

**EFFECT OF PUBLIC DEBT ON ECONOMIC GROWTH IN
KENYA**

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DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has not been submitted for examination in any other university.

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DEDICATION

I would to dedicate this project to my family and the University of Nairobi fraternity for their tireless support in ensuring that we realise our career goals.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	iii
DEDICATION.....	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	ix
ABSTRACT.....	x
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background of the study	1
1.1.1 Public Debt.....	3
1.1.2 Economic Growth.....	4
1.1.3 Public Debt and Economic Growth.....	5
1.1.4 Public Debt and Economic Growth in Kenya	6
1.2 Research Problem	8
1.3 Research Objectives.....	10
1.4 Significance of the Study	10
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	11
2.1 Introduction.....	11
2.2 Theoretical Literature Review	11
2.2.1 Dual Gap Analysis Theory.....	12
2.2.2 Keynesian Model	12
2.2.3 Debt Overhang Theory	13
2.2.4 Dynamic Theory of Public Spending, Taxation, and Debt.....	14
2.3 Determinants of Economic Growth	15
2.3.1 Investment	16
2.3.2 Economic Policies and Macroeconomic Conditions.....	17
2.3.3 Openness to Trade	17
2.3.4 Political Factors	18
2.3.5 Human Capital.....	19
2.3.6 Innovation Research and Development.....	20
2.3.7 Public debt.....	20

2.3.8 Unemployment rate	22
2.3.9 Inflation rate	23
2.4 Empirical Review.....	24
2.5 Summary of the Literature Review	29
2.6 Conceptual Framework.....	30
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	31
3.1 Introduction.....	31
3.2 Research Design.....	31
3.3 Data Collection	31
3.4 Data Analysis	32
3.4.1 Analytical Model	32
3.4.2 Test of Significance.....	33
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS	34
4.1 Introduction.....	34
4.2 Descriptive Statistics.....	34
4.2.1 Economic Growth	34
4.2.2 Public Debt.....	36
4.2.3 Unemployment rate.....	37
4.3 Inferential Statistics	39
4.4 Interpretation of the Findings.....	40
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	41
5.1 Introduction.....	41
5.2 Summary	41
5.3 Conclusion	42
5.4 Recommendations.....	43
5.5 Limitations of the Study.....	44
5.6 Areas for Further Research	44
REFERENCES.....	45
APPENDIX I: Data on Public Debt, Unemployment Rate and Inflation Rate.....	56
APPENDIX II: Data on Economic Growth	57

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1 Economic Growth	35
Table 4.2 Public Debt	36
Table 4.3 Unemployment rate.....	37
Table 4.4 Inflation rate.....	38
Table 4.5 Model Summary	39
Table 4.6 ANOVA (b)	39
Table 4.7 Coefficients (a)	39

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 4.1 Economic Growth.....	35
Figure 4.2 Public Debt	36
Figure 4.3 Unemployment rate	37
Figure 4.4 Inflation rate	38

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ADB	African Development Bank
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
ECB	European Central Bank
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
GoK	Government of Kenya
HIPCs	Highly Indebted Poor Countries
IDA	International Development Association
IMF	International Monetary Fund
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
LICs	Low Income Countries
MDRI	Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative
NI	National Income
R&D	Research and Development
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WB	World Bank

ABSTRACT

The effect of Public Debt on Economic Growth is a debatable issue between scholars since the onset of the debt crisis in 1980's. Public Debt is one of the main macroeconomic indicators, which forms countries' image in international markets. It is one of the inward foreign direct investment flow determinants. A prudent Public Debt Management helps economic growth and stability through mobilizing resources with low borrowing cost and limiting financial risk exposure. Kenya being a developing country compliments its revenue through export of primary commodities. In attempt to add to available domestic resources, successive governments have acquired huge sums of Public Debt to finance National Development Plans. A high level of debt in Kenya poses a great challenge for the economy because a large portion of revenues is devoted to servicing the debt instead of being put into domestic investment, thus reducing the prospects of economic growth. The conventional view is that a high level of debt may lead to crowding out and also constrain the scope of counter cyclical fiscal policies, which may result in higher volatility and adversely affect economic performance. This study is therefore an effort to determine the effect of Public Debt on Economic Growth in Kenya. Specifically, the study tries to answer the question whether external debt and debt servicing have any significant effect on Economic Growth. The study uses a linear regression model to analyse Kenyan data from the economic years 1993/1994 to 2014/2015, with GDP growth rate as a function of Public Debt. Unemployment rate and Inflation rate were taken as control variables. The results indicated that Public Debt, Unemployment rate and Inflation rate were negatively related to Economic Growth, but not significant as indicators of Economic Growth. This study recommends to future scholars to research on qualitative variables of Economic Growth such as: corruption, political instability and elections, insecurity and Global economic issues.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Kenya, an East African nation, has worked for economic stability since its independence from Britain in 1964. Despite efforts of the Government and Central Bank the country remains in a pattern of external debt and domestic deficits, with sluggish Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth. This sluggish growth pattern, coupled with low domestic savings and world market factors, has prevented Kenya from repaying its external debt, maintaining and expanding domestic infrastructure and fully funding Government-Sponsored Social Programs (Dunne and Asaly, 2005).

Public debt is one of the main macroeconomic indicators, which forms a countries' image in international markets (Abbas, 2007). It is one of the inward foreign direct investment flow determinants. Moreover, since governments borrow mainly by issuing securities, their term, interest rates and overall costs of debt financing has significant impact on the economy, the future of the enterprises and social welfare for not only present, but also future generations.

Higher taxes result in lower present consumption, which may mean a slowdown of the Economic Growth (Abbas, 2007). According to Martin (2009), Public Debt can also serve as means of delaying taxation, that way reducing current distortions. Thus, government has two choices for covering financial needs (budget deficit). First, one implies a taxation system. Second, one borrows money on the (international) market. But debt-financing puts pressure on future generations and their ability to maintain economic and financial stability. They not only have to repay the amount borrowed,

but also cover the costs related to debt financing, which includes interest and costs of debt management. Such a debt is sustainable if it is used to generate Economic Growth and its benefits are higher than the initial costs, otherwise serious public finance issues are about to appear. Considering these two factors, government has to maintain the equilibrium between taxation and debt financing in order to maintain economic and financial stability in a long run (Ribeiro et al., 2012).

Borrowed resources should be used productively and efficiently to increase the capacity to service debt through accretion to government resources. A misuse of resources may easily lead to a build-up of debt to unsustainable levels, which has been a major impediment to growth in emerging economies. The analysis of Public Debt in developing countries has traditionally focused on external debt. Past research has focused on external debt for two reasons; first, while external borrowing can increase a country's access to resources, domestic borrowing only transfer resources within the country. Hence, only external debt generates a "transfer" problem (Keynes, 1929). Second, since central banks in developing countries cannot print the hard currency necessary to repay external debt, external borrowing is usually associated with vulnerabilities that may lead to debt crises (Panizza, 2009).

In almost all of sub-Saharan Africa, there is a high degree of indebtedness, high unemployment, absolute poverty and poor economic performance despite a previous culture of massive foreign aid. The average per capita income in the region has fallen since 1970 despite the high aid flows. This scenario has prompted aid donor agencies and experts to revisit the earlier discussions on the effectiveness of foreign aid (Lancaster, 1999). The high flow of foreign aid has also created a dependency

syndrome (Levy, 1987; Mosley et al., 1987; Devarajan et al., 1998; Ali et al., 1999). Unfortunately, with fiscal problems and the change in political focus by the donor community, the foreign aid taps seem to be running dry (Feyzioglu et al., 1998) posing serious economic and social ramifications. Therefore this made Public Debt one of the major economic policy issues that confronted governments of poor countries. In recent years, several developing countries adopted aggressive policies aimed at retiring external debt and substituting it with domestically issued debt.

1.1.1 Public Debt

Public Debt refers to the total of the nation's debts, which covers debts of local, and state and national governments, indicating how much public spending is financed by borrowing instead of taxation (Makau, 2008). Government debt is one method of financing government operations, though not the only method as governments can also create money to monetize their debts, thereby removing the need to pay interest (Martin, 2009).

Nevertheless, this practice simply reduces government interest costs rather than truly canceling government debt and can result in hyperinflation if used unsparingly. Government debt is created through various instruments including Bonds, Treasury Bills, borrowing from commercial banks and overdraft from the Central Bank. Klein (1994) and Ariyo (1997) noted that a fundamental factor causing debt to rise is the reliance on external resources to complement capital formation in the domestic economy.

The higher the interest payment and the heavier the deficit on the current account, the heavier the debt burden (Ayres et al., 2006). Debt sourced finance represents funds with fixed contractual obligations, which will require pledging future resources of the nation as collateral. In order to cope adequately in the end with servicing requirement, a nation's debt service capacity must grow at a rate higher than that of its financial risk exposure. The non-debt resources on the other hand represent funds flow without fixed or compulsory obligations on the government. The magnitude and regularity of such resources however, depend on foreign investors' perception of the investment environment in the recipient country (Matiti, 2013).

1.1.2 Economic Growth

Economic growth refers to the growth of that thing we call the economy. Economy is the physical subsystem of our world made up of stock of population and wealth, and the flow of production and consumption (Daly, 2010). It is also defined as an increase in the capacity of an economy to produce goods and services, compared from one period of time to another. Abbas (2005) defined Economic Growth as an increase in the production and consumption of goods and services. It refers primarily to national economies and is usually measured in terms of Gross Domestic or Gross National Product (GNP).

Investment is the most fundamental determinant of Economic Growth identified by both neoclassical and endogenous growth models (Podrecca & Carmeci, 2001). However, the neoclassical model of investment has impact on the transitional period, while the endogenous growth models argue for more permanent effects. The importance attached to investment by these theories has led to an enormous amount of

empirical studies examining the relationship between investment and Economic Growth (Easterly, 2002 and Bond, 2002). Nevertheless, findings are not conclusive.

This Economic Growth can either be positive or negative. While positive Economic Growth can be explained by the expansion an economy, negative Economic Growth can be explained by the shrinking of the economy. In addition, negative growth is associated with economic recession and economic depression. Gross National Product is sometimes used as an alternative measure to Gross Domestic Product. In order to compare multiple countries, the statistics may be quoted in a single currency, based on either prevailing exchange rates or purchasing power parity. Then, in order to compare countries of different population sizes, the Per Capita figure is quoted. To compensate for changes in the value of money (inflation or deflation) the GDP or GNP is usually given in "real" - or inflation adjusted - terms rather than the actual money figure compiled in a given year, which is called the nominal or current figure (Ayres et al. 2006).

1.1.3 Public Debt and Economic Growth

Reinhart and Rogoff (2010) showed that high levels of Public Debt are negatively correlated with Economic Growth, but that there is no link between debt and growth when Public Debt is below 90% of GDP. Many commentators and policymakers did give a causal interpretation to their findings and used the debt-growth link as an argument in support of fiscal consolidation.

The link between Public Debt and Economic Growth could be driven by the fact that it is low Economic Growth that leads to high levels of debt. While there is evidence that Public Debt is negatively correlated with Economic Growth, correlation does not necessarily imply causality. Minea and Parent (2012) study the relationship between debt and growth by using a statistical technique that allows for a gradual change in the estimated relationship between debt and growth. They find complex non-linearity which may not be captured by models that use a set of exogenous thresholds.

Kourtellos et al.(2013) relax the assumption that the relationship between debt and growth is either constant across countries or only varies with debt levels. They find that the estimated relationship between Public Debt and Economic Growth depends on institutional quality, but they do not find evidence of debt thresholds. Panizza and Presbitero (2012), did test for causality and found no evidence in support that debt causes Economic Growth. While the study was aware that techniques for assessing causality are never watertight, there was confidence in stating that still there is no paper that can make a strong case for a causal relationship between debt and growth. It is hoped that this study will stimulate more research aimed at uncovering possible causality.

1.1.4 Public Debt and Economic Growth in Kenya

The Internal Loans Act (Cap 420) provides the legal framework for the Minister of Finance (cabinet secretary to finance) to borrow on behalf of the government from the domestic market through issuance of Treasury Bills and Treasury Bonds. The government overdraft at the Central Bank of Kenya is the only aspect of domestic debt borrowing that seems to be limited by law. Domestic borrowing through

Treasury bills and bonds do not seem to have a limit in law. This is different from external borrowing where the External Loans and Credit Act, CAP. 422 of the Laws of Kenya limits the total indebtedness in respect of principal amount to Ksh. 500 billion or such higher sum as the National Assembly may by resolution approve. Despite the lack of legal limit on domestic borrowing, the Minister is required by provisions of the Internal Loans Act to “report to the National Assembly in writing, the amount of indebtedness outstanding at the end of each financial year in respect of each manner of borrowing specified in section 3 of the Internal Loans Act”.

Kenya’s net domestic debt stood at 20 percent of GDP (Ksh 708,000 Million) at end-2012, around the average for 2006-2012. It is mostly held by commercial banks in the form of T-Bills and Government Bonds (comprising of 30 percent and 70 percent of domestic debt, respectively). Despite the relatively large size of the domestic debt, rollover risks appear moderate as Kenya has focused on extending the average maturity of its debt, which is now 5.6 years.

The details of Kenya’s debt burden continue to be disheartening, as of August 2008, the Public Debt stood at Ksh. 867 billion in a country with a population of 36 million people with numerous challenges. Since 2003, debt composition in government securities has been skewed in favour of long-term borrowing through Treasury bonds. Interest rates within the period were sticky below 13% (Putunoi & Mutuku, 2013). Given Kenya’s economic circumstances, it can be stated that the challenge is to succeed in creating a dynamic economy which is able to compete regionally and internationally, increase real GDP growth by more than the increase in population, reduce dependence on external transfers, reduce poverty and unemployment and

finally, to reduce the external debts overhang. This is why current economic policies are committed to the principle of economic liberalization, which includes: Export promotion, private sector development, foreign direct promotion, privatization, and infrastructure.

1.2 Research Problem

The factors affecting Economic Growth in developing countries have been a topic of continuing debate over the last few decades. In early 1960s and 1970s, economists have argued that debt and its proper utilization is one of the factors that contribute to Economic Growth in developing countries of Africa. Geiger (1990), Chowdhury (1994), Karagol (1999), Were (2001), Kalima (2002), Pattillo et al. (2004), and Schclarek (2004) studied the role of foreign debt in Economic Growth in different countries. The findings of these studies show varying results and it has been concluded that the effectiveness of debt on Economic Growth differs from country-to-country.

For the past five decades, a number of studies have been carried out to establish the relationship between external debt and economic growth (Schclarek, 2004; Pattillo et al, 2002). Further, since early 1980's, debt crisis has been a major issue for many nations especially developing nations of Africa. By conventional propositions, it is expected that external borrowing will serve as a source of capital formation, which spurs Economic Growth. However, economic performance of many debtor countries has been undermined by huge debt accumulation (Adegbite et al., 2008). Given the increasingly growing concern of the debilitating impact of debt on growth, especially among developing countries, this study will investigate the presence of mixed

findings on the external debt and growth relationship. In the midst of mixed findings, it may not be totally clear of the impact of debt on economic growth. However, although the relationship between Public Debt and Economic Growth is a major concern for policymakers and public opinion in general, there is little empirical work investigating this relationship. Furthermore, there is even less evidence on the specific channels through which debt affects growth.

Globally, Pankaj et al., (2011) evaluated the determinants of public debt for middle income and high-income group countries using Panel Data regression. According to them, the most important determinant of debt situation is GDP growth rate for both high and middle-income group countries. Ribeiro et al. (2012), while studying the effect of Public Debt and other determinants on the economic growth of selected European countries found out that country determinants influence the efficiency of public borrowing and its effect on GDP.

Several scholars and researchers have reviewed the concept of government debt and its effects on the economy. Harmon (2012) looked at the impact of Public Debt on inflation, GDP growth and interest rates in Kenya. The study concluded that a Public Debt, inflation, GDP growth and interest rates link could not be found in a single analysis. Moki (2012) did an analysis of the relationship between Public Debt and Economic Growth in Africa. Moki's (2012) findings indicate Public Debt has a significant positive relationship on Economic Growth. Investment however, is not a significant predictor of Economic Growth. Makau (2008) did an empirical analysis on external Public Debt servicing and Economic Growth in Kenya. The empirical results in the short run indicated that the coefficients of external debt to GDP, savings to

GDP and debt service to GDP had the correct sign and were significant while the coefficients of interest to GDP and growth in labour force were insignificant. Koka (2012) reviewed the relationship between Government Bond issues and Economic Growth in Kenya. The results show that the issuance of Government Bonds has a positive effect on the level of Economic Growth. The study seeks to bridge this gap by answering the question: ‘What is the effect of Public Debt on Economic Growth in Kenya?’

1.3 Research Objectives

The study seeks to determine the effect of Public Debt on Economic Growth in Kenya.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study will be important to several stakeholders. To scholars and academicians; this study will increase body of knowledge of Public Debt and its impact on Economic Growth in the Kenyan Market. It will also suggest areas for further research so that future scholars can pick up these areas and study further. Furthermore the study will be important to the Government, especially the Ministry of Finance in making policy decisions with the overall objective to influence the level of economic activity and manage Public Debt. Finally there is a significance of this study for investors in the bond market; the findings will inform them on the factors leading to the floatation of government bonds and how that affects economic development of the country.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter conducts a review of the literature on the relationship between Public Debt and Economic Growth as established by other scholars. Specifically, this study enumerates the theoretical framework on which it is grounded before presenting empirical literature by various scholars seeking to establish the relationship between the two variables. Section 2.2 examines theoretical literature on public debt and economic growth. Section 2.3 reviews findings from earlier studies on effects of public debt on economic growth while section 2.4 discusses the factors that influence economic growth. Section 2.5 is a summary.

2.2 Theoretical Literature Review

Over the years, the theory of economic growth has evolved from simplest models to complex economic modelling techniques. Many countries, regardless of their social and political systems have pursued economic growth by applying different strategies - based on theories that are suitable to their economic conditions. These theories include the following:

First, the Dual Gap Analysis Theory, which explains the relationship between investment and savings as components of Economic Growth. Further, it explains the relationship between imports and exports on the same. Second, the Keynesian Model Theory, which deals with macroeconomic environment, prevailing in an economy that may necessitate government borrowing. Third is The Debt Overhang Theory which is

a situation in which a country's expected repayment ability on external debt falls below the contractual value of debt (Krugman, 1988) and lastly there is the Buchanan Theory which postulates that debt involves a postponement of the burden of taxation to future generations or future time-periods (Geiger, 1990).

2.2.1 Dual Gap Analysis Theory

Dual Gap Analysis Theory developed by Chenery and Strout (1966) holds that for undeveloped economy, to attain some particular growth rate, there are two separate and independent types of obstacles, which he calls saving gap and foreign exchange gap. According to him, such gaps will be filled up through the flow of foreign resources and a desirable targeted rate of economic growth will be attained. According to this economist, in the light of national income accounting, these gaps remain equal in the export sense, but they are not equal in the ex-ante sense. In summary, the theory explained that development is a function of investment and that such investment which requires domestic savings, if savings is not sufficient to ensure that development/economic growth takes place then there must be the possibility of obtaining from abroad the amount that can be invested in any country which is identical with the amount that is saved.

2.2.2 Keynesian Model

Keynesian Model came about as a result of the Great Depression (1929-1939). Economist John Maynard Keynes observed that the economy is not always at full employment. In other words, the economy can be below or above its potential. During the Great Depression, unemployment was widespread, many businesses failed and the economy was operating at much less than its potential.

The Keynesian Model was first pioneered by Keynes in his book ‘The general theory of employment, Interest rates and money’ that was first published in 1936. The Keynesian Model postulates that there is no real burden associated with Public Debt and it has no effect on Economic Growth (Metwally and Tamaschke, 1994). The real burden occurs at the time when the expenditure is made: that’s when real resources are used up. Internal public debt is “debt we owe to ourselves”. It adds nothing to our real resource base. External debt is different: it does add real resources to the economy, and those resources will have to be repaid some time. Substituting public debt for current taxation has an immediate macro-expansionary effect: an increase in public expenditure financed by a tax increase invokes a different and lower multiplier than does debt-financed public expenditure and indeed, in macro terms, public debt invokes no contractionary force (Savvides, 1992).

2.2.3 Debt Overhang Theory

Public debt overhang has been found as a result of the development of a database concerning fiscal crises in recent years. Before the development of data by Reinhart et al. (2012), it was not known that the balance of public debt affects economic growth. For example, Barro and Sala-i-Martin (1995) empirically showed that the ratio of government consumption to GDP has a negative impact on per-capita GDP. However, it was not confirmed whether the amount of public debt has a significant impact. Meanwhile, Fischer (1991) empirically showed that a fiscal deficit has a negative impact on per-capita GDP but did not confirm whether or not the amount of public debt affects per-capita GDP (Kobayashi, 2015).

Krugman (1988) coins the term of “debt overhang” as a situation in which a country’s expected repayment ability on external debt falls below the contractual value of debt. Cohen’s (1993) theoretical model posits a non-linear impact of foreign borrowing on investment as suggested by Clements et al. (2003) who indicates that this relationship can be arguably extended to growth. Thus, up to a certain threshold, foreign debt accumulation can promote investment, while beyond such a point the debt overhang will start adding negative pressure on investors’ willingness to provide capital. In the same vein, the growth model proposed by Aschauer (2000), in which public capital has a nonlinear impact on economic growth can be extended to cover the impact of public debt. Assuming that government debt is used at least partly to finance productive public capital, an increase in debt would have positive effects up to a certain threshold and negative effect beyond.

2.2.4 Dynamic Theory of Public Spending, Taxation, and Debt

The theory builds on the well-known tax smoothing approach to fiscal policy pioneered by Barro (1979). This approach predicts that governments will use budget surpluses and deficits as a buffer to prevent tax rates from changing too sharply (Battaglini and Coate, 2008). Thus, governments will run deficits in times of high government spending needs and surpluses when needs are low. Underlying the approach are the assumptions that governments are benevolent, that government spending needs to fluctuate over time, and that the deadweight costs of income taxes are a convex function of the tax rate (Battaglini and Coate, 2006). The economic environment underlying this theory is similar to that in the tax smoothing literature. However, the key departure is that policy decisions are made by a legislature rather than a benevolent planner. Moreover, this theory introduces the friction that

legislators can distribute revenues back to their districts via pork-barrel spending (Bohn, 1998).

The theory considers a political jurisdiction in which policy choices are made by a legislature comprised of representatives elected by single-member, geographically defined districts. The legislature can raise revenues in two ways: via a proportional tax on labour income and by borrowing in the capital market. Borrowing takes the form of issuing one period bonds. The legislature can also purchase bonds and use the interest earnings to help finance future public spending if it so chooses. Public revenues are used to finance the provision of a public good that benefits all citizens and to provide targeted district-specific transfers, which are interpreted as pork barrel spending. The value of the public good to citizens is stochastic, reflecting shocks such as wars or natural disasters. The legislature makes policy decisions by majority (or super-majority) rule and legislative policy-making in each period is modelled using the legislative bargaining approach of Baron and Ferejohn (1989). The level of public debt acts as a state variable, creating a dynamic linkage across policy-making periods.

2.3 Determinants of Economic Growth

A wide range of studies has investigated the factors underlying economic growth. Using differing conceptual and methodological viewpoints, these studies have placed emphasis on a different set of explanatory parameters and offered various insights to the sources of economic growth.

2.3.1 Investment

Investment is the most fundamental determinant of economic growth identified by both neoclassical and endogenous growth theories. However, in the neoclassical model investment has impact on the transitional period, while the endogenous growth models argue for more permanent effects. The importance attached to investment has led to an enormous amount of empirical studies examining the relationship between investment and economic growth. Nevertheless, findings are not conclusive. Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) has recently played a crucial role of internationalizing economic activity and it is a primary source of technology transfer and economic growth. This major role is stressed in several models of endogenous growth theories.

The empirical literature examining the impact of FDI on growth has provided more-or-less consistent findings affirming a significant positive link between the two (Borensztein et al., 1998; Hermes and Lensink, 2000; Lensink and Morrissey, 2006). Endogenous growth theories assign an important role to investment both in the short term and in the long run. Levine and Renelt (1992) and Sala-i-Martin (1997) identify investment as a key determinant of economic growth. High investment ratios do not necessarily lead to economic growth. The quality of its investments, its productivity, and existence of appropriate policy, political and social infrastructure are all determinants of effective investments (Hall and Jones, 1999; Fafchamps, 2000; Artadi and Sala-i-Martin, 2003). Private investments are the engine that drives the economy while government investments provide the infrastructure.

2.3.2 Economic Policies and Macroeconomic Conditions

Economic policies and macroeconomic conditions have, also, attracted much attention as determinants of economic performance (Kormendi & Meguire, 1985; Barro, 1991; Fischer, 1993; Barro and Sala-i-Martin, 1995), since they can set the framework within which economic growth takes place. Economic policies can influence several aspects of an economy through investment in human capital and infrastructure, improvement of political and legal institutions.

Macroeconomic conditions are regarded as necessary but not sufficient conditions for economic growth (Fischer, 1993). In general, a stable macroeconomic environment may favour growth, especially, through reduction of uncertainty, whereas macroeconomic instability may have a negative impact on growth through its effects on productivity and investment (e.g. higher risk). Several macroeconomic factors with impact on growth have been identified in the literature, but considerable attention has been placed on inflation, fiscal policy, budget deficits and tax burdens.

2.3.3 Openness to Trade

Openness to trade is another potential determinant of Economic Growth. Openness enables exploitation of comparative advantage, technology transfer and diffusion of knowledge, increasing scale of economies and exposure to competition. Dollar and Kraay (2000) in their study confirmed the positive relation between openness to trade and economic growth. Although the relationship between trade openness and economic growth is one of the oldest issues in economics, the existing theory does not provide a conclusive answer. Therefore, the openness-growth relationship is basically an empirical question and has been extensively investigated by empirical cross-

country work dating back to the 1970s and the 1980s. This issue especially attracted renewed interest since the early 1990s, with almost all studies finding a strong and statistically significant positive relationship between trade openness and economic growth.

However, the cross-country growth literature is still far from settled since the findings of this literature have been subject to an important criticism in terms of robustness. In particular, Edwards (1993), Harrison & Hanson (1999) and Rodrik and Rodriguez (2000) argue that the cross-country studies suffer from lack of robust and convincing evidence on the topic due to two important drawbacks: first, the empirical studies fail to provide an openness measure based purely on trade policy; second, they employ very simple growth models, implying that the strong results in favour of openness may arise from model misspecification.

2.3.4 Political Factors

Interest in the relation between political factors and economic performance was raised by Lipset (1959) triggering the conduction of numerous studies which conclude that the political environment plays an important role in economic growth (Kormendi and Meguire 1985; Scully 1988; Grier and Tullock 1989; Brunetti 1997; Lensink et al. 1999; Lensink 2001). Researchers usually assess the political environment using variables such as political stability and degree of democracy. At the most basic form, political stability would reduce uncertainty, encouraging investment and eventually advancing economic growth. The degree of democracy is also associated with economic growth, though the relation is much more complex, since democracy may

both retard and enhance economic growth depending on the various channels that it passes through (Alesina and Perotti, 1996).

Political environment play an important role in economic growth (Kormendi and Mcguire, 1985) political stability does reduce uncertainty encouraging investment and eventually advancing economic growth though the relation is much more complex, since democracy may retard or enhance economic growth depending on the various channels it passes through (Alesina and Perotti, 1996).

2.3.5 Human Capital

Human capital is another important determinant of growth (Barro and Sala-i-Martin, 1995). It principally refers to the workers' acquisition of skills and know-how through education and training. Majority of studies (Barro and Sala-i-Martin, 1995; Brunetti et al, 1998, Hanushek and Kimko, 2000) have measured the quality of human capital using proxies related to education like school-enrolment rates, tests of mathematics and scientific skills among others.

Human capital is the main source of growth in several endogenous models as well as one of the key extensions of the neo-classical growth model since the term human capital refers principally to workers' acquisition of skills and know how through education and training. A large number of empirical studies have found evidence suggesting educated population is the key determinant of economic growth (Barro, 1991).

2.3.6 Innovation Research and Development

Enhanced capital, labour and technological progress are the three principal sources of the Economic Growth of nations. Innovation research and development bears most directly on technological changes and is the key driver for organizations and nations. For this reason most distinguished theorists draw attention to the concept of technological progress and its significant effects upon economic growth (Torun and Çiçekçi, 2007). The creation, dissemination and application of knowledge increasingly constitute a major engine of economic expansion. Grossman and Helpman (1994), observe that technology has been “the real force behind perpetually rising standards of living” (Bilbao-Osorio and Rodriguez, 2004).

Innovation, Research and Development activities can play a major role in economic progress increasing productivity and growth. This is due to increasing use of technology that enables introduction of new superior products and processes. Various endogenous growth models have stressed this role, and the strong relation between innovation / R&D and economic growth has been empirically affirmed by many studies (Ulku, 2004; Lichtenberg, 1992).

2.3.7 Public debt

According to Karazijienė and Sabonienė (2009), public borrowing is inevitable and not reprehensible phenomenon of economic growth. It is a way to stimulate economic growth by injecting money from foreign investors (external debt) into it as well as distributing assets (internal debt) among those who has more than they can use at the moment and those who lack assets for developing economic initiative or other needs. Since state bonds, treasury bills and loans to governments are considered to be one of

the safest financial instruments, the interest rate is much lower than in case of public borrowing. This is beneficial to the economy and generates additional surplus if public debt stream is being controlled efficiently. Public debt is one of the main macroeconomic indicators, which forms countries' image in international markets. It is one of the inward foreign direct investment flow determinants.

Moreover, since governments borrow mainly by issuing securities, their term, interest rates and overall costs of debt financing has significant impact on economy, future of the enterprises and social welfare for not only present, but also future generations. According to Martin (2009), public debt can also serve as means of delaying taxation, that way reducing current distortions. Thus, government has two choices for covering financial needs (budget deficit). First one implies taxation system. Higher taxes results in lower present consumption, which may mean slowdown of the economic growth.

Meanwhile, debt financing puts more pressure on future generations and their ability to maintain economic and financial stability. They not only will have to pay the amount borrowed, but also cover the costs related to debt financing, which includes interest and costs of debt management. Such a debt is sustainable if it is used to generate economic growth and benefits higher than initial costs, otherwise serious public finance issues are about to appear. Taking these two factors into account, government has to maintain the equilibrium between taxation and debt financing in order to maintain economic and financial stability in a long run. (Ribeiro et al. 2012)

2.3.8 Unemployment rate

Unemployment may be associated with structural change and subsequent economic growth. Here, we focus on the mechanisms through which high and persistent unemployment may directly hinder economic growth. In the short run, economic growth and unemployment are inversely related along the business cycle. However, structural unemployment mainly depends on factors related to the characteristics of the labour market. Moreover, when unemployment becomes high and persistent there are economic costs that can become detrimental to long-run growth. Unemployment not only represents a high social cost for the individual, it also represents a high economic cost for the society (Sanchis-i-Marco, 2011). In the first place, high unemployment implies an inefficient use of resources and wasted work, not performed by the unemployed, which can never be recovered. Secondly, high unemployment also implies a lower aggregate demand; not only is consumption lower, harming current growth, but private investment in physical and human capital is also reduced, harming future production capacities. In this line, Bean and Pissarides (1993) analyse how unemployment may have an adverse effect on growth through lower savings available for investment.

On the other hand, Chatterjee and Corbae (2007) report welfare costs of the Great Depression unemployment through lower consumption in the long-run. In parallel to this, high unemployment increases fiscal burden, through lower income revenues and higher welfare spending. A higher fiscal burden is likely to reduce public investment and to increase public debt, which handicaps future growth capacities. In the third place, unemployment can lead to an erosion of human capital; people unemployed for long periods may become de-skilled, as their professional skills become obsolete in an

era of rapid technological change and associated rapidly changing job market (Pissarides, 1992). Martin and Rogers (2000) suggest that when growth is generated by learning-by-doing, short-term macroeconomic instability reduces human capital accumulation and therefore growth. Moreover, as unemployed workers become deskilled, their chances of finding a new job in the future decrease, initiating a vicious cycle. The time dimension is present in the Unemployment Hysteresis Hypothesis, according to which small increases in unemployment may result in pockets of long term unemployment, as long-term unemployed do not perform a hard search for jobs and therefore do not exercise sufficient downward pressure on wages (Layard, Nickell and Jackman, 1991).

Relatedly, Andrienko and Guriev (2004) found that high unemployment results in liquidity constraints, restricting labour migration and resulting in persistent unemployment and lower economic growth. Finally, high and persistent unemployment erodes individual self-esteem and life satisfaction, and confidence in the society as a whole (Ochsen and Welsch, 2011). Lower confidence and socio-economic deprivation, exclusion and marginalisation from unemployment increase social dislocation, leading to unrest and conflict (ILO, 2011) and decreasing labour market performance (Mares and Sirovátka, 2005), thus harming long-run growth.

2.3.9 Inflation rate

Inflation can lead to uncertainty about the future profitability of investment projects (especially when high inflation is also associated with increased price variability). This leads to more conservative investment strategies than would otherwise be the case, ultimately leading to lower levels of investment and economic growth. Inflation

may also reduce a country's international competitiveness, by making its exports relatively more expensive, thus impacting on the balance of payments. Moreover, inflation can interact with the tax system to distort borrowing and lending decisions. Firms may have to devote more resources to dealing with the effects of inflation (Gokal and Hanif, 2004).

The following empirical studies have attempted to examine whether the relationship between inflation and long-run growth is linear; non-linear; casual or non-existent. Studies by Dewan et al (1999) and Dewan & Hussein (2001) revealed some insights into the inflation growth relationship. Dewan et al (1999) found that changes in the difference between actual GDP and potential GDP (output gap) had a bearing on inflation outcome. In another study, Dewan & Hussein (2001) found in a sample of 41 middle-income developing countries that inflation was negatively correlated to growth.

2.4 Empirical Review

Most of the studies that have looked at the impact of external debt on economic growth in developing economies have been driven by the "debt overhang" hypothesis, a situation where country's debt service burden is so huge that a large portion of output accrues to foreign lenders and consequently creates disincentives to invest (Krugman,1988). Imbs and Ranciere (2009) and Pattilo et al. (2004) used a two staged least squares and differenced Generalised Method of Moments (GMM) to estimate a standard growth model over the period 1969-1998. They found a non-linear effect of external debt on economic growth, i.e. a negative and significant impact on growth at high debt levels (typically, over 60% of GDP), but an insignificant impact at low debt

levels. In contrast, Cordella et al. (2005) found evidence of debt overhang for intermediate debt level, but an insignificant debt growth relationship at very low and very high levels of debt.

Iyoha (1999) takes a simulation approach to investigate the impact of external growth in Sub-Saharan African countries using a small macroeconomic model estimated for 1970-1994. The study shows that external debt has adverse impact on investment. The study also pointed out that reduction in debt stock would lead to improvement in investment and economic growth. The author stressed that debt of these countries should be forgiven to stimulate economic growth. Fosu (1999) employed an export augmented production function to investigate the impact of external debt on economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa for the 1980-1990 period. The study reveals that there is a negative relationship between debt and economic growth. However, the study shows a relatively weak negative impact of debt on investment levels.

Putunoi and Mutuku (2013) studies the impact of domestic debt on economic growth of Kenya over the period 2000-2010 using the Engle-Granger (1987) residual based and Johansen (1988) VAR based co-integration tests and revealed that domestic debt markets play an increasingly important role in supporting economic growth. They find that domestic debt expansion has a positive long-run and significant effect on economic growth.

Sheikh et al. (2010) investigates the impact of domestic debt on economic growth of Pakistan for the period 1972-2009 by applying ordinary least squares (OLS) technique. The study finds that domestic debt favourably affects economic growth in Pakistan implying that the funds generated through domestic borrowing have been used partially to finance those expenditures of government that contribute to growth of GDP. The principle is that domestic as well as external debt should be spent for long-term development purposes. Another reason for the positive relationship between domestic debt and economic growth in Pakistan may be that domestic debt is marketable.

Maana et al. (2008) explores the impact of domestic debt on Kenya's economy covering the period 1996 to 2007 using a modified Barro Growth Regression model. The study established that domestic debt expansion had a positive but not significant effect on economic growth during the period. However, the study found no evidence that the growth in domestic debt crowds-out private sector lending in Kenya.

Abbas and Christensen (2007) analysed optimal domestic debt levels in low-income countries and emerging markets between the period 1975-2004 using Granger Causality Regression model and found that moderate levels of marketable domestic debt as a percentage of GDP have significant positive effects on economic growth. The study also provided evidence that debt levels exceeding 35 % of total bank deposits have negative impact on economic growth. Adoufu and Abula (2010) examine the effect of external debt on the Nigerian economy during the period 1986-2005 using OLS technique. The findings reveal that domestic debt has negatively

affected the growth of the economy and recommends that the government should introduce efforts to resolve the outstanding domestic debt.

Kumar and Woo (2010) examined a panel of advanced and developing economies for the period 1970-2007 by regressing per capita GDP growth against lagged values of the debt –GDP ratio to address the causality issue. Their result showed that there is an inverse relationship between initial debt and the subsequent growth. They argued that an increase in 10% in the initial debt – GDP ratio leads to a decrease in annual real per capita GDP growth of 0.2% points per year.

Cohen (1993) argues that servicing of high debt levels might cause greater obstacle on growth, and investment. Debt servicing soaks up a significant amount of the scanty government revenues thus reducing the available resources to finance public investment in infrastructure. The private sector could also suffer financial challenges because countries that have large stock of domestic debt and undeveloped financial markets, then realizing of credit might lead to reduced savings. The negative impact of debt servicing on economic growth is due to the reduction of government expenditure resulting from debt induced liquidity constraints.

Reinhart and Rogoff (2010) examined the effect of public debt on economic growth for forty four developed and developing countries over the last hundred years. They concluded that high levels of public debt in relation to GDP of over 90% is accompanied by a lower levels of economic growth in both developed and developing countries. Consequently, in the case of developing countries external debt levels of over 60% of GDP negatively affects economic growth.

Degefe (1992) examined the relationship between debt and growth of Ethiopia using a simple macro model derived from Taylor (1985) adjusted to capture the conditions of Ethiopian economy. The results indicated that public debt had a positive impact on economic growth in the Short run and thereafter it had a negative impact. He noted that it is not the debt which has negative impact but rather how debts were used that made the difference.

Focusing on Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC), Were (2001) analysed the debt overhang problem in Kenya and tried to find evidence for its impact on economic growth. Using time series data from 1970-1995, this study did not find any adverse impact of debt servicing on economic growth; however, it confirmed some crowding-out effects on private investment.

Ali and Mustafa (2010) analysed long run and short impacts of public debt on economic growth in Pakistan for the period 1970-2010. They used extended production function by measuring Gross National Product as a function of annual education expenditure (proxy of human capital), capital labour force and external debt as a percentage of GNP. They used co-integration analysis to capture the long run effects of debt on GDP. Their result indicated that external debt has a significant effect in both long run and short run while labour force negatively affects GNP in both short and long run. They also found that human capital and increases in capital formation have positive impact on GNP in the long run and short run but the positive impact of capital is greater than that of human capital.

2.5 Summary of the Literature Review

In this empirical review, different studies have given consistent results of inverse relationship on effects of public debt on economic development; others have also shown positive relationship on same phenomenon. However, instances of no relationship were also noted. Public debt and investment are negatively related, because most of people prefer to deposit savings in banks which further are used for non-production purposes. Hence, if deposits in banks increase, they will further increase non-production borrowing of loans, which will be used for consumption mainly. If investment in production and industrial sector increases, then capital in banks will reduce which will reduce borrowing power of banks and this will decrease domestic debt level. In nut shell, investment (gross fixed domestic capital formation) has negative relation with domestic debt. Another reason for negative relation of domestic debt and investment is that when governments borrow domestically, they use domestic savings hence funds available for private lending are reduced. When there will be fewer funds in markets, they will raise the cost of capital for private borrowers, which will again reduce private investment demand (Diamond, 1965).

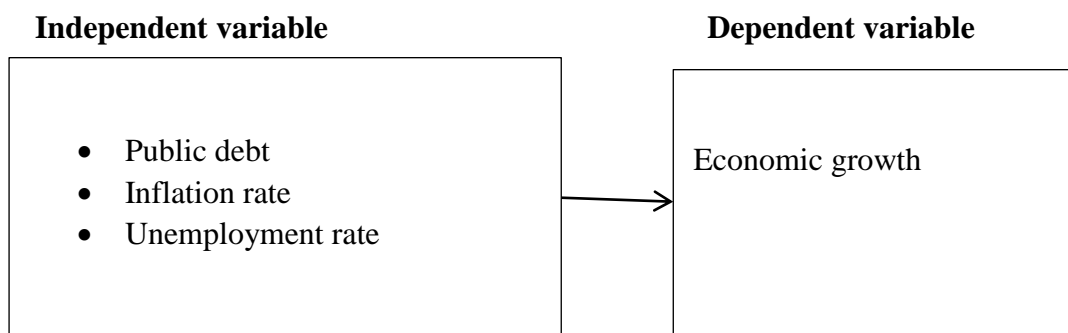
Reinhart and Rogoff (2009) found that public debt has a negative effect on the economic growth; Kumar & Woo (2010) found inverse relationship on the impact of Public Debt on Economic Growth; Makau (2008) on the influence of External Public Debt on Economic Growth found that there was no significant effect; Checherita and Rother (2010) confirmed Non-Linear relationship between the Public Debt and Economic growth; Karagol (2002) on his study of the impact of Long & Short-run Relationship between Economic Growth and Debt Service using multivariate analysis found a mixed impact with some showing that public debt impede economic growth

while others confirm that public debt positively affects economic growth; Muhdi and Sasaki (2009) on the roles of External and Domestic Debt impact on economic growth found a positive effect of Debt both on Investment and Economic Growth; Were (2001) on his study on the Impact of Public Debt on Economic Growth found that there was no adverse effect of debt servicing on economic growth. However, it confirmed only some crowding out effect on private investment. Degefe's (1992) study about the effects of Public Debt on Growth found a positive effect on short run and negative impact thereafter.

2.6 Conceptual framework

Conceptual framework according researcher Saunders (2007) are structured from a set of broad ideas and theories that help a researcher to properly identified the problem they are looking at frame their questions and find suitable literature. According to Young (2009) conceptual framework is a dramatically representation that show the relations between the dependent variables and independent variables. In this study the conceptual framework we look at the effect of public debt and the economic growth in Kenya. The independent variable is economic growth and while dependent variable is public debt.

Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology that is adopted in this study. The chapter is organized as follows. First research design is presented in section 3.2, section 3.3 analyses the population and sample size while section 3.4 presents data collection methods. Section 3.5 presents data analysis.

3.2 Research Design

The study adopted a descriptive research design. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) describes descriptive research design as a systematic, empirical inquiring into which the researcher does not have a direct control of independent variable as their manifestation has already occurred or because the inherently cannot be manipulated. Descriptive studies are concerned with the what, where and how of a phenomenon hence more placed to build a profile on that phenomenon (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). Descriptive research design is more appropriate because the study seeks to build a profile about the relationship between domestic and external debt and economic growth.

3.3 Data Collection

The study used secondary data collected from the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics and the National treasury to analyse public debt. Data on economic development was collected from the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics. The data was collected using

data collection sheet which was edited and cleaned. The study period included the period from 1993/1994 to 2014/2015. This period was chosen because of the many changes in government policies that occurred within the economy that had far reaching implications on the macroeconomic variables in Kenya. The study used annual data because Government Budgets are drawn annually and the deficits and surplus which are key determinants of borrowing are then developed. The World Bank provided the data on Inflation rate and Unemployment rate in Kenya over the study period 1993 - 2015.

3.4 Data Analysis

The study used MS Excel's analysis tool pack to aid in data analysis. Results of the regression analysis in Excel include indicators that help determine the significance of the variables in the prediction of the dependant variable. The coefficients showed that the independent variables positively or negatively influence the dependent variable or there was no relation at all. Furthermore one indicator (R square) showed for how many percent the model explained the variation in the dependant variable. The paired t-test, a non-parametric test of differences developed by Sir William Gosset (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003) was used as a test of significance. The analysis was at 0.05 level of significance.

3.4.1 Analytical Model

The model is in the form of a regression model where all the indicators of economic growth were regressed against economic growth. The model is a multiple linear regression of the form;

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

Y = Economic Growth (Measured in percentage of the GDP in Kenyan shillings)

X_1 = Public Debt (measured by the natural logarithm of the total value in Kenyan shillings)

X_2 = Unemployment rate (as a percentage of the labour force)

X_3 = Inflation rate (as a percentage increase in the price level from one year to the next)

β_1 , β_2 and β_3 =

partial coefficients of GDP with respect to X_1 , X_2 and X_3 respectively

ε = Stochastic error term

α = Constant term

3.4.2 Test of Significance

In order to test the significance of the model in measuring the relationship between public debt and economic performance, this study conducted an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). On extracting the ANOVA statistics, the researcher looked at the significance value. The study was tested at 95% confidence level and 5% significance level. The model is significant in explaining a relationship when the significance F is less than the critical value.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the relationship between public debt and economic growth in Kenya and the interpretation of data findings between 1993/1994 and 2014/2015 economic years. Data used here was derived from the statistical bulletin archives of The National Treasury and the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics. Section 4.2 presents the Descriptive Statistics on Economic Growth, Public Debt and other variables. Section 4.3 tables the Inferential Statistics and section 4.4 gives interpretations of the findings.

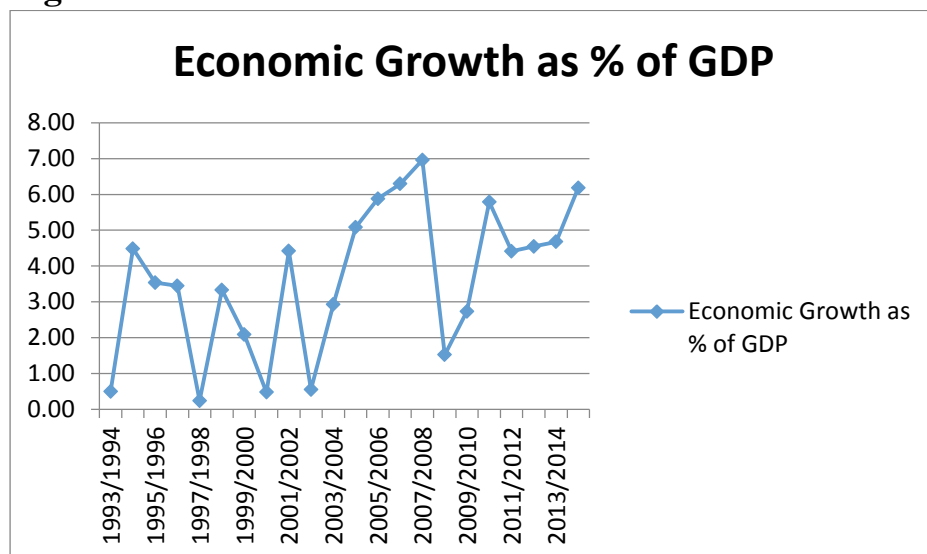
4.2 Descriptive Statistics

This section presents Descriptive Statistics on the Economic Growth rate in Kenya. Furthermore it shows data on Public Debt, Unemployment rate and Inflation rate, as they are variables to the economic growth model according to section 3.4.1.

4.2.1 Economic Growth

The study sought to ascertain the Economic Growth rate of the country within the study period (from 1993/1994 to 2014/2015) articulated as a percentage of the GDP. The percentage GDP was calculated using the preceding year as the base year. The trend of GDP is illustrated in Figure 4.1 and Table 4.1 below and Appendix II.

Figure 4.1: Economic Growth



Source: Research Findings

From figure 4.1 above it is evident that the economic growth of the country shows a pattern ebbing and flowing at different times of the study period. At the beginning, 1993/1994 economic year, the country recorded 0.5 % economic growth, one of the low values. Up to the 2009/2010 financial year economic growth was roughly between 3% and 7% with some extreme lows (under 1%) in the 1997/1998, 2000/2001 and 2002/2003 financial years. After 2010, the economic growth rate is steady between 4% and 6.2% of the GDP.

Table 4.1: Economic Growth

Year	Economic Growth in % GDP
1993/1994	0.5%
1994/1995	4.5%
1995/1996	3.5%
1996/1997	3.4%
1997/1998	0.2%
1998/1999	3.3%
1999/2000	2.1%
2000/2001	0.5%
2001/2002	4.4%
2002/2003	0.6%
2003/2004	2.9%
2004/2005	5.1%
2005/2006	5.9%
2006/2007	6.3%
2007/2008	7.0%
2008/2009	1.5%
2009/2010	2.7%
2010/2011	5.8%
2011/2012	4.4%
2012/2013	4.5%
2013/2014	4.7%
2014/2015	6.2%

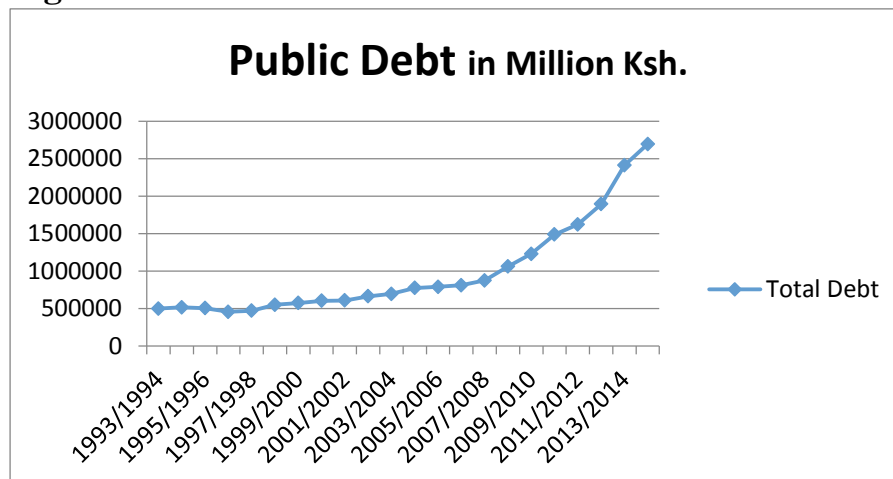
Source: Research Findings

The above table 4.1. Shows the calculated values of the Economic Growth during the study period.

4.2.2 Public Debt

The study analysed data to establish the trend of Public Debt in the country over the study period and is cascaded below in figure 4.2, table 4.2 and Appendix I

Figure 4.2: Public Debt



Source: Research Findings

Figure 4.2 portrays the steady increase in the public debt of the country from beginning till the end of the study period. In financial year 1993/1994 Ksh. 499 Billion was recorded. Public debt has grown tremendously in the subsequent years. At the end of the study period, 2014/2015 financial year, the debt was 5.4 times higher, almost Ksh. 2,693 Billion. The below table 4.2 shows the yearly calculated values of the Total public debt during the study period.

Table 4.2: Public Debt

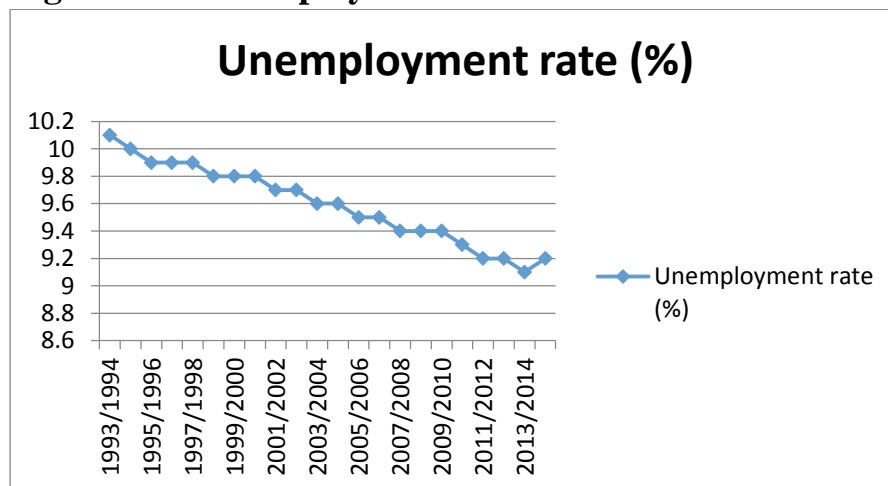
Year	Public Debt in Million Ksh.	Natural Log of Public Debt
1993/1994	499,200	13.12
1994/1995	516,300	13.15
1995/1996	505,480	13.13
1996/1997	455,600	13.03
1997/1998	471,521	13.06
1998/1999	549,814	13.22
1999/2000	572,824	13.26
2000/2001	604,142	13.31
2001/2002	606,820	13.32
2002/2003	664,128	13.41
2003/2004	695,208	13.45
2004/2005	775,221	13.12
2005/2006	789,076	13.15
2006/2007	809,977	13.13
2007/2008	874,117	13.03
2008/2009	1,059,383	13.06
2009/2010	1,229,406	13.22
2010/2011	1,487,110	13.26
2011/2012	1,622,802	13.31
2012/2013	1,894,118	13.32
2013/2014	2,409,511	13.41
2014/2015	2,693,944	13.45

Source: Research Findings

4.2.3 Unemployment rate

The study also established the trend of the Unemployment rate within the study period. The findings are elaborated in the figure 4.3 and table 4.3 below.

Figure 4.3 :Unemployment rate



Source: Research Findings

At the start of the study (1993/1994 financial year), the Unemployment rate was recorded at 10.1% of the total workforce. Since then the rate steadily declined and reached 9.1% in financial year 2013/2014. After that a light increase was recorded, 9.2% in financial year 2014/2015. The below Table 4.3 shows the yearly recorded percentages of the Unemployment rate during the study period.

Table 4.3: Unemployment rate

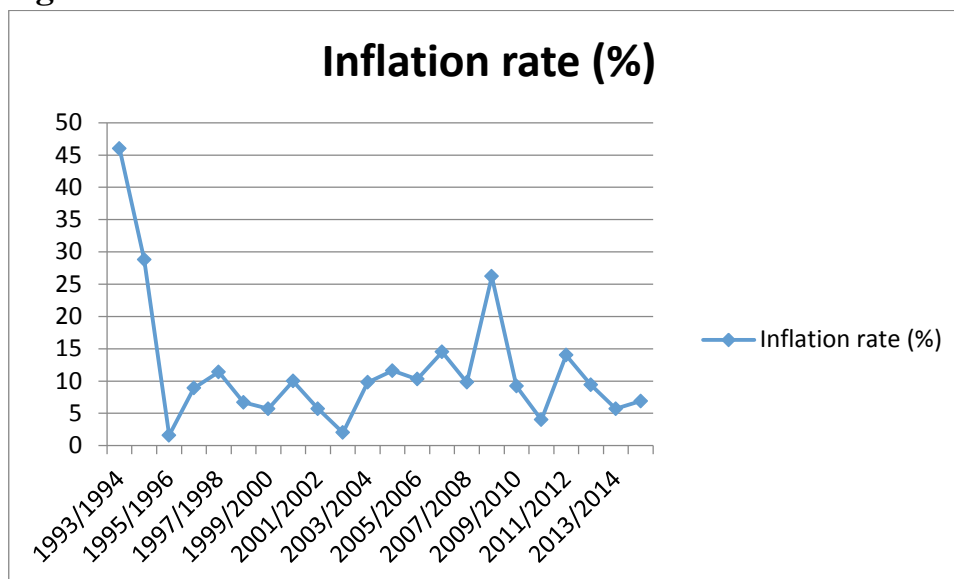
Year	Unemployment rate (%)	Year	Unemployment rate (%)	Year	Unemployment rate (%)
1993/1994	10.1	2001/2002	9.7	2009/2010	9.4
1994/1995	10.0	2002/2003	9.7	2010/2011	9.3
1995/1996	9.9	2003/2004	9.6	2011/2012	9.2
1996/1997	9.9	2004/2005	9.6	2012/2013	9.2
1997/1998	9.9	2005/2006	9.5	2013/2014	9.1
1998/1999	9.8	2006/2007	9.5	2014/2015	9.2
1999/2000	9.8	2007/2008	9.4		
2000/2001	9.8	2008/2009	9.4		

Source: Research Findings

4.2.4 Inflation rate

The study collected data to establish the trend of the Inflation rate in the country over the study period. The findings are cascaded in figure 4.4 and in table 4.4 below.

Figure 4.4: Inflation rate



Source: Research Findings

Figure 4.4 shows an ebbing and flowing of Inflation rate from beginning till the end of the study period. In financial year 1993/1994 an extremely high 46% was recorded. The inflation rate then went down to 1.6% in financial years 1995/1996. In the next two years it grew to 11.4%. From then on the Inflation rate could be found between 5.7% and 14.5%, with outliers of 2% in 2002/2003, 26.2% in 2008/2009 and 4% in 2010/2011 financial years. The below table 4.4 shows the yearly recorded values of the Inflation rate during the study period.

Table 4.4: Inflation rate

Year	Inflation rate (%)
1993/1994	46.0
1994/1995	28.8
1995/1996	1.6
1996/1997	8.9
1997/1998	11.4
1998/1999	6.7
1999/2000	5.7
2000/2001	10.0
2001/2002	5.7
2002/2003	2.0
2003/2004	9.8
2004/2005	11.6
2005/2006	10.3
2006/2007	14.5
2007/2008	9.8
2008/2009	26.2
2009/2010	9.2
2010/2011	4.0
2011/2012	14.0
2012/2013	9.4
2013/2014	5.7
2014/2015	6.9

Source: Research Findings

4.3 Inferential Statistics

Table 4.5: Model Summary

Regression Statistics	Multiple R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error	Observations
	0.569019	0.323782	0.211079	1.831938	22

Source: Research Findings

- a) Predictors: (Constant), Public Debt, Unemployment rate and Inflation rate
- b) Dependent variable: GDP growth rate

From the regression model above the measure of goodness fit, R square is 0.324 and the adjusted R square is 0.211 implying that only 32.4 % of the variations in GDP growth rate is explained by the independent variables; Public Debt, Unemployment rate and Inflation rate.

Table 4.6 ANOVA (b)

ANOVA					
	Df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	28.92415	9.641385	2.872883	0.064998
Residual	18	60.40793	3.355996		
Total	21	89.33208			

Source: Research Findings

- a) Predictors: (Constant), Public Debt, Unemployment rate and Inflation rate
- b) Dependent Variable: Economic Growth measured by GDP percentage.

ANOVA results of table 4.6 show that $F = 2.873$ which was statistically significant at 0.065 in the model, which indicated that the independent variables in the regression equation Public debt, Unemployment rate and Inflation rate were insignificantly related to the value of the GDP growth. $F = 2.873, P < 0.065$.

Table 4.7 Coefficients (a)

Column1	Coefficients	Standard Error	t-Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
Intercept	79.348	72.468	1.095	0.288	72.901	231.597	-72.901	231.597
Public Debt (natural log.)	-1.276	2.282	-0.559	0.583	-6.071	3.519	-6.071	3.519
Unemployment rate	-6.068	4.436	-1.368	0.188	15.387	3.250	-15.387	3.250
Inflation rate	-0.008	0.045	-0.174	0.863	-0.102	0.087	-0.102	0.087

Source: Research Findings

- a) Predictors: (Constant), Public Debt, Unemployment rate and Inflation rate
- b) Dependent Variable: Economic Growth measured by GDP percentage.

The actual p-values are all higher than the maximum allowed 0.065 (table 4.6 significance F). Therefore all the independent variables do not explain the variation in Economic Growth in Kenya.

4.4 Interpretation of the Findings

The result of Table 4.5 explains the measure of goodness of fit. In the regression model R square is 0.324 and the Adjusted R square is 0.211 implying that 32.4 % of variation in Economic Growth is explained by variation in Public Debt, Unemployment rate and Inflation rate. From the regression result, it is evident that all variables are statistically insignificant in determining the GDP growth rate.

ANOVA results of Table 4.6 tells whether the regression coefficients were statistically different than 0.065. In order to be statistically significant, the significance level must be less than the conventional level of statistical significance (i.e. 0.05). $F = 2.873$ which was statistically insignificant at 0.065 in the model indicated that the independent variables regression equation, Public Debt, Unemployment rate and Inflation rate were insignificantly related to the value of the GDP growth. Therefore any predictions of future Economic Growth cannot be done using these independent variables.

The regression model indicates that Public Debt has a negative effect on Economic Growth as indicated by the negative value of its coefficient in table 4.7. Therefore increasing Public Debt leads to a decrease of Economic Growth. An increase of one percent in Public Debt is linked to a decrease of 1.276 percent in GDP growth rate in Kenya. Similarly the coefficients in table 4.7 show that the Unemployment rate and the Inflation rate are negatively linked to Economic Growth. One percent increase in Unemployment rate or Inflation rate is linked to a decrease of 6.1 and 0.008 percent in Economic Growth respectively.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The chapter details the summary, conclusions and the recommendations made from the study findings. Section 5.2 presents the summary of findings, section 5.3 presents conclusions made from the study findings while 5.4 presents recommendations of the study findings. Lastly section 5.5 presents suggestions for further studies that may be done in relation to the effects of Public Debt on Economic growth in Kenya.

5.2 Summary

In a bid to establish the relationship between Public debt and Economic growth, three independent variables, Public Debt, Unemployment rate and Inflation rate were employed in a multi linear regression analysis. The results of the analysis show that these three variables are insignificantly related to the GDP growth rate. Table 4.7 shows that the p-values for Public Debt (0.583), Unemployment rate (0.188) and Inflation rate (0.863) are higher than the significance F (0.065) generated in table 4.6. This indicates that the independent variables are all statistically insignificant in predicting variations on Economic Growth.

The coefficients generated by the regression model indicate a negative value for all independent variables. This means that Public Debt has a negative effect on Economic Growth. Therefore increasing Public Debt leads to a decrease of Economic Growth. An increase of one percent in Public Debt is linked to a decrease of 1.28 % in GDP growth rate in Kenya. Similarly the coefficients show that the Unemployment rate and the Inflation rate are negatively linked to Economic Growth. One percent increase in

Unemployment rate or Inflation rate is linked to a decrease of 6.1 and 0.008 percent in Economic Growth respectively.

These results confirm to the theoretical assertion that when the government is faced with the problem of heavy debt burden it will have to increase taxes in the future to finance the high debt service payments. (Krugman, 1985 and 1987; Sachs, 1984 and 1986). The findings were also consistent with the empirical literature by Ali and Mustafa (2010) who found a negative relationship between debt and growth on a study of the long run and short run impacts of external debt on economic growth in Pakistan. Furthermore, the results support the empirical findings of Were (2001) on a study of the debt overhang problem in Kenya. However, the results are contrary with the findings of Degefe (1992) whose empirical results indicates that external debt has a positive effect on economic growth. His findings suggest that increase in External Debt leads to increase in GDP.

5.3 Conclusion

This study has used a linear model to analyse the effect of Public Debt on Economic Growth in Kenya over the period 1993 to 2015, considering GDP growth rate as a function of Public Debt, Unemployment rate and Inflation rate. The empirical results revealed that Public Debt exerts a negative impact on Economic Growth; clearly indicating that higher Public Debt discourages Economic Growth. However, the regression model also shows that Public Debt, as independent variable is insignificantly linked to variations in Economic Growth in Kenya.

The correlation coefficient for Inflation rate in this study showed only a weak negative link with Economic Growth. However, also Dewan and Hussein (2001) found in a sample of 41 middle-income developing countries that inflation was negatively correlated to growth. This finding provides some guidance for Kenyan policymakers on the importance of maintaining low inflation, in order to foster higher Economic Growth.

The study indicates a negative link between changes in Economic Growth rate and Unemployment rate. This negative relationship is supported by Okun's Law, stating that when Unemployment rate rises by 1%, GDP falls by 2%. Although the regression results show a strong negative coefficient (-6.2) for Unemployment rate, still the relationship proved to be not significant in predicting Economic Growth.

5.4 Recommendations

The regression results indicated that Public Debt, Unemployment rate and Inflation rate have no significant effect in determining Economic Growth in Kenya. Therefore other independent variables should be used in determining variations in Economic Growth. Therefore other scholars should research the effects of other variables such as: corruption, political instability, insecurity and government expenditure.

It would also be interesting to specifically research why in the financial years 1997/1998, 2000/2001, 2002/2003 and 2008/2009 economic growth was extremely low. Maybe it is partly explained by elections that have a significant impact on Kenyan economic growth; the year after elections no public funds are left to aid the economy.

5.5 Limitations of the Study

A study of this nature is wide and involves a number of stakeholders to consult for accurate data. It proved to be quite cumbersome to acquire data from the National Treasury, The Central Bank of Kenya and the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, especially from the years before 2000. Furthermore, relevant data on components of Public Debt, like Government Advances and Government Overdraft were not made available. They were considered confidential, very sensitive and not fit for use in research. Finally, the study relied on data provided by the National Treasury and Kenya Bureau of Statistics on soft copy excel sheets. This data is never published and therefore its accuracy may not be guaranteed.

5.6 Areas for Further Research

The study of factors affecting Economic Growth is broad, complicated and involves all the areas in the scope of Government Finance, but also Government politics. Some of the areas that should be considered for further research are the impact of corruption on economic growth, the effects of political instability on economic growth, the impact of government expenditure on economic growth, the impact of private debt on economic growth and the impact of Global issues, like the Global financial crisis on economic growth.

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**APPENDIX I: DATA ON PUBLIC DEBT, UNEMPLOYMENT RATE and
INFLATION RATE**

Year	Public Debt (in Million Ksh.)	Public Debt (natural logarithm)	Unemployment rate	Inflation rate
1993/1994	499,200	13.12	10.1%	46.0%
1994/1995	516,300	13.15	10.0%	28.8%
1995/1996	505,480	13.13	9.9%	1.6%
1996/1997	455,600	13.03	9.9%	8.9%
1997/1998	471,521	13.06	9.9%	11.4%
1998/1999	549,814	13.22	9.8%	6.7%
1999/2000	572,824	13.26	9.8%	5.7%
2000/2001	604,142	13.31	9.8%	10.0%
2001/2002	606,820	13.32	9.7%	5.7%
2002/2003	664,128	13.41	9.7%	2.0%
2003/2004	695,208	13.45	9.6%	9.8%
2004/2005	775,221	13.56	9.6%	11.6%
2005/2006	789,076	13.58	9.5%	10.3%
2006/2007	809,977	13.60	9.5%	14.5%
2007/2008	874,117	13.68	9.4%	9.8%
2008/2009	1,059,383	13.87	9.4%	26.2%
2009/2010	1,229,406	14.02	9.4%	9.2%
2010/2011	1,487,110	14.21	9.3%	4.0%
2011/2012	1,622,802	14.30	9.2%	14.0%
2012/2013	1,894,118	14.45	9.2%	9.4%
2013/2014	2,409,511	14.69	9.1%	5.7%
2014/2015	2,693,944	14.81	9.2%	6.9%

Sources: The National Treasury and World Bank

APPENDIX II: DATA ON ECONOMIC GROWTH

Year	Current Price (in Million Ksh.)	Constant Price (in Million Ksh.)	% GDP
1993/1994	428,108	824,336	0.5%
1994/1995	537,998	861,297	4.5%
1995/1996	602,454	891,744	3.5%
1996/1997	685,583	922,501	3.4%
1997/1998	767,420	924,723	0.2%
1998/1999	848,352	955,535	3.3%
1999/2000	902,833	975,477	2.1%
2000/2001	963,111	980,116	0.5%
2001/2002	1,023,403	1,023,403	4.4%
2002/2003	1,035,450	1,029,041	0.6%
2003/2004	1,134,798	1,059,190	2.9%
2004/2005	1,277,668	1,113,009	5.1%
2005/2006	1,420,547	1,178,421	5.9%
2006/2007	1,628,875	1,252,570	6.3%
2007/2008	1,840,826	1,339,700	7.0%
2008/2009	2,115,080	1,360,082	1.5%
2009/2010	2,384,032	1,397,221	2.7%
2010/2011	2,579,489	1,478,068	5.8%
2011/2012	3,057,709	1,543,276	4.4%
2012/2013	3,417,192	1,613,449	4.5%
2013/2014	3,809,165	1,688,912	4.7%
2014/2015	4,760,454	1,793,313	6.2%

Source: Kenya Bureau of Statistics