INFLUENCE OF VOTER EDUCATION APPROACHES ON ELECTIONS OUTCOME IN ISIOLO NORTH CONSTITUENCY OF ISIOLO COUNTY, KENYA

BY

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DECLARATION

This research project report is my original work and has not been presented to any other university or institution of learning for any award.

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This project has been submitted with my approval as the university supervisor.

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DEDICATION

This research project report is dedicated to my mother who has always taken the lead to support me in my academic life since childhood, my daughters Zeinab, Aisha, Madina and Safia for their understanding and encouragement. And more so my sister Fatuma Godana, and Amina Morrison, my brothers Adan Qalicha and Mohamed Galgalo for their moral and material support. May God bless you all.
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

DBU - Democracy Building Unit
ECK - Electoral Commission of Kenya
ECP - Election Commission of Pakistan
ECN - Electoral Commission of Namibia
EMB - Electoral Management Body
EU – European Commission
FER - Final Electoral Rolls
ICCPR - International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
IEBC - Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission
IEC – Independent Electoral Commission
IFES - International Federation for Electoral Systems
IIEC - Interim Independent Electoral Commission
INEC - Independent National Electoral Commission
KIE – Kenya Institute of Education
KHRC - Kenya Human Right Commission
KNDR - Kenya National Dialogue and Reconciliation
NDI - National Democratic Institute
UDHR - Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UNDP - United Nations Development Programme
VE - Voter Education
ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of voter education approaches on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency, Isiolo County, Kenya. It focused on study objectives which sought to establish whether the voter education content, training of voter education providers, methods used and time in provision of voter education would influence elections outcome. The study evaluated the works of various authors and personalities on voter education with highlights on the historical perspectives worldwide and traced its implication in management of democratic elections. The study adopted descriptive survey design to get information from the respondents. Data collection was made using questionnaires which were then administered to Election Administrators, Members of County Assembly, and Political Party representatives, Civil Society Groups and Faith-Based Organizations in Isiolo North Constituency, Isiolo County, Kenya with a target population of 80 respondents. The sample size of the study was 33 with all the categories of respondents, representing 41.3% of the population. The sampling procedure adopted in the study was stratified and simple random sampling. The data gathered were analyzed by means of Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS) software system and presented using descriptive statistics in form of frequency tables and percentages. A total of 33 questionnaires were distributed to the sample population of the study and 29 (88.88%) participated and returned the questionnaires, while 4 participants which was (11.12%) did not respond to the questionnaires. Fisher’s Exact Test of significant was used to measure statistical dependence between variables for each objective. The study findings revealed that voter education content had the highest influence with a correlation of 52.5%, followed by training of voter education providers at correlation of 28.9%, then methods used for providing voter education was at 25.6%, while time had the least influence with a correlation of 15.9% on Elections outcome. Despite the fact that training of voter education providers, methods used and time in provision of voter education were noted insignificant, they were indispensible. The study came up with various recommendations which included: the electoral management body IEBC to review voter education contents and messages with specified electoral events so as to maintain relevancy in the circumstances, proper training of voter educators and coordinated engagement with civil society groups and other partners should be encouraged in order to enhance collaborative efforts in providing timely voter education to the general public.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Voter Education is the process by which citizens are educated on how to register and vote, develop a sense of civic duty to participate in the electoral process, and learn to respect the outcome of legitimate elections NDI (1999). According to Akintyo (2010) the role of voter education in any electoral process cannot be underestimated. It is very important that voter education is given in order for elections to be successful. Voters are ready, willing and able to participate in electoral politics when enough education had been given.

ECK, (2007) stated that the pride of any democratically elected Government is enhanced, when the voter turnout gets close to 100%. This is only possible if voter apathy which is a growing concern in many democracies is reduced through Voter Education. Jennings (1999) stresses that in transitional contexts, voter education programmes should not simply focus on teaching voters to learn where, when and how to vote. They should also work to convince voters that voting will make a difference. It encompasses the basic voter information that every voter must have in order to arrive prepared at the voting station and vote on the set voting day. Voter education sensitizes the electorate on the importance of participating in elections that stimulate and consolidate democracy.

Nie et al. (1996) stated that the more educated citizen is more tolerant of the freedom of expression of unpopular political views, more knowledgeable of the fundamental principles of democracy, and maintains more information on other current political facts. Democracy emphasizes peoples’ participation in electing their leaders and engaging in the governance processes. A fundamental element of democracy is the existence of a state which is founded on people’s choice K-NICE (2012). Education can be a means to protect democracy when citizens are supported in their activity by a responsive and democratic state, thus the need for voter education.
Converse (1990) stated that the two simplest truths he knew about the distribution of political information in modern electorates are that the mean is low and the variance high. It is important for electorates to acquire knowledge, skills, attitudes and competency necessary for efficient and effective voting thus reducing voter apathy and votes spoilage. Lack of sufficient voter education prior to elections and poor mobilization to the women, youth and village councils caused many, especially women to decline from participating in these elections (Ndegwa, 1997). Most women do not know what was expected of them as candidates or even as voters.

The electoral system of any given country plays a fundamental role in sustaining and moulding the political behavior of its citizens (Okolo, 2000). The way and manner election is conducted and managed in this case goes a long way to determine the level of political culture, political participation and good governance in the country.

Article 21 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) states that the will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of Government, this will be expressed in the periodic and genuine elections which shall be the Universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret vote. International and Regional standards, elections are based on three central rights: the right to take part in government; the right to vote and to be elected; and the right to enjoy equal access to the public service (ICCPR, 1976). This includes peoples’ political rights to participate in the way they are governed and in the political activities thereby strengthening the democratic process.

In the Philippines, after the adoption of tighter voter registration procedures in the late 1990s, the failure of election officials to inform voters of the new procedures and corresponding deadlines resulted in the disenfranchise ment, in 2001, of an estimated 3 to 6 million people (Schaffer, F 2008). In the lead to 1994 elections in South Africa, AWEPAA (1994) reported that although a high level of political intolerance was observed, large parts of the country were found to be free of political violence and intimidation. However, in rural areas access to political parties and to Voter education has to be assured.
In Kenya, Article 38 of Constitution of Kenya 2010 guarantees every person the political right to free, fair and regular elections based on universal suffrage (right to vote) and the right to participate in the electoral process. Key provisions are that the people can exercise their sovereign power either directly or through their democratically elected representatives, both at the national and county levels. Due to low literacy levels and lack of awareness, many citizens do not know their civil rights and duties. This has shortcomings especially during the elections. For example people are not aware that regular elections are a constitutional right and duty and this needs to be explained to the masses (Ndegwa, 1997).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Voter Education as a function of IEBC was meant to assist the electoral body in its task to delivering free, fair, efficient and cost-effective elections. The electoral and political process of Kenya vision 2030 is founded on genuinely competitive issue-based politics which is achievable through conducting civic education programmes to widen knowledge and participation among citizens, leading to an informed and active citizenry. Precisely, a Kenyan voter requires an elaborate voter education and information that has content relevancy, use of appropriate delivery approach and timely efforts to enable them effectively understand their right, role and responsibilities in order to participate and make an informed choice in election process.

While the Commission (IEBC) and several non-state players made concerted efforts in educating voters on their civic roles and responsibilities, there has been observed gaps in electorates’ participation in elections. For instant in the 2010 Referendum, the voter turnout for Isiolo North Constituency was 64% of the totals registered voters in the region. This could be rated as low standard for any Electoral Management Body (EMB) performance. The low turn-out may have been as a result of some information gaps which electorates did not get adequately or even at the appropriate time. It was against this background that this research report sought to establish if voter education approaches such as; relevancy of content, training of voter education providers, methods used and time in provision of voter education could influence elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency.
1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the influence of voter education approaches on elections outcome.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives guiding this study were:

1. To examine the influence of voter education content on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency
2. To establish the influence of training of voter education providers on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency
3. To determine influence of methods used in providing voter education on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency
4. To establish the influence of time in provision of voter education on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency.

1.5 Research Questions

A research question is basically what you want to understand by doing your research (Maxwell, 1994). The questions guiding this study were as follows:

1. How does voter education content influence elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency?
2. How does training voter education providers influence elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency?
3. What is the influence of methods used in providing voter education on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency?
4. To what extent does time in provision of voter education influence elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The research serves as a basis to increase voter participation due to the adequate information on improved voter education approaches this study offered. For the
electorates, the study would help in the understanding of the electoral process; vote meaningfully and in big numbers. The findings and recommendations from the study would help the Electoral Management Body IEBC, and stakeholders on the need to embrace elaborate, comprehensive and participatory voter education approach. The study data would be used to inform policy makers in formulation and adjustment of policies on voter education for efficiency. The study would benefit researchers as it would contribute to new knowledge.

1.7 Limitation of the Study

The vastness of the Constituency and the poor means of transport may inhibit the collect of data in far flank areas. This was managed by using the available means to reach out to the respondents. High level of illiteracy in the constituency may affect adequacy of information expected from the respondents. This was minimized as the targeted respondents had good education background. Time and Budget (cost of the study) constrains was a limitation to the study, however, this was managed through prudent use of both available time and money.

1.8 Delimitation of the Study

The study took place in Isiolo North Constituency, Isiolo County. It was delimited to voter education approaches and its interrelationship to elections outcome. The study was also delimited to sample populations of Electoral Administrators, Voter Educators, Civil Society Groups, Member of County Assembly (MCA), Political Party leaders, and Faith Based Organizations in Isiolo North Constituency.

1.9 Basic Assumptions of the Study

The study was based on the assumption that; instruments for data collection were valid and will measure the desired constructs; this was proven by the fact that the instrument had Cronbach’s Alpha value of 0.720 which lies within the acceptable range. The study also assumed that the respondents would be available during the data collection phase of the study and that the sampled respondents would representative of the entire target population. This statement was justified by the fact that the response rate was 88.88%.
1.10 Definition of Significant Terms used in the Study

**Voter Education approaches** – for the purpose of this study refers to the process by which citizens are educated on contents in elections, training of voter education providers, methods used and lead time necessary for providing voter education.

**Elections outcome** - It’s the final product or result of a free and fair electoral process

**Voter turnout** - It is the total number of people that voted in a given election

**Informed choice** - is the ability of voter to consciously elect a responsive leader

**Democracy** - is a way of governing based on the will of the people

**Election process** - is the practices and procedures in choosing representatives to an office

**Voter education** - is the public education meant to inform and empower the voters to clearly understand their rights and responsibilities in electoral process.

**Voter Education content** - refers to the information/educational messages to be covered which is necessary for elections

**Voter Education Providers** – refers to all those individuals, groups and civil organizations involved in providing voter education and information to voters

**Methods** - It’s the means by which voter education message is delivered

**Timing in providing voter education** - refers to the durations in which voter education is done

**Constituents** - refers to the people who are geographically living in areas with representatives

**Electorates** - The individual voters who participate in voting during elections
1.11 Organization of the Study

The Research report was made up of five chapters provided as follows;

Chapter One introduced voter education and information by presenting a background of what it is and how it was critical in management of democratic elections. The chapter provided an elaborate statement of problem addressed in the study which denotes the specific objective and the research questions that guided the study. The chapter also contains significant of the study, limitations, delimitations, assumptions, and definition of terms and the organization of the study.

Chapter Two, deals with the review of relevant literature, highlighting on elections and voter education. It also discussed on the four thematic areas: the voter education content, the training of voter education providers, methods used and timing on provision of voter education. The chapter also presented the theoretical, conceptual framework and a summary on the study.

Chapter Three described the research methodology used in the study. It discussed the research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedure. It also provided the research instrument, data collection and data analysis methods used as well as presenting the operational definition of variable table that specifies how various indicators were measured.

Chapter Four provided the description and interpretation of data analyzed in correspondent with the study variables. The chapter was divided into two; Part A which discussed the general information on respondents, and Part B also discussed variables that influence election process as conceptualized in the study.

Chapter Five was designed to provide a detailed account on the findings generated from the result of the study in chapter four. It included the presentations on summary of findings, discussions, articulation of the conclusion, recommendation based on the findings and suggestions for further research.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter evaluates various studies from different authors and personalities that were done on voter education. It begins by examining the elections as a democratic process where the popular participation was critical. It further defined civic voter education and why it was an important component in election process. It took into account historical perspectives of voter education worldwide and traces its implication in management of democratic elections. The theory informing the study and conceptual framework were also discussed with variables clearly defined and highlighted.

2.2 Definition and Concept of Elections

According to Simfukwe (1997) elections is defined as the democratic methods used by citizens to choose their leaders by casting votes. Banerjee (2007) defines elections as sacred expressions of citizenship. It provides a crucial opportunity for the citizen’s political participation and representation. Princeton (2005) holds that whatever else is essential to make democracy effective and sustainable, elections are the lifeblood of the system, the constant affirmation of legitimacy for its leaders and the bond that links the leaders with the people. Elections have meaning for most people only in a democratic context, because they lead to choice of decision makers by the majority of citizens.

Elections are highly organized channels of popular expression (Aderibigbe, 2006). This implied that it was through the system of elections that the masses of the people express their wishes. Uwagboe (2009) asserts that elections are the means by which the people choose and exercise some degree of control over their representatives. It is a formal decision-making process by which a population chooses an individual to hold public office. Voting in elections is one of many potential forms of meaningful participation. To make sensible choices, however, citizens must be aware of an elections purpose, their voting rights and obligations, the dates and procedures, the range of electoral options, and they must know how to vote (NDI 1999). According to Ejeba (2012) the major purposes of elections are to: Ensure that voters freely choose those who will represent them,
Enable voters to make choices among the parties, candidates’ and programmes, Ensure that elected officials are accountable to the electorate, Promote citizens’ sense of belonging in government, Promote public confidence, trust and support for government and its programme, Provide the mechanism for collective efforts towards the development of the country.

Election is an important element in the full enjoyment of a wide range of human rights which impact on the rule of law, and its’ success relying on the legitimacy of institutional frameworks. Article 21 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) states the will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of Government, this will be expressed in the periodic and genuine elections which shall be the Universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret vote or by equivalent free voting procedures (United Nations, 1948). The Declaration reserves to the people the right to change their minds and reconsider their choice of leaders at periodic elections that are prescribed and an opportunity to express their will and determine the composition of government.

Dundas (1996) states that during election citizens need to be informed of their rights and the voting process, as political consciousness and informed choices are key factors in an electoral democracy. Elections were frequently seen as a way of consensually recognizing those best to govern in the best interest of all Manin (1997). Heywood (2002) sees election as a device for filling an office through choices made by a designated body of people; the electorates. According to UNDP, (2004) Election is regarded as a mechanism though which citizens get an opportunity to decide and influence their destiny through a political process. It forms one of the significant ways through which people can participate in decisions that affect their lives and hold their elected representatives responsible for results.

2.3 Voter Education

Education is the means through which the aims and habits of a group of people lives on from one generation to the next (Benson, 1997). Generally, it occurs through any experience that has a formative effect on the way one thinks, feels, or acts. Education, in short, is an extremely powerful predictor of civic engagement Putnam (2000). The
freedom of citizens’ involvement in choosing their elected representatives is a critical feature of democratic governance. Education on its own cannot sustain democracy. However, education can protect democracy when citizens are supported in their activity by a responsive and democratic state (ACE Encyclopedia: 2013). Some careful studies find that education actually boosts turnout (Dee, 2003; Sondheim and Green, 2010). In modern democracies, a good citizen is one able to understand, valuate and select political options, and willing to participate in a country’s political life.

Hamwiinga (2002) defines civic education as a subject that relates to human beings and their relationship with the nation, physical, social, political and cultural environment. It helps citizens to acquire knowledge, skills and general awareness that empower them to be able to effectively play their roles in conduct of public affairs. In a democracy, knowledge is power (Jerit et. al. 2006). Democracy demands a wider access of the citizens to relevant information, not only to the programs and proposals of the candidates, but also to an evaluation of their chances in the political processes.

Civic education deals with broader concepts underpinning a democratic society such as the respective roles and responsibilities of citizens, government, political and special interests, the mass media, and the business and non-profit sectors, as well as the significance of periodic and competitive elections (ACE Encyclopedia: 2013). It is a continuous process that emphasizes on citizen participation in all aspects of democratic society. According to Delli and Keeter (1996), civic education in a democratic society most assuredly needs to be concerned with promoting understanding of the ideals of democracy and a reasoned commitment to the values and principles of democracy. Grindle (2004) expressed that civic education, aims to teach people about their rights and responsibilities as part of a democratic society and for them to have a more accountable government.

Voter education has a tradition that is as long and as brief as the conduct of modern elections. Universal education in the modern democratic state was itself intended to promote and support democracy. Those waging campaigns for extension of the franchise also conducted public information and education programmes. NDI (1999) operating definitions states that Voter Education is the process by which citizens are educated on
how to register and vote, develop a sense of civic duty to participate in the electoral process, and learn to respect the outcome of legitimate elections. Voter Education is defined as non-formal public education meant to inform and empower the voters to clearly understand their rights and responsibilities in the electoral process. It strives to improve the process of democracy and mobilize voters to exercise their rights in politics (IIEC, 2011).

The right to vote can only be understood in the context of awareness of democratic culture and processes, the rights of the individual and minorities, the rule of law and role of government in a democracy. UNDP report, (2013) described increased participation of a well-informed citizenry in democratic processes, including elections; as a way of influencing decision-making on matters that affect their lives. To make sensible choices, however, citizens must be aware of an elections purpose, their voting rights and obligations, the dates and procedures, the range of electoral options, and they must know how to vote. The goal of voter education is to make information available and accessible to all constituents Rackner and Svasand, (2005).

Voter education campaigns should seek to achieve universal coverage of the electorate. According to NDI (2011) voter education campaigns help give citizens an informed voice and help them occupy the political space provided by an election. The meaningful exercise of the right to vote requires a qualitative assessment of the human rights conditions in place, and the quality of the right to participate exercised EU evaluation report (2001). Effective voter education needs to be built on a foundation of human rights awareness where reaching out to disadvantaged groups as well as mainstream voters is treated as a requirement. Mass voter education was instrumental in setting the climate for democratic participation (Singh, 1996).

Voter education is recognized by The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Article 21) the International convention on Civil and Political Rights (Article 25) and by the African Charter on Human and People Rights, (Article 13) Voter education had to achieve a number of key tasks, including educating the electorate about the electoral process, motivating them to participate, and convincing them of the secrecy of the vote Gilder (1994). Continuous efforts towards comprehensive voter education for the citizens
have been tried through partnership with international and domestic organizations at all levels, however EU Report, (2012) maintains that while the relative proportion of electoral support funds allocated to voter education is increasing in recent years, an informed and empowered electorate is not yet understood and advocated by the Commission as an essential pre-condition to a meaningful election. In the United States, the League of Women Voters retains a strong, non-partisan programme to ensure that voters make informed political choice.

In Pakistan, Goal 13 of the Election Commission of Pakistan’s (ECP) Five-Year Strategic Plan (2010-2014) aims to increase voter awareness of and participation in electoral processes through civic and voter education. To help meet this Goal, the ECP has developed a new Voter Education (VE) Plan 2012-2013 with three primary objectives: To enhance the understanding of voters of electoral rolls and encourage them to check their details on the Final Electoral Rolls (FER); To enhance participation in the next General Elections and improve voter turnout from 44% to 84%; To share ECP’s vision with voters: “To fulfill the Constitutional obligation of holding free, fair and impartial elections in an effective, credible, transparent and independent manner; providing equal opportunity and accessibility to all and meeting the aspirations of the nation for a strong democracy in Pakistan. The ECP’s voter education efforts relied almost entirely on electronic and print media campaigns, including newspapers, television, radio, billboards, posters, etc. commencing shortly before electoral events and ending immediately thereafter. However, low voter turnout in previous elections highlighted the need for a different approach. The new VE Plan marks a significant break from the past. It adopts a district centered, grassroots level approach to reach out to voters, particularly women, youth, minorities and people with disabilities (ECN, 2012).

In Namibia, Civic/voter education has been part of the Electoral Commission of Namibia (ECN) programmes since 1992. In 2001 the Democracy Building Unit (DBU) was established. By 2002 the DBU had set up regional units in each of Namibia’s 13 regions. Namibians are of diverse ethnic origins. The Electoral Commission of Namibia goals of voter education include; greater citizen participation, culture of national reconciliation, political tolerance, unity in diversity, address voter apathy, to create awareness, promote
nation building, to empower citizens to be able to perform checks and balances and to provide impartial electoral information. Initially, voter education only took place during the pre-election period but the DBU’s have started to roll out more permanent education programs, which represent a positive development. Voter education strategy during the 2004 elections include; use of the media, decentralizing the regional education DBU’s and Partnerships with NGO’s, other technical and legal bodies.

In Nigeria, at the national level is the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) which has a function to undertake essential election awareness and voter education activities with support from different agencies, organizations and groups involved in the electoral process. The INEC has identified the following thematic areas as key in the implementation of the electoral process: rights and responsibilities of the Voter, voter registration, elections, voters and representative democracy, causes, consequences and prevention of electoral Conflicts. The commission adopted voter education delivery method which was voter-centered and friendly. It was focused on encouraging learners to express their views and use their initiative in discussing issues in voter education based on their experiences. The facilitator’s role is to create an enabling environment for exchange of ideas. Therefore such a person has to be well informed, resourceful and flexible. The methods adopted for teaching the voter education are: problem-solving, value clarification, expository methods.

In Kenya, Voter Education was introduced in 1997 as a function of Electoral Commission of Kenya (ECK). The constitution mandated ECK to promote voter education throughout the country. However, due to the urgency of conducting the elections in the same year, there was no adequate time to design and execute an effective voter education programme throughout the country. Although the commission then encouraged NGOs to carry out voter education; this was done in an ad hoc manner without a well-articulated program KIE Report (2010). In the run up to 2002 general elections, the Commonwealth Observer Group Report (2006) indicated that the commission itself admitted that it did not have sufficient funding for voter and civic education on the scale that it believed was required. Thus there was a gap that has continued to exist that required to be filled by
developing an articulated program for voter education through a well-organized curriculum.

The established Interim Independent Electoral Commission (IIEC) in 2009 under Article 42A of the Old Constitution had the mandate to as well conduct voter education during electoral events. However, even after conducting several by elections and referendum the expansive mainstreaming of voter education was not forthcoming. According to KHRC Report (2014) in the lead up to the 2010 referendum, the commission participated in the conduct of civic education on the proposed constitution as it then was. During the exercise it was noteworthy that in spite of clear appeals to reason, there was significant resistance to the reception of factual information on the content and potential impact of the proposed law. KHRC considered that perhaps it is a question of the methodology used in the process of civic education that needed to be reconsidered afresh.

Article 35 of the Constitution of Kenya 2010 provides for access to information required for the exercise or protection of any fundamental right and freedom. The citizens need information as it gives them the knowledge with which they engage with the Government and other public institutions for their own good. Voter Education is a function of Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission (IEBC) informed by the Constitution of Kenya 2010 under Article 88(4) (g). It takes place to assist the election administration in its task of delivering a free, fair, efficient and cost-effective election. The electoral body IEBC managed to develop voter education curriculum which was meant to promote democracy and build the confidence of citizens in democratic electoral practices leading to good governance. Meanwhile voter education manual and other materials were also produce as a guide with the following objectives: To arouse public interest in the electoral process and their involvement in the process of electing political leaders, To inform the public on the IEBC: its history and mandate, To inform the public on the specific measures that IEBC has put in place to restore public confidence in the electoral process and encourage active public participation in the process, To inform the public on the rationale and importance of participating in elections, To educate the public on the electoral process (voter education).
While the commission was committed to use all the appropriate approaches ranging from use of mass media, deployment of voter educators to partnership with civil society groups in providing voter education to the electorates, numerous shortcoming and criticism were at large. An emerging concern by civic and voter education providers is their relationship, and coordination with IEBC (KNDR report, 2013). Apparently, there has been limited interaction between the IEBC and groups that have been providing voter education. The organization further suggested that after the General Election, it will be important to review these civic and voter education initiatives and gauge their impact in informing voters about the electoral process and, even more importantly, influencing behavioral change towards more informed electoral choices (KNDR, 2013).

The anticipated multiple elections on the same day were the most challenging phenomenon given the bulk of ballots to be decided by a single voter. KHRC (2014) report on 2013 elections stated that given the low levels of civic and voter education conducted by the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission (IEBC) and other stakeholders prior to the election day in what was clearly going to be a complex exercise, the voting process was bound to, and in fact did result in, massive levels of confusion amongst the electorate, who had customarily voted for three candidates (the President, the MPs and the Councilors). While the commission worked closely with outside partners to develop voter education programs, earlier engagement with partners and preparation of materials as well as sound financial support for partners will enhance the effort (Carter Centre report, 2013).

2.4 Voter Education Content

Voter Education is most effective when linked with a programme of civic education that puts the election into context for voters and provides an explanation of the election’s purpose, the surrounding issues, and their significance (André et.al, 2000). Ideally, civic education will be built into a country’s educational system so that when children reach voting age they will already understand the basis of the national and local political and electoral systems. However, since this is not always the case, and since these systems may change over time, it is vital to have a continuing programme of civic education linked to electoral processes.
Cafer-Orman (2010) stated that the term voter education is generally used to describe the dissemination of information, materials and programmes designed to inform voters about the specifics and mechanics of the voting process for a particular election. André et al (2000) stated that civil society actors should monitor the Government’s voter and civic education programmes to ensure that they are accessible to women and are gender-sensitive. According to Schaffer (2008) whether voters spurn, absorb, ignore, or misunderstand specific educational messages will have significant implications not only for the effectiveness of the education campaign, but also for the quality of the resulting democracy. The availability of the said materials and the extent to which such materials motivate the end users will reinforce voter education efforts that would result to the desired outcome. However, the growing concern is the degree of its user friendliness and gender sensitivity.

Building and maintaining public confidence in the electoral process is a principle challenge for voter education efforts. The goal of voter education is to make information available and accessible to all constituents (Rackner and Svasand, 2005). To do this effectively requires reaching out to disadvantaged groups as well as mainstream voters. For example, voter education should take into account factors such as high rates of illiteracy or the use of different languages in a country, even if there is only one official language. Carter centre report (2013) maintains that greater effort should be made to ensure that voter education materials are comprehensible for illiterate, semi-illiterate, or blind voters. Minority groups, internally displaced persons (IDP) and other marginalized segments of society should be specially targeted while Young adults eligible to vote for the first time may need special messages explaining how to register and cast a ballot.

Comparative Civic Education models elsewhere reveal an emerging “push towards developing linkages between civic education and community ethos, a decentralization of methods and content to be in tandem with the felt needs and aspirations of communities (Kibwana and Kawive, 2009). Education is a melding of content with appropriate media and methods. According to IEBC (2011) a voter education curriculum would be geared towards: Arousing public interest in the electoral process and their involvement in the process of electing political leaders, Informing the public on the link between human
rights and voter rights, Making the public understand the relationship between elections and democracy, Enlightening the public on the importance of voting and its impact on transparency and accountability, Sensitize the public on the rationale and importance of boundary reviews in Kenya, Educating the public on the electoral process, role, responsibilities and rights of voters, Enable the public to appreciate the need for voter registration, polling and counting procedures, Empowering the public to manage conflicts during elections, Enable the public to understand the role and importance of political parties, candidates and observers in elections.

In practice, not all voter education materials available for reference make explicit the circumstances under which they were developed. According to ACE PROJECT; (2013) the inclusion of such information could make these materials more useful, and might even provoke the use of existing materials in similar contexts even if these are separated in time and geography. A study by Jennings (1999) stresses that in transitional contexts, voter education programmes should not simply focus on teaching voters to learn where, when and how to vote. They should also work to convince voters that voting will make a difference and voters must have confidence in the integrity of the electoral process. While acknowledging improved efforts on the part of election officials, López-Pintor (2005) notes the insufficiency of information provided in indigenous languages in some areas. Sometimes, legal provisions may prescribe that information materials and forms be provided in additional languages in regions where other languages are broadly in use.

This is so with the implementation of the Kenya Constitution of 2010 where the new presidential and legislative elections require more insights on the contents of information for the citizens. The voters need to have knowledge on their roles and voting procedures in the six elective positions. In essence the voter education contents should be informative and focused on the entire electoral process and democratic principles that will enhance voter participation. Electorate needs to acquire knowledge, skills, attitudes and competences necessary for efficient and effective voting thus reducing voter apathy and votes spoilage (KIE Report, 2010).
2.5 Training of Voter Education Providers

A recent review of research on one of the least recognized causes of poor quality teaching is sobering (Ingersoll, 1998). The problem is out-of-field teaching, or teachers being assigned to teach subjects that do not match their training or education. In U.S.A in an effort to ensure that teachers are qualified for the subjects they will teach, some states have begun to test applicants for teaching positions. The National Center for Education Statistics reported in 1997 that about one half of the nation's school districts now require passage of state tests of basic skills while 39% require passage of state tests of subject knowledge. While those efforts are a step in the right direction, they fall short of the goal of assuring that all children are taught by teachers who not only have in-depth knowledge of the subject they teach but who also have the skills and the enthusiasm to teach it well (Barkan, 2008).

Training is the upgrading of a person’s skills or addition of new skills which in turn is expected to bring about the desired change an agency is seeking (Large 1995). He further contends that providing the employees with training and development opportunities encourages good performance, strengthen job related skills and competence and helps employees to keep up with changes in the work place such as introduction of new technology or work methods. Any voter education initiative will be heavily influenced by the history and socio-political environment within which it is planned and implemented. Apart from the numbers game, voters need to be made aware that each individual vote has weight in determining the rights that they have over the elected party or representative once the election has been won or lost. If a representative relationship cannot be formed between citizens and elected officials, citizens may begin to feel that their vote does not, in fact, count for much (Schlaflly, 2002). For the population to be convinced of their said civic roles, vibrant public education will be of importance by experienced and well - informed moderators to impart the desired message.

In South African, Gilder (1994) noted that as the majority of voters in rural areas were illiterate or semi-literate, the ‘logistics of reaching a significant percentage of these people with a substantial education campaign [was] daunting and extremely expensive.’ As a result, the IEC’s voter education division became increasingly involved in training.
voter education trainers, and special projects were launched to reach target groups not adequately covered (IEC, 1994).

A national voter education programme is a costly activity if it is the sole burden of the election management authority. It is best done by an alignment of all the available resources in a country, especially if the particular election is of great significance (ACE Encyclopedia: 2013). While voter information is certainly the responsibility of the election authority (Electoral Commission), voter education can easily be viewed as the responsibility of various stakeholders, including political parties, the election authority and civil society (Faucheux, 1994). A variety of other government agencies may also have some role in informing and educating citizens. The mandate of the election authority or other government agencies may be determined through law, while civil society organizations may have, as part of their mission, a commitment to voter education and political participation. Citizens should understand that through their involvement in political life and in civil society, they can help to improve the quality of life in their neighborhoods, communities, and nation. If they want their voices to be heard, they must become active participants in the political process (Finkel, 2003b).

In Kenya, IEBC has Constitutional mandate to implement voter education and information programmes for any particular elections process. It had partnership with civil society organizations and other Agencies through accreditation to implement voter education activities during elections. The involved groups must meet the requirements of accreditation and use of the IEBC curriculum and materials to implement the programme. IEBC also had voter educators contracted and assigned at ward levels to undertake public education on elections. However, the competency of the deployed personnel with the level of training to handle the exercise that will impact on the elections result was what this study would want to establish.

2.6 Methods used in Providing Voter Education

In terms of content transmission the most significant pedagogical implication is for the instructor to facilitate learning through appropriate methods that would be most effective. Palliser(2013) states that the effectiveness of voter education programs has been limited
by their uneven territorial coverage and a lack of a unified pedagogical method, as well as the lateness with which education campaigns are launched and the challenges of translating voter information into different indigenous languages.

In United States of America a study on the impact of a civics and voter Education program in Los Angeles, developed by the Constitutional Rights Foundation, a non-profit community-based organization, also found that methods matter (Kahne et al. 2006). There are methodologies that are generally relevant and the selection of which may be determined as much by educational goals and ideology as by local context. Suitable voter education can include a wide range of activities from theatre shows to a classroom or street demonstration (IFES, 2012). For instance in Kenya the use of Road shows as a method of informing the voters through entertainments and concerts may not be welcome among some religious groups or cultures especially in rural settlements while in urban centers’ it is the most effective means to send voter information message.

Use of Simulations and mock elections as a method of providing voters with election hands-on experience especially with the first time voters was a common practice. In Sweden, classroom time is supplemented by experiential simulations such as Minister for a Day as well as visits from and to city councils. Although it is difficult to assess the impact of such initiatives, Milner (2010; 2002) argues that they are important contributing factors to higher levels of civic literacy in Scandinavia, which in turn are associated with higher turnout. There are also the needs related to active participation in competitive politics. One educational activity involves the use of mock or parallel elections (Cooper, 2002). In Chile, for example, children accompany their parents to the polls on Election Day and actually cast ballots in a parallel election. In other cases, mock election activities may either be narrowly focused on voting behavior or incorporate the entire electoral campaign.

Mode of voter education range from printed flyers and posters in public spaces to telephone hotlines, newspaper advertisements, mobile brigades and kiosks, radio and television ads, websites, direct mailings, and text messaging (ACE Project 2013b; Ellis et al. 2006, 20-21). Such voter education activities are typically considered the responsibility of electoral management bodies, although civil society organizations also
often carry out similar activities. Brady (2009) emphasizes the importance of conducting voter education programmes in unsafe areas of a country. In these contexts, he argues that extra care must be taken to protect the security of citizens and educators on the way to education events and notes that broadcast media may be the most appropriate tool for voter education in these contexts. Some argue that if the media provide useful information, citizens can attain the political knowledge they need (Neuman et al. 1992); (Prior 2005); (Jerit et al. 2006). Some political learning does in fact take place during campaigns, and public discussion and voters use their knowledge, however little, to inform their decisions (Markus and Converse, 1979).

2.7 Time in Provision of Voter Education

According to UNDP, (2003) Voter education should be provided even on Election Day, there should be posters and other materials inside the polling stations and even inside the voting booths, explaining the voting process and how to mark the ballots. Voter education requires more lead time for implementation and should be undertaken on an on-going basis. This type of information is most often provided by election authorities and civil society organizations (ACE project: 2013).

The timing of a voter education programme may depend upon the duration of the programme, the institution undertaking the programme, that institution’s mandate or mission, the parameters of the programme, the types of instructional materials being developed, and the needs of the group(s) at which it is being targeted (Tshome, 2008). In some cases, voter education may be initiated somewhat earlier than voter information, particularly if major changes are being made to a country’s system of representation and legal framework for elections, where the franchise is being extended, and where significant changes are made to political and electoral processes. In countries with longer standing democracies and where there is a permanent election authority and sufficient resources, however, voter education may be an on-going activity.

In Kenya, there were criticism that the IEBC programme was not effective in 2013 due to inadequate time allocated for the voter education exercise and financial resources were limited (Standard Newspaper, 9 Feb, 2013). This could be substantiated by the fact that
Kenya electoral process was on the eve of undertaking six elections on one day which was a move from the former three ballots in a general elections. And there were much more information the voters expected to have known before the actual voting day. Carter Centre election report (2013) recommends that voter education should begin in the immediate post-election period and continue throughout the electoral cycle. Therefore appropriate time for undertaking comprehensive voter education programme was necessary.

2.8 Theoretical Framework

The study has its relevancy from the classical theories of democracy:

2.8.1 Classical Theories of Democracy

In democratic theory several assumptions are held regarding the population’s level of information. Democratic theories also share the view that each member of the political community carries elementary rational capacities that are sufficient to judge the conduct of government.

Most of the classical theories of democracy are predicated upon an assumption that even if individual values are not relative, true only for citizens who hold them, and then at least absolute values cannot be known or communicated to others. Although they varied in their commitment to this first and most important principle, the classical democrats, Mill (1991) maintained that, lacking knowledge of universal truths upon which to establish political authority, individuals in society must be accorded maximum opportunity to pursue their own goals and self-defined values, and to do so in self-determined ways.

The classical democrats maintained that members of a democratic polity must have the capacity and motivation to become involved in a variety of political activities; they need to be capable of understanding a wide range of political questions; they must be intensely interested in political affairs; they must be well informed and behave rationally; and they must be willing not only to tolerate the participation of others but to defer the decision of the majority even when the will of the majority conflicts with their own (Hutchful, 1996). Voting decisions in a competitive democracy can be characterized as
prospective in which the voter selects the candidate whose expected future performance they prefer, or retrospective in which the voter evaluates incumbent politicians according to some threshold or criteria (Fearon, 1999). The availability of information conditions the ability of voters to make sound judgments.

Individual political participation was viewed by the classical democrats as a necessary condition for individual development and moral fulfillment. According to Rousseau (1996) participation was educational. It widened the individual’s perspectives, enabling him to acquire the moral freedom which alone makes man the master of himself. Participation “forced man to be free”. Therefore, the study on influences of voter education approaches on elections outcome relates to the classical theory in that voter education could enhance the level of participation of both individual and groups in all the processes of civil life that affects people's beliefs, commitments, capabilities, and actions as prospective members of communities where decision making through ballot is involved.

2.9 Conceptual Framework

Conceptual framework identifies the concept included in the complex phenomenon and shows their relationships (Mutai, 2000). It shows the interaction between the independent variables: voter education content, training of voter education providers, methods used and time in provision of voter education and the dependent variable - elections outcome. The framework also presents the extraneous variables as Organizational Culture: people’s attitude and moderating variables which included Government policies and regulations as well as levels of accountability.
2.10 Summary of the Literature

This chapter reviews the literature related to the objectives of the study. It took into account through discussion how voter education approaches would impact on elections outcome. The chapter attempted to elaborate on theoretical framework in relation to the study and ended with a discussion on the conceptual framework which defined the relationship between the variables.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Methodology refers to the theoretical analysis of the methods appropriate to a field of study and represents a recognized body of practices, procedures, and rules used in a discipline or a set of working methods (Dictionary.com, 2000). This chapter describes the methodology that was used to conduct the study. These include aspects such as: research design, target population, sample size, sampling procedure, research instruments, and data collection procedures, data analyzing techniques, ethical issues consideration and operational table that presents how independent variables generate measurable parameters that was tested and measured in this study.

3.2 Research Design

A research design is a plan showing how the problem under investigation can be solved (Orodho, 2003). It functions as the research blue print Creswell (2003). To tackle the questions posed in this study, descriptive survey design was used. Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) described survey design as a process in which data is collected in order to test hypothesis or to answer questions concerning the current status of the subject under study. Descriptive survey research is designed as a method of collecting information by interviewing or administering a questionnaire to a sample of individuals to collect the information on their attitudes, opinions, and habits (Orodho and Kombo, 2002). A mixed method approach converge findings and extend the breadth of inquiry (Creswell, 1994). Qualitative method was used as a tool, because of its broad approach towards understanding and explaining the meaning of social phenomenon in naturalistic setting (Marshal and Rossman, 1999). Quantitative method was employed to analyze Likert-scale 1-5 data presented on the survey questionnaires.

3.3 Target Population

Target population as defined by Best and Khan (1999) is the small portion of the population selected for observation and analysis. It is the population to which a study wants to generalize its findings. Based on this, the study focused on 80 as target
populations which include: Election Administrators (Constituency Elections Coordinator and Constituency Office Clerk), Voter Educators, Civil Society Groups, Member of County Assembly (MCA), Political Party leaders, and Faith Based Organizations. These populations were either implementers or direct beneficiaries of voter education programmes.

3.4 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

Sampling means selecting a given number of subjects from a defined population as representative of that population. Any statements made about the sample should also be true of the population (Orodho, 2002). In this study, stratified and simple random sampling as well as census techniques was used in order to obtain a working sample from the population as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Sample Size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Description</th>
<th>Population size</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voter Educators</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constituency Elections Coordinator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constituency Office clerk</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Society Groups</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Member of County Assembly (MCA)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Party representatives</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faith Based Organizations</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong></td>
<td><strong>33</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Stratified sampling techniques was used to obtain a working sample from the population of 80 which consist of Election Administrators, Voter Educators, Civil Society Groups, Members of County Assembly (MCA), Political Party leaders, and Faith Based Organizations in Isiolo North Constituency. This was due to the fact that the six (6) groups were treated as a stratum. Then simple random sampling technique was deployed to obtain a working sample, while census technique was also used to obtain a sample of
the other five groups since the population was few and critical in the study. According to Mulusa (1990) one third of the target population is representative enough to make estimate characteristics being investigated. Thus, for the purpose of this study, one third of the target population was taken as the sample for voter educators, civil society groups, Members of County Assembly (MCA), while the whole population was selected for the four groups namely: Election Administrators (Constituency Elections Coordinator and Constituency Office Clerk), political party leaders and Faith Based Organizations. Therefore the sample size selected was 33 respondents.

3.5 Research Instruments

The data for this research were collected using a survey questionnaire. Each item in the questionnaire addressed the specific research objective of the study (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). In the questionnaire, Likert scale of 1-5 was used to determine the respondent feedback. The questionnaires have both close and open ended questions. The aim of using the open-ended questions was to allow respondents to freely discuss issues without limiting the score. The close ended questions were utilized as they were quicker and easier to complete while touching on a wider range of information.

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

The study involved collection of data from 33 respondents from the sample groups, using self-administered questionnaire in order to gather self-report on people’s opinion, attitudes, beliefs and values on influence of Voter Education Approaches on Elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency. Kotler (1998) stated that the advantage of using self-administered questionnaire is to ensure the respondents privacy, however where necessary assistance was provided to administer. The process also included seeking authority with the relevant offices for the exercise. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected.

3.6.1 Piloting of the Instrument

The study attempted to minimize random error and hence increased the reliability of the data by piloting or pre-testing the instrument to a group of selected sample units that had similar characteristics to the target population in Isiolo South Constituency.
3.6.2 Reliability of the Research Instrument

In this study, the reliability of the research instrument was ensured by pre-testing the questionnaire with a selected sample groups during the piloting. In order to test the reliability of the instruments, internal consistency techniques were applied using Cronbach’s Alpha. The alpha value ranges between 0 and 0.9 with reliability increasing with the increase in value. Coefficient of 0.6-0.7 is a commonly accepted rule of thumb that indicates acceptable reliability and 0.8 or higher indicates good reliability. A high value of alpha (> 0.90) may suggest redundancies and show that the test length should be shortened (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011).

3.6.3 Validity of the Research Instrument

Gall and Borg (1998) defines validity as the degree to which a test measures what it purports to measure, while Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) defines it as the accuracy or meaningfulness of inferences which are based on research results. To achieve content validity, this study sought assistance from experts (supervisor) on various section of the questionnaire which become the primary instrument for data collection. Adjustments were incorporated in the instrument, thus fine-tuned the items to increase the validity. Validity is also ascertained by checking whether the questions were measuring what they are supposed to measure such as clarity of wording and whether the respondents are interpreting all questions in similar ways (Orodho, 2003). The feedback from the pre-test was used to revise and modify the questionnaire in order to enhance the validity of the instruments.

3.7 Data Analysis

Data analysis refers to examining what had been collected in a survey or experiment and making deductions or inferences. Kerlinger (1986) defines data analysis as categorizing, manipulating and summarizing of data in order to obtain answers to research questions, once data was collected it was edited by carefully inspecting it in order to identify the mistakes and any wrongly answered and not responded to items, it was then coded. This is the process of assigning numerals or other symbols to answers so that the responses can be put into a limited number of categories or classes (Kothari, 2004). Quantitative
data was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software system which computed frequencies and percentages as well as the mean values of the Likert-scale rating.

3.8 Data Presentations

Correlational analysis was used to show the strength and relationship between independent variables studied and the resultant dependent variable. The results from the data analysis were interpreted and presented using the frequencies and percentages.

3.9 Research Ethics

In this study the principle of voluntary participation was applied. Informed consents was sought from all the participants and they were explained the purpose of the study. They were assured that the information given was treated confidentially and their names were disclosed. A research approval was sought through introductory letter from the University of Nairobi.

3.10 Operationalization of Variables

According to Kerlinger, (1973) operational definition assigns meaning to a concept or construct by specifying the activities or operations necessary to measure it. He continues to say that, it gives meaning to variables by spelling out what the investigators must do to measure it. This part illustrated how the independent variables were operationalized into measurable quantitative parameters. The parameters were linked to conceptualized factors which this study is founded on. The framework was illustrated in Table 3.2
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Data collection Methods</th>
<th>Level of scale</th>
<th>Data Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To examine the influence of Voter Education Content on election outcome in Isiolo North Constituency</td>
<td>Voter Education Content</td>
<td>- Adequacy</td>
<td>- Enough Posters/ Pamphlet/ Banners/ fliers - Sample ballots</td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Frequency and percentages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Reference materials</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- User friendliness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>pamphlets/ Posters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>To establish the influence of training of voter education providers on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency</td>
<td>Training of voter education providers</td>
<td>- Competency</td>
<td>- Partnership with civil society groups - Training/ Induction reports of voter educators</td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Frequency and percentages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Accreditation status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To determine influence of methods used in providing voter education on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency</td>
<td>methods used in providing voter education</td>
<td>- Simulations/mock elections</td>
<td>- Frequent use of print and electronic media - No. of road shows stage - Simulation Mock election reports - Public discussions and debate sessions recorded</td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Frequency and percentages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Road shows</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Use of print and electronic media</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Public discussion</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>To establish the</td>
<td>Time of voter</td>
<td>- Duration of voter</td>
<td>- Delivery of voter</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>influence of time in provision of voter education on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency</td>
<td>education</td>
<td>education programme for any election event</td>
<td>education and information reports</td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>Nominal and percentages</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3.2: Operationalization of Variables**
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an analysis of data collected from the field. It includes presentation and the interpretation of the findings based on the tests of significance. In the appropriate cases, data was presented in form of frequency tables and percentages. The variables of the study were measured using Likert-scale, open-ended questions and other structured questions. The study was done based on specific objectives which formed the research questions. The raw data was coded, evaluated and tabulated to depict clearly the results on influence of voter education approaches on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency.

4.2 Reliability Statistics

Reliability was measured using Cronbach’s Alpha generated from SPSS (version 20). Based on the pilot study conducted prior to data collection, the instrument had a value of 0.720 which lies within the acceptable range of 0.7 to 1.0 and therefore this shows that the instrument was reliable.

4.3 Response Rate

A total of 33 questionnaires were distributed to the categories of respondents which was also the sample size of the study.

Table 4.1 Return rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentages %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Response</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>88.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Response</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>33</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results were presented as shown in the Table 4.1 above. Those who participated and returned the questionnaires were 29 in number 88.88% while 4 participants 11.12% did
not respond to the questionnaires. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1993), a response rate of more than 80% is sufficient for a study. The 88.88% response rate was found to be significant to carry out the analysis of the data collected for this study.

4.4 Sample Characteristics

Table 4.2: Gender of the Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentages%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>75.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>29</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 Majority of the respondents were male representing 75.9% and the females constituting 24.1%. This indicates male dominancy in the occupation categories of the respondents. However, this has no significant implication on the study.

Table 4.3: Academic Qualifications of the Respondents

Table 4.3 shows results on academic qualification, 96.5% of the respondents had Secondary and post - Education. This indicates that the respondents were well educated to be able to understand the questionnaire items.
Table 4.4: Age Group of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentages%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 – 30</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>55.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 – 50</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 and above</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>29</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4 shows that 86.2% of the respondents were between 21 – 40 age brackets. This result shows that the respondents were mature to make informed and independent decisions in regards to the questionnaire items.

Table 4.5: Occupation of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Sample Size</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentages%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voter Educators</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constituency Elections Coordinator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constituency Office clerk</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Society Groups</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Member of County Assembly (MCA)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Party representatives</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faith Based Organizations</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>33</strong></td>
<td><strong>29</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5 indicates that all the occupation categories targeted by the study were adequately covered as planned.
4.5 Variables of the Study

This section presents data analysed for the various variables in form of percentages and frequencies. It describes all the questions that were asked in the questionnaire item by item and shows the overall results as per variables.

4.5.1 Voter Education Content

Table 4.6: Summary of Responses on Voter Education Content

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>Not Sure</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voter education content was relevant to the voter’s needs.</td>
<td>51.7</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There were enough voter education materials distributed to the voters.</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference materials were user friendly considering the needs of the voters.</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>34.5</strong></td>
<td><strong>37.9</strong></td>
<td><strong>14.9</strong></td>
<td><strong>9.2</strong></td>
<td><strong>5.2</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6 shows that majority of the respondents agreed that there was adequate voter education content.
4.5.2 Training of Voter Education Providers

As for the first questionnaire item for this variable 93.1% responded yes while 6.9% of respondents rejected the claim that lack of proper training of voter educators’ affects election outcome. The other four questionnaire items were on a Likert- scale and table 4.7 presents the responses to these questions.

Table 4.7: Summary of Responses on Training of Voter Education Providers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>Not Sure</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality of information provided to voters was adequate during election process</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voter educators were competent enough</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEBC training for voter educators equipped them with the required skills.</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partnership with other Organizations in providing voter education was important during elections.</td>
<td>72.4</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.7 shows that 65.5% of the respondents agreed that lack of proper training of voter education providers was not adequate during the electoral period. Quality of information to voters with competent voter educators was at an average of 77%. It is also evident that the voter educators were equipped with the required skills as indicated by the results of
the respondents at 75.9%. The result on IEBC partnership with other organization also indicated an average response of 86.2% which is clear evidence that the electoral management body IEBC has to seek for partnership with other players in order to deliver voter education and information to public for participation.

4.5.3 Methods used in Providing Voter Education

Table 4.8: Summary of Responses on Methods used in Providing Voter Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>More Often</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Not Sure</th>
<th>Less Often</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How often the respondents attended voter education programmes</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Public discussion</th>
<th>Lectures</th>
<th>Demonstrations</th>
<th>Simulations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The frequently used methods for voter education</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appropriateness of the latter methods</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Somewhat agree</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents understood the languages used by media for voter education.</th>
<th>Very Clear</th>
<th>Somewhat Clear</th>
<th>Not Sure</th>
<th>Less Clear</th>
<th>Not Clear</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The frequency of voter education programme as shown by Table 4.8 revealed that most respondents, 58.6% often attended the programme. The mostly used method for voter education was public discussion which majority of the respondents 55.2% found appropriate. This was followed by lectures and the least used were demonstration and simulation methods. The finding also indicates that 72.4% of the respondents found that language on the media was not a barrier in voter education.
4.5.4 Time used in Providing Voter Education

Table 4.9: Summary of Responses on Time in Provision of Voter Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>More often</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Not Sure</th>
<th>Less Often</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency with which the voter education programmes were provided.</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency with which the voter education programmes were provided.</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Somewhat agree</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The time given for voter education was adequate in the respondent’s locality.</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 4.9, it can be construed that almost half of the respondents were of the opinion that voter education was provided frequently in their localities, that is, 48.3%. The other half which is 51.7% indicated that the frequency of voter education was not sufficient. Based on the results from Table 4.9, there was no conclusive evidence as to the adequacy of voter education in terms of frequency in its provision.

Also, it was noted that most respondents denied that the time given for voter education was not adequate. To follow up on this question, the respondents were asked whether improper planning, inadequate resources and unclear electoral timetable could have been the possible causes. Their responses are summarised in table 4.10.
Table 4.10: Summary of Responses on Possible Causes of Inadequate Voter Education Duration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Agree %</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree %</th>
<th>Not Sure %</th>
<th>Disagree %</th>
<th>Strongly disagree %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improper planning</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate resources</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclear electoral Time-table</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Average** 54.6 25.9 8.1 12.3 4.9 100

Table 4.10 shows that most of the respondents 80.5% were of the opinion that there were problems in general that led to the inadequate voter education time.

4.5.5 Elections Outcome

Table 4.11: Summary of Responses on Elections Outcome

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Agree %</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree %</th>
<th>Not Sure %</th>
<th>Disagree %</th>
<th>Strongly disagree %</th>
<th>Excellent</th>
<th>Very good</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Fair</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Great extent</th>
<th>Moderate extent</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
<th>Less extent</th>
<th>No extent</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Citizens were informed about the voting process during elections</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rating voter participation in elections</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent by which voters were motivated by the voter education messages in</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>order to vote for candidates of their choice</td>
<td>Section Average</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From table 4.11, it was observed that 57.4% of the respondents agreed that the election outcome was positive, whereas 42.6% of them were of the contrary opinion. Therefore, it can be construed that the voter’s rate of participation and making an informed decision in elections was fair based on the respondents’ opinions.

4.6 Tests of Significance

To establish the factors associated with Election Outcome, Fisher’s Exact Test of significance was used at a 5% level of significance aided by SPSS (version 20). Correlation analysis was applied first to determine the interrelationships among the questionnaire items of each research variables. Afterwards, the questionnaire items of the independent variables that had higher correlations to the questionnaire item chosen for the dependent variable were chosen for cross tabulation. The results are presented in form of frequency tables and percentages.

4.6.1 Results from Cross Tabulations

Table 4.12: Fisher’s Exact Test of Voter Education Content against Election Outcome

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Exact Sig. (2-sided)</th>
<th>Exact Sig. (1-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fisher’s Exact Test</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 4.12, it can be observed that Voter Education Content was significant at 0.011 (P<0.05). This means that Election outcome is not indifferent to voter education content. Therefore, there is significant dependency on voter education content to get a good election outcome.

Table 4.13: Symmetric Measures of Voter Education Content against Elections Outcome

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Exact sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phi Value</td>
<td>0.525</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.13 above indicates that the Phi value is similar to the Pearson’s R which in this case was found to be 0.525. This value indicates a strong relationship between the two variables. In this case, the percent difference with Election outcome as independent (column) is 53%, and with Voter Education Content as independent is 53%.

Table 4.14: Fisher’s Exact Test of Training of Voter Education Providers against Elections Outcome

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Exact Sig. (2-sided)</th>
<th>Exact Sig. (1-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fisher's Exact Test</td>
<td>.180</td>
<td>.180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 4.14, it can be observed that Training of voter education providers was not significant at 0.180 (P>0.05). This means that Election outcome is indifferent to Training of voter education providers. Therefore, there is insignificant dependency on Training of voter education providers to get a good election outcome.

Table 4.15: Symmetric Measures of Training of Voter Education Providers against Election Outcome

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Exact sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phi</td>
<td>.289</td>
<td>.180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.15 above indicates the Phi value of 0.289. This value indicates a weak and insignificant relationship between the two variables. In this case, the percent difference with Election Outcome as independent (column) is 29%, and with Training of voter education providers as independent is 29%.

Table 4.16: Fisher’s Exact Test of Methods used in Providing Voter Education against Election Outcome

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Exact Sig. (2-sided)</th>
<th>Exact Sig. (1-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fisher's Exact Test</td>
<td>.305</td>
<td>.190</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 4.16, it can be observed that Methods used in providing voter education was not significant at 0.305 (P>0.05). This means that elections outcome is indifferent to
methods used in providing voter education. Therefore, there is insignificant dependency on methods used in providing voter education to get a good election outcome.

**Table 4.17: Symmetric Measures of Methods used in Providing Voter Education against Election Outcome**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Exact. Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phi Value</td>
<td>0.256</td>
<td>0.305</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.17 above indicates the Phi value of 0.256. This value indicates a weak and insignificant relationship between the two variables. In this case, the percent difference with Election Outcome as independent (column) is 26%, and with Methods used in Providing Voter Education as independent is 26%.

**Table 4.18: Fisher’s Exact Test of Time in Provision of Voter Education against Election Outcome**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Exact Sig. (2-sided)</th>
<th>Exact Sig. (1-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fisher's Exact Test</td>
<td>0.633</td>
<td>0.375</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 4.18, it can be observed that time in provision of voter education was not significant at 0.633 (p>0.05). This means that election outcome is indifferent to time in provision of voter Education. This reveals that there is insignificant dependency on time in provision of voter education to get a good election outcome.

**Table 4.19: Symmetric Measures of Time in Provision of Voter Education against Election Outcome**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Exact. Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phi Value</td>
<td>0.159</td>
<td>0.633</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.19 above on time in provision of voter education on elections outcome shows the Phi value of 0.159. This value indicates a weak positive insignificant relationship between the two variables. In this case, the percent difference with Election Outcome as independent (column) is 16%, and with Time in Provision of Voter Education as independent is 16%.
4.7 Summary of the Findings

The Independent variables namely; relevancy of voter education content, training of voter education providers, methods used in providing voter education and time were analyzed using the SPSS so as to find out their influence on the dependent variable - Elections outcome. From the analysis, presentations and interpretation of the data collected it is critical to note that the independent variable, voter education content had strong positive significant on the Elections outcome with phi value at 53%. There other independent variables; training of voter education providers, methods used in providing voter education and time had weak positive significant association with Elections outcome with phi value at 29%, 26% and 16% respectively.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings generated from the result of the study in chapter four. The study finding was summarized in line with the objective of the research and discussions were done with inferences from similar studies in order to make informed conclusions and further recommendations.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

The section summarizes the findings in relation to the specific objectives of the study which were to: examine the influence of voter education content, establish the influence of training of voter education providers, determine influence of methods used in providing voter education, and establish the influence of time in provision of voter education on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency.

5.2.1 Influence of Voter Education Content on Elections Outcome

The findings in Table 4.6 shows that the relevancy of voter education contents to voter needs was indicated as very important with 93.1% of the respondents positive. This is an indication that relevant educational message to the need of voters is vital in elections.

The adequate distribution of voter education materials to voters indicates that majority of the respondents confirmed. Result on user friendliness of reference materials such as posters and fliers considering the needs of the voters and the disabled group revealed that 65.5% of respondents were positive, 34.5% had different opinion. From Table 4.12 on Fisher’s Exact Test voter education contents has significance at 0.011 (P<0.05). This result suggests that voter education content was significant in determining the elections outcome with a correlation analysis value at 0.526, which is 53% relatively strong positive for this study.
5.2.2 Influence of Training of Voter Education Providers on Elections Outcome

Table 4.7 established that the majority of the respondents agreed on a large scale that lack of proper training for voter education providers will affect elections outcome. Furthermore, it was confirmed from the respondents that the voter educators were competent enough to inform voters on their civic duties. The findings further revealed that IEBC partnership with other organizations in providing voter education was important during elections. However, the result on Fisher’s Exact Test of significance showed that elections outcome is indifferent with the training of the voter education providers with a correlation analysis value at 0.289 which is 29% a relatively weak positive.

5.2.3 Influence of Methods used in Providing Voter Education on Elections Outcome

The findings on the frequency of voter education program revealed that most respondents often attended the program. The mostly used method for voter education was public discussion which majority of the respondents found appropriate. This was followed by lectures and the least used were demonstration and simulations methods. Public discussion provided voters with information on how to vote. The finding also indicates that languages on the media were not a barrier in voter education. From the analysis of the result, this variable was not significant according to Fisher’s Exact Test with a correlation analysis value at 0.259 which is 26% relatively weak positive.

5.2.4 Influence of Time in Provision of Voter Education on Elections Outcome

On the frequency of voter education programmes provided before election in their locality, 51.7% of the respondents were of the opinion that the frequency of voter education was not sufficient, while 48.3% agreed voter education was provided frequently. Therefore, it can be concluded that based on the results from table 4.9, there was no conclusive evidence as to the adequacy of voter education in terms of the frequency in its provision.

It was also noted that most respondents indicated that the time given in the provision of voter education was not adequate. A follow up question was raised to the respondents whether improper planning, inadequate resources and unclear electoral timetable could
have been the possible causes. 80.5% of the respondents agreed on all the factors as to the reasons for inadequate time given in provision of voter education as summarised in table 4.10. Despite the time given for voter education was inadequate; the respondents were of the opinion that the elections outcome was fair according to table 4.11. This indicates that inadequacy of time have no adverse implication on elections outcome in this case. This was supported by the result from Fisher’s Exact Test of significance which found that time was an insignificant variable with a correlation analysis value at 0.159, which is 16% relatively weak positive, though indispensable.

5.3 Discussion of the Findings

This section discusses the findings in this study in relation to other similar findings as per the objectives set forth for this study. They are also based on the questionnaires used to guide this study on the influence of voter education approaches on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency, Isiolo County.

5.3.1 Voter Education Content

The result shows that relevancy of voter education contents is an essential element in electoral process. It is meant to enhance participation of a well-informed citizenry in democratic processes, including elections; as a way of influencing decision-making on matters that affect their lives. This agrees with the study by Schaffer (2008) who maintained that whether voters spurn, absorb, ignore, or misunderstand, specific educational messages will have significant implications not only for the effectiveness of the education campaign, but also for the quality of the resulting democracy. Adequacy of voter education material distribution and its user friendliness considering the needs of and disable groups rated positive response. The availability of the said materials and the extent to which such materials motivate the end users will reinforce voter education efforts that would result to the desired outcome. Carter centre report (2013) maintains that greater effort should be made to ensure that voter education materials are comprehensible for illiterate, semi-illiterate, or blind voters.
5.3.2 Training of Voter Education Providers

The finding from the study indicates that lack of proper training for voter education providers would affect elections process. It also revealed that voter educators were competent to inform voters of their civic roles. This agrees with study by Large (1995) which defines training as the upgrading of a person’s skills or addition of new skills which in turn is expected to bring about the desired change an agency is seeking. He further contends that providing the employees with training and development opportunities encourages good performance, strengthen job related skills and competence. Therefore, the competency of the deployed Civil Society groups and other personnel with the level of training to handle the voter education exercise is very important for the success of the entire programme.

5.3.3 Methods used to Provide Voter Education

The result on the frequency of voter education programme reveals that respondents were in attendance often. As for the methods used, public discussion was found to be the most appropriate by majority of the respondents. This agrees with study by Markus and Converse (1979) who stated that some political learning does in fact take place during campaigns and public discussions, and voters use their knowledge, however little, to inform their decisions. The study also revealed that the language used for voter education programme on media was appropriate. Neuman et al. (1992) argued that if the media provide useful information, citizens can attain the political knowledge they need. Therefore, this is to say that use of appropriate methods that are generally relevant and the selection of which may be determined as much by the local context in some cases.

5.3.4 Time in Provision of Voter Education

The findings on the frequency of voter education programmes provided before election in the locality, the study revealed that there frequency of programmes conducted as agreed by 51.7% of the respondents was not sufficient. It was also noted that most respondents indicated that the time given in the provision of voter education was not adequate. This agree with the report by UNDP (2003 which stated that voter education requires more lead time for implementation and should be undertaken on an on-going basis.
As to the reasons for inadequate time given in provision of voter education, the study found out that: improper planning, inadequate resources and unclear electoral time table were the main causes. This finding agree with Carter Centre election report (2013) which recommends that voter education should begin in the immediate post-election period and continue throughout the electoral cycle. It further stated that while the commission (IEBC) worked closely with outside partners to develop voter education programs, earlier engagement with partners and preparation of materials as well as sound financial support for partners will enhance the effort. Therefore appropriate time for undertaking comprehensive voter education programme was necessary.

5.4 Conclusion of the Study

This study sought to assess the influence of voter education approaches on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency, Isiolo County. It established that voter education content in general has significant implication on voter participation and decision making in electoral democracy. The relevancy of the voter education messages and availability of the educational materials in quantity which is also user friendly to all categories of voters would enhance making an informed choice. The study also established that lack of proper training for voter education providers would impact negatively on electoral process This require an intervention measures that would ensure proper trainings for the Civil Society groups and other personnel responsible for educating electorates. On the methods used, public discussion was rated as most appropriate method of disseminating voter education messages, while languages used by media to provide voters with information were clear enough. Finally, the study revealed that time given to voter education programmes before election was Inadequate. This was attributed to the fact that improper planning by the electoral management body could have been a factor. Lack of enough resources to mobilize voters as well as unclear electoral time - table were concluded as other possible causes of inadequate time in voter education programmes.
5.5 Recommendations

The following are some of the recommendations:

1. There is need for Electoral Management Body IEBC to review voter education contents and messages with specified electoral events from time to time to maintain its relevancy in the circumstances.

2. There should be proper training of voter educators and coordinated engagement with civil society groups and other partners so as to enhance collaborative efforts in providing continuous voter education to the general public.

3. Election is a cycle with specific activities throughout the period; the Electoral Management Body (IEBC) therefore, should strengthen voter education policy so as to streamline the continuity of the programme all through.

4. The use of electoral technologies in managing elections is one of the new innovations being deployed by Electoral Management Body IEBC to enhance elections credibility. The use of simulation as a method should be utilized widely to provide hands-on experience for the public to understand and appreciate them.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Research

The study recommends the following topics for further research:

1. The replica of the same research to be done in another broader area like Meru County.

2. Influence of Voter education on women participation in elections in Isiolo District.
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APPENDIX I

Letter of Transmittal

P.O BOX 2764-60200
MERU

March, 2015

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: PARTICIPATION IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT

I am a Masters student at the University of Nairobi, School of Continuing and Distance Education. I am currently undertaking a Research project towards partial fulfillment of the requirements for Awards of Master’s degree in Project planning and Management of the University of Nairobi. My project focuses on the influence of voter education approaches on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency, Isiolo County, Kenya

In this regard, I have attached herein a questionnaire that will assist me to collect information for the project. And any information given is purely for academic purpose and shall be treated confidentially. It will be appreciated if you could spend some time to complete the questionnaire.

Thank you in advance

Yours Sincerely,

Habiba Godana Hilama
Reg. No. L50/66328/2013
APPENDIX II
QUESTIONNAIRES FOR THE RESPONDENTS

Kindly respond to the following questionnaires in regard to the investigation into the influence of voter education approaches on elections outcome in Isiolo North Constituency, Isiolo County, Kenya. For each questionnaire below, tick the most appropriate response regarding the aspect being examined.

PART A: General Information

1. What is your gender? (Tick one)

   Male [ ]

   Female [ ]

2. What is your age bracket in years (tick one)

   18-20 [ ]

   21-30 [ ]

   31-40 [ ]

   41-50 [ ]

   Above 50 [ ]

3. What is your highest level of education? Tick (√) where applicable

   Non-formal education [ ]

   Primary level [ ]

   Secondary level [ ]

   College level [ ]

   University level [ ]
4. What is your occupation in the community? Tick (√) where applicable

Voter Educator [ ]
Constituency Elections Coordinator [ ]
Constituency Office Clerk [ ]
Civil Society representative [ ]
Member of County Assembly (MCA) [ ]
Political Party representative [ ]
Faith Based Organization rep. [ ]

5. How often do you participate in elections? (Tick (√) where applicable

More often [ ]
Often [ ]
Less often [ ]
Never [ ]
Not sure [ ]

PART B:

Influence of voter education approaches on elections outcome. Using a Likert-Scale of 1-5, with 5 being ‘strongly agree’, 4 being ‘somewhat agree’ 3 being ‘Not sure’, 2 being ‘Disagree’ and 1 being ‘strongly disagree’, please indicate your level of agreement/disagreement with the following.
Voter Education Content

1. To what extent do you agree with the following statements in relation to the Influence of Voter education contents on elections outcome? Tick (√) where applicable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree (5)</th>
<th>Somewhat agree (4)</th>
<th>Not Sure (3)</th>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Voter education contents were relevant to the voter’s needs.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. There were enough Voter Education materials distributed to the voters</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Reference materials e.g. posters, pamphlets were user-friendly considering the needs of voters and disable groups</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Training of voter education providers

1. In your opinion, will lack of proper training for voter educators affect Elections outcome? Tick (✓) where applicable
   
   Yes [ ]
   No [ ]

2. Please provide your views for the following statements using the 1-5 scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree (5)</th>
<th>Somewhat agree (4)</th>
<th>Not Sure (3)</th>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The quality of information to voters was adequate in election process.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Voter educators were competent enough to inform voters on their civic duties</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. IEBC training for voter educators was adequate to equip them with required skills to deliver on their roles</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Partnership with other organizations in providing voter education was important during elections</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Methods used in providing voter education

1. How often do you attend voter education programmes conducted in your locality? Tick (√) where applicable
   More often [ ]
   Often [ ]
   Less often [ ]
   Never [ ]

2. Which were the most frequently used methods by the voter educators during such programmes? Tick (√) where applicable
   Public Discussions [ ]
   Lecture [ ]
   Demonstrations [ ]
   Role play [ ]
   Simulations [ ]

3. The method you selected above provided the voters with information on how to vote. To what extent do you agree or disagreement with this statement:
   Strongly agree [ ]
   Somewhat agree [ ]
   Not sure [ ]
   Disagree [ ]
   Strongly disagree [ ]
4. Were the languages used for voter education programme on media e.g. Television and Radio stations clear to all? Tick (√) where applicable

- Very Clear [ ]
- Somewhat clear [ ]
- Less clear [ ]
- Not Clear [ ]
- Not sure [ ]

**Time in provision of voter education**

1. How often were voter education programmes provided before elections in your locality? Tick (√) where applicable

- Most often [ ]
- More often [ ]
- Less often [ ]
- Never [ ]
- Not sure [ ]

2. In your view, was the time within which voter education programmes conducted enough to inform the voters on electoral process? Tick (√) where applicable

- Yes [ ]
- No [ ]
3. If your answer above is No, what could be the reasons for inadequate time for voter education? Please give you opinions for the following statements using the 1-5 scale: Tick (√) where applicable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree (5)</th>
<th>Somewhat agree (4)</th>
<th>Not Sure (3)</th>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  Improper planning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  Inadequate resources</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  Unclear electoral time-table</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

4. Voter education was given enough time in your locality. Indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with this statement. Tick (√) where applicable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat agree</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Elections outcome

1. During elections citizens were informed of voting process. To what extent do you agree or disagreement with this statement: Tick (√) where applicable

   Strongly agree [ ]
   Somewhat agree [ ]
   Not sure [ ]
   Disagree [ ]
   Strongly disagree [ ]

2. How do you generally rate voter participation in elections in your locality?

   Excellent [ ]
   Very good [ ]
   Good [ ]
   Fair [ ]
   Poor [ ]

3. To what extent were you motivated by the voter education messages in order to vote for Candidates of your choice?

   Great extent [ ]
   Moderate extent [ ]
   Lesser extent [ ]
   No extent [ ]
   Not sure [ ]

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION
APPENDIX III

MAP OF ISIOLO NORTH CONSTITUENCY