

**STOCK MARKET BEHAVIOUR AROUND NATIONAL  
ELECTIONS IN KENYA**

**BY**

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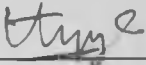


## DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and to the best of my knowledge has not been presented for the award of any degree in any University.

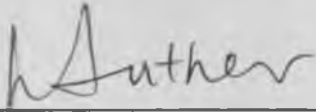
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## **DEDICATION**

I would like to dedicate this work to my wonderful wife Florence Miya who has been a great source of inspiration to me and to my lovely daughter Joy who constantly reminds me that every good and perfect gift comes from above. To God be all the glory.

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## DEFINITION OF TERMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

N.E.P	National election period
G7	Group of seven most industrialised nations
OPEC	Organisation of petroleum exporting countries
CBK	Central bank of Kenya
IPO	Initial public offering
NSE	Nairobi stock exchange
CMA	Capital markets authority of Kenya
ARCH	Auto regressive conditional Heteroskedastic
GARCH	Generalised auto regressive conditional Heteroskedastic
EMH	Efficient Markets Hypothesis
BRSN	Buy on rumour and sell on the news
E/P	Earnings to Price ratio
B/M	Book to Market ratio
C/P	Cashflow to Price ratio
CAPM	Capital asset pricing model
OLS	Ordinary least square

## **ABSTRACT**

This study looked at the stock market behaviour around national elections in Kenya. Two periods were chosen namely 1997 and 2002 elections mainly because of data availability. Previous empirical research has shown that share prices respond to events. For instance, Richard (2006) cites national elections as one of the event classes that is anticipated in share price movements. A country's politics can exert significant influence on its income distribution and prosperity. Despite the importance attached to election effects, most previous studies have only concentrated on the developed countries but no scholarly work has been done in Kenya. It is therefore from this stand point that this study was warranted and therefore addressed this gap.

This study was based on an event study methodology of the stock market behaviour around the national elections of 1997 and 2002. The focus was on the NSE 20 Share index constituent counters. These were chosen as they represent 80% of the trading volumes at the Nairobi Stock Exchange. A 60-day trading window around national election dates was chosen and the market model approach based on the 250-day daily returns benchmark model by Brown (1985) was employed. Previous studies have shown that event studies based on market model and standard parametric tests are well specified under a variety of conditions. Hence, this method provided the framework for this study.

The study's findings mirror what has been observed in previous studies. The stocks react strongly to elections outcome and



temporarily elevated levels of volatility are observed. Share prices go down before the election date and start rising thereafter. Abnormal returns shift steeply downwards after the election date and start increasing thereafter before settling to a new equilibrium. However, in both election years the abnormal returns were not found to be statistically significant.

Several limitations were encountered which included lack of data availability, problems of survivorship bias coupled with low liquidity or infrequent trading. This made it difficult for share price information to be gathered and meaningful conclusions to be derived.

This study has mainly two implications for the investors namely compensation for risk and trading strategies. One possible strategy that can be employed from the findings is to use a contrarian strategy before the election event and a momentum strategy after the election event. Both of these strategies have been covered in detail in the literature review section.

# CHAPTER ONE

## 1.0 INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

Country's politics can exert significant influence on its income distribution and prosperity. In democratic states, voters elect parties which best represent their personal beliefs and interests. According to partisan theory propounded by Hibbs (1997), leftist governments attribute higher social costs to inflation. Another influential theory presented by Nordhaus (1975) postulates that, irrespective of their political orientation, incumbents will pursue policies that maximize their chances of re-election. As a result, they will try to self-servingly attune the business cycle to the timing of elections. The economy will be stimulated by unsustainable expansionary policies before elections, and harsh actions aimed at curbing the resultant inflation will follow at the beginning of the new term of office. It is noted, however, that any policy-induced cycles in real activity will be ephemeral if the economic agents and voters have rational expectations (Alesina, 1987; Rogoff, 1990).

Kenya has made great strides in its attempt to embrace democratic ideals by consistently holding its national elections after every five years as stipulated in its current constitution. Every election period is associated with great uncertainty and therefore presents challenges for investors. Kathleen (1989) whilst discussing agency theory has described the ramifications of outcome uncertainty to their implications for creating risk. In her paper, uncertainty is viewed in terms of risk/reward trade offs , not just in terms of inability to preplan. In an

electioneering period both pre planning and outcome uncertainty is indeed a challenge.

The Nairobi Stock exchange can be categorised as an emerging market within the framework provided by the International Finance Corporation (Solnik 2000). Many emerging market economies at various times have undergone rapid growth and because their stock markets are not highly developed and therefore are less efficient, there is considerable opportunity for relatively high returns from emerging market investments. However, there is also a relatively high level of risk involved as witnessed by the melt down of several Asian emerging stock markets in 1997 and 1998 ( Sharpe, Alexander and Bailey 2003)

The dynamics in emerging market therefore present challenges for investors bearing in mind that share prices respond to events. Richard (2006) cites the following event classes, though not exhaustive, that are anticipated in security prices include: earnings reports, product releases, trade show presentations, bonus issues, ipo, dividend announcements. On a global scale, Richard(2006) cites national elections, government economic and commodity data releases, Federal Reserve Board announcements, government policy decisions and G7 or OPEC statements may incite anticipatory and reactive security price movements. This study aims at focussing on the share price movements around the election period in Kenya.

## 1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Many studies have been done to ascertain how share prices respond to various events or announcements. A study by Ball and Brown (1968) provides some evidence about the speed of share price adjustment as well as the information content of annual reports. Aharony and Swary (1980) examine all dividend and earnings announcements within the same quarter that are at least 11 trading days apart. They conclude that both quarterly earnings announcements and dividend change announcements have significant effects on stock prices. Scholes (1972) and Kraus and Stoll (1972) provided the first empirical evidence about the price effects of block trades. They observed greater price changes after block trade distribution when seller is presumed to have a knowledgeable reason for trading. A study on stock splits announcements conducted by Fama, Fisher, Jensen and Roll (1969) reveal positive abnormal returns before the split but not afterward. In a related study Grinblatt, Masulis and Titman (1984) confirm earlier work on stock dividends by Foster and Vickrey (1978) and Woolridge (1983a, 1983b) that the announcement effects for stock dividends are large. This lends support to the conjecture that splits are interpreted by investors as messages about future dividend increases.

The above cited events are assumed to take place randomly. A national election on the other hand is an anticipated event whose date is known well in advance. Politics, elections in this case, can exert significant influence on a country's income distribution and prosperity. Several papers look at whether security returns are impacted by politics. Booth and Booth (2003) report that US stock market tends to perform better in the second half of the presidential term. Knight

(2004) studied whether policy platforms are capitalized into equity prices as evident from the Bush / Gore 2000 presidential election. He confirms that favourable policies play key role in determining a firm's total value. The result is quite surprising given that candidate platforms are not actually enacted until months or even years after elections. The researcher is therefore motivated to enquire and explore as to whether these empirical findings are reflected in the Kenyan security market context.

Bialkowski et al (2006) have studied the stock market volatility around national elections. The empirical findings of their study indicate that; despite many efforts to accurately predict election outcome investors are still surprised by the ultimate distribution of votes. Stock prices react strongly in response to this surprise, and temporarily elevated levels of volatility are observed. These empirical conclusions hold irrespective of the choice of event window. Narrowing the event window, however magnifies the implied percentage change in variance, suggesting that most of this is likely due to large market moves on the election day. Bialkowski et al (2006) also found that the country specific component of volatility can easily double during the week surrounding the election.

The national election period is usually characterised with uncertainty about election outcome and this has important implications for risk averse investors. This warrants investigation into the return volatility of stock around national election period (NEP) in Kenya. The researcher was therefore motivated to investigate the possible share price behaviour around this period. This led the researcher to the question as to whether there are any abnormal returns / losses around

the national election period. To the knowledge of the researcher this area has not been given scholarly attention in Kenya. However, studies have been done in the developed countries such as the USA and Japan among others.

## **1.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The following are the research questions that will enable the researcher to obtain the relevant information on the share price behaviour around the NEP:

1. What kind of return and trading patterns are exhibited at NSE during the NEP?

## **1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

1. To establish return and trading patterns at the NSE during the NEP

## **1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The following category of groups will benefit from this study:

1. Local and foreign investors will use this information in assessing and reviewing their portfolios and in making wise and prudent decisions.
2. Institutional investors will gain added value to their research activities.
3. Stockbrokers will gain added value to their advisory services to their clients.

4. To scholars, this study contributes to the body of knowledge and research programs in business and finance fields. Other scholars doing related studies can benefit from the information therein.
5. The government and quasi-governmental bodies such as Capital markets authority and Nairobi stock exchange will find the information herein as valuable for policy, legal framework and stock market development. The study will enhance financial deepening initiatives such as introduction of derivative products for managing risk and spur investor confidence through introduction of "circuit breakers" at NSE to help reduce irrational exuberance and "herding" effects.
6. Listed companies can use the information herein to devise investor communication strategies to reduce information asymmetry and induce stakeholders confidence

## **1.5 SCOPE OF STUDY**

- The study focuses on two electioneering periods in Kenya, namely 1997 and 2002. The election dates are 28.12.1997 and 28.12.2002 respectively.
- The study predominantly focuses on the share prices of all firms listed at the Nairobi Stock Exchange under NSE 20 SHARE INDEX. The NSE 20 Share Index is a price performance index that tracks prices of 20 key shares listed at the Nairobi Stock Exchange. The counters included in the index include the following Barclays Bank, Standard Chartered Bank, Uchumi, Sasini, Unilever, Kenya Airways, Bamburi, Portland , Kenya Commercial Bank, Unga Ltd, Kakuzi,

CMC Holdings Nation Media, Housing Finance, BOC ,Kenya Ltd, Sameer Africa, Total Kenya, NIC , Williamson Tea.

## 1.6 HYPOTHESIS

The null hypothesis is that there are no abnormal returns associated with the election event. This is expressed mathematically as follows:

Null hypothesis                       $H_0$  : Abnormal returns are equal to zero

Alternate hypothesis       $H_A$  : Abnormal returns are not equal to zero

## 1.7 SUMMARY

The approach of this study was to review extant literature that cover prior work that links share prices and national elections. The methodologies used in prior work has been used as a basis of deriving the research design discussed in chapter three which is basically an event study based on the market model. The rationale on the method adopted is also reviewed under the literature review chapter and further discussed in detail in chapter three. Essentially event studies are joint studies on market efficiency and asset pricing model. As discussed in the literature review section, the efficiency of market prices seems to be assured by marginal traders who arbitrage away any existing judgement biases and pricing errors (Forsythe *et al* 1999). This being the case, the researcher has included in the literature review a debate that encompasses the traditional rational



investor model verses the behavioural models used in explaining the market efficiency and the gap between theory and prior empirical findings (Campbell 2000). The study has mainly two implications for the investor notably compensation for risk and investment strategies. The researcher has therefore included in the literature review section, possible trading strategies that investors use to deal with the vagaries of the stock market. The last two chapters will cover the empirical data analysis, conclusion and recommendation.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.0 POLITICAL STOCK MARKET**

Several recent papers look at whether security returns are improved by politics. Booth and Booth (2003) reports that the US stock market tends to perform better in the second half of the presidential term. This phenomenon could be a reflection of the political business cycle but can also be explained behaviourally. The authors argue that investors may be optimistic about the implications of the impending elections, but their optimism wears off quickly once the new administration fails to keep its election campaign promises. Santa – Clara and Valkanov (2003) show that the market excess return was higher under Democrat than Republican presidencies throughout the period from 1927 – 1998. The authors argue that such anomaly cannot be explained away by variation in business condition proxies. Additional evidence is provided by Nofsinger (2004), who contends that the stock market is a barometer of public sentiments and its movements can indicate whether incumbents will be re-elected.

Bialkowski, Gottschalk and Wisiewski (2004) study the interplay between politics and stock prices in 27 industrialized nations They note that most of the previous empirical studies are exclusively based on U.S. data. Since elections are essentially rare events, the single country approach leads to a small sample and many statistical problems specific to it. To overcome these obstacles, the data set compiled in their study covers 27 industrialized nations. Furthermore,

the basic conceptual framework proposed in their study departs slightly from the convention adapted in prior literature. Instead of examining the fortunes of stock markets throughout the tenure of different administrations, their analysis concentrates on the returns variability around election dates. The authors postulate that evidence of extreme price movements in these periods lend support to the conjecture that market participants tend to be surprised by the actual election results.

Bailkowsi et al (2004) further state that their investigation into return volatility was warranted on at least three grounds. First, the uncertainty about election outcome has important implication for risk averse investors. Prior research has shown that investors are undiversified internationally and exhibit a significant home bias (French and Porterba, 1991; Baxter and Jermann, 1997), since they hold predominant domestics assets, the country – specific political risk will not diffuse in their respective portfolios. Consequently, the sole event of elections in their home country could have serious implications for the risk level of their portfolios.

Second, any market-wide fluctuations in response to election shocks will augment the systematic volatility of all stocks listed. It is therefore conceivable that option prices could increase around the time when voters cast their ballots. Finally, the results reported in their study could be of interest to pollsters as they provide indirect evidence on whether the accuracy of pre-election forecasts suffices for practical applications.

Bailkowski et al (2004) gauged the impact of elections on the second moment of return distribution using a volatility event – study approach. Their analysis starts with isolating the country specific component of variance within a GARCH (1,1) framework and both equations were estimated jointly using the maximum likelihood method over a period immediately preceding the event window. The convention adapted in the literature for the type of event studies described by Brown and Warner (1985) is to use 250 daily returns to estimate the benchmark model as guided by practical considerations.

To measure abnormal volatility, Bialkowski et al (2004) had to consider the variation of returns around the event date in relation to its regular non-event level. Potential complications may arise from non-normality, cross sectional dependence, or auto correlation of the regression residuals . To circumvent these problems and reinforce their results, the statistical significance of election impact was additionally tested using the bootstrap methodology of Efron (1979).

The empirical findings by Bialkowski et al (2006) indicate that; despite many efforts to accurately predict election outcome investors are still surprised by the ultimate distribution of votes. Stock prices react strongly in response to this surprise, and temporarily elevated levels of volatility are observed. These empirical conclusions hold irrespective of the choice of event window. Narrowing the event window, however magnifies the implied percentage change in variance, suggesting that most of this is likely due to large market moves on the election day. Bailkowski et al (2006) also found that the country specific component of volatility can easily double during the week surrounding the election.

The study by Bialkowski et al (2006) is quite relevant to this study as it provides the conceptual framework which can be used to research the share price behaviour around national elections. The researcher intends to use the same approach of measuring return volatility around the election period in determining the share price behaviour.

The conditional heteroskedastic models such as the Autoregressive Conditional Heteroskedastic (ARCH) and the generalized ARCH (GARCH), used by Bialkowski et al (2006) are based on the principal that speculative price changes contain volatility clusters. These models are designed to remove the systematically changing variance from the data which accounts for much of the leptokurtosis in the distribution of speculative price changes. Essentially these models allow the distribution of the data to exhibit leptokurtosis and hence are better able to describe the empirical distribution of financial data. (The professional's handbook of Financial Risk management page 46).

Despite the advantages of the GARCH model, the researcher proposes not to use it in this study because it is quite a complicated method. Brown (1984) has studied the characteristics of events studies using daily data. He concurs that the cognisance of autocorrelation in daily excess returns and changes in variance conditional on an event can sometimes be advantageous. He however concludes that a simple event study methodology based on the market model also performs well. It is from this standpoint that the researcher proposes use the later approach in this study. This is discussed in detail in the research methodology section.

Knight (2004) studied whether policy platforms are capitalized into equity prices as evident from the Bush/Gore 2000 presidential election (NBER working paper No 10333). The author systematically measured these ties between political parties and industries using evidence on equity returns during the six month period before 2000 U.S presidential election. He studied a sample of 70 firms favoured under the policy platforms of either Bush (41 firms) or Gore (29 firms), as identified by financial analyst reports.

For this sample of 70 politically sensitive firms in the United States, Knight(2004) confirms that favourable policies play a key role in determining a firm's total value. During periods in 2000 when the prospects of a Bush victory were increasing, Bush favoured firms outperform Gore- favoured firms. Likewise, during periods in which prospects of a Gore Victory were increasing, Gore – favoured firms outperformed Bush – favoured firms.

As a measure of the prospects of Bush victory, Knight (2004) used prices of political futures contracts from the IOWA electronic market; prices of these contracts can be interpreted as probability of a candidate's victory in the election. In addition the author shows that these futures contract prices moved in tandem with public opinion tracking polls.

Knight (2004) 's findings demonstrate that prospective future policies are reflected in equity prices during the electoral process. The result is surprising given that candidate platforms are not actually legislatively enacted until months, or even years, after the election of candidates to office. The study by Knight (2004) is relevant to this study as it

motivates the researcher to enquire and explore whether the empirical findings are reflected in the Kenyan security market context.

In another related study, Forsythe *et al.* (1992) analyzed results from the Iowa political stock market to ascertain how well markets work as aggregators of information. The Iowa Political Stock Market (IPSM) was designed by University of Iowa and implemented in 1988 to yield predictions of the expected vote shares of the presidential candidates in that fall's election. Forsythe *et al.* (1992) found that the markets worked extremely well, dominating opinion polls in forecasting the outcome of the 1988 presidential election, even though traders in the market exhibited substantial amounts of judgement biases. Their explanation is that judgement bias refers to average behaviour, while in markets it is marginal traders who influence price. The authors present evidence that in this market a sufficient number of traders were free of judgement bias so that the market was able to work well. This study elicits the view that investor behaviour is ultimately crucial in explaining the share price movements in the market. It is from this standpoint that the researcher has also concisely reviewed extant requisite literature on behavioural finance in a subsequent section.

## **2.1 RATIONAL EXPECTATIONS AND MARKET EFFICIENCY**

A capital market is efficient relative to a given information set only after consideration of the costs of acquiring messages and taking actions pursuant to a particular information structure. The value of information has three parts

- The utilities of the payoffs , given an action
- The optimal actions, given the receipt of a message
- The probabilities of the states of the nature provided by the messages

It is therefore important to appreciate and understanding how the individuals 's decision making process, given the receipt information is reflected in the market prices of assets. This is not easy because it is impossible to observe the quantity and quality of information or the timing of its receipt in the real world.

There is even disagreement among theorists about what information will be used by investors. For instance, Forsythe, Palfrey and Plott (1982) identify four different hypotheses. Each hypothesis assumes that investors know with certainty what their payoffs will be across time, but they know that different individuals may pay different prices because of differing preferences. This is a classical case of the clientele effect.

The first hypothesis is particularly nonsensical (call it the naïve hypothesis) in that it asserts that asset prices are completely arbitrary and unrelated either to how much they will pay out in the future or to the probabilities of various payouts.

The second hypothesis (call it the speculative equilibrium hypothesis) asserts that all investors base their investment decisions entirely on their anticipation of other individuals' behaviour without any necessary relationship to the actual payoffs that the assets are expected to provide.



The third hypothesis is that asset prices are systematically related to their future payoffs. Called the intrinsic value hypothesis, it says that prices will be determined by each individual's estimate of the payoffs of an asset without consideration of its resale value to other individuals.

The fourth hypothesis may be called the rational expectations hypothesis. It predicts that prices are formed on the basis of the expected future payouts of the assets, including their resale value to third parties. Thus a rational expectations market is an efficient market because prices will reflect all information.

Forsythe *et al.* (1982) tested the rational expectations hypothesis by experimenting on the futures market and found that the results were consistent with the predictions of this hypothesis. Perhaps one of the key valuable implication of their experiment is that the speed with which information is made public is increased through price transactions. Hence, information about the future value of assets is revealed today.

There is a different way of looking at heterogeneous expectations. Suppose that some traders are better informed about which state of nature will actually occur. Furthermore, suppose that different individuals have different information about which states will occur. For example, suppose investor A knows for sure that a Republican will be elected president but knows nothing else. Investor B, on the other hand knows that both houses of Congress will be Democratic but knows nothing else. The question is this: Will market prices reflect the full impact of both pieces of information as though the market were

fully informed, or will prices reflect only some average of the impact of both pieces of information? If prices reflect all information, the market is said to be fully aggregating: otherwise it is only averaging prices.

Very little is known about whether real-world capital markets fully aggregate information or merely average it. A fully aggregating market, however, would be consistent with Fama's (1970) definition of strong-form market efficiency. In a fully aggregating market even insiders who possess private information would not be able to profit by it.

One mechanism for aggregation has been suggested by Grossman and Stiglitz (1976) and Grossman (1976). In a market with two types of traders, "informed" and "uninformed", informed traders will acquire better estimates of future states of nature and take trading positions based on this information. When all informed traders do this, current prices are affected. Uninformed traders invest no resources in collecting information, but they can infer the information of informed traders by observing what happens to prices. Thus the market prices may aggregate information so that all traders (both informed and uninformed) become informed.

In general, rational investors will strive to assess voter sentiment using all available sources of information, such as polls, macroeconomic data, electoral debates or media reports. In an efficient market, their expectations will be aggregated into a consensus forecast, and stock prices will move to reflect it (Bialkowski *et al.* 2006).

## **2.2 REVISITING THE MARKET EFFICIENCY VS BEHAVIOURAL FINANCE DEBATE**

Event studies are usually joint studies on market efficiency and the asset pricing models. It is therefore imperative to revisit the extant literature on market efficiency and the debates on the anomalies observed between theory and empirical findings.

The view of investors as objective decision makers has traditionally gone unchallenged in the academic world. In addition most academics and practitioners agree that markets are efficient, in the semi strong form, by a reasonable operational criterion; there is no systematic way to exploit opportunities for superior gains.

However, efficient markets hypothesis (EMH) and its close counterpart the random walk theory make predictions that do not match empirical data. (Campbell 2000). The EMH argues that competition between investors seeking abnormal profits driven prices to their "current" value. The EMH does not assume that all investors are rational, but it does assume that markets are rational. The EMH does not assume markets can foresee the future, but it does assume that markets make unbiased forecasts of the future. (Ritter, 2003)

In contrast, behavioural finance assumes that, in some circumstances, financial markets are informationally inefficient and hence present arbitrage opportunities.

Psychological models of the overreaction, underreaction and momentum anomalies are common. Shiller (1981, 2003) and De

Boudt and Thaler (1985, 1987) argued that stock prices overreact to economic developments. Barberis, Schleifer, and Vishny (1998) formulate a model of security price over – and under reaction to information when investors judgement is biased by conservatism and the representativeness heuristic. Daniel, Hirshleifer, and Subramanyam (1998) explain event related security price anomalies according to the cognitive biases of investors overconfidence and self attribution. Daniel and Titman (2000) explain the superior returns of a momentum investing strategy over the past 35 years as the result of investors overconfidence bias. Shefrin and Statman (1985) explain why investors exhibit a disposition to sell winners and ride losers. Dremen and Lufkin (2000) present evidence that investors under and overreaction exist and are part of the same psychological peers.

Counter arguments have been presented by Fama (1970, 1998), Rubinstein (2001) and Malkiel (2003). They observe that the characteristics of markets protect it from aggregating the irrationalities of individuals into prices (Rubinstein (2001). Malkiel (2003) observes that the stock market is remarkably efficient in its utilization of information. Fama (1998) states that a workable alternative model to market efficiency is facing a “daunting task”. Such a model must specify biases in information processing that cause the same investors to under react to some types of events and over react to others

Both sides of the argument agree that prices can be wrong without creating opportunities for abnormal returns. However, misallocation of economic resources could occur. In addition to variations in human behaviour based on psychological concepts, it has also been argued

that the limits of arbitrage can result in mispricing (Shleifer and Vishny (1997), Shleifer (2000)).

Mauboussin (1999) presents a different perspective by exploring whether markets are in fact better understood as complex adaptive systems. He states that markets undergo a transition often called "self organized critically" – which occurs without design or help from any outside agent – rather it is a direct function of the dynamic interactions among agents in the system. In capital market language the behaviour of the market "emerges" from the interactions of investors. The complex adaptive system theory of the market does a better job of explaining reality (crashes, trading activity) than the old traditional model, but it does so at the expense of a difficult trade off; by incorporating more realistic albeit still simple – assumptions we lose the crispness of current economic models.

The study on market efficiency and behavioural finance is important for this study as it provides a framework of explaining the market dynamics that are responsible for share price behaviour.

### **2.3 POSSIBLE TRADING STRATEGIES**

This study has implications as far as investment strategies are concerned. Investors are keen on finding ways of dealing with the vagaries of the stock market. The researcher has therefore provided an extant literature review on possible trading strategies which could be pivotal in explaining empirical share price movements around national elections.

Savvy investors are likely to realize that the stock market tends to be uncertain in nature during elections. Successful investing is about managing risk not avoiding it. Daniel Kahneman explains two factors that characterize good decisions.

- “Well – calibrated confidence” (do I understand this investment as well as I think I do?).
- “Correctly – anticipated regret” (how will I react if my analysis turns out to be wrong? (Intelligent investor, 2006).

Hence there is need to develop investment strategies for dealing with the election period uncertainty.

The trader’s aphorism ‘buy on the rumour and sell on the news” (BRSN) describes a strategy for exploiting a frequently observed financial market price pattern as expounded by Richard (2006). This pattern (BRSN) is characterised by security prices rising prior to and falling subsequently to positively anticipated events. Richard (2006). cites some event classes that are anticipated in security prices include; earnings reports, product releases trade show presentations, and Food & Drug Administration meetings. On a global scale, he cites national elections, government economic and commodity data releases, Federal Reserve Board announcements, government policy decisions, and G7 or OPEC policy statements may incite anticipatory and reactive security price movements.

There are two strategies that may be followed to exploit the BRSN pattern. The comprehensive strategy includes buying security before the positively anticipated event. If a positive market adjusted price movement is observed then one may enter a long position. The

security can then be sold immediately prior to the event and shorted immediately following the event. A simple strategy is to forego pre-event purchasing and to short the security immediately following the event. By staying out of the market during the event, unnecessary risk is eliminated.

Empirical evidence indicate that emerging market stocks exhibit momentum (Rouwenhorst, 1999). Fama and French (1992, 1996) and Lakonishok, Shleifer and Vishny (1994) show that value stocks with high book to market. (B/M), earnings to price (E/P), or cash flow to price (C/P) outperform growth stocks with low B/M, E/P, or C/P. Jegadeesh and Titman (1993) examine a variety of momentum strategies and document that strategies that buy stocks with high returns over the previous 3 to 12 months and sell with poor returns over the same period earn profits of about one percent per month the following year.

Momentum investors seek out for purchase of those stocks that have recently risen significantly in price on the belief that they will continue to rise owing to an upward shift in their demand curves. Conversely, those stocks that have recently fallen significantly in price are sold on the belief that their demand curves have shifted downward. Investors who call themselves contrarians do just the opposite of what most other investors are doing in the market. They buy stocks that others have been shunned and think of as losers, and they sell stocks that others have feverishly pursued and think of as winners. They do so in the belief that investors tend to overreact to news.

Investors need, however, to treat publicly known investment strategies with caution. The strategy, whatever it is based on, must provide some means to identify mispriced securities. The action of investors following the strategy, as discussed in the previous paragraphs, will eliminate its effectiveness at identifying mispriced securities (Sharpe Alexander, Bailey 2003).

## **2.4 EVENT STUDIES**

This study will employ the use of an event study approach to investigate the share price behaviour around the national election period. Sharpe, Alexander, Bailey (2003) indicate that event studies can be carried out to see just how fast security prices actually react to the release of information. Do they react slowly or rapidly? Are the returns after the announcement date or event date abnormally high or low, or are they simply normal? In their discussion they note that the answer to second question requires a definition of a "normal return" for a given security. Typically "normal" is defined by the use of some equilibrium based asset pricing empirical models. An improperly specified asset model can invalidate a test of market efficiency.

Thus, Sharpe et al ( 2003) conclude that event studies are really joint tests, as they simultaneously involve tests of the asset pricing models 's validity and tests of market efficiency. A finding that prices react slowly to information might be due markets' being inefficient, or it might be due to the use of an improper asset pricing model, or it might be due to both.



An event study methodology in the spirit of Woolridge (1983) will be employed in this study. This assumes a 60-day trading window before and after the event period, in this case the election date. According to the electoral laws of Kenya, national elections must be held within 90 days after the parliament has been prorogued by the president. A 60-day window surrounding event date is an appropriate length of period for comparison period approach and is economical for all practical purposes. Adjustments are made on the prices for cash and stock dividend effects. The market model is used for determining abnormal returns. The researcher has preferred to use the market model since there is no appreciable difference between the results of market model and CAPM. In addition, CAPM has been criticised on several grounds due to the presence of market imperfections as discussed in the next section.

## **2.5 EMPIRICAL MODELS USED FOR RESIDUAL ANALYSIS**

Copeland et al (2005) has discussed and reviewed four basic types of empirical models that are frequently employed for residual analysis. The contrasts between them are important in providing the rationale for method used in this study.

The simplest model, called the market model, simply argues that returns on security  $j$  are linearly related to returns on a "market portfolio". Mathematically, the market model is described by

$$R_{jt} = a_j + b_j R_{mt} + e_{jt} \quad (2.4.1)$$

The market model is not supported by any theory. It assumes that the slope and intercept terms are constant over the time period during

which the model is fit to the available data. This is a strong assumption, particularly if the time series is long.

The second model uses the capital asset pricing model theory. It requires the intercept term to be equal to the risk free rate, or the rate of the minimum - variance zero-beta portfolio, both of which change overtime. This CAPM - based methodology is given by Eq. (2.4.2)

$$R_{jt} = R_{ft} + (R_{mt} - R_{ft}) B_j + e_{jt}$$

Note, however, that systematic risk is assumed to remain constant over the interval of estimation. But as noted earlier in the study by Bailkowski et al (2006), the systematic risk does fluctuate significantly during the election period.

The third model is the empirical market line which is given by the following equation

$$R'_{jt} = y_{0t} + y_{1t} B_{jt} + e_{jt} \quad (2.4.3)$$

Where  $y_1 = R_{mt} - R_{ft}$ ,

$$R'_{jt} = \text{the excess return on security } j = (R_{jt} - R_{ft})$$

Although related to CAPM, it does not require the intercept to be equal to the risk free rate. Instead, the intercept  $y_0$  and the slope  $y_{1t}$  are the best linear estimates taken from cross section data each time period (typically each month). Furthermore, it has the advantage that no parameters are assumed constant over time.

Finally , there are various multifactor cross sectional models that have been used to explain returns , for example,

$$R_{jt} = a_j + b_{1j}(R_{mt} - R_{ft}) + b_{2j}(RLE_t - RSE_t) + b_{3j}(HBTM_t - LBTM_t) + e_{jt} \quad (2.4.4)$$

In this fourth equation, the return of the  $j$  th stock in the  $t$  th time period is a function of the excess return on the market index over the risk free rate, the difference in return between a large capitalization equity portfolio and a small-cap portfolio, and the difference in return between a high and a low book to market equity portfolio.

All the four models use the residual term,  $e_{jt}$ , as measure of risk adjusted abnormal performance. The market model and the multifactor model are not subject to Roll's critique. , whereas the CAPM and the empirical line are. Roll (1977) showed that if the market portfolio were not identified exactly the practical use of the CAPM was difficult. The Roll critique does not imply that CAPM is an invalid theory. However, it does mean that tests of the CAPM must be interpreted with great caution (Copeland *et al.* 2004). The EHM and CAPM are essentially joint tests.

Therefore residual analysis that employs the CAPM or the empirical line may be subject to criticism. It is from this standpoint point that this study proposes to use the market model in this study because it is simple, robust and not subject to Roll's (1977) criticism. In any case Copeland *et al.* 2004 note that there is no appreciable difference between the results of CAPM and the market model

## 2.6 YEAR END EFFECT

Elections in Kenya have traditionally been held in December. This entails that we segregate the election effects from the year end effect. The year end effect is also known as December effect or January effect. The year end effect is an interesting pattern in stock prices which has been documented by Dyl (1973), Branch (1977), Keim (1983), Reinganum (1983), Roll (1983) and Gultekin (1983). Stocks returns decline during in December of each year, especially for small firms and for firms whose price had already declined during the year. The prices increase during the following January. Roll (1983) reported that for 18 consecutive years from 1963 to 1980, average returns of small firms have been larger than average returns of large firms on the first trading day of the calendar year. That day's difference in returns between equally weighted indices of AMEX and NYSE listed stocks averaged 1.16% over the 18 years. The *t*-statistic of the difference was 8.18.

It has been argued that most likely cause of the year end effect is tax selling. Dyl (1977) examined the volume of trading in the month of December relative to the volume of trading in other months. He found that there is significant abnormal trading volume in December in common stocks that have undergone a substantial price change during the preceding year. The data reveal abnormally low volume for stocks that have appreciated during the year, presumably reflecting the year end capital gains tax lock in effect, and abnormally high volume for stocks that have declined in price during the year, presumably reflecting year end tax loss selling. Constantinides (1983) has argued that concentrated tax loss selling will occur in December when

transaction cost exist , and this is consistent with Dyl(1977)'s evidence.

However, Shefrin and Statman (1985) provide a behavioural framework to explain the December transactions. They have argued that standard theory provides no basis for Dyl (1977)'s and Constantinides (1983)'s findings. Rather, Shefrin and Statman (1985) postulate that concentrated December tax loss selling reflects a self control strategy by the investors. They conjecture that tax planning in general, and loss realization in particular, is disagreeable and requires self control. They conclude that self motivation is easier in December than other months because of the perceived deadline characteristic, hence a concentration of loss realizations in December.

Another contradictory evidence on the tax selling argument is also provided by noting that the January effect exists in Japan , yet Japan has no capital gains tax and disallows any deduction for capital losses. A similar observation is has been made regarding Canada.(Berges, McConnell, and Schlarbaum 1984). Rebutting this evidence, however, is the observation that the January effect apparently did not exist before the imposition of income taxes in the United States.

Another possible explanation for January effect is that small stocks may be relatively riskier in January than during the rest of the year. If they are, then they should have relatively higher average return in January. A study finding that the betas of small stocks tend to increase at the beginning of the year lends support to this explanation.

Due to the foregoing, It is therefore imperative that this study takes cognisance of the year end effect when determining the share price behaviour around national elections in Kenya. In Kenya there is no capital gains tax and disallows deduction of capital losses on equities traded at the Nairobi stock exchange.

# **CHAPTER THREE**

## **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

### **3.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. This blue print includes the population, sample, method of data collection and analysis.

### **3.1. POPULATION AND SAMPLE**

The sample of this study constitutes the prices of the stocks included in the NSE 20 share index. The sample population of the study covers 120 prices of each share, 60 trading days before the election event and 60 trading days after the event. The election periods covered are the 1997 and 2002 elections. The actual election dates are 28/12/1997 and 28/12/2002 respectively. The shares on the NSE 20 share index were chosen because they constitute about 80 percent of market capitalization and volume of trade at the Nairobi Stock Exchange (NSE). Since the elections are carried out in December, we needed to repeat the same exercise to control for year –end effect ( December effect). We selected December 2000 and December 2005 which are three years after the election event. We have assumed that this is a reasonably long enough period that we will not be affected by election effects.

### 3.2 DATA COLLECTION

The requisite data on the share prices was obtained from the NSE data base which is available at the NSE library. The data was obtained by exploring and data mining the data base.

### 3.3 DATA ANALYSIS

The data was analysed by using the event study method based on the market model. Brown and Warner (1980, 1985) conclude that event study methodologies based on OLS, market model and using standard parametric tests are well specified under a variety of conditions. Although explicit recognition of the characteristics of daily data can sometimes be advantageous, for example in cases involving variance increases or unusually high auto correlation, the characteristics of daily data generally present few difficulties in the context of event study methodology. Furthermore, some of Brown and Warner (1980, 1985)'s results indicate a striking similarity between the empirical power of the event study procedures and the theoretical power implied by a few simple assumptions and "back of the envelope calculations". This reinforces the view that the use of daily data is straight forward.

Given that the return generating process is stochastic in nature, a security return ( $r_{it}$ ) overtime can be specified as follows

$$R_{it} = r_{it} + e_{it} \quad (1)$$

$$r_{it} = \alpha_I + \beta_I R_{mt} \quad (2)$$

Market return ( $R_m$ ) =  $\frac{NSE_t - NSE_{t-1}}{NSE_{t-1}}$  ie NSE is the market NSE 20 index



$$R_t = \frac{P_t - P_{t-1}}{P_{t-1}} \quad \text{for individual stock returns}$$

The expected return ( $r_{it}$ ) of a security is a market determining pricing process (in the spirit of the market model) and of a security's return characteristics. The stochastic error term ( $e_{it}$ ) which has an expected value of zero and is un-correlated overtime reflects security specific influences.

The  $\alpha_I$  and beta ( $\beta_I$ ) can be estimated using the Scholes – Williams (1977) procedure which requires an estimation period of excess returns of 237 days (See appendix). However, a simple regression analysis technique will be employed based on a 250-day benchmark model used by Brown and Warner (1985).

If returns are stationary overtime, impact (if any) of new information on the security prices may be discovered through examination of  $e_{it}$ 's. To determine if the  $e_{it}$ 's around an event date are non-zero, a test is conducted to determine if the mean daily return of the event period (observation period) is statistically different from the mean daily return of some other representative period (comparison period). The mean daily return for the comparison period is actually an estimate of  $r_{it}$ , the expected daily return in equation (1). To minimize error in the estimation of  $r_{it}$ , portfolio of security are formed in event time around the election announcement dates. If security returns are independent and stationary overtime with finite variances, portfolio daily returns in large samples approach normal distribution. Therefore a student  $t$  for

the difference in population means can be employed to test equality of event period and comparison period means.

The Z or *t*- test is used to determine the statistical significance between a sample distribution mean and a parameter. When sample sizes approach 120, the sample standard deviation becomes a very good estimator of standard deviation: beyond 120, the *t* and Z distributions are virtually identical (Cooper and Schindler 2003).

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}} \quad (\text{for calculating the specific excess returns for individual stocks})$$

$$t = \frac{(r_1 - r_2)}{\sqrt{[(N_1-1)S_1^2 + (N_2-1)S_2^2]/[N_1+N_2-2]}\sqrt{[1/N_1+1/N_2]}} \quad (\text{t for comparison of returns})$$

N:B Test was made at 5% significant level

This is a standard difference of means test statistic which is *t* distributed with  $N_1+N_2-2$  degrees of freedom.

Where  $N_1$  = number of portfolio daily returns in the comparison period,  $N_2$  = portfolio daily returns in the event date.  $r_1$  = portfolio's comparison period mean daily return,  $S_1$  = standard deviation of the comparison period return,  $r_2$  = portfolio's event period mean daily return and  $S_2$  = standard deviation of the announcement period mean daily return.

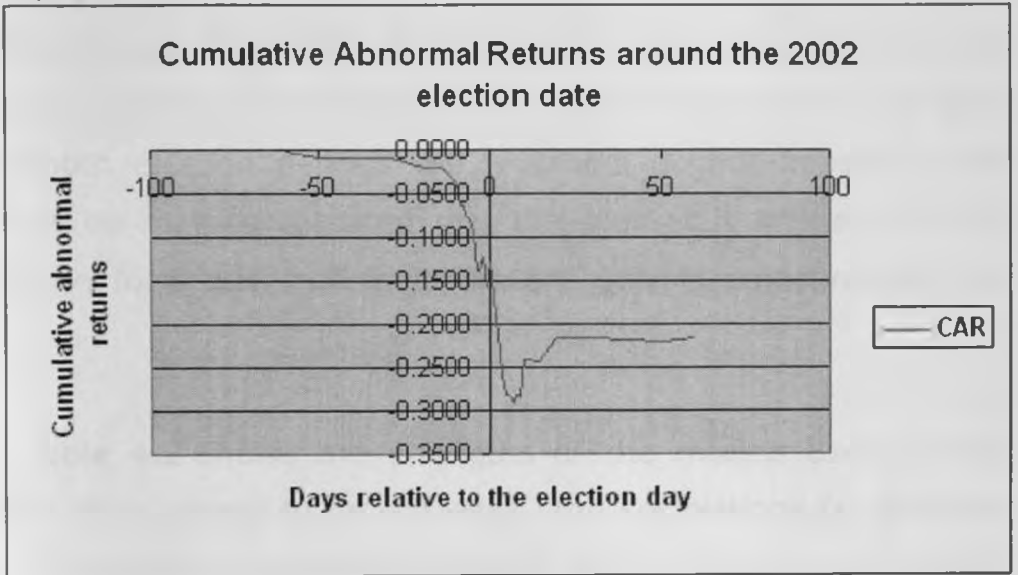
A further comparison will be made between the returns during the electioneering period and non electioneering period to find out if there are any significant differences and as a control for the year end effect.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS**

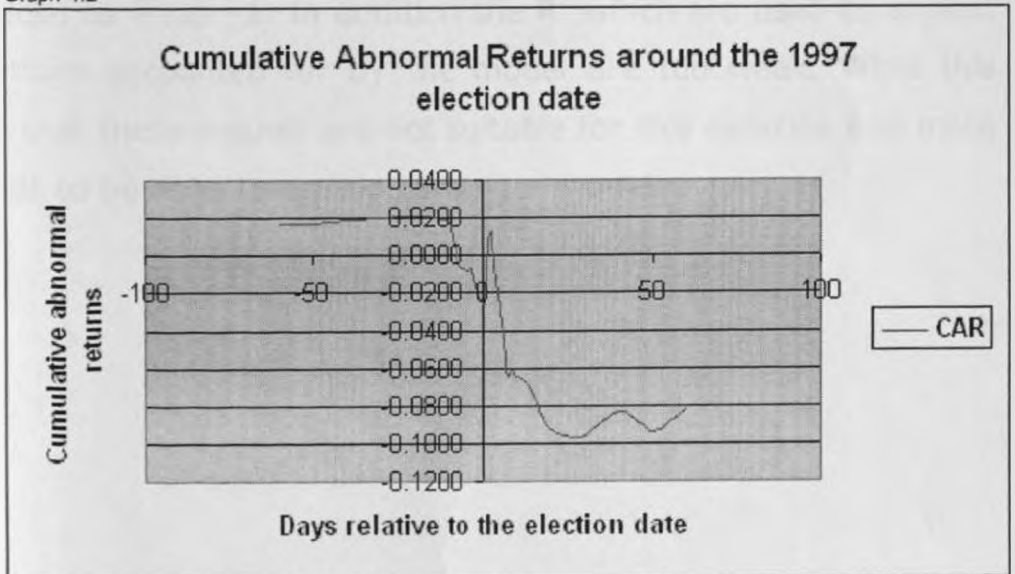
The sample time period, includes General Elections 1997 and 2002. Therefore this chapter involves a study of the stock market behaviour by analysing if there are any abnormal returns around the election periods of 1997 and 2002. The sample represents the NSE 20 Share Index companies listed at Nairobi stock exchange. The residual returns were determined by comparing the actual returns and the estimated returns based on a benchmark market model. The market model was derived from a 250 day trading period before the election period by regressing the daily returns on the NSE 20 Share index returns.

The graphs 4.1 and 4.2 shows the average stock price behaviour around the election dates for the year 2002 and 1997 respectively. The individual stock prices were determined by relating the daily returns on the stock to the corresponding returns on the stock market index (NSE 20 Share index). This calculation was made for the 60 day period immediately prior to the election date and 60 day period immediately following it. The abnormal returns were averaged out across firms for each day relative to the election date and then cumulated across time. The figures show that the stock react strongly to the election event as abnormal returns decline sharply after the election date and then rise slightly before settling to a new equilibrium.

Graph 4 1



Graph 4:2



The table 4:1 shows the results of the average daily abnormal returns for the 60-day window period around the election periods of 1997 and 2002. For both election periods the t- values do not appear to be significant. It may be conjectured that the market is efficient in the semi - strong form and that investors are getting compensated for risk.

However, table 4.2 shows the strengths of the models used in the analysis and they appear to be too weak. The correlations (r) indicate the level of correlation between individual stocks returns and market returns are generally too low. A good estimator should at least have an r which close to +1. or -1. In addition the  $R^2$  which are used to explain the variations accounted for by the model are too weak. What this implies is that these models are not suitable for this exercise and more work needs to be done to develop stronger models.

THE AVERAGE DAILY RESIDUALS AROUND THE ELECTION DATES TABLE 4.1

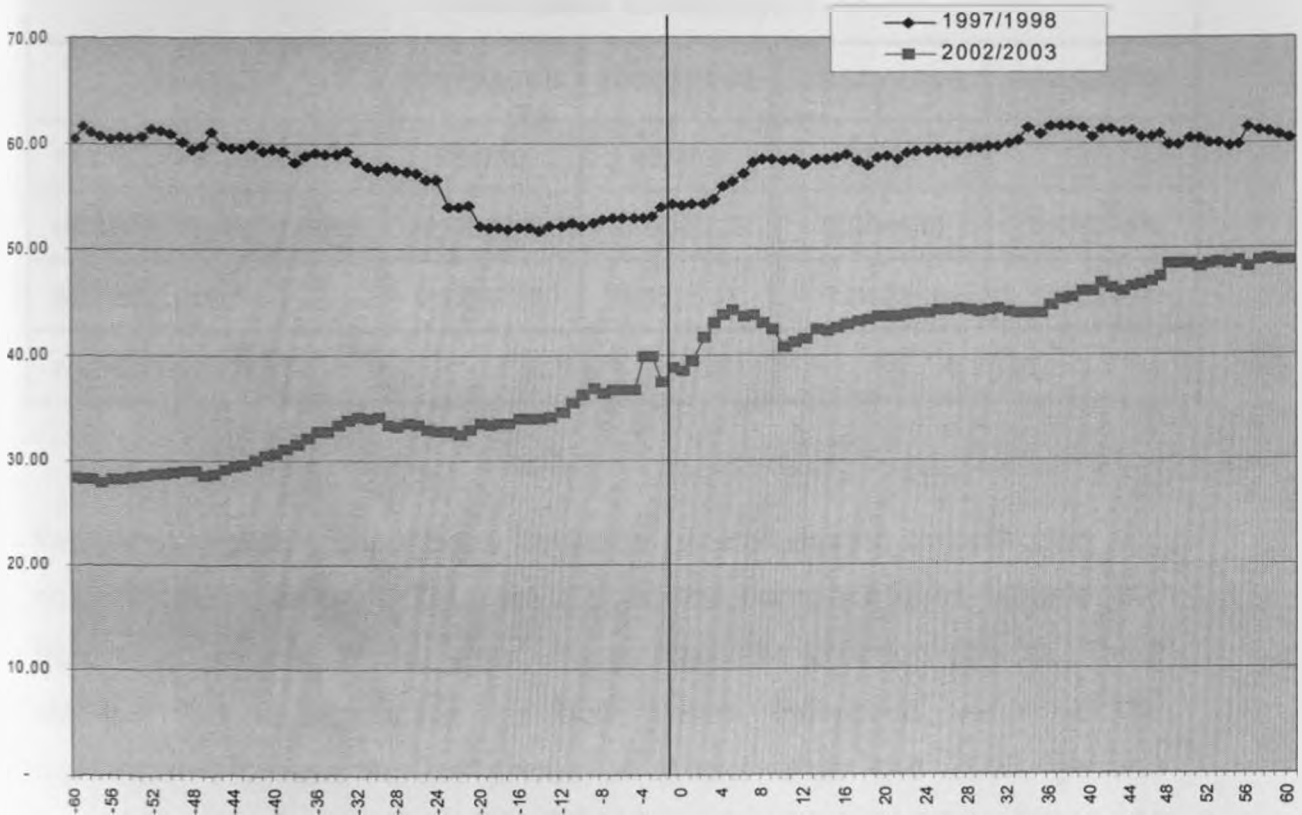
Days	1997 Elections Year		2002 Elections Year	
	Average Daily Residuals	T-test	Average Daily Residuals	T-test
-60	0.0167	0.1533	(0.0014)	(0.0087)
-50	0.0003	0.0023	(0.0068)	(0.0414)
-40	0.0027	0.0247	(0.0018)	(0.0109)
-30	0.0006	0.0056	0.0011	0.0067
-20	0.0013	0.0115	(0.0122)	(0.0750)
-15	(0.0012)	(0.0108)	0.0005	0.0029
-10	(0.0019)	(0.0177)	(0.0173)	(0.1058)
-9	(0.0101)	(0.0927)	(0.0262)	(0.1606)
-8	(0.0055)	(0.0510)	0.0001	0.0005
-7	(0.0078)	(0.0715)	(0.0104)	(0.0641)
-6	(0.0017)	(0.0159)	(0.0040)	(0.0247)
-5	(0.0015)	(0.0136)	(0.0144)	(0.0882)
-4	0.0010	0.0094	(0.0458)	(0.2811)
-3	(0.0003)	(0.0031)	0.0005	0.0029
-2	(0.0079)	(0.0729)	0.0158	0.0967
-1	(0.0083)	(0.0764)	(0.0347)	(0.2127)
0	(0.0019)	(0.0172)	0.0273	0.1675
1	0.0000	0.0004	(0.0161)	(0.0985)
2	0.0315	0.2893	(0.0469)	(0.2878)
3	0.0071	0.0656	(0.0397)	(0.2436)
4	(0.0191)	(0.1757)	(0.0264)	(0.1621)
5	(0.0143)	(0.1319)	(0.0239)	(0.1463)
6	(0.0163)	(0.1500)	(0.0015)	(0.0090)
7	(0.0210)	(0.1931)	(0.0056)	(0.0345)
8	(0.0069)	(0.0635)	0.0088	0.0542
9	0.0036	0.0329	(0.0019)	(0.0114)
10	(0.0031)	(0.0283)	0.0420	0.2574
15	(0.0078)	(0.0717)	(0.0024)	(0.0147)
20	(0.0202)	(0.1860)	0.0267	0.1636
30	(0.0046)	(0.0424)	0.0007	0.0041
40	0.0138	0.1266	(0.0027)	(0.0164)
50	(0.0112)	(0.1027)	(0.0027)	(0.0164)
60	0.0130	0.1196	0.0045	0.0276

**TABLE 4.2 THE MARKET MODEL PARAMETERS**

	1997 ELECTION PERIOD				2002 ELECTION PERIOD			
	ALPHA	BETA	r	R2	ALPHA	BETA	r	
<b>BAMBURI</b>	0.0020	1.5230	0.2182	0.0476	0.0038	-0.0767	-0.0340	0.
<b>BARCLAYS</b>	0.0006	0.6714	0.3352	0.1123	0.0015	-0.1431	-0.0919	0.
<b>BAT(K)</b>	-0.0007	0.5399	0.1706	0.0291	0.0009	-0.1968	-0.0809	0.
<b>BOC LIMITED</b>	0.0001	0.0442	0.0310	0.0010	0.0011	-0.1419	-0.0871	0.
<b>D.TRUST</b>	-0.0009	0.9466	0.1682	0.0283	0.0004	0.1106	0.0798	0.
<b>E.A.B.L</b>	0.0010	0.3239	0.0459	0.0021	0.0022	-0.1613	-0.0936	0.
<b>FIRESTONE</b>	0.0006	0.7525	0.1063	0.0113	0.0012	-0.0014	-0.0005	0.
<b>K.P.&amp; L.C.</b>	0.0070	3.9597	0.4121	0.1698	0.0002	-0.1884	-0.0450	0.
<b>KAKUZI</b>	-0.0553	0.0010	0.0878	0.0077	-0.0032	-0.1904	-0.1114	0.
<b>KCB</b>	0.0009	0.9535	0.1827	0.0334	0.0006	0.2332	0.0562	0.
<b>KENYA AIRWAYS</b>	0.0007	0.6165	0.0864	0.0075	-0.0005	-0.0647	-0.0385	0.
<b>NATION</b>	0.0029	-0.0064	-0.0014	0.0000	0.0072	0.0179	0.0029	0.
<b>NIC</b>	0.0017	1.2018	0.2131	0.0454	0.0011	-0.0630	-0.0293	0.
<b>SASINI</b>	0.0027	0.3963	0.0706	0.0050	-0.0004	-0.0426	-0.0246	0.
<b>STAND CHART</b>	0.0000	0.4850	0.1888	0.0357	0.0009	0.0887	0.0554	0.
<b>TOTAL KENYA</b>	-0.0006	1.1263	0.3189	0.1017	0.0011	-0.0069	-0.0021	0.
<b>TPS-SERENA</b>	-0.0013	0.1288	0.1270	0.0161	0.0004	0.0692	0.0737	0.
<b>UCHUMI</b>	0.0007	0.5974	0.1558	0.0243	-0.0005	-0.2020	-0.0590	0.
<b>UNILEVER TEA</b>	-0.0012	0.6595	0.1525	0.0233	-0.0012	0.0470	0.0170	0.
<b>WILLIAMSON TEA</b>	0.0015	0.5556	0.1086	0.0118	-0.0013	-0.0838	-0.0366	0.

# AVERAGE MARKET PRICE MOVEMENT AROUND ELECTION DATES

Graph 4.3



Graph 4.3 shows the average stock price movement around the election period. During 1997/1998 period, the prices appeared to be relatively stable. However in the 2002/2003 period stock prices were exhibiting a gradual ascendancy. We conjecture that in 1997, the ruling party then, KANU, came back to power which meant that there was no change in the country's economic policies. However, in 2002/2003, it can be postulated that the investor confidence was spurred by the eminent change from a KANU led government to a NARC led government. This may have been viewed as a positive fundamental change in the economic policy for the country which led to a surge in stock prices.



TABLE 4.3

<b>COMPARISONS BETWEEN TWO SIMILAR PERIODS FOR TURN OF THE YEAR EFFECTS.</b>				
<b>YEARS</b>	<b>1997/1998</b>	<b>2000/2001</b>	<b>2002/2003</b>	<b>2005/2006</b>
<b>TOTAL AVG PRICES</b>	58.035	45.743	38.71	99.37
<b>MEAN MKT. RETURNS</b>	-0.000048	-0.000327	0.004642	0.002695
<b>S.D RETURNS</b>	0.009939	0.005594	0.015198	0.041450
<b>t - TEST <math>\alpha = 0.05</math></b>	0.0974		0.1530	

Table 4.3 shows comparisons between returns during the election and non election periods. This was done to compare and isolate the December or turn of the year effects from the election effects. The t statistic is not significant for both cases. However, we note the significant increase in the prices of stocks after the 2002 general elections. We conjecture that this was a reflection of change in economic policy which accompanied the change in the ruling political party. As a result, investor confidence was enhanced and demand for shares ensued. This reinforces the view postulated by Hibbs (1997) that voters elect parties which best represents their personal beliefs and interests.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION**

#### **5.1 Conclusions and implication**

The main objective of this study was to establish whether or not general election in Kenya does affect the share prices.

The measure of information content adopted for this study of the residual prices is obtained from the difference between the estimated returns ,in the spirit of market model ,and .actual returns The mean residual prices were computed for the full sample and for the sub sample by year of general election.

The results obtained from this study have shown that a majority of share prices for all listed companies sampled in the period under study have shown that during general election period the share prices go down but after election they start rising once again or remain relatively stable. The t- statistics for the residuals are not significant and we therefore reject the alternate hypothesis. The result should be taken with caution because the  $r$  and  $R^2$  for the resultant market models are very weak and therefore the results are not conclusive

The implication of this study for any astute investor is to take precautions when buying shares at a period of political uncertainty. One strategy suggested by Richard (2006) is to forego pre event purchasing and then short the security immediately following the event. By staying out of the market during the event, unnecessary risk is eliminated. Alternatively investors who engage in a contrarian

strategy before election and then employ a momentum strategy after the election tend to make abnormal profits.

## **5.2 Limitation of the Study**

Several limitations can be noted in this study:

Lack of data and data inaccuracy is key limitation in this study. There were dates in which the NSE did not record the prices of the trading on the NSE. In this case an assumption was made that the previous day's price prevailed. The returns are computed based on the prices before and after the break regardless of whether it is on a successive week. The study is limited to the extent that this assumption may not be valid.

Problems of survivorship bias coupled with low liquidity or infrequent trading makes it difficult for share price information to be gathered and meaningful conclusions to be derived. In addition, this study used individual stock betas to estimate prospective returns. Blume (1975) found that individual stock betas are not usually stable and are therefore not good predictors of future returns.

A study of this nature requires an ideal market return portfolio and this study used the NSE 20 Share index which has in the past been criticized for various reasons. One argument put forward is that it does include some stocks which trade infrequently. Odera ( ) notes that the NSE did not have a precise portfolio selection and revision policy. We now report that some of the constituent stocks have since been revised and the share index has been updated to reflect current market realities.

### 5.3 Recommendations for further research

The result of this study are not conclusive, there is need to carry on further research on the price movements especially before and after general election. It is imperative to apply other diagnostics to verify that the regression assumptions are met such as normality, linearity, equality of variance and independence of error. There are three basic assumptions of the error term ( $e_{it}$ ) that can be tested using the Spearman Rank Correlation analysis and the Durbin – Watson (D- W) statistic. Should the result of such studies show that the assumptions are violated; this would point to the need to adopt other methods of measuring the price movements in the NSE.

This study can be repeated using the GARCH methods as this takes care of the heteroscedasticity associated with an election event. Heteroscedasticity does not affect the accuracy of the regression estimates alpha and beta. It does, however, reduce the reliability of the estimates of the standard errors and thus affects the precision with which inferences can be drawn.

Further research study can be done on the investor behaviour around national elections. Behavioral finance still remains a relatively new area that is largely unexplored.

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**APPENDIX.**

This appendix gives additional details of the procedures used in simulating event study test methodologies.

**A.1 Scholes – Williams procedure**

$$A_{i,t} = R_{i,t} - \alpha_I - \beta_I R_{m,t}$$

Where

$$\alpha_I = \frac{1}{237} \sum_{t=-243}^{-7} R_{i,t} - \beta_I \frac{1}{237} \sum_{t=-243}^{-7} R_{m,t}$$

$$\beta_I = (\beta^-_I + \beta_I + \beta^+_I) / (1 + 2\rho_m)$$

$\beta^-_I$  and  $\beta^+_I$  are OLS estimation period values of

$$\frac{\text{Cov} ( R_{i,t} , R_{m,t-1} )}{\sigma(R_{m,t}) \sigma(R_{m,t-1})} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\text{Cov} ( R_{i,t} , R_{m,t+1} )}{\sigma(R_{m,t}) \sigma(R_{m,t+1})}$$

respectively.  $\rho_m$  is the estimation period value for the first – order autocorrelation coefficient of the Equally Weighted Market Index.

A.2 The bivariate linear regression may be expressed as

$$Y = \alpha + \beta X$$

Where the OLS estimation of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  is given by

$$\beta = \frac{n \sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{n \sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2}$$

$$\alpha = \bar{Y} - \beta \bar{X}$$

### A 3 NSE 20-SHARE INDEX

The stocks listed under this index include the following:

Unilever Tea Kenya Ltd, Kakuzi Ltd, Sasini Tea & Coffee Ltd, Kenya Airways, Nation Media Group Ltd, Uchumi Supermarkets Ltd, Barclays Kenya Ltd, Diamond Trust Bank Kenya Ltd, Kenya Commercial bank Ltd, Standard Chartered Bank Ltd, B.O.C Kenya Ltd, Bamburi cement Ltd, BAT Kenya Ltd, EA Breweries Ltd, Kenya Power & Lighting Ltd, Total Kenya Ltd, Unga Group Ltd.











