *Journal of Health Science*, 3 (2), 524-648.
- Kumwenda, S., Kambala, C., Mwendera, C., & Kalulu, K. (2012). What do Malawi Polytechnic First- Year Students know and do about HIV and AIDS? *Malawi Medical Journal*, 23 (1), 6-10. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ojn/2015.53023>.
- Larimer, M., Kilmer, J., & Lee, C. M. (2010). College student drug prevention: A review of individually – oriented prevention strategies. *Journal of Drug Issues*, 35 (2), 431-456.
- Lee, R. (2012). Community violence exposure and adolescent substance use: Does monitoring and positive parenting moderate risk in urban communities? *Journal of Community Psychology*, 40 (4), 406-421.
- Leong, R., Kim, M.K., & Gupta, L. W. (2011). Peer Substance use associated with the co-occurrence of borderline personality disorder features and drug use problems in college students. *Journal of American College of Health*, 59 (5), 678-897.
- Lonah, K. (2013). *Kenya Alarmed over Millions of Youth Wasted by Drugs*. *Standard Digital Press*. Retrieved from: <https://www.standardmedia.co.ke/article/2000086074/kenya-alarmed-over-millions-of-youth-wasted-by-drugs>.
- Masese, A., Nasongo, W.J., & Ngesu, L. (2012). The extent and panacea for drug abuse and indiscipline in Kenyan Schools. *Asian Journal of Medical Sciences*, 4 (1), 29-36.
- Maxwell, C. (2009). Trends in the abuse of prescription drugs. *Journal of health Science*, 5 (3), 764-822.

- National Agency for the Campaign Against Drug Abuse (2012). *Annual General Report*. Retrieved from <http://www.nacada.go.ke/nacada-2012>.
- National Agency for the Campaign Against Drug Abuse (2010). *Adverse Effects of Drug Abuse on Various Body Systems*. Retrieved from <http://www.nacada.go.ke/nacada-2012>.
- Onifade, T. A., Ogunwabi, O. I & Fadipe, E.B. (2013). Drug abuse, consequences and perceived accessibility in Nigerian Universities. *International Psychiatry*, 7 (4), 95-97.
- Oshikoya, K. A. & Alli, A. (2006). Perception of drug abuse amongst Nigerian undergraduate. *World Journal of Medical Sciences*, 1 (2), 133-139.
- Oshodi, O. Y., Aina, O. F., & Onajole, A. T. (2010). Substance use among secondary school students in an urban setting in Nigeria: Prevalence and associated factors. *Nigerian Medical journal*, 10 (2), 23-53.
- Otingi, V. (2012). The Wellbeing of the Youth – A Literature review of the drug abuse prevention methods and strategies between Finland and Kenya. *Journal of Health Sciences*, 34 (5), 156-178.
- Patricia, T. (2014). Influence of Drug Abuse on Students Academic Performance in Public Universities. A Case of Uasin Gishu County in Kenya. Retrieved from: <http://erepository.uonbi.ac.ke/bitstream/handle/11295/74155/>
- Parry, C., Brook, J. K., & Kekwaletswe, C. (2010). Effectiveness of motivational interviewing and cognitive behavioural therapy approaches in preventing drug abuse among children and adolescents. *American Journal of Educational Health*, 3(1), 231-457.
- Pasche, S., Myers, J.B., & Adams, M. (2010). *Substance Abuse Treatment, Prevention and Policy*. Retrieved on 3rd January' 2014 from <http://www.substanceabusepolicy.com/content/5/1/3>.
- Rintaugu, E.G., Mwisukha, A. & Mundia, F. M. (2011). Alcohol consumption patterns of students athletes in a Kenyan public university. *International Journal of Human Social Sciences*, 1(17), 162-167.
- Simbee, G. (2012). *Prevalence of substance use and psychosocial influencing factors among Secondary School Students in Dodoma Municipality*. (Doctoral Dissertation, Muhumbili University of Health and Allied). Retrieved from http://www.nida.nih.gov/drug_pages/prescriDrugs_chart.html.
- Sue, D. M. (2014). Understanding abnormal behaviour (8th Ed.). *International Journal of Health Science and Humanity*, 19 (2), 137-144. Doi: 12. 2345/0056754123

UNODC (2012). *Characteristics, patterns and driving factors in World Drug Report 2012*.

Retrieved from

[http://www.org/documents/data analysis/WDR 2012/WDR -2012-chapter 2. pdf](http://www.org/documents/data%20analysis/WDR%202012/WDR%202012-chapter%202.pdf).

UNODC (2010). *Drug control strategies at the National and International Levels*. Retrieved from <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/wpaydrug.htm>.

Wood, M. D., Nagoshi, C. T., & Dennis, D. A. (2013). Alcohol norms and expectations as predictors of alcohol use and problems in a college student sample. *American Journal of Drug and Alcohol Abuse*.18 (4), 461-476. Retrieved from <http://www.ea-journal.org>.

Socio-Economic Factors Influencing Community Participation in the Redevelopment Planning of Nairobi: A Case of Muthurwa and Kaloleni Estates

Author: Meremiya Hussein,

Affiliation: Centre for Urban Studies, SABS,

Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology.

Author's Email Address: huseinmeremiya@gmail.com

Abstract:

A history of neglect by past and current city governments, an influx of Nairobi's population in recent years and obscurity of tenure occasioned by colonial master plans have led to the dilapidation and degradation of Nairobi's inner city estates. Now ripe for redevelopment, the County Government of Nairobi has been making redevelopment plans since cabinet approval in May 2012. On the other hand, inner city resident associations are spearheading resistance to redevelopment, attributing it to unreconciled compensation claims and the lack of proper participatory processes. In recent years, however, the Nairobi County Government has made efforts towards participatory planning, focusing on resident associations. One of the aims of this study, therefore was to examine the inclusivity of resident associations through examining the socio-economic factors influencing community participation in the redevelopment planning of Nairobi's inner city estates in context of Muthurwa and Kaloleni estates. The target population was 1768 household representatives, with a sample size of 177. Probability sampling techniques were administered; purposive sampling and stratified random sampling methods were employed. Purposive sampling was selected due to the specificity of the context, then stratified random sampling was used to ensure input across different age groups and genders. Questionnaires and key interview schedules (for key informants) were the main data collection tools. Data was analyzed using Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS) version 21 where it was coded and used to summarize research findings in tables and figures and

presented in frequencies and percentages. Recommendations extrapolated from the study findings reveal inequalities in redevelopment planning processes. They demonstrate a need for resident association leadership working towards attaining adequate participation from all age groups, both genders, a wide array of income groups, people of different education levels and social standing, and ensuring that residents who have stayed in these communities longer than others give a platform to those who have lived in these communities for shorter periods. This study has potential to aid urban planners and developers design better participatory planning tools and methods to encourage community participation in development projects.

Keywords: *Nairobi Inner City, Urban Renewal, Urban Redevelopment, Community Participation, Urban Planning, Redevelopment planning*

Introduction

The socio-economic conditions of people determine their participation in project planning and implementation (Kakumba & Nsingo, 2008). For instance, poorer sections of the population are associated with low levels of education, and often excluded from consultations, and thus obstructing their civic competence. Studies reveal that community participation is essential for development and that participatory approaches have been widely incorporated into the policies of development actors (Blackburn & Holland, 1998; Dalai- Clayton et al., 2003; Holmes, 2001; Kumar, 2002; White, 1996). Contemporary development scholars have been advocating the inclusion of people's participation in development projects. Their major argument has been that the goal of any project cannot be fully achieved unless people meaningfully participate in it, and as per Stone's (1989) argument, people's participation in development projects may help bring about effective social change.

In recognition of the above, community participation does not just happen neither is it an idle principle, rather it needs some form of strategy and planned approach, resources, time allocation and commitment to the course (Burns *et al.*, 2004). Samah and Aref (2009) observe that participation in community development activities means individuals are not only involved in initiating, deciding, planning, implementing and managing development processes and its activities but they are also subjects in meeting their collective needs and expectations to overcome their common development challenges. Communities that have chosen to participate in development discourses not only derive more satisfaction from the joy that comes from involvement but also achieve more results, more rapidly, and with greater benefit to the community as a whole. Communities which participate in development initiatives report better success than those that only pay lip service to this important principle (Reid, 2000). As for urban redevelopment planning, community participation is a theme recurrent in its successes and failures globally. Werlin (1999) argues that without effective participation, urban redevelopment is made more challenging, if not impossible to achieve. Complex urban

environments often develop more formal avenues and infrastructures through which citizen involvement is mediated and realized (Bracht, 1990). Both studies refer mostly to cities in North America and Europe. However, similar experiences have been recorded in Asia and South America. Singapore's urban redevelopment program for example is considered one of the most successful redevelopment projects of our time. In Singapore, policymakers have continuously deliberated how to include the community in designing public housing estates since the 1990s (Sik & Križnik, 2017). It may be argued that this is the main reason behind its overall success.

At the regional context, African cities are beginning to consider redevelopment. South Africa's Alexandria project for example was designed for a population of 70,000 during South Africa's colonial era. Rural-Urban migration has seen it swell to about 350,000, living within 1.6 square Kilometers. These cramped conditions led to social, environmental and health problems among the residents (Thwala, 2009). The Alexandra Redevelopment Project by the South African Government's Integrated Sustainable Rural Development and Urban Redevelopment Program oversaw the building of approximately 3,000 houses.

Thwala (2009) found that one of the most important contributions of the Johannesburg Alexandra Urban redevelopment project is that it has resulted in an improved awareness of the role that must be played by the Alexandra community in the development process. In the past, the community of Alexandra rejected developmental projects because they were not properly involved during the project's initiation stages.

As for Kenya, there have been several small scale slum upgrading initiatives. Redevelopment plans for Kaloleni and Muthurwa are contextualized within the Eastlands Urban Redevelopment Project (EURP). The EURP is a large scale project targeting formal settlements and is one of the major projects outlined in the Nairobi Integrated Urban Development Plan (NIUDP), unveiled on March 5th, 2015. Its purpose is to provide a guiding framework to manage urban development in Nairobi City County from 2014-2030, integrate all urban development sectors and realize the goals of Kenya Vision 2030 for the city county of Nairobi. Residents, however have not embraced these plans. A review of the report on a workshop for consultation on the NIUDP held in Jericho Social Hall on 6th February 2015 reveals that the residents' concerns go beyond financial compensation. Issues such as poor infrastructure and service provision, unemployment, failed leadership, lack of social amenities and council relations were recorded. As per Bamberger's 1996 study, active community participation in project planning and implementation may help improve project design through the use of local knowledge; increased project acceptability; promotion of local resource mobilization; and helped ensure project sustainability. On the other hand, community participation may also entail delays in project start-up; necessary staff increases; and pressure to raise the level or range of services. Participatory approaches may also be riskier than bureaucratic/technical management as there is a danger of the cooption of the project by certain groups, the creation of conflicts, or losses of efficiency due to inexperience with the participatory approaches (Bamberger, 1996). In lieu of the above, we may come to the conclusion that communities living in city estates are against redevelopment without proper consideration, compensation and participation. For

instance, in Muthurwa there has been forced evictions and court battles (Kituo Cha Sheria, 2015). The disruption and delays affirm the fact that development cannot be a top-down approach, as it was at the inception of the city. Urban communities must be involved and considered for effective redevelopment to take place. Very little attention has been focused on the relationship between socio-economic factors and participation in urban development, urban renewal and urban redevelopment planning. The Kenya participatory poverty assessments suggest that income poverty is not necessarily the aspect of most significance to poor households. Lack of access to productive assets such as land and exclusion from economic, social and political processes that affect poor people's lives may be of much more significance (Government of Kenya, 2000). Thus, the study intended to examine the socio-economic factors influencing community participation in the redevelopment planning of Nairobi's inner city estates in context of Kaloleni and Muthurwa estates.

Methodology

The study used a case study design. The researcher used case study because it is open to use of other approaches of analysis including both qualitative and quantitative approaches that the study intended to use. Yin (2003) observed that a case study research can accommodate both qualitative and quantitative approaches, thus allowing the researcher to get a rich mix of data for the study. Mugenda & Mugenda (2003) ascribe 10% of the population as an appropriate sample for descriptive studies. The study targeted one household head in every of 1120 households in Muthurwa and 648 households in Kaloleni Estates (KNBS, 2013). This makes a total of 1768 household heads. The study sample was 177 (10% of total household heads). Purposive sampling was used to select the study sample.

Probability sampling techniques were administered; purposive sampling and stratified random sampling methods were employed. Purposive sampling was selected due to the specificity of the context, where only active members of residents' associations formed the larger population. The study had to contend with purposive sampling despite its non-representative nature, because only active members were aware of the urban regeneration plans and had been in active involvement with the Nairobi County Government. Within this population, stratified random sampling was used to ensure input across different age groups and genders

A questionnaire with both open ended and close ended items was used to collect data from the study respondents. To test for reliability of the tool, the researcher piloted 15% of the sample and that was not included in the real study. Split half method was used where a Cronbach's alpha of 0.79 was obtained thus qualifying the tool as reliable and acceptable. On the other hand, content validity was used to validate the data collection tool. All filled questionnaires were collected for data analysis. By the help of statistical package of social science (SPSS) version 21, data from the questionnaire was input into the statistical package, coded and used to summarize research in tables and figures and presented in frequencies and percentages. Further, the researcher observed legal and ethical issues in research throughout the whole research process.

Results

Demographic characteristics

The study sought to establish the demographic characteristics of the study participants. Data captured included the gender, age bracket and employment status. From the study analysis, 60% of the respondents were male and the other 40% were female, thus, a good gender representation. When the respondents were asked to indicate their age bracket, 49% of them were within 18-35 years of age, 31% were within 36-55 years and the rest 21% were 56 years and above. This shows that majority of the respondents were at youthful age. Additionally, the study participants were required to indicate their employment status. Majority (64%) of them were unemployed, 21% of them were self-employed and the remaining 15% of them were employed. This implies that only a small number of the respondents had formal jobs, thus, majority of them have low socio-economic status, which may explain exclusion in redevelopment planning resistance to the EURP.

Socio-Economic Factors Influencing Community Participation in Redevelopment Planning

The study respondents were asked to rate the items in the Table basing on individuals' opinion on the socio-economic factors influencing influencing community participation in redevelopment planning. The rating categories included: strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree and strongly agree. The researcher aimed to measure the perception of the respondents on the influence of socio-economic factors on community participation in redevelopment planning.

Socio-economic factors influencing community participation in redevelopment planning

Items	SD		D		N		A		SA	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Gender Balance	89	54	28	17	7	4	4	2	37	23
Higher Income Earners participate more	16	10	34	21	19	11	33	20	63	38
Disabled are involved	23	14	23	14	10	5	33	20	77	47
Older residents have more say	8	5	5	3	47	28	30	18	75	45
Community can easily access information	10	6	22	13	31	19	29	16	73	44
Ethnic Balance	34	21	20	12	8	5	12	7	91	55
Social Status Determines participation	66	40	20	12	27	16	21	13	31	19
Education level determines participation	45	27	24	15	36	22	13	8	47	28

Key: SA-Strongly agree; D-Disagree; N-Neutral; A-Agree; SA-Strongly Agree; F-Frequency

As shown in the Table, the majority (71%) of the respondents were in opposition in regards to gender balance in participatory planning forums. However, 25% of them affirmed that there is gender balance in participatory planning forums, while 4% of them were undecided. On whether

higher income earners participate more than low income earners, 31% of the respondents disagreed, more than half (58%) supported and the rest (11%) were neutral.

Two thirds (67%) of the respondents were in agreement with the statement that, “disabled persons are involved in redevelopment planning”. Only 5% of them were undecided while the remaining 28% opposed the notion. The study also found that nearly two thirds (63%) of the study participants were in consensus that older residents have more to say on estates redevelopment project planning forums. On the same issue, only 8% of them were in disagreement.

The study was also interested in assessing whether the community can easily access information on community based projects. More than half (60%) of the respondents were positive that the community can easily access information. Another 19% of them were in a contrary opinion. Further, when the study respondents were asked to indicate their opinions on whether there is ethnic balance participatory forum, nearly two thirds (62%) were in agreement. Out of the remaining proportion, 24% of the respondents declined that there is ethnic balance.

On the other hand, the research sought to reveal whether social status determines participation in redevelopment project planning. Slightly more than half (52%) of the study participants were of the opinion that social status does not determine participation in estates redevelopment planning. On the same item, nearly a third (32%) of the respondents gave positive responses. The respondents were also asked to give opinions on whether education level determines participation of community members in redevelopment project planning. 42% of them were of contrary opinion, 36% were in agreement and the remaining 22% were undecided.

Discussion

The study found that majority (71%) of the respondents reported that there is no gender balance in participatory redevelopment planning. The study finding is in agreement with UN Women (2014) who affirm that gender inequalities across economic, social and environmental dimensions remain widespread and persistent. Despite UNDP’s (2016) assessment that women’s political voice and leadership has been recognized as a key driver in advancing gender equality and women’s political participation and being key indicators of the general level of public sector effectiveness and accountability in a country, many participatory approaches such as participatory assessments do not explicitly address issues of social relations including gender (Slocum et al, 1995). According to the World Bank (1996), gender biases in participatory development projects may exist in the form of customs, beliefs, and attitudes that confine women mostly to the domestic sphere.

On whether higher income earners participate in project redevelopment planning more than low income earners, more than half (58%) of the respondents agreed. The finding concurs with a study carried out by the National Aids Control council, (2008) that indicated, the participation

of the poor and the marginalized in development projects has not increased significantly rather some intermediaries have enjoyed more access to those projects.

The study found that More than half (60%) of the respondents were in agreement that the community can easily access information regarding development projects. The results may be attributed to solely releasing information approaches by the Nairobi County Government, which does not encompass effective participation. A study by the Malawi Social Action Fund (MASAF) projects, Dulani (2003) concluded that the level of community participation was limited to being informed what had already been decided by other key players which implied passive participation by consultation. Oakley (1991) also cites an analysis of a rural water supply project in Tanzania, where he observes that participation had ranged from non-participation and manipulation over information and consultation to some degree of partnership and delegation of power.

Interestingly, more than half (52%) of the study participants were of the opinion that social status does not determine participation in redevelopment planning. This could be attributed to the fact that inner city Nairobi estates are cosmopolitan and homogenous in regards to social status. Mostly, it is the poor who live here. This may be considered a pro, as according to some FAO (1997) studies, small informal groups consisting of members from similar socio-economic backgrounds are better vehicles for participation in decision making and collective learning than heterogeneous, large scale and more formal organizations.

Conclusion

The county government of Nairobi needs to strengthen its presence in marginalized communities, and develop communication strategies as a way of awareness creation among the people from every part of the city as a way of involving them in County development project. This will gather project support and acceptance by community members. In addition, the government has to find ways to assure communities of its commitment to ensuring effective participatory planning. As for the second tier, the resident associations need to focus on the socio-economic factors influencing community participation. To ensure that there is adequate participation from all age groups, both genders, a wide array of income groups and people of different social standing.

To enhance the participation of residents with low education levels, the resident association and its leadership should work towards translation of documents and getting more educated members of the community to facilitate participatory planning processes in a way that most community members understand. This would enable them to interact and give valuable input. Resident association leadership needs to work to ensure that residents who have stayed in these communities longer than others give a platform to those who have lived in these communities for shorter periods. County leadership should also demonstrate effective training, strengthen good communication in community engagement and enhance sufficient systematic gathering of

information and analysis of community issues in order to ensure successful participatory planning.

References

- Bamberger, M. (1996). *The Role of Community Participation in Development Planning & Project Management: Workshop on Community Participation*. Washington D.C : Economic Development Institute of the World Bank.
- Bracht, P. N. (1990). *Principles & strategies of effective community*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Kituo Cha Sheria . (2015, January 15). *The Muthurwa right to housing case: progressive realization of economic & social rights?* Retrieved from Kituo cha Sheria: <https://kituochasheria.wordpress.com/2015/01/30/the-muthurwa-right-to-housing-case-progressive-realization-of-economic-and-social-rights/>
- KPDA & HassConsult, (2014, May 2nd). *Nairobi Housing Report*. Retrieved from <http://building.co.ke/kpda-hassconsult-report-housing-shortage-nairobi/>.
- Werlin, H. (1999). The Slum Upgrading Myth. *Urban Studies*, 36(9), 1523 – 1534.
- Kakumba, U. & Nsingo, S. (2008). Citizen participation in local government & the process of rural development: the rhetoric and reality of Uganda. *Journal of Public Administration*, 43(2), 107-123.
- Blackburn, J. & Holland, J. (1998). *Who Changes? Institutionalizing participation in development*. London: Intermediate Technology Publications Ltd.
- Dalai-Clayton, B., Dent, D. & Dubois, O. (2003). *Rural Planning in Developing Countries*. London: Earth scan Publications Ltd.
- Homes, T. (2001). *A participatory approach in practice: Understanding field workers use of participatory rural appraisal in Action Aid the Gambia*. IDS Working Paper No. 123. Sussex: Institute for Development Studies.
- Kumar, S. (2002). *Methods for Community Participation: A complete guide for practitioners*. London: ITDG Publishing.
- Stone, L. (1989). Cultural cross-roads of community participation in development: a case from Nepal. *Human organization*, 48(3), 234-245.
- Burns, *et al.*, (2004). *Making community participation meaningful: A Handbook for Development and Assessment*. UK: The Policy Press

Samah , A & Aref, F. (2009). People's Participation in Community Development: A Case Study in a Planned Village Settlement in Malaysia. *World Rural Observations*, 1(2), 45-54.

Reid, N. (2000). How People Power Brings Sustainable Benefits to Communities. USDA Rural Development: npd.

FAO, (1997). *Participation in Practice: Lessons from the FAO People's Participation Program*. Retrieved from <http://www.fao.org/waicent/faoinfo/sustdev/PPdirect/PPre0043.htm>.

Oakley, P. (1991). *Projects with people: The practice of participation in rural development*. Geneva: ILO.

Dulani, B. (2003). *How Participatory is Participation in Social Funds? An analysis of three case studies*. from Malawi Social Action Fund (online). Retrieved from <http://www.sed.manchester.ac.uk/idpm/research/events/participation03/Dulani.doc>.

UN Women, 2014 . *The World Survey on the Role of Women in Development* , New York : United Nations Press.

UNDP, 2016 . *Human Development Report*. New York : United Nations Press .

Investigating the Challenges of Student Centered Learning in Higher Education Institutions in Eritrea

Ghiorgis Tekle* and Hagos Fesshaye**
College of Business and Economics – Halhale, Eritrea

*Assistant professor in Economics; Corresponding author e-mail: Tekleg234@gmail.com

**Lecturer in Economics, e-mail: hagosfisha@gmail.com

Abstract:

The mode of teaching and learning followed by the HEIs in Eritrea are dominantly teacher-led, as opposed to SCL. However, the effectiveness of higher education and its relevance in a dynamic economy requires a shift from the traditional form of teaching towards SCL. The purpose of the study was to investigate the major challenges of introducing SCL in HEIs in Eritrea taking the case of the College of Business and Economics at Halhale (CBEH). The study used a case study design and focused a population of senior students attending four-year degree programs of study offered by the college in five disciplines; namely, Economics, Finance, Accounting, Business Management and Public Administration. The study used a sample size of 200 subjects and applied stratified and systematic random sampling methods to select study respondents. The survey questionnaire was designed to gather information required by the study. Data collected were entered and processed using statistical package of social science (SPSS) version 21. Processed data were then presented using simple frequencies and percentages, and summarized in tables to show the main outcomes encouraged by the mode of teaching followed by the academic departments and the challenges of SCL in CBEH. The study concludes that more effort is needed to consolidate and expand the introduction of SCL in HEIs in the country and in particular; teaching aids, digital library, internet connectivity, student support services need to be invested upon. The study recommends that there is a need to shift towards SCL in HEIs in Eritrea and in this process lecturers need to encourage students to become more focused, self-directed and involved. The study findings are of great use in areas of education development in higher institutes of learning.

Keywords: *Student centered learning (SCL), teacher-led pedagogy, higher education institute, professional development, Student Centered Learning challenges*

1. Introduction

Student Centered Learning (SCL) is a term commonly used by educators and education policy-makers, which is based on the philosophy that the learner or the student is at the center of the learning process. The SCL approach recognizes that students have a wide range of opinions, abilities and strengths and in this sense it empowers students to make their own choices about their education and future career. It is argued that beyond the rhetoric, possibly the most

noticeable changes that can be seen are a greater emphasis on the development of skills, and in particular, general transferable ‘life’ skills (and the notion of lifelong learning) (Rust, 2002). SCL, as a theory of learning, is based on the theory of constructivism, which is formulated on the idea that learners must construct and reconstruct knowledge in order to learn effectively. The benefits of SCL to the student are many and varied which include making students an integral part of the academic community, increased motivation to learn, independence and responsibility in learning, and it offers due consideration for student needs. However, the benefits of SCL are not restricted to the student. It has benefits to the teacher, to the institution, as well as to the society at large for the main reason that it fosters a life-long learning culture (Attard *et al*, 2010). SCL is a concept created within the field of educational pedagogy and has been a topic of discussion in many HEIs. The SCL approach tends to discourage the traditional teacher-led form of learning and favors more flexible learning methods which should be available for students. Traditional learning, also referred as conventional learning, tends to consider students as passive receptors of information that do not actively participate in the learning process. On the other hand, the SCL is diametrically opposed to the philosophy underlying the conventional method of learning as it allows students to shape their own learning paths. By definition, the SCL experience is not a passive one, as it is based on the premise that ‘student passivity does not support or enhance learning’ and that it is precisely ‘active learning’ which helps students to learn independently (Machemer & Crawford, 2007). Moreover, there has been a general rejection of the traditional teacher-led method by researchers, decision makers, teacher trainers, educational support staff, parents and class room practitioners, in favor of SCL (Oinam, 2017).

SCL has a number of advantages, and the superiority of SCL as a pedagogical approach becomes more relevant when it is applied in HEIs. The challenge of SCL has been with the transition and the paradigm shift required to move from the traditional teacher centered approach to SCL, and this challenge has been more pronounced in the educational systems of most of developing countries (De La Sablonnière *etal*, 2009). In Nigeria, a major Sub Saharan African country, for instance, the challenge of making SCL practical in HEIs include low quality educational system, low level of pedagogical understanding among educators, large class sizes, demands of the curriculum, assessment challenges, and challenges related with infrastructure, electricity and internet connectivity (Anyanwu & Iwuamadi, 2015). An examination of the relevant literature on the conditions which are necessary for SCL to be implemented within a HEI shows that within the classroom, practical implementation of an SCL approach can include different components such as group project work and presentations, case studies and analysis, problem solving and classroom workshops. It can also include student-centred active learning involving internships and use of web-conferencing environment to enhance student discourse and interaction in distance education.

Given the new roles for both the teacher and the student, the key factor in implementing a new approach to learning is motivation of both teachers and students. In this sense greater involvement with students by the teacher is central to student motivation which also requires continuous professional development for teachers (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004). Another important area for the SCL approach to higher education is the role of Information Technology, Libraries

and Information Systems. As methods of teaching and learning develop over time, so do the ways in which knowledge is imparted and the tools that students use to learn. The internet gives teachers and students opportunities and multiple paths for understanding and communication (Arko-Cobbah, 2004). The wireless internet has a positive and significant influence on SCL in three dimensions: pedagogical, technological and cultural learning (Lu, 2005). Libraries in HEIs play crucial role in SCL and are expected to adapt to changes that catapult them into a central role within the teaching and learning environment (Arko-Cobbah, 2004). Moreover, the importance of research in SCL is well recognized and the theoretical notion that institutions of higher education should have three pronged functions of instruction, research and public service is well known. The real question, however, is to make those functions a reality (Tesfagiorgis, 1991).

In the case of Eritrea, the Declaration of Policy on Education which was issued immediately after independence (in 1991) states that education policy will reflect the government's perception of education as a human right and as a means by which equity can be achieved (PGE, 1991). Accordingly, education of youth and narrowing the gender gap was given attention at all levels, including in higher education. After almost ten years of experience, in 2002, a concept paper was prepared to act as a starting point for discussions and actions of implementation to reform the Eritrean educational system. This was because it was believed that the educational system as a whole was found to have some major deficiencies. Among these were access to education, in general, was low for the country as a whole; the opportunity for higher education within Eritrea, even at the undergraduate level, was very low; the products of the education system at all levels, elementary school, middle school, high school and even at university level were not prepared well for employment and there was perennial complaint of employers; not only was access to education very low at all levels, but also the existing educational system was wasteful (GOE, 2002).

Following policy reforms made, the GOE took a number of measures to reduce wastage through increased access to education at all levels and reduced drop outs. Moreover, efforts were undertaken to incorporate learner centered systems as well as curriculum reform that is broad, balanced and relevant to national development plans and priorities of the country. The intention is that educational provision will be facilitated through an integration of academic and practical subjects (GOE, 2010). At the same time the GOE allocated huge budget towards the education sector and indicated in its educational policy that Learner Centered Interactive Pedagogy (LCIP) will be followed in the teaching and learning process at all levels (MOE, 2011).

Student Centered Learning (SCL) in the HEIs in Eritrea remains to be of paramount importance but needs to be developed. This is because there is a widely held view that traditional form of teaching and learning is still dominant in HEIs in Eritrea. SCL is a fundamental basis for Life Long Learning (LLL) and aims to provide practical skills and competencies for students and helps to reduce wastage of educated manpower due to mismatch of labor market. Given this background, the overall objective of this paper is to identify the key challenges and constraints to the development and expansion of SCL in HEIs with reference to the College of Business and Economics at Halhale (CBEH), Eritrea.

2. Methodology

The design used in the study was a case study with focus on CBEH which is one of the seven HEIs in Eritrea. CBEH is the only college in the country that offers four-year degree programs of study in five disciplines; namely, Economics, Finance, Accounting, Business Management and Public Administration. Its graduates are employed by public and private enterprises and it is a college that strives to implement SCL approach.

The study target population were senior students namely 3rd and 4th year degree students of the five academic departments. These students were expected to have stayed in CBEH for more than two years and to have taken more than 75 credit hours by the end of 2016-2017 Academic Year.

The list of 3rd and 4th year degree students of the five departments which served as a sampling frame was obtained from the registrar office of the College. A sample size of 200 subjects was used in the study. The study applied stratified and systematic random sampling methods to select study respondents. Sample allocation to departments was based on proportional to size.

The survey questionnaire was designed to gather information on the experiences and practices of students with SCL, and the challenges of SCL in the teaching and learning process of CBEH. Data collected were entered and processed using statistical package of social science (SPSS) version 21. Processed data were then presented using simple frequencies and percentages, and summarized in Tables to show the main outcomes encouraged by the mode of teaching followed by the academic departments and the challenges of SCL in CBEH. The researcher observed ethical and legal issues in research like the principle of confidentiality, anonymity, and acknowledgement of other people's input throughout the whole study.

3. Results

3.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The study sought to establish the demographic characteristics of the the respondents. About 40 percent of the respondents were female students, and as to the age distribution of the students, about 83 percent of them were within the age range of 19-23 years; 9 percent of them were in 24-30 years, and the remaining 8 percent were aged 31 years and above.

Distribution of the study respondents by departments and the year of study was also determined as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Percentage distribution of respondents by field of study and year

		Number	Percentage
Department	Accounting	48	24.1
	Economics	29	14.6
	Finance	43	21.6
	Business Management	40	20.1
	Public Administration	39	19.6
	Total	199	100.0
Year	3rd year	94	47.2
	4th year	105	52.8
	Total	199	100.0

As shown in Table 1, slightly more than half (52.8%) of the study respondents were 4th year students while the remaining 47.2% of them were 3rd year students. Additionally, the study respondents were distributed evenly in various departments. Nearly a quarter (24.1%) of the respondents came from accounting department, 21.6% from finance department, 20.1% from business management department, 19.6% from public administration department and the remaining 14.6% were from the department of economics. This implies that the study respondents were uniformly distributed by both year of study and department of study.

3.2 Challenges of Student Centered Learning in Higher Education Institutions

The study investigated the major challenges facing Student Centered Learning in Higher Education Institutions in the context of CBEH. The hypothesized challenges that were investigated by the study included Modes of Teaching in the Department Attended, Students' Assessment Approaches used in CBEH, Instructor's Attitude and their Classwork, Mode of Teaching and the Level of Adequacy of Facilities and Services in CBEH.

3.2.1 Modes of Teaching in the Department Attended

The opinions of the respondents on the modes of teaching and learning followed in CBEH is summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

The modes of teaching in the department attended

Mode of teaching	Number*	Percentage*
Lectures	157	78.9
Participatory (Group work)	68	34.2
Laboratory based	6	3.0
Research based	29	14.6
Student internships (Company visits)	35	17.6
Guest lectures	5	2.5
Assignments based	99	49.7
Presentations	75	37.7
Total	199	100.0

**The sum of the cells exceeds the total because of multiple answers*

As shown in Table 2, lecture is the dominant method of teaching in CBEH as indicated by 78.9 percent of the respondents and this is more related to traditional teacher-led form of teaching. Other key teaching approaches used are assignments (49.7%), presentations (37.7%) and group work (34.2%), all of which have some form of relations to SCL.

3.2.2 Students' Assessment Approaches Used in CBEH

The study sought determine the approaches used to assess students in CBEH. According to 41.7% of the respondents, the assignments mostly given by instructors involve individual work and activity, while 58.3 percent of them reported that the assignments given mostly involve group work and activity. The assignments were shared and presented in class according to 57.8 percent of the respondents and were graded by instructors according to 73.9 percent of the respondents. This is indicative that a mix of student centered and teacher-led form of teaching was practiced in the College.

As regards to whether the course offered require the preparation of term-papers, about 67% of the respondents were in agreement. This is in line with the SCL approach that encourages research and helps students to conduct research and develop research capacity. Moreover, senior students in the College are required to write term papers and prepare a final senior research paper as part of the requirements for graduation. The final research paper can be prepared on individual basis or in group depending on the requirements of the department.

Some of the courses offered by the departments require students to write term papers and the respondents have written term papers for the courses they attended. By the time this study was conducted, it was found that, among those who reported to have written term papers, there were

more 4th year students reported to have written term papers than 3rd year students as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Term papers written by year of study

Year		Number	Percentage	
3rd year	Term papers written	1	45.7	
		2	11.4	
		3	25.7	
		4	2.9	
		5	5.7	
		6	.0	
		8	5.7	
		10	2.9	
		Total	35	100.0
		4th year	Term papers written	1
2	20.0			
3	32.0			
4	8.0			
5	2.7			
6	2.7			
8	1.3			
10	4.0			
Total	75	100.0		

From Table 3, nearly half (46%) of the 3rd year students reported to have written only one term paper by the time this study was conducted as compared to 29% of the 4th year students. Another (26%) of the 3rd year and 32% of the 4th year students reported to have written three term papers by the time when the research was conducted.

One of the key practices associated with SCL is group work or activity by students. Thus, what teachers or instructors think of group work as a method of teaching and learning has important influence on student understanding of SCL. About 77 percent of the respondents indicated that instructors in the departments encourage team or group work activities. As shown in table 4, it is found that group work activities are commonly practiced at the College.

Table 4

Summary statistics on number of group/teamwork activities conducted by year of study

	Number of group or teamwork activities conducted				Students	
	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	Missing	Total
3 rd year students	6	5	1	25	14	94
4 th year students	7	6	2	20	7	105
Total	-	-	-	-	21	199

3.2.3 Instructor’s Attitude and their Classwork

Another key factor in SCL is changes in attitude of instructors and the way instructors organize their classes and what they do in classrooms. This is indicative of the’ readiness of instructors in HEIs to move away from the traditional form of teaching to a more student centered teaching and learning. Among the respondents, about 58 percent have indicated that they conduct class presentations, seminars and discussions in the departments, which are activities more related to SCL. In addition, the respondents were asked about their opinions as to whether SCL or teacher-led approaches best explain the mode of teaching and learning followed by the departments. It was found that 49.5 percent of the respondents reported that SCL best explains the mode of teaching/learning, compared to 50.5 percent for teacher-led approach. The result indicates that the mode of teaching and learning in the departments of CBEH is best explained by a mix of the two approaches.

3.2.4 Outcomes Encouraged by the Mode of Teaching in CBEH

There are several outcomes that are encouraged by the mode of teaching followed in CBEH. Table 5 shows the distribution of the ranks given for each outcome encouraged by the mode of teaching along with their point scores. Point scoring system of the ranks given by the respondents was used to order the outcomes encouraged by the mode of teaching in CBEH. The point score assigned to each rank is as follows: 1st rank= 10pts; 2nd = 9pts; 3rd = 8pts; 4th = 7pts, 5th = 6pts, 6th = 5pts, 7th = 4pts, 8th = 3pts, 9th =2pts and 10th = 1pt.

Table 5

Number and point scores of the ranking by respondents on the outcomes encouraged by the mode of teaching

Outcomes encouraged by the Method of Teaching in CBEH	Number of respondents ranking										Point Score	Percent Score
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
Memorize subject matter	32	16	24	14	15	9	4	9	10	66	1008	10.8
Be practical and research oriented	30	24	18	13	17	10	10	10	10	57	1019	10.9
Acquire skills and competencies	23	20	32	13	8	15	10	11	2	65	1022	11
Be more academic and theoretical	28	30	20	10	12	8	16	12	8	55	1063	11.4
Acquire knowledge and be critical thinker	50	35	23	16	7	9	8	5	2	44	1293	13.9
Be entrepreneurial minded and innovative	13	17	20	14	16	13	11	11	11	73	874	9.4
Be competitive on grades	13	20	20	10	8	8	13	18	21	68	824	8.9
Study for passing examinations	10	15	16	8	12	7	7	8	16	100	710	7.6
Be computer oriented	10	12	4	8	9	13	17	9	15	102	642	6.9
Group or team work	10	8	15	20	16	23	20	15	11	61	851	9.1
Total											9306	99.9

As shown in Table 5, total point score for each factor is obtained by taking the weighted sum of the number of respondents on each rank. The results are mixed and opinion of the students on the outcome encouraged by the method of teaching is diverse as shown by the ranks and the point scores. The point score of 13.9 is the highest for the outcome ‘helping students acquire knowledge and be critical thinkers’. Other point scores are 11.4 for ‘students to be more academic and theoretical’, 10.8 for ‘memorizing subject matter’ and 7.7 for ‘learning to pass examinations’. The lowest point score of 6.9 is for ‘students to be computer and modern technology oriented’, which is less encouraged by the method of teaching in CBEH. This is partly due to low level of computerized system of education, and poor IT systems and internet in the college. This has its implications on the education of the students, employability of the graduates, and the jobs of the future. What is important here is the relative ordering of the outcomes and what the students think is encouraged by the mode of teaching.

3.2.5 Level of Adequacy of Facilities and Services in CBEH

The available facilities, student services and other programs in CBEH are also expected to have influence on the introduction and progress towards SCL. The opinion of students in this regard is summarized in Table 6.

Table 6
Student opinions on the level of adequacy of facilities and services available in CBEH

		Inadequate	Moderately adequate	Highly adequate	Missing	Total
Traditional Library System	No.	36	107	53	3	199
	%	18.1	53.8	26.6	1.5	100.0
Digital library	No.	77	93	27	2	199
	%	38.7	46.7	13.6	1.0	100.0
Computer centre	No.	115	54	23	7	199
	%	57.8	27.1	11.6	3.5	100.0
Database and Software Packages	No.	143	32	17	7	199
	%	71.9	16.1	8.5	3.5	100.0
Student support system and counselling	No.	121	58	13	7	199
	%	60.8	29.1	6.5	3.5	100.0
Academic Advisory System	No.	79	95	19	6	199
	%	39.7	47.7	9.5	3.0	100.0
Study halls or reading rooms	No.	31	101	62	5	199
	%	15.6	50.8	31.2	2.5	100.0

As shown in Table 6, the traditional library system is moderately adequate according to 53.8 percent of the respondents. Nearly two thirds (60.3%) of them were in opinion that digital library was adequate. Availability of database and software package is inadequate according to 71.9 percent of the respondents, and student support system and counselling is inadequate in CBEH according to 60.8 percent of respondents. A vast majority (82%) of the respondents felt that study halls or reading rooms were adequate.

4. Discussion

The study findings indicate that, despite efforts made to promote access and quality of higher education, significant challenges exist in introducing SCL in CBEH. The result of the survey show that 49.5 percent of the respondents reported that SCL best explains the mode of teaching followed, while the remaining 50.5 percent were of the opinion that teacher-led best explains the mode of teaching in the college. In addition, according to 41.7 percent of the respondents, the

assignments given by instructors in the College mostly involve individual work while 58.3 percent of the respondents reported that the assignments involved group work. Some of the courses offered by the departments in CBEH require preparation of term papers as reported by 67 percent of the student respondents. The term papers were presented in class and results were shared among students according to 57.8 percent of the respondents, and were graded by instructors according to 73.9 percent of the respondents. Thus, this is indicative that a blend of SCL and teacher-led form of teaching is practiced in CBEH while there is a lot to be done towards achieving full SCL.

The results shown by the ranks and point score system are mixed and opinions of the students on the outcomes encouraged by the method of teaching in CBEH are diverse. High point scores are found for the outcomes ‘students to acquire knowledge and be critical thinkers’ (13.9), ‘to be more academic and theoretical’ (11.4) and ‘to memorize subject matter’ (10.8). Low point scores are found for ‘students learning to pass examinations’ (7.6) and ‘be computer and technology oriented’ (6.9). The latter is not encouraged by the method of teaching in CBEH as the lecture approach and the use of chalk and blackboard is still in place, which is mostly explained due to inadequacy of SCL teaching aids, facilities, libraries and support services.

The availability of resources and their utilization by instructors affects the practice of SCL. Thus the type of support given to instructors is of importance and there are views that the degree to which a teacher practices SCL is partly determined by the resources and facilities available. The experience of CBEH shows that the library system is in its traditional stage, introduction of digital library is at early stage and facilities, infrastructure and support system are not conducive for SCL. At the same time SCL is influenced by the teacher’s beliefs and attitudes which are crucially important. Some of these are attitudes of teachers towards group work by learners as one of the key practices associated with SCL is group work or activity by students. Findings show that instructors in CBEH encourage group work activity and research paper writing. But student motivation within conventional learning settings tends to take the form of competition between students, largely based on grades. Within SCL, students are given options in shaping their courses and in choosing particular units within their study programme. Results from the survey show about 95 percent of the student respondents joined the college of their own choice while 84.4 percent of them joined the department and field of study of their own choice. Students placed in fields of study not of their choices are mostly not motivated and teachers face problems with such students to force them to learn when they are not ready to learn.

It is important to note that SCL was originally developed in Europe and North America and this approach is currently finding its way to other Asian and African countries. This study recognizes SCL as a powerful approach that gives students greater autonomy, empowerment, and control over his or her own learning. The results are similar with other studies such as implementation of SCL in South Africa where librarian’s time is crucial and libraries are expected to provide facilities like more spaces for study, more personal computers and workstations, online database and internet facilities (Albert Arco-Cobbah, 2004). Similar findings in Vietnam also indicate the need for changes in both school infrastructures and

people's perceptions in order to apply a student-centered learning approach (Thanh, 2010). On the other hand, a qualitative study carried out at one selected university in Mozambique showed that the teachers did not feel ownership of the innovation and the students revealed difficulties in taking responsibility for their learning. Traditional 'punitive' assessment culture and the Mozambican 'poverty context' influenced pedagogical practice. But Younger teachers appeared to have more interest in SCL (Mendonca & Popov, 2014). Overall the study is consistent with previous studies on SCL that put students in focus and that does not by any means diminish the role and importance of teachers. But progress in SCL in HEIs in Eritrea seems to be slow compared to SCL in higher education in countries like South Africa and the European countries.

5. Conclusion

This study makes it clear that more effort is needed to consolidate and expand the introduction of SCL in HEIs in the country. But, the key factor is associated with the teachers' readiness to move from the traditional form of teaching to a more learner centered approaches of teaching and learning in colleges with the student at the center. As teachers have been the main focus in conventional learning approaches, it is with them that the responsibility for a shift towards the SCL starts. In this sense, professional development of academic staff plays key role in HEIs. The other important factor is the provision of adequate facilities and services that support SCL. In particular, teaching aids, digital library, internet connectivity, student support services need to be invested upon. Thus, improvements in infrastructure, facilities, and support services needs to be given due attention. Further, a shift towards SCL in HEIs in Eritrea and in this process lecturers need to encourage students to become more focused, self-directed and involved.

References

- Anyanwu, S.U., & Iwuamadi, F.N., (2015). Student-centered teaching and learning in higher education: transition from theory to practice in Nigeria. *International Journal of Education and Research*, 3(8).
- Arko-Cobbah A. (2004) 'The Role of Libraries in Student-Centred Learning: The Case of Students from the Disadvantaged Communities in South Africa'. *The International Information and Library Review*,36(3),263-271.
- Attard, A., Di lorio, D., Geven,K., & Santa, R. (2010). *Student-Centred Learning – Toolkit for students, staff and higher education institutions*. Brussels: LASERLINE, Berlin.
- De la Sablonnière, R., Taylor, D.M., & Sadykova, N. (2009). Challenges of Applying a Student-Centred Approach to Learning in the Context of Education in Kyrgystan. *International Journal of Educational Development*.
- Gebre,H. T. (1991). *Education and Human Resource for Economic Development in Emergent Eritrea: Toward Policy Articulation, Challenges of Economic Development*. Washington: Sages Publishers.

- Gibbs, G. & Coffey, M. (2004). The Impact of Training of University Teachers on the Teaching Skills, their Approach to Teaching and the Approach to Learning of their students. *Active learning in higher education*, 5(1), 87-100.
- Government of Eritrea, (2002). Education Concept Paper, Asmara, Eritrea.
- Government of Eritrea, (2010). Ministry of Education, The National Curriculum, Asmara, Eritrea.
- Lu, Y., Ma, H., Turner, S., & Huang, W. (2007). Wireless Internet and Student-Centred Learning: A Partial Least-Squares Model. *Computers and Education*, 49(1), 530-544.
- Machemer, P.L. & Crawford, P. (2007). Student Perceptions of Active Learning in a Large Cross-Disciplinary Classroom. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 8(1), 9-30.
- Mendonca, Marta & Popov, Oleg. (2014). Inner Tensions in Changing Pedagogical Approaches in Mozambican Higher Education. *Comprehensive Journal of Educational Research*, 2(1), 66-69.
- Ministry of Education (2011). National Teaching and Learning Survey Report. Department of Curriculum, Asmara, Eritrea.
- Oinam, S. (2017). Student-Centered approach to teaching and learning in higher education for quality enhancement. *IOSR-Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, 22(6), 27-30.
- Provisional Government of Eritrea (PGE), (1991). Declaration of Education Policy of Eritrea, Asmara, Eritrea.
- Rust, C. (2002). The Impact of Assessment on Active Learning. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 3(2), 145-158.
- Thanh, P.T.H.. (2010). Implementing a student-centered learning approach at Vietnamese higher education institutions: Barriers under layers of Casual Layered Analysis (CLA). *Journal of Futures Studies*, 15(1), 21-38.

Health and Social-economic Effects of Alcohol Abuse in Kenya's Context

Author: Ann Kiriru

E-mail: akiriru@cuea.edu

Affiliation: The Catholic University of Eastern Africa, Gaba Campus, Eldoret

Abstract:

The issue of alcohol abuse in Kenya is deeply rooted and has continued to affect not only the health but also the social and economic well being of the youthful population. The main purpose of this paper was to review the health and social-economic effects of alcohol abuse in Kenya's context. The adverse health effects of alcohol involve many body organs and tissues. Alcohol affects mental health, the liver, muscles, reproductive system and the gastrointestinal tract. Fetal Alcohol Syndrome affects children borne of alcoholic mothers. Other health problems incidental to intoxication include positional asphyxia and injuries. The social and economic effects of alcohol abuse on the other hand include family breakdown, loss of income among other related effects. Such effects can be devastating for the affected families and neighborhoods. This paper reviews various effects and further stresses the importance of treating alcoholism through initiating rehabilitation programs which should be individualized according to the specific situation of the affected person(s). While this paper provides a systematic review of literature on alcohol and its effects, there is a need to conduct empirical studies on the strategies that can be adopted to address the perennial problem of alcohol abuse in Kenya, especially among the youth.

Keywords: *Alcohol abuse, Substance abuse, Alcohol abuse effects, Alcohol health effects, Alcohol social-economic effects, alcohol abuse treatment, alcoholism in Kenya.*

1. Introduction

Alcohol abuse (harmful use of alcohol) is described as use of alcoholic beverages that has detrimental health and social consequences to the user and the society (WHO, 2014). Alcohol intoxication has been described as the condition of being insensible or stupefied through the action of alcohol in the affected person. Intoxication may be acute or chronic. Chronic intoxication is a prolonged state of drunkenness resulting from repeated alcohol intake before or soon after previously taken alcohol is metabolized (Keller & McCormick, 1982). Chronically intoxicated individuals may eat less, fail to go home and/or stay away from work.

The extent of intoxication is determined by the blood alcohol concentration (BAC). The illegal BAC limit for purposes of safe driving is set at 50mg/100ml (0.05% w/v) in many jurisdictions (AAAM, 2009) although it varies from zero to as high as 0.15% w/v. Physical symptoms of intoxication become evident at BAC levels of about 0.15% w/v on the ascent phase while individuals appear sober at about 0.20% w/v on the descent phase, as intoxication subsides.

BAC levels of 0.30-0.40% w/v usually drive the subject into unconsciousness while 0.50% w/v may cause death within an hour if untreated. However, clinical diagnosis of intoxication can be made at any point in the progression from 0.15% w/v onwards (Kaye & Haag, 1957). The health effects of alcohol intoxication are many and varied, involving many body organs and tissues including the central nervous system, heart, respiratory system, reproductive system, liver and the gastro-intestinal tract. Kenya as one of the developing nations experience a worrying trend of alcohol related problems. The workplace problems due to alcohol abuse have raised concerns in most organizations in the country. According to a study by Pamela, Kaithuru and Asatsa (2015), on Alcoholism and its Impact on Work Force in Kenya, alcohol has become a major threat and a challenge to a progressive economic development. Most employees who abuse alcohol show irregularity in work attendance, low productivity, hangovers, stress, financial problems, and health and safety risks. Another survey report released on April 2016 by National Authority for Campaign against Alcohol and Drug Abuse (NACADA) and Students Campaign against Drugs (SCAD) revealed that 36% of students consume alcohol. Then there are the psychological/behavioral and social effects. Chronic intoxication may also lead to tolerance and dependence, while abrupt cessation causes withdrawal symptoms which may be severe.

2. Health and Social-economic Effects of Alcohol Abuse

2.1 Health Effects of Alcohol Abuse

Alcohol abuse is associated with a large number of deaths and disorders (Gronbaek, 2009). The damaging effect of alcohol on the brain manifests as slurred speech, staggering, blurred vision and impaired memory among other symptoms. Intake of large amounts of alcohol within a short period of time may cause the subject to experience black out. During this time interval, the details of events cannot be recalled by the intoxicated person. Fetal Alcohol Syndrome (FAS) affects fetuses due to alcohol consumption by pregnant women. Children born with FAS may present with growth retardation, learning disability, microcephaly, poor coordination and hypotonia among others. Physical abnormalities affecting the ears, mouth, eyes, genitourinary tract, cardiovascular system and the musculoskeletal system may also be present. According to WHO, FAS is 100% attributable to alcohol (WHO, 2014).

Alcohol metabolism takes place principally in the liver. Heavy drinking may overwhelm the liver causing other substances that undergo metabolism in the liver and accumulate in the bloodstream. This may result into the development of conditions such as cirrhosis or cancers. Further, one class of substances may be affected is the lipids leading to hyperlipidemia. Alcoholic hepatitis is characterized by fever, elevated white blood cell count and jaundice. This condition may subside with cessation but it can also progress in some individuals. Continued alcohol consumption may see it progress to liver cirrhosis and eventually death (Mason, 2001).

Large amounts of alcohol irritate the stomach lining. This is coupled with increased acid secretion that may cause gastritis. The irritating effect of strong alcoholic beverages may cause direct injury in the mouth, the stomach and the esophagus. This may result in to the development of cancers of the stomach, oropharynx or esophagus. In some cases, this may lead to vomiting as a reflex action to remove the irritant (Jones, 1973).

A well-defined myopathy syndrome associated with chronic alcohol abuse was described in Russia. It was classified into subclinical, acute and chronic myopathy. The condition mainly affected muscles of the extremities but also other muscle groups such as abdominal muscles. Chronic alcoholic myopathy can cause sudden muscle weakness particularly of the legs and arms. In the long term, the condition may lead to muscle atrophy characterized by general muscular weakness (Rosenberg, 1973).

Alcohol abuse exposes the individual to many other risks. Highly intoxicated individuals are at risk of positional asphyxia due to awkward positioning of the neck when experiencing black out. They also risk contracting pneumonia as a result of vomitus inhalation (Ewing et al, 1978). Poor judgment increases the risk of contracting sexually transmitted diseases. It also adversely affects sexual performance by negatively impacting on male sexual hormones which may result in impotence in serious cases. Alcohol abuse is also associated with injuries (intentional and unintentional), increased risk of diabetes, various cancers and a number of infectious diseases (WHO, 2014).

Alcohol dependence results into cognitive, social and physiological tendencies developed after a repeated consumption of alcohol. The habit makes a powerful urge devour liquor, troubles in controlling its utilization regardless of hurtful outcomes. Such individuals give priority to alcohol use more than other activities, experience increased tolerance and occasional psychological withdrawal state (WHO, 2014). Dependence is attributed to a learned or conditioned state of reliance activated by internal and environmental stimuli and changes in the central nervous system caused through habituation or adaptation, or injury from the drug in question (Keller & McCormick, 1982).

The diagnostic criteria for alcohol dependence include tolerance, exhibited as either the need for progressively higher doses to achieve a comparative impact or an especially lessened impact with proceeded with utilization of a similar dosage. Withdrawal is another foundation showing as a characteristic withdrawal disorder and the need to take alcohol to maintain a strategic distance from withdrawal manifestations. Essential social, recreational and occupational exercises are diminished or totally surrendered and a lot of time is spent in exercises identified with acquiring, utilizing and recouping from liquor. At long last, liquor utilization proceeds notwithstanding information of having persevering or repeating therapeutic or psychological problems (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). Besides the damage to the body organs and tissues, alcohol consumptions also cause injuries, violence and accidents. By extension, this affects the lives of those around the abusers. According to a study by Gronbaek, (2009) on the positive and negative effects of alcohol, it was found that many alcohol addicts experience poor nutritional status leading to dementia. Furthermore, alcohol abuse may be a contributing factor to brain damage since some part of brain may be affected by vitamin deficiency.

2.2 Economic and Social Effects of Alcoholism

Alcohol abuse exerts a substantial socio-economic burden to individuals, communities and the country in general. Economic costs of consuming alcohol can be categorized into the following

cost components; direct, indirect or intangible costs (Montarat, Yot, Jomkwan, Chanida, and Usa, 2009). The direct costs contributed by alcohol include costs for healthcare, prevention costs, crime and law enforcement costs, cost for property damage or loss, costs of alcohol beverage among others. On the other hand, indirect costs lead to loss of resources without any direct payment being made. These include; premature mortality costs, cost of reduced or lost productivity due to absenteeism or loss of employment and the associated crime cost like time loss for victims of crime. Lastly the intangible costs are represented suffering, pain and deterioration of the quality of life. These costs prevent individuals from achieving a progressive economic development.

A study conducted by Simone, Teresa, Elizabeth, and Suzanne (2013) also found that alcoholism contributes to poverty. This finding is attributed to both the direct and indirect costs associated with alcohol addiction. In serious cases, there have been instances where alcoholics and their close family members lose their personal belongings, furnishings or even their homes. Similarly, alcohol addicts often fall foul of the law and thus their families incur court fines and related expenses (Montarat et.al, 2009). Additionally, the costs of medical care due to frequent accidents and other medical problems are also exacerbated by alcoholism. The phenomenon is coupled with opportunity cost due to inability to work during intoxication or hospitalization.

According to studies, poor parenting has been witnessed among the couples with alcohol addiction. For instance, American Academy of Experts in Traumatic Stress reported that in families where alcohol is being abused the behavior is very unpredictable and communication unclear. Such families are characterized with chaos and domestic violence which threaten the quality of family life. Then there is the risk of Fetal Alcohol Syndrome (FAS) in children of alcoholic mothers. FAS cause mental retardation in children, difficulty in learning, problem solving and other anti social behaviours. The neighborhood in general suffers from security risks due to the violent tendency of alcoholics (Mahato, Ali, Jahan, Verma & Singh, 2009). The study also indicates that children born from parents abusing alcohol are likely to have learning disabilities thereby affecting their education performance.

Kenya as one of the developing nations experience a worrying trend of alcohol related problems. The workplace problems due to alcohol abuse have raised concerns in most organizations in the country. According to a study by Pamela, Kaithuru and Asatsa (2015), on Alcoholism and its Impact on Work Force in Kenya, alcohol has become a major threat and a challenge to a progressive economic development. Most employees who abuse alcohol show irregularity in work attendance, low productivity, hangovers, stress, financial problems, and health and safety risks. Another survey report released on April 2016 by National Authority for Campaign against Alcohol and Drug Abuse (NACADA) and Students Campaign against Drugs (SCAD) revealed that 36% of students consume alcohol. The trend was associated to the influence of peer pressure among the youths.

Other alcohol related problems include disruption of family and social relationships, aggression and emotion problems. Therefore, adequate interventions are needed to address the problem of

alcohol abuse in our societies. The road map to this achievement can better be realized when the government, parents and other agencies work together towards a common goal.

3. Treatment of Alcoholism

Since alcoholism is a complicated problem with multiple etiologies, its management is not straight forward. Treatment programs should be individualized, taking into account the causative factors, individual vulnerability and the degree of progression of the problem.

Perhaps the earliest treatment ever used for alcoholism is the drug disulfiram which has been used since the 1940s (Elder, 1988). The aim is to make alcohol abuse unattractive by pharmacologically causing a serious sickness in the alcoholic. However, it is mainly indicated for sporadic heavy drinkers with a positive desire to stop the habit. It is often only an interim measure. Rehabilitation programs use the behavioral approach in tackling the problem. The idea is to attempt to wean the alcoholic from their predicament through positive behavior change. Rehabilitation seeks to prolong the sober time established through external interventions to give internal controls time to develop. It also provides an opportunity for education and counseling. It allows a safe environment for expression of the repressed effect and provides a therapeutic community for social support.

Prevention of alcoholism may be primary, secondary or tertiary (Gail & Peter, 1986). Primary prevention is targeted at potential alcoholics and seeks to prevent them from getting there. This is where prevention programs come in. Secondary prevention is about helping alcoholics to revert back to non-alcoholics. It is also about preventing or limiting the development of complications in alcohol abusers. Tertiary prevention is damage control aimed at preventing further damage to the patient, the family and the community. It also prevents the spread of harm to other people who are not yet affected but are likely to be affected in future. Successful treatment and rehabilitation is also likely to encourage others to seek help once they realize it's a treatable condition.

However, besides implementing the mentioned interventions in curbing alcohol menace, the bottom line remains with the society. The problem of alcoholism needs to be treated as societal problem (Donatus, 2011). The social institutions need to instill morals and ethical values and practices in the youths to avert the drinking culture among the youths. Support systems should be put in place to reduce stressors that are likely to lead people to alcoholism. The relevant institutions need to involve all stakeholders in every step towards alcohol management since it a problem we all need to address.

4. Conclusion

Alcoholism has now become a family disease. The condition has no boundary as anyone can be a victim regardless of their age, education background, income level, social, or ethnic group. The far reaching effects of alcohol abuse range from health effects, socio-economic effects, and psychological effects among other effects. A strong cultural bond and attitude change need to be

developed in various social institutions, ethnic groups with regard to use and treatment of alcohol. Therefore, the government needs to put in place adequate interventions to address the problem of alcohol abuse in Kenya. There is also a need to conduct further empirical studies on the strategies that can be adopted to address perennial problem of alcohol abuse in Kenya, especially among the youth.

References

- AAAM (2009). *Drugs, driving and traffic safety*. Barrington, USA: Association for the Advancement of Automotive Medicine.
- American Psychiatric Association (2000). *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, 4th ed. Washington DC, USA: American Psychiatric Association.
- Christopher, H. (2003). *Alcoholism and Its Effect on the Family*. Retrieved from: <https://allpsych.com/journal/alcoholism>.
- Donatus, M. (2011). *Drinking Culture and Alcohol Management in Kenya: An Ethical Perspective*. Retrieved from: <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.923.5700>.
- Elder, I.R. (1988). Disulfiram compliance as a function patient motivation, program philosophy and side effects. *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education*, 34(1988), 23-27.
- Encyclopedia Britannica, Vol. 1, (1982). Tokyo: William Benton Publisher.
- Ewing, J.A. et al. (1978). *Drinking, Alcohol in American Society: Issues and current research*. Chicago, USA: Nelson-Hall.
- Gail, G. & Peter, E. (1986). *Efforts to Prevent Alcohol Abuse*. Retrieved from: https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-1-4684-5044-6_11.
- Gronbaek, M. (2009). The positive and negative health effects of alcohol- and the public health implications. *Blackwell Publishing Ltd Journal of Internal Medicine* 265; 407–420.
- Jones, K.L. et al. (1973). *Drugs and alcohol*. New York, USA: Harper and Row Publishers.
- Kaye, S. & Haag, H. (1957). Terminal blood alcohol concentration in ninety four fatal cases of acute alcoholism. *Journal of American Medical Association*, 165(1957), 451-452.
- Keller, M. & McCormick, M. (1982). *A dictionary of words about alcohol*. New Brunswick, New Jersey, USA: Rutgers Center of Alcohol Studies.

Mahato, B., Ali, A., Jahan, M., Verma. AN., Singh, AR.(2009). *Parent-child relationship in children of alcoholic and non-alcoholic parents*. Ind Psychiatry J. 2009 Jan;18(1):32-5. doi: 10.4103/0972-6748.57855.

Mason, J.K. (2001). *Forensic medicine for lawyers*. London, United Kingdom: Butterworth.

Montarat, T., Yot, T., Jomkwan, Y., Chanida, L., & Usa, C.(2009). *The Economic Impact of Alcohol Consumption: A Systematic Review*. Retrieved from: <https://substanceabusepolicy.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1747-597X-4-20>.

Pamela, N., Kaithuru, & Asatsa, S. (2015). *Alcoholism and its Impact on Work Force: A Case of Kenya Meteorological Station*. Retrieved from: <https://www.omicsonline.org/open-access/alcoholism-and-its-impact-on-work-force-a-case-of-kenya-meteorological-station-nairobi-2329-6488-1000192.pdf>.

Rosenberg, S.S. (1973). *Alcohol and Health, Report from the Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare*. New York, USA: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Simone, K., Teresa, W., Elizabeth, A., & Suzanne, S. (2013). *Alcohol impacts health: A rapid review of the evidence*. Retrieved from: https://www.peelregion.ca/health/library/pdf/Alcohol_Impacts_Health.pdf.

WHO (2014). *Global status report on alcohol and health 2014*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization.

Influence of Teamwork Practices on Employee Performance in Public Service in Kenya

Authors: Joy Kelemba¹, Ronald Chepkilot² and Charles Zakayo³
Kabarak University, P.O. Private Bag 20157, Kabarak – Kenya
^{2,3}Lecturers at Kabarak University, Kabarak – Kenya

Abstract:

Teamwork is necessary to ensure democracy at the workplace, enhance change, encourage innovation and creativity, and allow for effective decision-making and networking. Teamwork involves forming teams which are expected to work coherently towards the realization of organizational goals. The aim of the study was to determine the influence of teamwork practices on employee performance in public service in Kenya. The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design. The target group comprised of 126,998 employees drawn from twenty ministries in Kenya. The study used a sample of 225 out of whom 203 took part in the study. Since the target population was heterogeneous, stratified and simple random sampling techniques were

employed during sample selection. Data collection was by means of a questionnaire which had close ended items. Validity of the research instrument was determined through content validity while reliability was determined using Cronbach's alpha value. A score of 0.75 was attained thereby qualifying the research instrument as acceptable and reliable. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data. Quantitative responses based on Likert scale were coded in the computer using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21. Processed data were then presented using simple frequencies and percentages, and summarized in Tables. The study concludes that teamwork ensures democracy at the workplace, enhances change, encourage innovation and creativity, and allow for effective decision-making and networking. The study recommends that organizations should enhance capacity building of employees and appraisal; prompt promotion of employees, provide higher remuneration and good rewards to higher achievers to enhance commitment and improvement in work environment; effective communication and involvement of employees in decision making. The study findings can be applied in policy formulation and as basis for further studies in the field of business management and human resource.

Keywords: *Teamwork practices, influence of teamwork practices, employee performance, public service, managing employee performance*

Introduction

Employees are the most important resource in any given organization. In order for these resources to function at their maximum capacities and strength, the organization needs to embrace team work and motivate the employees to achieve the set goals. Teamwork refers to the actions of employees which are brought together to accomplish a common goal giving priority to the interest of the organization (Chukwudi, 2014). According to Kalisch and Lee (2009), teamwork involves a group of people who support one another to attain a particular objective. Their definition resonated well with Kyzlinkova, Dopkulilova and Kroupa (2007), who argued that teamwork is a process of organizing groups amongst the employees to achieve a certain work. Teamwork entails mutualism and collaborative engagements to achieve a particular aim (Khuong and Tien, 2013). Employees' empowerment and teamwork are some of the factors affecting job satisfaction (Jalal & Putri, 2015). It is very important to pay much attention to job satisfaction since it is a key variable in any organizational success. Job satisfaction avoids negative impact in the organizational performance (Bakotic & Babic, 2013). Particularly, it motivates employees to work effectively and stay competitive thereby able to sustain themselves.

Globally, employee performance is monitored using Performance Contracting (PC). The system of PC originated in France in 1960 as a component of Management Control Systems (MCS) aimed at improving efficiency and effectiveness in employee performance. Since then, performance contracting has been in use in Argentina, Brazil, Bolivia, Bangladesh, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Denmark, Finland among other nations. So far, performance contracting as a means of monitoring employee performance has been found to be very effective in France, Pakistan, India, South Korea and Malaysia where socio-economic growth has been on

the increase. In Kenya, the system has not been effective as a result of compelling forces like politics, corruption and uncondusive working environment in public service. Despite these challenges, Kenya has adopted various management systems such as Balanced Score Card (BSC) to encourage interactive benchmarking to test strategies, explore casual relations and communicate employee performance as indicated by Bogetoft, Bramsen and Nielsen (2006) in Armstrong and Baron (2009). Teamwork has been encouraged in every organization, more especially in public service so as to improve employee performance and create a good working environment. Adoption of teamwork enables an organization to create an environment that facilitates knowledge sharing among the employees.

The performance contracting team works closely with the ISO compliance team to make sure that ISO standards are adhered to and that quality is not compromised as each employee is expected to perform at best. In developed countries like the United Kingdom, trade unions are involved in employee performance contrary to what happens in Kenya where, unions are mainly concerned with collective bargaining, terms and conditions at the workplace without much concern about employee performance (Republic of Kenya, 2006; Ngesa, 2008; Armstrong and Baron, 2009, Armstrong, 2009; Republic of Kenya, 2016).

In Africa, the African Union (AU) came up with an African-Peer-Review mechanism known as the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) to promote good governance through; democracy and good political governance, economic governance and management, corporate governance and socio-economic development. Kenya adopted this mechanism in 2003 as a means of improving employee performance (Ojienda, 2007). The concept of embracing performance contracting to enhance employee performance in Africa has been adopted systematically in; Nigeria, Gambia, Ghana and Kenya. Rwanda has streamlined government structures such as ministries and local authorities aimed at improving professionalism and employee performance in the country (Ministry of Local Government of Rwanda, 2010).

Franco (2008) and Aguinis (2009) found that managing employee performance is a continuous process of identifying, measuring and developing of individuals as well as teams while aligning their performance with the strategic goals or objectives of the organization. In essence, it is managing employee performance in organizations based on objectives and targets set out in overall and individual performance contracts which provide the basis of measuring employee performance using performance appraisal systems. Performance appraisal comprises of targets or volume and quality of work, knowledge of job, dependability, staff development, innovation, communication, overall rating and conclusion. To attain an improved employee performance in public service in Kenya much efforts need to be put in place including rigorous research of barriers and challenges that face employee performance in Kenya. Thus there is a need to carry out the current study on examination of the role of team work practices on employees performance in public service in Kenya.

Methodology

The study adopted a cross-sectional survey research design for its appropriateness in reaching out to a large representative sample and generalization of the findings. A cross sectional survey research design was used to analyse how teamwork practices influence employees' performance in public service. This descriptive survey was considered appropriate because it narrated facts and characteristics concerning employee motivation, team work, performance counselling and enhanced performance in the public service. Kothari (2004) maintains that descriptive research studies are concerned with describing the characteristics of a particular individual, or of a group. Descriptive survey design was also appropriate so that the researcher got information from those who have practical experience with the problem to be studied.

The target group comprised of 126,998 employees drawn from twenty ministries in Kenya. The study used a sample of 225 subjects which was calculated using Nassiuma (2000) finite sample size computation formula. Since the target population was heterogeneous, stratified and simple random sampling techniques were employed during sample selection. Data collection was by means of a questionnaire which had close ended items. Pilot testing of the instrument was done by administering the questionnaires to 10% of the total sample size.

To establish the validity of the research instrument the researcher sought opinions of experts. This facilitated the necessary revision and modification of the research instrument thereby enhancing validity. Further, the study assessed the responses and non-responses per question to determine if there was any technical dexterity with the questions asked. Reliability was determined using Cronbach's alpha value where a score of 0.824 was attained thereby qualifying the research instrument as acceptable and reliable.

Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data. Quantitative responses based on Likert scale were coded in the computer using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21. Processed data were then presented using simple frequencies and percentages, and summarized in Tables. The researcher also observed ethical and legal issues in research like the principle of confidentiality, anonymity, and acknowledgement of other people's input throughout the whole study.

Results

Demographic characteristics

The study sought to establish the demographic characteristics of the study participants. Data captured included the gender, job category, and educational qualification. The majority (60%) of the respondents were male while the remaining 40% were female. This implies that the respondents were well represented by gender. Level of education among the study respondents was examined. Nearly a third (32%) of the respondents had attained post graduate level of education, 25% of them had degree level, 21% had a diploma and the others, 22% were certificate level. This distribution shows that the study respondents were knowledgeable and in position to provide reliable responses on the study thematic area. The respondents had a wide

range of experience with 74% having served for more than 7 years, 19% for up to 6 years while the rest did not respond to question.

Approaches used in Managing Employee Performance through Teamwork

The respondents were asked to indicate whether there are approaches used in the organization to enhance employee performance through teamwork. The category of opinions were either yes, no or not sure. The results indicated that majority (77 %) of the respondents said that the approaches are being applied in their respective organizations to enhance employee performance through teamwork. However, 20% of the respondents indicated that the approaches were not in use in their organizations. Meanwhile, only 3% respondents were not sure. The results imply that the approaches are applicable as component of team work within the public service in Kenya.

Effectiveness of Approaches used in Managing Employee Performance in the Civil Service

The study sought to find out the extent of effectiveness of the selected approaches in managing employee performance. The respondents were required to rate the items on a Likert scale: Highly effective (HE), Effective (E), Undecided (UD), ineffective (IE), and highly ineffective (HIE). The results were summarized in a Table 1.

Table 1

Effectiveness of Approaches used in Managing Employee Performance

Approaches	HE	E	UD	IE	HIE
Performance contracting	26%	45%	7%	14%	8%
Annual appraisal	21%	48%	7%	14%	10%
Midterm appraisal	8%	39%	21%	11%	21%
Peer appraisal	8%	33%	38%	17%	4%
Self-appraisal	16%	38%	13%	13%	20%
Continuous assessment	10%	55%	23%	10%	2%
Competence assessment	9%	47%	17%	12%	15%
Objective-setting and review	14%	51%	11%	9%	15%
Implementation of citizen delivery service charter	17%	47%	17%	3%	16%
Coaching and/or mentoring	9%	53%	12%	3%	23%
Application of Rapid Results Initiative	16%	39%	16%	9%	20%

Key: Highly Effective (HE); Effective (E); Undecided (UD); Ineffective (IE); Highly Ineffective (HIE)

From the study findings, over two thirds (71%) of the respondents indicated that performance contracting was an effective approach used in managing employee performance . Slightly more than two thirds (69%) of the study participants reported that employee performance could be managed through annual appraisal teamwork approach while nearly half (47%) of them were in opinion that midterm appraisal of teamwork could also effectively manage employee performance in the civil service.

On whether peer appraisal of teamwork could effectively enhance management of employee performance in the civil service, over a third (41%) of the respondents were in affirmative and

another 21% of them were in contrary opinion. On the other hand slightly more than half (55%) of the study participants indicated that self-appraisal approach could ensure employee performance in teams in the civil service. Nearly two thirds (65%) of the respondents were in opinion that continuous assessment of teamwork would ensure management of employee performance in the civil service.

The study also investigated whether competence assessment of various teams of workers in public service could be effective in management of employee performance. Over a half (56%) of the respondents were in consensus while another 27% were in a contrary opinion. Nearly two thirds (65%) of them felt that objective setting and review among various teams in public service would effectively enhance their performance.

Further, the impact of implementation of citizen delivery service charter on teamwork management in the civil service was assessed. Nearly two thirds (64%) of the respondents pointed out that the approach effectively enhanced management of employee performance in the public sector. Coaching and/or mentoring of civil servants' teams also seemed to be an effective management approach of employee performance by 62% of the respondents being in supportive opinion and only 26% of them were in contrary opinion. Additionally, application of rapid results initiative in management of employee performance was also supported by over half (54%) of the study participants as an effective method to enhance teamwork in the public service.

Influence of Teamwork Practices on Employee Performance in the Civil Service

The study sought to establish whether there is an association between teamwork practices and employee performance in the public service in Kenya. The Chi-square for independence was computed and results presented as shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Chi-Square test for the association between teamwork practices and employee performance

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	21.444 ^a	11	.000
Likelihood Ratio	23.455	11	.023
Linear-by-Linear Association	.216	1	.818
N of Valid Cases	203		

a Zero (0) cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.01.

From Table 2, the association between teamwork practices and employee performance in the public service in Kenya is statistically significant since the p-value is smaller than the level of significance (.05), $\chi^2 (11, N = 203) = 21.444, P < .001$. This implies that the employees' level of performance in public service commission is significantly influenced by teamwork practices.

Discussion

From the study findings, over two thirds (71%) of the respondents indicated that performance contracting is an effective approach in managing employee performance through teamwork. The study finding is congruent with previously conducted studies that found, the performance contracting team ensures that all employees adhere to citizen service delivery charter to realize efficient, quality and timely delivery of services through improvements made in employee performance. The performance contracting team works closely with the ISO compliance team to make sure that ISO standards are adhered to and that quality is not compromised as each employee is expected to perform the best (Ngesa, 2008; Armstrong & Baron, 2009; Armstrong, 2009; Republic of Kenya, 2006; Republic of Kenya, 2016).

Slightly more than two thirds (69%) of the study participants reported that employee performance could be managed through annual appraisal teamwork approach while nearly half (47%) of them were in opinion that midterm appraisal of teamwork could also effectively manage employee performance in the civil service. In line with the study findings Grubb (2007) reported that performance appraisal is a procedure to evaluate how individual personnel are performing and how they can improve their performance and contribute to overall organizational performance. Performance appraisal establishes reward system that will combine the effort of leaders and the worker of organization to the common goals of their organizations (Cleveland, Murphy, & William, 1989). In the same vein, a study conducted by Nadeem Iqbal, Naveed Ahmad, Zeeshan Haider, Yumna Batool, Qurat-ul-ain (2013) found that there is a strong positive and significant correlation between performance appraisal and employee performance ($p < .001$, $r = .590$). Thus, performance appraisal improves employee performance in Public service.

Nearly two thirds (65%) of the respondents felt that objective setting and review among various teams in public service would effectively enhance their performance. The study finding concurs with another study that was carried out by Boyt, Lusch and Mejza (2005) that found, team spirit in the organization is the key to achieve common goal of the team. This implies that organizations with good team spirit, clear goal and objectives can post good employee performance.

Over half (62%) of the study respondents supported that coaching and/or mentoring of civil servants' teams lead to improved employee performance. This finding is in agreement with previous studies that found, the manager is expected to respond and carefully question the employee for clarity purposes. Further, line managers should pay keen attention to issues affecting employees to be able to identify those who require professional counselling to facilitate the referral. Additionally, counseling of employees on weaknesses as well as reinforcing strength supports management by objectives (Republic of Kenya, 2008b; Kohli & Deb, 2011).

On the other hand, slightly more than half (54%) of the study participants felt that application of rapid results initiative in management of employee performance enhance teamwork in the public

service. This finding is supported by various studies that found, a variety of approaches such as Rapid Results Initiative improve efficiency and determine how teamwork impacts on performance of employees in public service in Kenya (Armstrong & Baron, 2009; Kobia & Mohammed, 2009).

Conclusion

The study concludes that teamwork ensures effective operation within an organization. Through teamwork, members get the opportunity to enhance their skills, knowledge and abilities by working together with others. Moreover, teamwork ensures democracy at the workplace, enhance change, encourage innovation and creativity, and allow for effective decision-making and networking. There are emerging challenges in managing performance of employees in public service in Kenya including budgetary constraints; inadequate resources such as staff among others. Therefore there is need for organizations to enhance: capacity building of employees, prompt promotion of employees, higher remuneration and good rewards to higher achievers, commitment and improvement in work environment, effective communication and involvement of employees in decision making.

References

- Aguinis, H. (2009). *Performance management*. Dorling Kindersley: India Pvt Ltd.
- Armstrong, M. & Baron, A. (2009). *Performance management: A strategic and integrated approach to achieve success*. Ahmedabad: Jaico Publishing House.
- Armstrong, M. (2009). *Essential human resource management practice: A guide to people management*. London and Philadelphia: Kogan Page.
- Bakotic, D. & Babic, T. (2013). Relationship between working condition and job satisfaction: The case of Croatian ship building company. *International journal of business and social sciences*, 4(2), 206-213.
- Boyt, T., Lusch, R., and Naylor, G. (2001). The role of professionalism in determining job satisfaction in professional services: A study of marketing researchers. *Journal of Service Research*, 3(4), 321-330.
- Chukwedi, D. (2014). The impact of teamwork on organizational productivity. Retrieved from <http://nairaproject.com/projects/522.html>.
- Franco, N. (2008). *Basics human resource management*. Retrieved from <http://www.hrmbusiness.com/2008/08/hrm-basics-human-resource-management.html>

- Jalal, H. & Putri,R.(2015). Examining the effects of employee empowerment, teamwork and employee training on job satisfaction. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 21(2), 272-282.
- Kalisch, B. & Lee, H.(2009).Nursing teamwork, staff characteristics, work schedules and staffing. *Healthcare management review*, 34(4),323-333.
- Kalisch, B.,Weaver, S. & Salas, E.(2009). What does nursing teamwork look like? A qualitative study. *Journal of nursing care quality*, 24(4), 298-307.
- Kobia, M. & Mohammed, N. (2009). *The Kenyan experience with performance contracting*. Retrieved from Unpanl.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/.../UNPNO25987.pdf.
- Kohli A.S. & Deb T. (2011). *Performance management*. New Delhi: Oxford University Press.
- Kohli, A. & Deb, T. (2008). *Performance management*. New Delhi: Oxford University Press.
- Kothari, C. (2004). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*. 2nd ed. New Delhi: New Age International (P) Limited, Publishers.
- Khuong, M.& Tien,B.(2013). Factors influencing employees loyalty directly and indirectly through job satisfaction. A study of banking sector in Ho Chi Minh City. *International journal of current research and academic review*, 1(4), 81-95.
- Ministry of Local Government of Rwanda, (2010). *Five years capacity building strategies for local governments*. Retrieved from http://www.minecofin.gov.rw/fileadmin/templates/documents/LG_DIistricts/Fiscal_Decentralisation_document/Local%20Government%20Capacity%20Building%20Strategy-%202011-2015.pdf
- Nadeem, I., Naveed, A., Zeeshan, H., Yumna, B. & Qurat-ul-ain, H. (2013). Impact of performance appraisal on employee's performance involving the Moderating Role of Motivation. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review*, 3(1), 37-56.
- Nassiuma, D. (2000). *Survey sampling: Theory and methods*. Njoro, Kenya: Egerton University Press.
- Ngesa, R. (2008). *Building high performing teams, sharing power, empowering and developing others*. Paper Presented during Strategic Leadership Development Programme. Kenya School of Government.

Ojienda, T. (2007). Implementing the new partnership for Africa's development: Whither the Africa peer review mechanisms. Retrieved from http://www.kenyalaw.org/Downloads_Other/ojienda_nepad.pdf

Republic of Kenya (2016e). Human resource policies and procedure manual for the public service: Public Service Commission. Nairobi: Government Printer.

Republic of Kenya (2008b), *Guidelines to the performance appraisal system in the civil service and local authorities*. Nairobi: Government Printer.

Republic of Kenya (2006). *Code of regulations (Rev. 2008)*. Nairobi: Government Printer.

Influence of Organizational Culture on the Employee Performance in the Civil Service in Kenya

Authors: Joyce K. Nyabuti¹, Ronald Chepkilot² and Charles Zakayo³

¹Kabarak University, P.O. Private Bag 20157, Kabarak – Kenya

^{2,3}Lecturers at Kabarak University, P.O. Private Bag 20157, Kabarak – Kenya

Corresponding Author: Joyce Nyabuti | Email address: joynyabuti@yahoo.com

Abstract:

Even though the government of Kenya has launched several reform programs to promote effective performance among employees in the public service, the performance level is still wanting. A positive organizational culture such as a good reward and sustained motivation systems would improve the performance of an organization in general. This study sought to examine the influence of organizational culture on the employee performance in the civil service in Kenya. The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design. The sample size of the study included two hundred and twenty five (225) respondents from seven government ministries. Stratified random sampling procedure was used to arrive at the sample. The study used questionnaire method to collect data from the respondents. Data from the questionnaire were coded and processed with the help of a statistical application, namely SPSS version 21. Quantitative approach involved use of descriptive and inferential statistics. From the analysis, the study found that there is a statistical significant association between organizational culture and employee performance in the civil service in Kenya. The results of the study inform the centrality of the concept of organizational culture in the performance of public institutions in developing economies like Kenya. Thus, a need to develop and implement an efficient and effective organizational culture that encourages and motivates good performance among employees in the public service.

Keywords: *Employee performance, Organizational culture, public service management, organization values, public service performance, Kenya civil service performance*

1. Introduction

Despite that the Government of Kenya (GOK) has in the past launched several reform programs to enhance efficiency and productivity in public service, poor and declining performance among employees is evident. This inhibits realization of sustainable economic growth in the country. For instance, Civil Service Reform Program (CSR) (GOK, 1993) was designed to contain costs, improve performance in the public sector, and consolidate and sustain the gains made by reform initiatives but the wage bill is still increasing (Opiyo, 2006). The Government of Kenya through its path to the understanding of the nations' development agenda as enshrined in the First Medium Term Plan (2008-2012) and vision 2030 realizes that an efficient, motivated and well trained public service is one of the major foundation's pillar (GOK, 2007).

Globally, there seems to be a performance crisis in public service, while there is need to produce more for less (Nabukeera, Ali and Raja, 2014). This problem strikes through poor, developing and developed countries and has raised the appetite for efficiency and the need for evaluation mechanisms to help assess the performance of government institutions or programs that are quite inadequate in stakeholder expectations (Nabukeera, Ali & Raja, 2014). Salem (2003) stated that while it was clear by the 1980s that interest in Performance Management had moved from the ivory towers of academia to the corridors of government around the world, towards the end of the 1980s, many systems of Performance Management were born, adopted and implemented at many levels of the public sector and these were traced back to the use of cost benefit analysis in the 1960s; to management by objectives in the 1960s and 1970s; and to output budgeting in the 1960s. Most of these initiatives, however, were regarded as experimental and some were only adopted as one-off exercises. Governments have striven to introduce effective information systems (IS) for employees to provide electronic-service to the public. Industrialized countries such as the United Kingdom, the United States, and Japan are constantly proposing new government renovation plans. To keep up with world trends, the Taiwanese government, under the E-Government Action Plan provided by the Research, Development, and Evaluation Commission of Executive, has promoted implementing e-government throughout the country (Yuan, 2001). According to reports by the Centre for Public Policy at Brown University, Taiwan's e-government services were ranked third among 198 countries in 2007 and second in 2008 (West, 2008). Also, through many years of development and implementation, e-government has become an important strategy for the implementation of reinvented and innovative services in many countries.

In Africa, most organizations have started adopting the use of the Balanced Score Card (BSC) as a way of improving employee performance (Malinga, 2004). In Ethiopia, there is growing interest in the use of the BSC in more firms with support from government (Tessema, 2005). In Uganda, public sectors have faced significant employee performance challenges during recent years (Kagaari et al, 2013); employee performance standards are being set out in various public institutions using the results oriented and quality management principles (Olum, 2004). With the changing working environment, technology developments and overall economic improvements in many countries across Africa, employees are beginning to have new demands. In South

Africa, for example, recent developments in the way employees are managed in organizations have brought about the need to seriously consider employees as major stakeholders in organizations (Tchapchet et al, 2014).

In Kenya, performance measurement is being emphasized through quality controls as well as the implementation of balance score card (BSC) and Results Oriented Management (ROM) through monthly, quarterly and annual reports to various key monitoring and supervision institutions of the government (Olum, 2004). In order to increase work effectiveness and performance, it is important to address a number of issues, including increasing motivation among employees, making them feel satisfied with their job, and increasing their job-related well-being in general. A study conducted by Pattanayak (2008) points out that a positive organizational culture would improve the performance of an organization in different ways such as placing constraints on the individual's freedom of choice and providing a source of reward and punishment. Another study conducted by Fakhar, Zahid and Muhammad (2013), found out that the implementation of a good rewarding system and continuous motivation encourages the employees to do best to target achievements of the organization, instead of giving more focus on structures and policies. Therefore, basing on this background there was a need to investigate influence of organizational culture on the employee performance in the civil service in Kenya.

2. Methodology

The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design in collection of quantitative data. The design is useful in describing the characteristics of a large population, makes use of large samples, thus making the results statistically significant even when analyzing multiple variables; the design also allows use of various methods of data collection such as questionnaire, structured and unstructured interviews and document analysis. The study targeted a population of 104,305 from all the eighteen (18) government Ministries (Maina, 2015). The study used stratified random sampling method to obtain the study sample from the 18 ministries. The ministries were stratified into three groups, namely big, medium and small. Random sampling procedure was then used to select a representative number from each strata, giving a total of seven ministries. A sample size of two hundred and twenty five (225) respondents was obtained using sample size determination formula for finite population (Nassiuma, 2000) but one hundred and ninety (190) respondents took part in the study which accounted to a response rate of 84.4%.

The study used questionnaire as the main tool of data collection. To ensure that the questionnaire was valid content validity was used. Split half method was used to estimate reliability of instruments where a Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient value of 0.85 was obtained which is higher than the reasonable threshold of 0.7, thus making the instruments to be considered as reliable. Collected data were analyzed using quantitative data analysis approaches. The collected data were processed with the help of a statistical application, namely SPSS. The results were reported using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

3. Results

3.1 Background Information

The background information of the respondents that took part in this study included gender, age bracket, educational level and working experience. More than half of the respondents, (58%) were male and the rest 42% were female. The vast majority of the respondents, (83%) were within 31-40 years of age, 14% below 30 years and those between 41-50 years were only 3%. Nearly half (49.5%) of the respondents had college level of education, another 42.1% indicated they had university degree and only 8.4% had secondary school certificate. Slightly over half, (54.2%) of the respondents had a working experience of 6 years and above. The remaining 45.8% had a working experience of 5 years and below in public service.

3.2 Influence of Organization Culture on Employees' Performance

This study sought to find out the influence of organizational culture on performance of employees in the civil service in Kenya. The respondents were asked to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed with the statements.

Table 1

Influence of organizational culture on employees' performance

Items	SA		A		UD		D		SD	
	F	(%)	F	(%)	F	(%)	F	(%)	F	(%)
Shared values in the Ministry contribute to increased performance among the staff	72	37.9	100	52.6	12	6.3	6	3.2	-	-
The Ministry vision and mission help in building up a strong organization culture	28	14.7	132	69.5	10	5.3	13	6.8	7	3.7
Availability of work ethics in the ministry largely contributes to improved performance among the employees	21	11.1	135	71.1	15	7.9	13	6.8	6	3.2
The kind of communication and management styles used in the ministry determines employees performance	33	17.4	134	70.5	9	4.7	14	7.4	-	-
The teamwork spirit among employees in the ministry improves their performance	36	18.9	131	68.9	14	7.4	9	4.7	-	-

Key: SA: Strongly Agree; A: Agree; UD: Undecided; D: Disagree, SD Strongly Disagree

As shown in Table 1, slightly more than half (52.6%) of the respondents agreed that presence of shared values in the Ministry contributed to increased performance among the employees in public service. This was further supported by 37.9% of the respondents who strongly agreed with the statement. Over two third (69.5%) of the respondents felt that the Ministry vision and mission helped in building up a strong organization culture. However, 10.5% refuted that vision and mission of respective ministries were sound.

With reference to the work ethics in the ministry, a vast majority (82.2%) of the respondents agreed and strongly agreed that work ethics in the ministry contributed to better performance. However, 10% of the respondents reported that work ethics in the civil service contributed to poor performance.

An overwhelming majority (87.9%) of the respondents agreed that the kind communication and management styles used in the ministry would determine the performance of the employees in public service. Only 7.4% of the respondents disagreed with this statement.

On the question of the influence of teamwork on employee performance, a vast majority (87.8%) of the respondents were positive that teamwork spirit in the ministry improved employee performance. This was however not the case among 12.1% of the respondents who felt that the spirit of teamwork in the respective ministries was lacking and did not therefore influence employee performance.

3.3 Relationship between Organizational Culture and Employee Performance

The study sought to establish the relationship between organizational culture and employee performance. Chi Square test was used to determine the relationship.

Table 2

*Organizational culture * employee performance crosstabulation*

			Level of Employee Performance			Total
			Good	Average	poor	
Organizational Culture	Vision and Mission	Count	16	14	17	47
		Expected Count	13.9	21.5	11.6	47.0
	Work Environment	Count	12	20	13	45
		Expected Count	13.3	20.6	11.1	45.0
	Communication	Count	19	26	6	51
		Expected Count	15.0	23.4	12.6	51.0
	Team Work	Count	9	27	11	47
		Expected Count	13.9	21.5	11.6	47.0
Total		Count	56	87	47	190
		Expected Count	56.0	87.0	47.0	190.0

Table 3

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.842 ^a	6	.031
Likelihood Ratio	14.765	6	.022
Linear-by-Linear Association	.225	1	.636
N of Valid Cases	190		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.13.

The results in Table 3 showed that there was a statistical significant relationship between organizational culture and employee performance in the civil service in Kenya, $\chi^2=54.969$, $df = 6$, $N=190$, $p=0.03$. Thus, organizational culture attributes including vision and mission, work environment, communication and team spirit significantly influence employee performance in the civil service.

4. Discussion

A study conducted by Schein (2010) found that organizational culture entails common values and behaviors of the people that are considered as tools that lead to successful achievement of organizational goals. Another study by Agwu (2014) found that the performance of an organization depends on the degree to which the values of its employees are widely shared. Similarly, a study conducted by Ogbonna (1993) found that shared and strongly held values enable management to predict employees' reactions to certain strategic options and reducing these values may bring undesirable consequences. Therefore, the finding of this study where a vast majority (90.5%) of the respondents felt that presence of shared values in the Ministry contributes to increased performance among the employees in public service concurs with previous studies.

Over two third (69.5%) of the respondents were positive that the Ministry vision and mission helped in building up a strong organization culture. This concurs with other studies conducted by Campbell (1997); Mullane (2002); Rigby (1994); Matejka et al. (1993); Campbell & Yeung (1991) that have delineated that mission and vision statements can be used to build a common and shared sense of purpose and also serve as conduit through which employees focus are shaped. This is also supported by other studies in the same area that found mission and vision statements tend to motivate, shape behaviors, cultivate high levels of commitment and ultimately impact positively on employee performance (Mullane, 2002; Collins and Poras, 1991; Daniel, 1992, Campbell, 1989; Ireland and Hitt, 1992, Klemm et al., 1991, Drucker 1959).

An overwhelming majority (82.2%) of the respondents agreed and strongly agreed that work ethics in the ministry contributes to better performance. This is in line with Argyris and Schon's (1978) in Maglino (1998) and Sabir et al (2012) report that ethic values in a company have impact employees' performance at work. Furthermore, Enz (1988) and Amason (1996) in Maglino (1998) find otherwise as also supported by a study conducted by Attwell (1988) on influence of work ethics on employee performance, which found work ethic does not significantly influence someone's performance at work. This is in agreement with the response of minority (10%) in this study. This difference in findings could be attributed to the type of organization, and the organizational culture.

A vast majority (87.9%) of the respondents agreed that communication and management styles used in the ministry would determine the performance of the employees in public service. This

is in agreement with a study conducted by Ada et al. (2008) that found for organization and human as a social being, communication has a vital importance, whether pros or cons are an inseparable piece of life and also it has an important role on all activities aimed at gaining organizational objectives. Attention has been given to the study of organizational communication in organizational behavior research as a result of the significance of this variable to organizational effectiveness. For instance, it has been found that effective communication improves job satisfaction (Holtzhausen, 2002) and which in turn improves productivity (Litterst & Eyo, 1982). This further concurs with a study carried out by Goris (2007) that found, communication improves employee job performance, while poor communication results to low employee's commitment to the organization. Further a study conducted by Ferris et al (1998) asserts that effective human resource system is based on supporting values that create a positive impact on employees' attitudes and behaviors which in turn influence their performance.

Organizations which have low or non-existent people orientation typically encounter more cynicism and distrust of management within the system while organizations with high people orientation are more likely to maintain loyal employees (Grinder, 2003). Team orientation can be interpreted or described as an aspect of the organization placing more emphasis on teamwork to accomplish work objectives and goals rather than an emphasis on individualized work (Robbins & Langton, 2003). On the other hand the finding of this study where 87.8% of the respondents "agreed" and "strongly agreed" that the teamwork in the ministry improves employee performance is in agreement with other previous studies. Therefore, teamwork should be encouraged in public sector where most employees opt to work on their own. This could lead to increased production among employees as well as achievement of set goals and objectives within the timelines.

The study found that there was a significant relationship between organizational culture and employee performance in Kenya's public service, $\chi^2=54.969$, $df=6$, $N=190$, $p<0.03$. An earlier study by Tshilidzi and Krishna (2016) on culture, leadership and individual performance in public service organizations in South Africa found that organizational culture is positively significantly correlated with employee performance ($r = 0.408$; $p < 0.05$). Another study that was carried out by Njugi and Nickson (2014) on effects of organizational culture on employee performance in non governmental organizations in Kenya found that organization culture has a great influence on performance as it dictates how things are done, organization's philosophy, work environment, performance targets and organizations stability. Therefore, every organization should ensure that all attributes of organizational culture are put into practice for better performance among employees.

5. Conclusion

As manifested in the study findings, there is a statistical significant association between organizational culture and employee performance in public service. Therefore, there is a need to orient all employees through all attributes of organizational culture so as to initiate personal efforts towards realization of both short term and long term organizational goals, by practicing and implementing the guiding core values. The implication of the study finding is that

all Ministries in Kenya should improve on working environment, communication, team work and more so have clear vision and mission that can be easily adopted by every employee. There is a need for the public institutions to develop and implement an efficient and effective organizational culture that encourages and motivates good performance among employees in the public service.

References

- Attwell, A., (1998). Productivity and work ethics. *Journal on Work Study*, 47(3), 79 – 86.
- Campbell, A. (1989). Does your organization need a mission statement? *Leadership and Organization Development*, 10 (3), 3-9.
- Campbell, A. (1997). Mission statements. *Long Range Planning*, 30 (6), 931-932.
- Campbell, A. & Yeung, S. (1991). Creating a sense of mission. *Long Range Planning*, 24 (4), 10-20.
- Collins, J. & Poras, J. (1991). *Organisational vision and visionary organizations*. California: Fall Press.
- Daniel, A. (1992). Strategic Planning-the role of the chief executive, *Long Range Planning*, 25, 1991.
- Drucker, P. (1959). Challenges to management science, *Long Range Planning*, 5 (3), 238-249
- Kagaari, J., Munene, J., & Ntayi, M. (2013). Agency relations and managed performance in public universities in Uganda. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 39(1), 916-926.
- Klemm, M., Sanderson, S. & Luffman, G. (1991). Mission statements: selling corporate values to employees, *Long Range Planning*, 24 (3), 73-78.
- Malinga, G. (2004). *Current State and Future Developments of Performance Management in Kenya*. Ethiopia: Maastricht School of Management press.
- Matejka, K., Kurke, L. & Gregory, B. (1993). Mission impossible? Designing a great mission statement to ignite your plans. *Journal of Business Management*, 31 (4), 34-37.
- Meglino, B. & Ravlin, E. (1998). Individual Values in Organizations: Concepts, Controversies, and Research. *Journal of Management*, 24 (3), 351-389.
- Mullane, J. (2002). The mission statement is a strategic tool: when used properly, *Journal of Business Management*, 40 (5), 448-455.

- Nabukeera, M., Ali, B., & Raja. N. (2015). Performance evaluation of public service institutions (CQS) framework. *World Journal of Social Science*, 2 (1), 1-25.
- Njugi, A. & Nickson, L. (2014). Effects of organizational culture on employee performance in non governmental organizations. *International journal of scientific and research publications*, 4(11), 1-12.
- Olum, Y. (2004). Public Service Reform in Uganda. A critical appraisal. Department of Political Science and Public Administration, Makerere University. *African Journal of Public Administration and Management*, 15 (1), 1-21.
- Pattanayak, B. (1998). *Corporate Human Resource Development*. New Delhi: Excel Books.
- Tchapchet, E., Iwu, C. & Allen-Ile, C. (2014). Employee participation and productivity in a South African university. Implications for human resource management. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 12(4), 293 – 304.
- Tessema, A. (2005). *Performance Management Tools: Is the balanced score card applicable in public enterprises in Ethiopia*. Ethiopia: Maastricht School of Management press.
-

Suggested Citation

Nyabuti, J.K., Chepkilot, R. & Zakayo, C. (2017). *African Research Journal of Education and Social Sciences*, 4. Retrieved from <http://arjess.org/social-sciences-research/influence-of-organizational-culture-on-the-employee-performance-in-the-civil-service-in-kenya.pdf>
