

**STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION IN ELECTORAL
PROCESS IN KENYA**

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Stakeholder participation in electoral process in Kenya

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DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my family for their love, patience, support, encouragement and perseverance during the entire duration of this course, I am really grateful. Further gratitude goes posthumously to my late mother for her sacrificial love and teaching me discipline, the value of hard work and above all believing in me.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	Analysis of variance
AU	African Union
CSO	Civil Society Organizations
ECK	Electoral Commission of Kenya
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EDR	Electoral Dispute Resolution
EFC-SADC	Electoral Commissions Forum-Southern African Development Community
EKN	Electoral knowledge Network
ELOG	Election Observation Groups
EMB; s	Electoral Management Bodies
EU	European Union
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDEA	International Institute of Democracy Assistance
IEBC	Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission
IFES	International Foundation for Electoral Systems
IIBC	Interim Independent Boundaries review commission
IIEC	Interim independent electoral commission
IREC	Independent Review Committee
IT	Information Technology
KANU	Kenya African National Union
KMO	Kaiser Meyer Olkin
KNHRC	Kenya National Human Rights Commission
KTN	Kenya Television Network
NDI	National Democratic Institute
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OAU	Organization of African Union
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Scientists
TTGP	Two Third Gender Principle

UDHR	Universal declaration on Human rights
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nation Development Programme
USA	United States of America
ViF	Variance Inflation Factor

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Citizenry	Involvement of the public in decision making by governments. It also refers to the different mechanism in which public express their views and ideally exert influence in relation to political, economic, and other decisions. Citizenry usually helps to ensure that, the governmental decisions and policies reflect citizen's interests (Irvin, 2014).
Civil Society	Realm of organized social life that is open, voluntary, self-generating, at least partially self-supporting, autonomous from the state and bound by a legal order or a set of shared rules. Citizenry in Elections includes but is not limited to voting in primaries and elections, contacting the elected and campaigning for political candidates (Sifuna, 2014).
Constitutional framework	Written supreme law by which all other laws and rules of that country must comply. It defines the main rights and responsibilities of the state, the various institutions that make up the state and, in some cases, those of citizens (Diamond, 2015).
Election Observers	Organizations that help build public confidence in the honesty of electoral management and overall performances. They help promote and protect the civil and political rights of participants in elections (Gilley, 2017).
Electoral Process	Set of rules that determine how elections are conducted and how their results are determined. They are the process

responsible for conducting successful elections, regardless of the wider institutional framework in place (Catt & Wolf, 2014).

Media

Communication channels through which news, entertainment, education, data, and messages are disseminated. It includes every broadcasting and narrowcasting media such as newspapers, magazines, TV, radio to mention a few. Media can also play a vital watchdog role, and serve as a campaign platform, a forum for public debate and as a public educator, ultimately strengthening democracy (Lindberg, 2015)

ABSTRACT

The general objective of the study was to establish the role of stakeholder participation in electoral process in Kenya. In order to achieve the general objective this study was guided by the following specific objectives: To establish the role of media participation in Electoral Process in Kenya, to examine the role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya, to determine the role of election observers participation in Electoral Process in Kenya, to assess the role of the civil society organizations participation in Electoral Process in Kenya and to evaluate the moderating role of constitutional framework in Electoral Process in Kenya. The study adopted descriptive survey design that targeted respondents from various selected institutions participating in electoral process. Questionnaires were used as research instruments to collect data. The study tested the null Hypothesis that media participation, Citizen Participation, election observer participation; civil society organization participation and moderating variable constitutional framework have no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya. The study tested the null hypothesis that there is no moderating effect of constitutional framework in Electoral Process in Kenya. Target population was 519 officials drawn from different election stakeholder institutions in Kenya and the sample size was 199. The study used stratified sampling technique to select its subjects. A pilot test was conducted to ensure validity and reliability of the data collection instrument. A sample of 199 respondents was fused to collect data. Data analysis was done using descriptive statistics and correlation analysis. The study also used bivariate regression analysis and moderated multiple regression to analyze the relationship between media participation, Citizen Participation, election observer participation, civil society participation and constitutional framework in Electoral Process in Kenya. Quantitative data was also analyzed statistically yielding frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations while inferential statistics tools such as correlation and regression were used to determine and explain variable relations by use of SPSS version 21 program. Analysis of variance was also used to test for significant differences and data were presented in form of tables, figures and charts. The study conducted various tests including multi collinearity, autocorrelation tests, normality tests and heteroscedasticity tests. The entire null hypotheses were rejected. The study concludes that media participation, Citizen Participation, election observer's participation, civil society organization participation and constitutional framework have a positive and significant relationship in Electoral Process. The study recommends that policy makers should consider the many factors involved in a complex and dynamic situation before making decision in Electoral Processes that will influence the effectiveness, efficiency and ultimately the political stability of Kenya. Further the study recommends future studies introducing moderating variable in their models.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

1.1.1 Global Perspective of Stakeholder Participation and Electoral Process

Over the last decade, the quest for increased participation in a credible election has become an important area of concern across all world regions. A review by Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa and ECF-SADC, (2016), posits that, in many countries around the world, disputed or failed elections have been the cause of much human insecurity, deaths and destruction of lives and property. Against this background, over the past two decades or so, most countries across the globe have entrenched the use of elections as the only means and medium for electing governments and representative institutions in governance. Moreover, the emerging evidence shows that other aspects of elections are also fundamental in terms of performance. Emerging studies indicate that the capacity of a sound Electoral process which comprise of networks and institutional design of electoral bodies which are key factors in shaping the quality of elections across all electoral divide (Ham & Lindberg 2015).

Any role to be ascribed to civil society, monitors and observers, citizens and the media in support of Electoral process must therefore be in support of good election. (Ham & Lindberg 2015). The purpose of stakeholder participation is to promote cooperation and mutual assistance among electoral organizations in the pursuit of democracy by having in place processes that ensure free, fair and peaceful elections. Such elections can be conducted successfully if important lessons are taken seriously and implemented (Norris, 2017; Brown, et al, 2020). The number of elections that are held around the world have increased substantially with over 90% of the world's nation states now holding regular national elections (Clark, 2015). While many elections are conducted world over to very high standards, there remains evidence of

problems associated with poor election quality in both established and transitional democracies (Ellena, 2020; James, 2014). Globally, stakeholders play a critical role in Electoral process. (Ellena 2020). This role can however sufficiently be realized if there are effective elections. Achieving sound processes in elections has been linked to various stakeholders among them the role played by media; civil society, observers, citizens, legislature in the management of electoral affairs (Norris, 2014).

James (2015), states that any sound performance of elections should possess the necessary powers and authority to deliver free and fair elections. The design and performance of the processes responsible for conducting credible elections, is one of the key factors shaping election integrity and has accordingly become a pressing concern for stakeholders and policy makers (Schwab, 2021). Stakeholders of an election are those individuals, groups and organizations that have interest or stake in the elections through voting (Wall, 2016).

In the 2020 USA. presidential election for instance, an estimated 158 million Americans turned out to vote. About 66.5% of eligible voters voted in the 2020 election, the highest turnout since 1900. The 2020 election saw about 20 million more votes than the 137 million in the 2016 election. Only about 55.72% of eligible voters voted in the 2016 election. Even in the 2020 election, USA. voter turnout lags behind several developed nations around the world. Most people realize just how important this freedom is, yet not everyone eligible to vote does. The reasons why vary, whether a person isn't interested in politics, don't agree with the platforms or any of the other candidates or doesn't meet all of the requirements needed to legally vote.

a) **Electoral Process and Comparative Analysis on Voter Turnout across the world.**

Studies have shown that the quality of an electoral process has a positive impact on its acceptance and on the support and legitimacy of democracy and that of the political system (Elklit, 1999; Elklit & Reynolds, 2002; Mozzafar & Schedler; 2002;

Norris, Frank and Coma, 2014). In other words, “the way elections are managed can either make or break a democracy” (Maserumule, 2015).

According to (Pew Research Center 2021), the nation with the highest voter turnout based on the country’s last national election was Belgium. In 2014, 87.2% of the voting-age population showed up to cast their vote. Sweden held its last election in 2014, which had a voter turnout of 82.6% of the voting-age population. In 2017, South Korea had a voter turnout of 77.9% of its voting-age population. Coming in next on the list is Israel. In 2015, 76.1% of the eligible population cast their votes. In New Zealand, more than three-quarters of voters, 75.7%, showed up at the polls in 2017.

Another nation with a high voter turnout was Germany. During its 2017 election, 69.1% of voting-age residents cast their ballots. France also had a high voter turnout of 67.9% in 2017. In the same year, the United Kingdom had a voter turnout of 63.2%. Canada’s last election in 2015 drew in 62.1% of voters. Spain’s election of 2016 saw 61.2% of voters making their voices heard. The United States held its last election in 2016, and only 55.7% of voters showed up. However, this is ahead of Switzerland, which had a voter turnout of 38.6% during the election of 2015. Accordingly, in between 2014-2021, ten countries with the highest rates of voter turnout are as follows: Belgium (87.21%), Sweden (82.61%), Denmark (80.34%), Australia (78.96%), South Korea (77.92%), Netherlands (77.31%), Israel (76.10%), New Zealand (75.65%), Finland (73.14%) and Hungary (71.65%).

Table 1.1: Countries with the highest rates of voter turnout

Country	% Of voting-age population	% Of registered voters	2021 Population
Belgium	87.21%	89.37%	11,632,326
Sweden	82.61%	85.81%	10,160,169
Denmark	80.34%	85.89%	5,813,298
Australia	78.96%	90.98%	25,788,215
South Korea	77.92%	77.23%	51,305,186
Netherlands	77.31%	81.93%	17,173,099
Israel	76.10%	72.34%	8,789,774
New Zealand	75.65%	79.01%	4,860,643
Finland	73.14%	66.85%	5,548,360
Hungary	71.65%	69.68%	9,634,164
Norway	70.59%	78.22%	5,465,630
Germany	69.11%	76.15%	83,900,473
Austria	68.79%	80.00%	9,043,070
France	67.93%	74.56%	65,426,179
Mexico	65.97%	63.08%	130,262,216
Italy	65.28%	73.05%	60,367,477
Czech Republic	63.44%	66.57%	10,724,555
UK	63.25%	69.31%	68,207,116
Greece	62.14%	56.16%	10,370,744
Canada	62.12%	68.28%	38,067,903
Portugal	61.75%	55.84%	10,167,925
Spain	61.17%	66.48%	46,745,216
Slovakia	59.43%	59.82%	5,460,721
Ireland	58.04%	65.09%	4,982,907
Estonia	56.82%	64.23%	1,325,185
United States	55.70%	86.80%	332,915,073
Luxembourg	55.12%	91.15%	634,814
Slovenia	54.09%	51.73%	2,078,724
Poland	53.83%	55.34%	37,797,005
Chile	52.20%	49.02%	19,212,361
Latvia	51.69%	58.80%	1,866,942
Switzerland	38.63%	48.40%	8,715,494
Japan	0.00%	53.65%	126,050,804
Iceland	0.00%	81.20%	343,353
Turkey	0.00%	85.43%	85,042,738

Table 1.2: Voting age population per Country

Voting age population per country	Registered voters (%)	Voter turnout (%)
Kenya	42	80
Finland	67	73
Hungary	70	72
Israel	72	76
South Korea	77	78
New Zealand	79	76
Netherlands	82	77
Sweden	86	83
Denmark	86	80
Belgium	89	87
Australia	91	79

b) Deepening understanding on Election stakeholders

Election stakeholders can be classified either as primary stakeholders, who directly affect or are directly affected by the electoral activities, policies and practices; or as secondary stakeholders, who have a low connection with the management of election activities (Birch & Muchlinski, 2016). Genuine and open dialogue with stakeholders can result into a confident and trustworthy electoral process.

This depends on effective and transparent election stakeholders who include all individuals and organizations that conduct or ensure that the elections are done on the one hand and individuals to whom elections are performed for on the other. Stakeholders here include all elections management bodies that also include the government, political parties, citizens, media, security and international observers among others (Norris, 2014).

Election stakeholders have the necessary powers and authority to deliver free and fair elections. Any role to be ascribed to them must therefore support Electoral bodies on conducting effective elections (Norris, 2014). The Association of Caribbean Electoral Organizations for example has its Charter that intends to promote cooperation and mutual assistance among electoral management bodies which are in pursuit of democracy, through creating processes that ensure free, fair and peaceful elections (Stapenhurst & O'Brien, 2016). The role of election stakeholders (the citizens, civil society, media and observers) is to support constitutional bodies in their pursuit of effective elections (Krimmer, et al, 2020).

These stakeholders have to demonstrate democratic processes that ensure free, fair and peaceful elections. Jamaica for instance, has a rule which demands that at the end of each presidential or general election the focus of interested parties has to be turned to the integrity of the election management and this creates transparency (Stapenhurst & O'Brien, 2016). The general confidence in Jamaica on the integrity of the election management enhances the acceptability and this confirms the legitimacy of the winner. Conducting successful elections is perhaps the end product of fostering the integrity of an election in general, but building integrity takes time and has many facets.

c) Electoral Management Bodies (EMBs)

Electoral Management Bodies (EMB's) are a central component of the democratic system. They are not only key institutions for the delivery of elections but also play a major role in democracy building and consolidation. In the words of Lopez-Pintor,

they are institutions of governance, “dealing directly with the organization of multi-party elections and indirectly with governance and the rule of law” (Lopez-Pintor, 2000).

The need for electoral management bodies is to have control over all functions and major processes which affect elections; transparency in election administration is a confidence-building measure (Dundas, 2014). In response, many democratic states have sought to overcome these obstacles through the establishment of institutions capable of handling the complexity of elections –these institutions are known as Electoral Management Bodies of EMBs (Wall et al. 2006; Mozaffar and Schedler 2002; López-Pintor 2000). This helps to pave the way for acceptance of election results and hence this plays an important role in according legitimization to an incoming political administration. More specifically, EMBs are responsible for the management of those elements deemed “essential” for democratic elections (Wall et al. 2006,). While the responsibilities and powers of Electoral Management Bodies vary by country, it is clear that these institutions play a vital role in a country’s democratic development.

The United Nations Development Programme identifies five main types of electoral management bodies. These types include the government-run model, a model run by the government in a decentralized system, a model run by the government but under some supervisory or judicial authority, an independent body, and a model that is independent with multiple bodies. For the most part, three variations of these five are used in practice around the world (Lopez-Pintor 2000).

Pastor (1999) identifies four main types of electoral administrations, including a body completely run by the government, one run by the government with oversight from a judicial body, an independent electoral commission, and a multiparty electoral commission. Mozaffar and Schedler (2002) identify the “power-sharing” model, where the main political players agree to establish rules of restraint on the electoral game (results in a multiparty commission), a “delegation” model, where electoral authority is delegated to individuals who are independent and neutral (results in a nonpartisan commission), and the “abdication” model, where the main political players abdicate electoral authority to citizen authorities or independent officials, who in turn appoint neutral, nonpartisan electoral officials (results in nonpartisan commission).

Massicotte, Blais, and Yoshinaka (2004) also identify three main types including an electoral commission, the appointment of a single official, or the appointment of a government minister, all of which have autonomy over electoral matters in their respective country. More recently in a study on electoral management design, the International IDEA identifies the independent model, which is independent and autonomous from the government, the mixed model, which combines elements of the government and independent-model, and the government model, which is operated by the government usually by a ministry of the executive branch (Wall et al.2006)

Contemporary research suggests that for developing democracies, the ideal EMB is one that is professional, autonomous, and impartial in its operations (Wall et al. 2006; Hartlyn et al. 2008; Lehoucq & Molina 2002). Indeed, a recent survey of

EMBs across the world indicates that most developing democracies have established legally independent Electoral Management Bodies (Wall et al. 2006; López-Pintor 2000) Efficiency is required because of the relative magnitude of the scale of preparation necessary to deliver elections.

EMBs perform a number of functions to ensure that elections are conducted with integrity and according to widely accepted international standards. Of course, no two countries are identical but typically EMBs are in charge of functions such as the registration of voters, the design and implementation of electoral procedures, the organization and logistics surrounding voting day (from the delivery of election materials and the installation of voting centers to the training of polling clerks), the vote count and the announcement of results.

Moreover, in some countries EMBs have acquired additional functions, such as the drawing of electoral boundaries/constituencies (like IEBC IN Kenya and a number of EMBs in the Americas), overseeing campaign finance (Federal Electoral Commission in the US) and even the management of parties' and candidates' access to radio and television (Mexico's National Electoral Institute).

Elections embraces the use of accurate and reliable information where globally, Electoral Bodies ensures information compiled for use is verified and analyzed and must be reasonable and objective (Stapenhurst & O'Brien, 2016). Ultimately, the evidence indicates that the existence of a professional and non-partisan electoral management body can help facilitate not only a credible electoral process but aid in

the deepening of a country's democracy. This is a trend that seems ubiquitous across Latin America (Hartlyn et al. 2008; 2009).

It is therefore very important that the electoral institution acts and is perceived to be impartial and credible, so that electoral processes are recognized as legitimate (Birch, 2011; Magaloni, 2006; Miller, 2005; North & Weingast 1989). When an EMB is credible, the election and its outcome are credible and accepted. However, when citizens, political parties and others mistrust the electoral institution, the entire process can be challenged.

d) Covid-19 Perspective on Stakeholders in Electoral Processes

Globally, COVID-19 has heavily disrupted societies, production, economies and social lives (Bicu, 2020). Likewise, the epidemic has equally created a new situation internationally, particularly in Africa, and specifically Kenya for the successful conduct of elections. And this presents decision-makers, stakeholders along with election authorities 'unforeseen and complex question of whether to postpone national elections or to carry them with the essential safety measures in place to protect all stakeholders, who include election officials, media personnel, civil society observers, and other associates. While there has been a concentration on the shelving of national Election Day, in practice numerous other accompanying processes close to the electoral cycle are having to be deferred, and these are likely to impinge on elections far beyond 2021 globally (Reppell, et al, 2020).

Factoring the scope and perspective of stakeholder's participation in elections, dealing with the impacts of COVID-19 has heavily placed a huge set of obligations

on all stakeholders. Irrespective of whether it is the election agency itself or the authorities that are accountable for setting dates, or postponing elections, the stakeholders will have to make do with an array of situations posed by organizing national elections in the COVID-19 period. Nevertheless, Covid-19 has created a room for electoral abuse as has been witnessed in Ethiopia's election as well as Uganda's national elections.

Approximately 79 countries and territorial dominion across the globe have opted to shelve their national and subnational elections as a result of COVID-19, out of which 42 countries and territories opted to postpone both national elections and referendums. The leading unpreparedness as to manner in which an election could be unhazardously held in an epidemic that was brought to the front by Covid-19 was no plausible, as various vulnerabilities were already exhibiting the stress in the administration of elections processes before the impact of this crisis globally (International IDEA 2020).

The epidemic laid bare preexisting general limitations and insufficiency of ingrained policies and practices, confirming, with raised force, their inability to sustain pressing necessities imposed by a perpetually evolving world.

1.1.2 Regional Perspective of Stakeholder Participation and Electoral Process

The democratic advances made over the past ten years are slowly being undone by elections in the majority of African governments (Makulilo & Henry, 2018). The main factors causing instability and violent conflicts in contemporary Africa are disputes and tensions associated to elections. Even while democratic institutions are

insufficient to sustain a democratic culture, a lack of effective diversity management is a significant contributor to unhealthy rivalry, conflict, and instability (Maendeleo Policy Forum Report, 2016). Through the recruitment, appointment, and maintenance of candidates or officers of the appropriate caliber in the appropriate offices, a free and fair election assures a tangible and stable political process (Norris, 2017).

Elections in Africa are becoming increasingly entrenched as the only credible way in which citizens can choose their leaders (Makulilo & Henry, 2018). The question is no longer whether or not elections regularly and periodically take place to enable citizens the exercise of their constitutional authority as envisaged in Article 21 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), rather, it is the quality of the elections that is at issue, (Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa and ECF-SADC 2016). The primary question today is whether elections are inclusive and fair, and produce truly legitimate outcomes.

Experiences from the region and elsewhere have shown that when an electoral process fails to produce credible outcomes, the legitimacy of institutions of governance is brought into question, with declining citizen confidence in electoral processes. Hence the reason why a number of countries have moved away from hitherto dictatorial regimes to an adherence to democratic principles for example Uganda, Mozambique, Sierra Leon, and South Africa. Dundas, (2014) affirms that a democratically elected government enjoys a high degree of legitimacy from all the stakeholders in addition to the international community.

Stakeholder participation has become an important aspect in determining the adherence of democratic principles and effective performance of elections (Orji, 2015). Africa's experience with electoral democracy has been mixed. Some progress has been made, but challenges remain. The various elections in the past several years from Kenya, Zimbabwe, and Nigeria to Ghana and Sierra Leone have become historical landmarks for different reasons, varying drastically in their conduct and outcome of elections (Fjelde, & Höglund, 2016).

James (2016) notes that developing countries such as Tanzania have several organizations that play a vital role in overseeing the country's elections however their processes are mired by many challenges hence need to do much more to ensure enlightenment to the whole practice of elections, in particular conducting voter education. Stakeholders in the performance of elections share a common objective to make the best possible contribution towards strengthening democracy and promoting citizenship (Rossiter, 2017). If citizens are enlightened on the relationship between the various links in the democratic chain and their quality of life then they would be concerned with credible elections (James, 2016).

The civil society is crucial in strengthening the performance of elections through capacity building among other activities (Norris, 2017). The report further asserts for instance in Sierra Leone, the civil society has helped the process by increasing trust and knowledge amongst the citizens through capacity building increasing trust and knowledge amongst the citizens of their role in the process. The professionalization

of Electoral process has been for example defined as an important policy objective by Kofi Annan's *Global Commission on Elections* 2012 (James, 2016).

The various elections in the past several years from Kenya, Zimbabwe, and Nigeria to Ghana and Sierra Leone have become historical landmarks for different reasons, varying drastically in their conduct and outcome, (Halff, 2015). The Declaration on the Principles Governing Democratic Elections in Africa (Chapter 7, Article 17) and the African Union's Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance (Chapter 7, Article 17), which were adopted in Durban, South Africa, in July 2002, both made provisions for the holding of regular, transparent, free, and fair elections as well as the creation of independent, impartial national electoral bodies in charge of managing elections in all member states (Rossiter, 2017).

The Protocol on Democracy and Good Governance adopted by the Economic Community of West African States (ECOIS) in 2001 states that among the principles to be declared as constitutional principles shared by Member States is that every accession to power must be made through free, fair and transparent elections (Hartmann, & Striebinger, 2015). From the report made by the Election Observation Groups (ELOG) in 2013, which have been deployed throughout the region when invited to do so, performance of elections Bodies, Governments or other competent authority, there is much confidence for the most part in performance of elections Bodies in the Region.

In a recent report entitled "Election-Related Disputes and Political Violence" published by the African Union Panel of the Wise (Putnam, 2013), It is confirmed

that for elections to enhance democracy, relevant institutions need to be put in place, including impartial and independent election management bodies. The report examined the political context and legal framework that can help prevent election-related violence. It maintains that an independent and impartial national electoral body assuredly in charge of overseeing elections should be established and strengthened in order to ensure the credibility and transparency of elections within countries (Local Solutions Democracy, 2015).

In the 2015 Tanzania elections for example, little concern is expressed over the effectiveness of the Elections and Boundaries Commission by the political parties, civil society or the press. Other issues such as campaign financing were raised as they have been raised in other regional electoral jurisdictions where Electoral Observer Missions have been deployed and have held discussions with stakeholders (Putnam, 2013). Global Expertise; Local Solutions Democracy (2015) affirms on the evolution of performance of elections and its impact on the quality of citizenship, and political participation in African countries. He asserts that the central role that performance of elections is now playing in the political life of an increasing number of African countries means that the management of elections is now also at center stage.

Dundas (2017) further concludes that the institutional framework for these bodies, and their endowment with adequate human and financial resources, has thus become an important concern in the constitutional reforms that have accompanied the second wave of democratization in Africa. National elections are a significant feature of

stable democracies and the need to deepen democracy through regular free and fair elections in Africa cannot be overstated. A stable elections management system is crucial for the attainment of socio-economic development of Africa (Dundas, 2017).

1.1.3 National Perspective of Stakeholder Participation and Electoral Process

Kenya has made progress toward effective election management, which has been credited to the electoral body's competency and the stakeholders' appropriate engagement (Rossiter, 2017). Media, citizens, lawmakers, religious leaders, civil society organizations, parliament, the current administration, international organizations, national voters, political executive leaders, and opposing political parties are some of these stakeholders (Rose & Heywood, 2013). According to Kibwana (2014), the 2007 post-election unrest in Kenya resulted in changes to the electoral process that affected voter turnout.

The new constitution created the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission (IEBC) to replace the Interim electoral and boundaries Commission of Kenya (ECK). The Constitution of Kenya, 2010 (hereinafter, the Constitution), which was promulgated on 27 August 2010, established the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission (IEBC) as the responsible agency for conducting or supervising referenda and elections to any elective body or office established by the Constitution, and any other elections as prescribed by an Act of Parliament in Kenya (Kibwana, 2014).

The Kenyan experience as articulated by (Lumumba & Franceschi, 2014) is an excellent example of what can be achieved where there is sufficient consultation beforehand. Lumumba and Franceschi (2014) further argues that experience suggests that for many electoral Bodies, last minute changes are typical election management practices, and timely consultations are the exception rather than the rule, but that is why modernization of election bodies must focus on these aspects of election administration which are so often overlooked. Oloo (2015), the 1963 Constitution established the Electoral Commission of Kenya as an autonomous body mandated to administer and supervise the elections. The Constitution was however not operationalized effectively leaving the Supervisor of Elections, a unit under the Office of the Attorney General with the powers to conduct elections. In this period, the electoral body was disused that it had been relegated to only one of its constitutional mandates: the determination of constituency boundaries (Van Ham & Staffan, 2015).

The National Assembly and Presidential Elections Act enacted in 1969 consolidated the Ordinances and Regulations relating to elections. In this period, Kenya conducted frequent elections including by elections, popularly referred to as the little general elections of 1966, General Elections in 1969, 1974, 1979, 1983 and 1988. However Krieger report of 2008, highlighted the circumstances which followed the 2007 General Elections prompted a rethink of management of elections in Kenya. With very strong justification, the electoral framework attracted significant reforms in the new Constitution (Oloo, 2016).

There are credible questions in the 2007 Kenya's General elections. Accordingly, following the violence that shadowed the disputed presidential elections in that year, the Kenya National Dialogue and Reconciliation process and the two principals agreed *inter alia* to establish an Independent Review Committee (IREC) to investigate all aspects of the 2007 presidential election and make findings and the Committee chaired by Justice Johann Kriegler submitted its report, which contained the most authoritative legal, policy and institutional recommendations on electoral reform (Lumumba & Franceschi, 2014).

The Kriegler Commission Report of 2008 found fundamental weaknesses in the Kenyan political culture, institutional breakdown performance of elections framework and made strong recommendations respecting review of the legal and constitutional framework on electoral procedures, the operational procedures, funding modalities, functional efficiency amongst others (Oloo, 2016). The report recommended a total overhaul of the ECK, its replacement by a lean policy commission interacting with a professional secretariat. In the interim period, through Constitutional Amendment Act No. 10 of 2008, the ECK is replaced by the Interim Independent Electoral Commission (IIEC) and Interim Independent Boundaries Review Commission (IIBRC) charged with management of elections and boundary delimitation mandates respectively ((Van Ham & Staffan, 2015).

The IIEC made considerable incremental administrative reforms and generally contributed to increased confidence of Kenyans in the management and performance of elections (Kerr, 2013). The report of the IIBRC is not published and therefore did

not take effect in accordance with art 89 of the Constitution. From the report made by the Election Observation Groups (ELOG, 2013), which have been deployed throughout the region when invited to do so by performance of elections Bodies, Governments or other competent authority, there is much confidence for the most part in performance of elections Bodies in the Region.

Other problems, including campaign financing and stakeholder participation in election performance, were brought up, just as they had been in other regional electoral jurisdictions where Electoral Observer Missions had been sent and had conversations with stakeholders (Putnam, 2013).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Since the advent of multiparty system of politics in 1991, Kenyan election processes have been facing challenges some of which led to post elections violence (Lindberg, 2015). This was the case in in 1992, 1997 and in 2007 when the bungled election process led to one of the worst post-election violence since the country attained independence. In order to deal with the myriad of challenges accompanying the Kenyan elections every five years, stakeholders have started shifting their attention towards enhancing the capacity of the constitutionally mandated body to organize and manage elections process with more efficiency and credible outcomes and strengthen Kenyan democracy (Oloo, 2016).

Accordingly, Election is an all-inclusive and complex procedure in which all the institutions as well as groups participating in the election process play a fundamental and constructive role. That is why holding transparent, fair and free election is

achievable within the cooperation and co-action of each relevant institution. Progressive participation of stakeholders in the electoral process is necessary for any country to have free, transparent, fair and successful elections (Murphy, 2020).

For instance, countless African countries such as Nigeria, Mauritius, and Senegal have had an expansive experience with combative democratic electoral politics than others (Dundas 2019). Many of them still have democratic inadequacies emanating from electoral processes deficiencies. There is a deep-rooted correlativity between political aggression, stakeholders' involvement, disorder, and democratic inadequacy, on the one hand, as well as the quality and nature of electoral systems, on the other. Hence, where the involvement of stakeholders is not tolerable, disorder and chaos are remarkably the final results.

A good illustration is depicted by the intertribal clashes that erupted in Kenya in 2007 where approximately 1,300 people lost their lives and more than 300,000 citizens were internally displaced. Widespread sexual violence against women also marred the post-election landscape. This was more due to compromised stakeholders and entire electoral process (Birch, et al, 2020).

Accordingly, the study sought to answer why it is that after the promulgation of a new constitution, which has been coupled with expanded avenues for increased stakeholder participation, the elections process has been a cyclic thorny issue in Kenya. It was against this backdrop that the study sought to establish the role of stakeholder participation in Electoral Process in Kenya.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This study was guided by both general objectives and specific objectives.

1.3.1 General Objective

The general of the study was to establish the role of stakeholder participation in electoral process in Kenya.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The study was guided by the following specific objectives:

1. To establish the role of media participation in Electoral Process in Kenya.
2. To examine the role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya.
3. To determine the role of election observers' participation in Electoral Process in Kenya.
4. To assess the role of the civil society organizations participation in Electoral Process in Kenya.
5. To evaluate the moderating role of Constitutional framework in Electoral Process in Kenya.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were used in an attempt to determine the role of stakeholder participation in Electoral Process in Kenya.

1. H₀₁. Media participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya
2. H₀₂ Citizen Participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.
3. H₀₃ Election observer's participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.
4. H₀₄ Civil society organizations participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.
5. H₀₅ Constitutional frameworks as a stakeholder have no significant role on electoral Process in Kenya.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The study was premised on the need to establish the role of stakeholder participation in Electoral process in Kenya. The study results enable the researcher to disseminate factual information that contributes to the world of knowledge. Such information can go a long way and assist in solving problems by election stakeholders within their various perspectives. It was also resourceful to the various stakeholders who manage elections and this in turn brought sanity and stability. The following were the benefits from this study:

1.5.1 Policy Makers

The significance of the study is the contribution of the research to the wide public (Kothari, 2014). This study was of importance to all election stakeholders in Kenya. This included the Government who may find insights on information that relates to improving the regulatory frameworks aimed at enhancing Electoral process, as the exercise was funded by the government tax payers (Nowacki, et al, 2020). This study provided knowledge of the institution's financial dynamics and appropriate strategies applied in designing policies and strategies to enhance electoral credibility through sound election management practice in Kenya.

1.5.2 Election Observers

This study was essential to a variety of stakeholders, including the media, civil society organizations, academics, observers, and the general public since it helped electoral observers, particularly in checks and balances against needless political involvement during elections. The African Centre for Open Governance and other electoral participants recognized the problems that needed to be solved in order to have the best elections possible, which promotes a wider spread of democracy throughout any given nation. It also creates a positive value for stakeholders hence enhance the credibility of the elections (Greenwood-Hau, 2021). The Civil society,

Media gained knowledge on how credible elections are managed based on the study variables.

1.5.3 Researchers Academic Institutions

The study was fundamental to future researchers as they use its results to gain theoretical and practical experience through knowledge gained on how credible elections are conducted based on the study variables and this forms the basis of coming up with the general framework for effective election formulation and therefore guided researchers for coming up with further research as well as re-appraise current election practices.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study focused on establishing the role of stakeholder participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. The stakeholder institutions who were targeted by the study included the Independent electoral and Boundaries Commission (IEBC), civil society organizations (CSO's) involved in electoral observation and monitoring, Citizens, Media which included KTN, Citizen, and K24. All these stakeholders have their head offices situated in Nairobi County. This therefore meant that the location was important for the researcher as electoral related information was easily available (Allison, et al, 2020).

The study covered the period of 2013 to 2020 and targeted respondents from the vocal civil society organizations that are included in the process such as Africa (The African Centre for Open Governance), the Kenya National Human Rights Commission (KNHRC), ELOG and the African Union Monitoring and Observer Mission Group. These civil society organizations are all within Nairobi County. Overall, these were the institutions which actively contributed towards shaping the electoral space not only in the country but also regional and beyond.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

Limitations are issues and incidences that occur in a study and are out of a researcher's control (Kothari, 2014). The limitations of a study are its flaws or shortcomings which could be the result of unavailability of resources, small sample size, flawed methodology, etc. No study is completely flawless or inclusive of all possible aspects. The researcher encountered a number of challenges during the period of the study; one of the limitations that the study encountered while being conducted was to convince respondents to attend the interview during their work time. Some respondents like legal officers found it difficult to fill the questionnaire because they felt giving information required might jeopardize their jobs; however, this was overcome by assurance that the information will not be divulged and is for academic purposes only (Meredith, 2015). Many of respondents were busy conducting their field duties and this meant that they did not get ample time to attend the interview. To overcome this limitation, the researcher personally or through research assistant administers questionnaires through a drop and picks method.

The study also acknowledged the fact that not all information sought in the research process is on public domain. To overcome this limitation, permission was sought to access information from the various electoral stakeholders involved in this research. There was reluctance by the various election stakeholders to disclose important information to the researcher. The limitation was countered through creation of convenient time schedule with respondents where assurances were made to them that the information to be provided was to be confidential and only be used for academic reasons.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The chapter provides a review of both theoretical and empirical literature underpinning this study. The specific areas covered here are theoretical review, conceptual framework, the empirical review of past studies, critique of the existing literature and research gap. The objective of the chapter explained what had been studied previously in order to determine the research gap.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

The section discusses theories that relates to role of stakeholder participation in electoral process in Kenya.

2.2.1 The Spiral of Silence Theory

The spiral theory describes the dynamics of public opinion in situations where the climate of opinion is shifting. It must be understood only in the light of these two tenets: pressure to conform and fear of isolation. According to McQuay (2015) Noelle-Neumann's theory proposes that in order to avoid isolation on important public issues (like candidate or political party support), many people are guided by what they think to be dominant or declining opinions in their environment. Public tend to conceal their opinions if the impression is that they are in minority and are keener to prompt them if they think they are dominant. The result is that those views that are perceived to be dominant gain even more ground and alternatives retreats till further (Brenda, et al, 2021).

Under this theory the mass media are the most readily accessible source for assessing the prevailing climate. They can significantly influence this theory. For instance, if

a certain view predominates in the media, it tended to be magnified in the subsequent stages of personal opinion formation and expression.

Thus,

If the media gives a misleading information on the prevailing public opinion, then there is the likelihood of a biased public opinion to be formed. Lee (2013), shares that Spiral of Silence

Theory is applied to establish the need to raise other voices for a specific agenda. The Sponsored communication messages are put in place to counter dominant voices and influence implementation of TTGP among political parties Jubilee party of Kenya. On the other hand, due to the social nature of man, that is, the pressure to conform and fear of isolation; people are constantly aware of the opinions of people around them and adjust their behaviors (and potentially their opinions) to majority trends under the fear of being on the trailing crosswise of a free deliberation (Himmelroos, et al, 2021).

This theory clearly explains how people form their voting preferences when bombarded with electoral opinion messages. Electorates are swayed by the bandwagon effects rather than fearing social isolation. In this study, The Spiral of Silence Theory is of great value in explaining why the pre-election messages are used as alternatives to the dominant voice that is condemning election process. The theory supports the variable role of Media participation by hypothesizing that process media does play a significant relationship in electoral process in Kenya.

2.2.2 Resource Based View Theory

The Resource based theory proposes various factors that affect effective participation in the electoral processes. The theory predicts that factors such as age, education and economic status ought to be positively associated with turnout; older, better educated members of the electorate and the more affluent in a country have been found to vote with greatest frequency (Blais, 2010; Clarke et al, 2014). Early studies suggested that men were more frequent voters than women while some more recent analyses show that in many democracies women are now more likely than men to vote (Blais, 2010).

In general resource abundance affects the political equilibrium. The theory has demonstrated that an individual's degree of integration into and mobilization by civil society organizations such as unions, religious groups and political parties increases the likelihood that they will exercise their franchise. Robinson, Torvik and Verdier (2016) explicitly model politicians and show how the costs and benefits of buying votes through inefficient redistribution, for instance by bribing voters with well-paid but fruitless jobs within the public-sector, that increases with public sector resource income. Acemoglu and Robinson (2016) model under-development as the result of political elites blocking technological and institutional development because such development may erode the elites' incumbency advantage. Such locking is more likely to arise when the rents from maintaining power is high. In addition, Acemoglu, Robinson and Verdier's (2014) personal rule model, greater resource rents make it easier for dictators to buy off political challengers.

Ades and DiTella (2009) discuss how natural resource events may stimulate corruption, and that increased resource rents may make it politically efficient to win votes by building 'white elephants', rather than efficient investment projects, even when voters are fully rational. Damania and Bulte (2013) show that when politicians maximize the surplus from a lobbying, resource abundance may increase the income from lobbying, but divert the economy from its optimal path. The theory supports the variable role of Citizen Participation by postulating that when voters are provided with adequate resources with free and fair elections countries will best able before and after election process (Namusonge, 2021).

2.2.3 The Principal-Agent Model Theory

Organizing an election is a major undertaking for a government, yet government officials do not themselves perform some of the critical activities (Alvarez & Hall, 2006). Instead, these activities are given to people hired for the task. The entire electoral process involves establishing numerous precincts that each need to be run

by a stakeholder. To achieve this goal, the government, represented by the election agency, enlists the services of individuals who agree to serve as poll workers.

The principal agent Theory was formulated and advanced by Adam Smith (1937). The author suspected the presence of agency problem and since then it has been a motivating factor for the economists to cultivate the aspects of agency theory. Agency Theory model is considered as one of the oldest theories in the literature of the management and economics (Daily & Rajagopalan, 2003; Isserman, 2006). Principal-agent model theory arises from the distinction between the owners (shareholders) of a company or an organization designated as "the principals" and the executives hired to manage the organization called "the agent." Generally, much debate on governance issues of business firms relies on the concept of managerialism and principal-agent emanating from the work of Adam Smith (1776) and Berle and Means (1991) who identified the issue of separation of ownership and control in modern corporations and provided the base to understand the agency theory assumptions, agency cost, use of incentives and control mechanisms. Agency theory argues that the goal of the agent is different from that of the principals, and they are conflicting (Johnson & Ellstrand, 1996). Principal-agent model theory discusses the problems that surface in the firms due to the separation of owners and managers and emphasizes on the reduction of this problem.

This theory helps in implementing the various governance mechanisms to control the agents' action in the jointly held corporations. The assumption is that the principals suffer an agency loss, which is a lesser return on investment because they do not directly manage the company. Part of the return that they could have had if they were managing the company directly goes to the agent. Consequently, agency theories suggest financial rewards that can help incentivize executives to maximize the profit of owners (Eisenhardt, 1989).

The principal or the owners, who invest their capital and take the risk to acquire the economic benefits, whereas the agents, who manage the firm are risk averse and concerned in maximizing their private benefits. Both the principal and agent are

having opposite risk preferences and their problem in risk-sharing creates the agency conflict, which is broadly covered under the agency theory. Ross (1973) and Mitnick (1975) have shaped the theory of agency and came up with two different approaches in their respective works.

Ross regarded the agency problem as the problem of incentives, while Mitnick considered the problem occurs due to the institutional structure, but the central idea behind their theories is similar. Ross identified the principal–agent problem as the consequence of the compensation decision and opined that the problem does not confine only in the firm, rather it prevails in the society as well. The institutional approach of Mitnick helped in developing the logics of the core agency theory and it is possibly designed to understand the behavior of the real world. His theory propagated those institutions are built around agency and grow to reconcile with the agency.

Principal-agent model theory is concerned with the conflicting interests of principals and agents. Jensen’s and Meckling’s (1976) model on agency costs and ownership structure holds a central role in the corporate governance literature. Its predictions relating to agency problems are central to the topic of this thesis. Consequently, the role of management is to optimize the long-term performance of the business in order to achieve this end and thereby reward all stakeholders, including themselves as one stakeholder community, appropriately.

From Waterman and Maier’s (1998) perspective, the principal-agent model theory addresses the imbalanced relationship between staff and management in public service. While Alvarez and Hall (2006) first introduced the theory to model the relation existing between election authorities and electoral workers acting on their behalf, James (2013) later suggested that poll workers operate as election board representatives; therefore, administrative best practice standards could be usefully applied to assess their performance. Therefore, this theory offers great usefulness for explaining the relationship between poll observers in electoral process in Kenya.

2.2.4 Stakeholder Theory

By Freeman, the stakeholder theory was proposed (1994). Any group or person that can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives is referred to as a stakeholder, according to the traditional definition (Freeman 1994). A redefining of the organization is the basic tenet of the stakeholder concept. The topic often pertains to the nature of the organization and how it ought to be imagined. According to Friedman (2006), the goal of an organization should be to manage the interests, needs, and opinions of its stakeholders. The organization itself should be viewed as a group of stakeholders.

The concept of Stakeholder theory is ascribed to R. Edward Freeman (1994) whose original concept is that managers have a moral obligation to consider and appropriately balance the interests of all stakeholders. Evan and Freeman (1988) stated, "A stakeholder theory of the firm must redefine the purpose of the firm. The very purpose of the firm is to serve as a vehicle for coordinating stakeholder interests". Stakeholder theory expresses the idea that business organizations are dependent upon stakeholders for success, and stakeholders have some stake in the organization. Stakeholder theory is now foundational to business ethics courses in many academic programs (Carroll, 2006).

Schneider (2002) posits that stakeholder theory extends the concept of ownership of the firm beyond that of the traditional legal or economic owners of the firm, who become a stakeholder by contribution of capital or other means that results in equity ownership. Therefore, managers have special obligations to ensure that all stakeholders (not just the shareholders) receive a fair return from their stake in the company (Donaldson & Preston, 1995).

Stakeholder theories advocate for some form of corporate social responsibility, which is a duty to operate in ethical ways, even if that means a reduction of long-term profit for a company (Jones, Wicks & Freeman, 2002). In that context, the board has a responsibility to be the guardian of the interests of all stakeholders by

ensuring that corporate or organizational practices take into account the principles of sustainability for surrounding communities. In connection to this, there is considerable evidence that voters are motivated by a sense of civic duty (Blais, 2000). Public involvement is means to ensure that citizens have a direct voice in public decisions (Abels 2008).

Questions arise such as whether stakeholders represent a broad class of those who are affected by or affect the corporation (Evan & Freeman, 1988), or are only “those individuals and constituencies that contribute...to [the firms’] wealth-creating capacity and activities” (Post, Preston, & Sachs, 2002). If stakeholder theory includes only those who affect the corporation and its profits, then it becomes subordinate to shareholder value theory, not an alternative to it. A broad framework of stakeholders is offered by Wheeler and Sillanpää (1997). They include four categories of stakeholders: primary social, secondary social, primary non-social and secondary non-social. Nevertheless, Mize reveals that the term "citizen participation" and its relationship to public decision-making has evolved without a general consensus regarding either its meaning or its consequences (Mize, 1972; Namusonge, 2021).

Many organizations or people decide to exclude or reduce public involvement in planning activities on the grounds that it is too time- and money-consuming for citizens to participate. However, many citizen engagement initiatives are started in response to feedback from the general public on a recommended course of action (Abel, 2008).

However, a successful citizen involvement program can result in measurable advantages. Five advantages of citizen involvement in the planning process are listed by Cogan and Sharpe (1986), information and ideas on public issues; public support for planning decisions; avoidance of protracted disputes and expensive delays; reservoir of good will that can carry over to future decisions; and spirit of cooperation and trust between the agency and the public.

The probability that a single vote is pivotal is negligible in a large election. Hence, small voting costs should dissuade turnout (Downs, 1957). Yet, significant turnout is often observed. The voting literature has worked around the "paradox of not voting," either by eliminating voters as strategic actors or by assuming that the decision to vote is independent of other strategic choices. A starting point for this study work is that standard models of individual choice do not adequately explain turnout when voting is costly. Literature reviews in Aldrich (1993); Palfrey and Rosenthal (1985) discuss the problems with standard models of participation.

The basic problem is that in a large election the probability an individual vote is pivotal is so small that it is never individually rational for agents to incur the cost of voting. Models that assume some benefit for the act of voting obviously generate turnout. A famous example of this kind of model is Riker & Ordeshook (1968). They assume that some citizens receive a payoff for doing their "civic duty" by voting. However, Riker and Ordeshook provide no explanation for why some citizens feel they have a duty to vote. In this model the perception of duty is endogenous and depends on observable parameters.

Models by Morton & Ulhaner (1992) assume that political elites pay group members to vote. Nowrejee, (2010) notes that the problem of explaining participation in elections is related to the problem of explaining voluntary contributions to public goods. In both cases, there are externalities and standard models typically predict contributions levels below what is observed. A major criticism of the participation discourse is that it is based on a naïve understanding of power and the power relations that exist both between central and local actors and within local groups (Mize, 1972).

A participatory process may merely provide opportunities for the more powerful and serve to maintain exploitation and exclusion (Hildyard, 2001). By extension, this study argues that a simplistic understanding of power and power relations characterizes views of the relationship between policy makers and local actors. Policy makers often equate policy intention with policy practice and exhibit a

simplistic understanding of the motivations of individuals to participate, (Ndulo 2011). This denies individual agency as it relates to the construction of social structures and practices. Current Issues by stakeholders come to espouse that participation, in theory, is the cornerstone of democracy-a revered idea that is vigorously applauded by everyone" (Skjelton 2006). Therefore, stakeholder theory explores the role of civil society participation in electoral process in Kenya.

2.2.5 The State Capacity Theory

The successful implementation of electoral activities rests on the election agency's ability to direct electoral activities, recruit competent staff, and provide them with appropriate resources. Major components of electoral administration activities in Togo take place across a span of time, prior to and after election date. Prior to election day, these activities entail creating a voter register, acquiring and deploying voting equipment, designing ballots, locating and preparing voting places, anticipating alternative votes, and recruiting and training poll workers. On Election Day, activities involve conducting voting operations and securing electoral activities; after Election Day the activities include declaring results and ensuring the adjudication of vote contests (Montjoy, 2008). From beginning to end, poll workers are in charge of operations.

In the context of the limited resources that characterize a developing country such as Kenya, the logistically demanding organization of elections takes on a particular importance: The technical elements of conducting an election are also of a magnitude of difficulty as to overwhelm most poor countries. In advanced democracies, those procedures are taken for granted. But in a poor, relatively uneducated developing country, the administration of an election is no simple matter. The capacity of such an administration to conduct complex bureaucratic tasks like elections is low. (Pastor, 1999). The requirements for the organization of an election open the discussion about the way institutional factors may affect electoral governance.

The ability of a government to provide a workforce capable of administering electoral operations, as well as its capacity to enforce institutional rules, indicate the level of “administrative effectiveness” of a country (Bratton & Chang, 2006). The concept of how effective is the administration is at the heart of a scholarly debate over the capacity of countries such as Kenya to meet electoral challenges (Andersen, Moller, & Skaaning, 2014; Bratton & Chang, 2006; Piccolino, 2016, Seeberg, 2014).

A representative system of democracy enables citizens to be watchdogs over the legislative branch of a government and the legislative branch to hold accountable the executive branch. In turn, the executive branch controls civil servants, including the electoral personnel (Manin, 1997). However, in a Sub-Saharan African emerging democracy like Kenya, an informal line of authority featuring political patronage and ethnic affiliation emerges alongside the formal structure of public institutions (Bratton, as cited in Badie, Berg-Schlosser, & Morlino, 2011). As a result, a parallel hierarchy of political allegiance exists and sometimes conflicts with the administrative accountability system. This parallel hierarchy not only diverts the availability of resources but also affects the performance of media, poll workers, civil society and other citizens involved in elections in Kenya.

It is evident that not only does stakeholder engagement shape various aspects of election processes and policy-making, but the degree of involvement, a dynamic feature of stakeholder role, can consistently influence how election agencies treat policy issues, media involvement, candidates, gender and election results (Arnaboldi, et al, 2015). Examining this statement provides perception into how the dynamics between common stakeholders themselves may in a way influence all election scope, behavior, as well as adding meaning to the current apprehension of whether and how all stakeholders’ roles and participation impacts election processes.

Thus, factors that determine election performance is an ongoing agenda for election stakeholders as well as election managers. Various scholars have devoted time and effort to describe where election stakeholders should advantageously invest in making their election processes more prosperous (Pedrini, et al, 2019). There is no

accord about what should be implemented to prod stakeholders toward providing better election processes in all elections. The theory therefore justifies the need of a legal framework in elections process in Kenya.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is a tool researcher use to guide their inquiry; it is a set of ideas used to structure the research, a sort of a map (Kothari, 2014). It is the researcher’s own position on the problem and gives direction to the study. It was an adaptation of a model used in a previous study, with modifications to suit the inquiry. Other than showing the direction of the study, through the conceptual framework, the researcher is able to show the relationships of the different constructs that he/she wants to study as shown in figure 2.1.

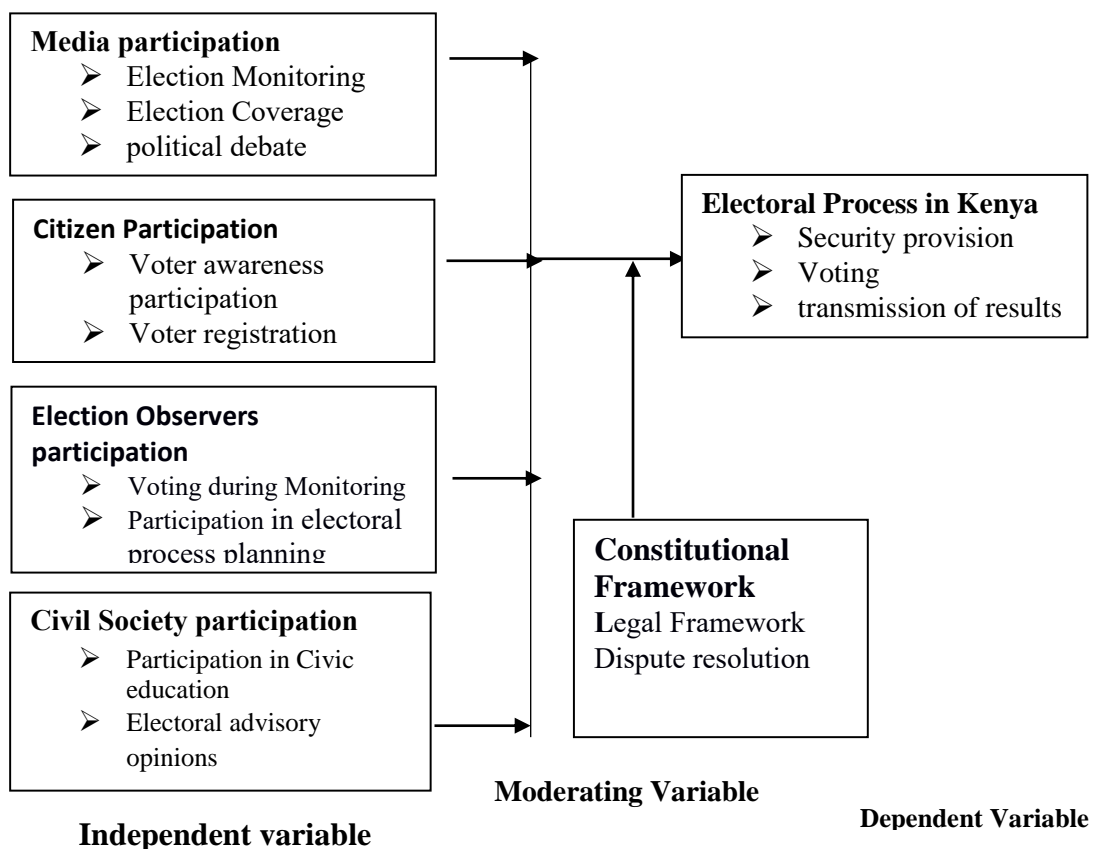


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

2.4 Literature Review on Variables

There are a number of variable that were used to study the stakeholder participation in the electoral process in Kenya. They included the role of the executive, legislature, and judiciary. However, the study focuses on four variables namely: Media Participation, citizen Participation, observer participation, civil society participation, Constitutional framework as a moderating variable in the Electoral process.

2.4.1 Media Participation

According to the Electoral Knowledge Network (EKN), the media play an indispensable role in the proper functioning of a democracy. Discussion of the media's functions within electoral contexts often focuses on their "watchdog" role: by unfettered scrutiny and discussion of the successes and failures of candidates, governments, and electoral bodies, the media can inform the public of how effectively they have performed and help to hold them to account (Paul, 2015).

Media have long been recognized as a cornerstone of democracy and play an important role in influencing political discourse during elections. When free and balanced, traditional media (print and broadcast) foster transparency and the dissemination of important electoral information. (Lindberg, 2015). The rise of new media such as social media sites, blogs, email and other new media platforms – provides further avenues and possibilities for participatory citizenship, information and knowledge sharing, and inclusion and empowerment.

Both traditional and new media can play a vital watchdog role, and serve as a campaign platform, a forum for public debate and as a public educator, ultimately strengthening democracy. Recognizing the evolving role of Media participation in elections, the International Foundation for Electoral Systems (IFES) has increasingly employed new media in its programming to support credible and transparent elections. In general, the media being one of the typical and common stakeholders also refers to various means of communication. For example, television, radio, and

the newspaper are different types of media (IFES, 2015). The role of the media in development may also be looked into two perspectives. One being the role as prescribed by the law and the other being the role as observed from the real practical experience (Norris, 2015).

Previous studies indicate that the media can also play a dramatically positive or negative role in the Electoral process (Paul, 2015). For instance, Becker, D. & Lower F. 1976's *Role of the Mass Media in the Electioneering Process* points out that Media can make or break depending on their reporting during electioneering period. Many observers often point to the role media played during the 2007 Kenyan presidential election and subsequent outbreak of violence, which led to 1,133 people killed and more than 600,000 Kenyans driven from their homes.

This is as a prominent example of the negative effects' media can have during elections. A private or biased media can shape election and issue coverage to support corporate interests or provide propaganda for authoritarian regimes, subverting important democratic principles like freedom of speech and the press (IFES, 2015). Apart from the issue of critical self-examination of the role of the media at elections, it also shares in the responsibility of channeling the Electoral process towards the desirable goal of national development and integration.

Akalu (2016) points out that the ordinary expectation by the electorate is that the mass media focuses on serious matters that portend serious consequences for the people and their political choices. Akpan and Nnanne (2014), the media must clarify issues during campaigns, bring aspirants close to the electorate, and teach the differences between party and candidate to enable the electorate make a wise choice. The mass media should enable the electorate to analyze campaign messages of politicians.

Media focus should be to set the correct political agenda for the audience and not allowing the politicians to do so. As Akalu (2016) puts it and thorough voters' guidance should be the heart of campaign reporting by the mass media. To achieve

this objective, the reporter must do with absolute detachment. He should instead carry critical and objective analysis of candidates with the aim of educating the electorate. In this capacity of impartiality, the campaign reporter acts as a catalyst between the candidates and the electorate.

Paul (2015) gives an articulate summary of the functions of the mass media in electioneering campaign as follows reporting and interpreting events, defining issues, portraying personalities, investigating support. There is a very serious angle to the public enlightenment dimension of the role of the mass media in the Electoral process. The programs voters' education must offer opportunities for all issues at stake in election to be highlighted and explained. These include basic issues such as who can vote or contest an election, date of the election and where to vote. Okinda (2014) opines that electoral commission does not have the capability to undertake voter education.

According to him, there is a big difference between voter education and the image-making ventures which many information departments of electoral commissions undertake. The powerful channels, the most potent strategies and the technical format for effective public enlightenment belong to the media. The growing concern over the interference of elections has greatly affected established democracies and countries in transition and this is mainly areas where freedom of expression and access to information are tightly controlled mechanisms such the sitting government (Sifuna, 2014). There are numerous aspects of participation where the media has to monitor, cover and conduct political debates so as to educate the electorate.

The media has the prerogative to of using tapes of radio and television news broadcasts and copies of the newspapers that they intend to monitor. Monitors should go through a typical news story several times and examine a variety of matters until they are comfortable with the process. After watching, listening or reading the whole news event once, election monitors news coverage and those conducting political debates should discuss election program as a group for them to identify anomalies if any (Sifuna, 2014).

The strength of a democratically elected government depends not only on the inclusiveness of its electorate, but also on the degree to which its citizens are aware of their rights and responsibilities and participate in the political process (Sifuna, 2014). The International Foundation of Electoral Systems (IFES), for example, works to enhance civic participation as a pivotal ingredient of representative government by strengthening the capacity of civil society organizations (CSOs) to mobilize citizens in a constructive and effective manner. Civil society programs foster both civic initiative and government responsiveness and accountability (IFES, 2015). The hypothesis to be tested: Media has no role in Electoral process in Kenya.

2.4.2 Citizen Participation

According to IGI Global, Citizen Participation refers to involvement of the public in decision making by governments. It also refers to the different mechanism in which public express their views and ideally exert influence in relation to political, economic, and other decisions. According to Muriu (2014), and Namusonge, (2021) there is a consensus on an empirical link between citizen participation and service delivery in local governments.

There is a fundamental and constitutional difference between the previous local authorities and current county governments. The difference is not only at constitutional provisions but also the architecture, philosophy and express interface between government and its people at the local levels.

Paul (2015) assert that citizenry is the re-distribution of power that enables the haves-not citizens, presently excluded from the political and economic process to be deliberately included in the future. De Villiers (2001), Citizens may influence the government decisions on the matters of their daily lives through democratic process especially political participation where by citizens can be involved in decision-making either directly or indirectly. In contemporary democracy, citizen`s participation in elections is highly emphasized, for example the ideas by (Okinda, 2014)) signify that, citizen`s participation in elections gives legitimacy to the

government serving the people in particular areas of jurisdictions and thus reducing the existence of undemocratic systems associated with the violence, corruptions and political and economic instability.

Active Citizenry usually helps to ensure that, the governmental decisions and policies reflect citizen's interests (Irvin, 2014). Democratic government always derives its power from the consent of people (citizens) and therefore government is accountable to the citizens especially where democratic government exists. Additionally, in democratic state some democratic citizens should most value their freedom and use their democratic resources to resist the interventions by the state in what should be private (Paul, 2015).

This is to say citizens have to recognize their rights especially political rights and participate effectively in political process such as participations in elections of all kind which in turn leads into the existence of democratic government with main duties of saving the citizens effectively, efficiently, and equitably. Daxecker (2014) insists on the principle that men "have the right of regulating their own affairs which is normally right and political wise". That is to say those citizens are required to participate in democratic process which in turn would promote democratic governance in respect and practicing democratic principles (Irvin, 2014).

Citizen Participation in Elections includes but is not limited to voting in primaries and elections, contacting the elected and campaigning for political candidates (Sifuna, 2014). According to Mutua (2014), maintain that an important election management challenge is to identify and to include the necessary or relevant people to pursue this planning activity, and to delegate responsibilities accordingly. Hyde further maintain that a detailed plan should include action plans that need to be pursued with a view to achieve the goals and outcomes concerned. The need to create awareness amongst citizens on what citizen participation in electoral matters is important. For elections to be successful, the citizens must be politically conscious, and have access to information.

They must not only be aware of their rights and responsibilities but also know the channels via which they can exercise them through voting (Ngunyi, 2014). Action plans should be placed within a time-frame and should clearly identify responsibilities relating to the action concerned. It is therefore essential to ensure that all the stakeholders involved are working within the constraints and possibilities of strengths and weaknesses as well as of external opportunities and threats, that is, SWOT analysis (Okinda, 2014).

Elections are considered to be among of the principal instrument of the liberal democracy (Daxecker, 2014). Therefore, elections should promote citizens voice, whereby through elections government derive its power from the citizens, and also the government can be fired by citizens through elections. Oloo (2016) further emphasis on political involvement where by every citizen has a right to choose his or her leaders hold them responsible for their actions and replace them where necessary. Therefore, in this regard citizens have significant role to pursuing fairness and accountability and also affecting change in the democratic process.

Citizen Participation in elections and other non- political matters is a critical at all levels of the government to ensure that, government knows the intensity and needs of issues that are facing and affecting citizens. This can function when citizens participate fully in electing their representatives such as president, members of parliament (MP's), Members of County Assemblies(MCA's), and other local elected officials (Oloo, 2015). Electoral processes take place in a context of unequal socioeconomic structures and asymmetrical power relations, which are replicated in the relationship between money and politics (Okinda, 2014).

The development of political-electoral financing systems capable of bringing balance to electoral races is one of the major challenges facing democracy today. The role of money in elections has become a primary concern of the election participants, together with the challenges posed by the consolidation of democracy. Citizens here come in handy as they come up with systems for financing electoral campaigns for their supporters (Daxecker, 2014).

In strengthening the political parties/organizations which are a priority for democracy. Special attention is being paid to the problems associated with the high cost of election campaigns and this leads to the establishment of a balanced and transparent system for financing by citizens (Paul, 2015). In Kenya for example the IEBC envisages the possibility of adopting measures for enhancing transparency in the funding of candidacies and political parties. IEBC has adopted this as part of the international legal framework that seeks to promote transparency in the financing of electoral campaigns across the globe (Oloo, 2016)

Citizen Participation in the elections can be gauged by the level of civil society organizations in the same. Hence the level of Citizen Participation in an election would highlight their importance as election stakeholders (Mutua, 2014). According to the Constitution and Reform Education Consortium (Creco) (2014) a model policy framework for public participation in decision making is necessary. Such a framework would enhance and guarantee meaningful public participation at the county levels. To develop such a framework there is need to compare and borrow from such similar regimes in other jurisdictions. This variable therefore tested the hypothesis: Citizen Participation has no role in Electoral process management in Kenya.

2.4.3 Observer/Monitors Participation

Election observation, according to United Nations Women Watch (2020), is a useful technique for enhancing the quality of elections. Observers contribute to increasing public trust in the integrity of electoral administration and overall results. Election participants' civil and political rights can be promoted and protected with the use of observation (Gilley, 2017). Even while an election is still taking place, it may result in mistakes or poor procedures being corrected.

It can deter manipulation and fraud, or expose such problems if they do occur. Susanne (2014) asserts that when observers can issue positive reports, it builds trust in the democratic process and enhances the legitimacy of the governments that

emerge from elections. Election observation by domestic groups encourages civic involvement in the political process. Following elections, reports and recommendations by observer groups can lead to changes and improvements in national law and practice (Jinadu, 2014).

Daxecker (2014) argues that politics and Society in Contemporary Africa, trace the birth of civil society as associations which emerged explicitly around associational interests. To them, these organizations were established to secure occupational, social, ideological, leisure, self-improvement and service goals. Civil society organizations according to these scholars initially sprang around the urban areas and were originally connected with the growth of colonial state institutions and official markets. From economic and social groups like occupational groups which include professional groups, trade unions, entrepreneurs to women's and students' associations as well as religious ones have played great roles in the pre-independence and post- independence period (Jinadu, 2014).

They gave a good description of each group and how their activities helped in the fight for independence and in the quest to monitor the quality of public life. They gave the motives for the formation of these groups but did not explain how well their activities benefit the state as compared to themselves. Almost all the groups participated in the political process to benefit its members as exemplified by that of the trade unions and women's and students' associations. This study gives a good account of civil society groups working together and how their activities during elections can help improve the Electoral process in Kenya as well as increase participation in the process (Susanne, 2014).

Bratton in his report titled Civil Society and Political Transitions in Africa (2013) tries to give evidence of the existence of a nascent civil society in some Africa countries. To him, one of the greatest legacies of civil society in Africa is the convening of national conferences in almost all the francophone countries during and after the democratization period in the 1990s (AU, 2014).

Accordingly, there are four types of regime change; pre-transition, liberalization, transition and consolidation. In the transitional phase, civil society groups are supposed to act in a neutral manner by forming domestic observation groups. This is to ensure that the means of transition (commonly elections) is free and fair, educate the public, ensure public communication and prevents electoral fraud (Gilley, 2017).

In Africa for instance, the AU had developed a clear and effective framework for election observation. These election observations have allowed for the institutionalization of its mandate and the increased professionalization and standardization of its procedures and methodologies in matters of electoral observation. Since the 1990s, the OAU and then the AU have observed close to 250 elections in a majority of the 54 AU member states. Building on the broad overview of the legal and institutional framework of the AU electoral observation and assistance instruments (AU, 2014).

Since 2008, following the absence of any invitation to observe the 2007 elections in Kenya, the AU has taken unprecedented steps to observe elections even when not invited. This must be acknowledged as fundamental progress in the AU's practice of election observation (Mutua, 2014). The decision to observe elections without an invitation to do so from the host country must be seen as an extremely positive development as it underlines a strong commitment by the AU to be the driver of democratic change on the continent. In addition, ensuring the observation of all elections held by its member states reinforces the role of the AU in promoting and protecting the integrity of elections at the regional level.

African Union election observation is presently seen as a mechanism within Africa that can exercise powerful influence for the establishment of democratic governments. Electoral observation and assistance are tangible and visible tools for the implementation of the commitments to democratization. At its creation, commitments that distinguish the AU from its predecessor the OAU, which was often criticized for its weakness in monitoring human rights and good governance. The AU took stock of the failures of the OAU and adopted an increasingly

interventionist stance through its legal frameworks and institutions, moving from a noninterventionist stance to an open non-indifference approach (Mutua, 2014).

In contrast, the AU's Constitutive Act announced a paradigm change toward shared responsibility for issues relating to national and individual security. Election observers within the AU body witness elections whether they are invited or not and simultaneously report on such elections, which makes them accountable to the local electorate (AU, 2014). The effective work of domestic election observers can again support the consolidation of democracy, which in the minimalist definition entails a democratic transition from one regime to another.

He however bemoans attitude of civil society after consolidation since they become relaxed in their activities, their leaders are co-opted by the state and that coalitions formed during the transition period soon disintegrate after consolidation. Thus, this study would help to find ways of making civil society coalitions effective and vibrant even after the consolidation phase since there are many ways in which they can collectively work to enhance the democracy they have gained in the state (United Nations, 2014).

Across the world, elections are sometimes marred by various types of malfeasance which include electoral fraud. It is estimated that close to 20 percent of elections experiences so much fraud or intimidation that the outcome is affected (Jinadu, 2014). The major problems of election integrity in some countries elections across the world were between 1980 and 2004. Election fraud is common and it is often serious as this affects the stability of a country. The deployment of election observers is one major response meant to enhance the integrity of elections in both developing and developed countries.

Support for observer missions is a central aspect of democracy-promotion efforts by international and domestic actors in countries with new or fragile electoral institutions (Jinadu, 2014). It is estimated that approximately 80 percent of elections that took place around the world in 2006 for instance were monitored by observers.

The main rationale for their deployment is that they are believed to be able to prevent or reduce electoral irregularities (Democracy and Elections, 2014). Susanne (2014) points out that any election can be enhanced by observation, but comprehensive observation is particularly helpful in countries in which a significant proportion of the population may lack trust in the electoral system.

Post-conflict countries are among the best examples of this, but the same may be true of countries holding their first democratic elections, new democracies that have held very few elections, countries with weak human rights records, or countries with extremely strong executive powers and long-time rulers. AU (2014) affirms that, it is a good practice for all countries to welcome international and domestic observers. The hypothesis tested here is; observer participation has no role in Electoral process in Kenya.

2.4.4 Civil Society Participation

In his 2014 article *Civil Society, Democracy and Elections*, Gilley discusses how the Indonesian example can show how civil society can support the promotion of democracy through elections. Strong civil societies, in his opinion, support stable democracies. They foster the political environment necessary for democracy to flourish by ensuring free and fair elections and then holding the winners accountable for upholding good governance norms (Gilley, 2017).

Indonesia has experienced four peaceful electoral transitions and Gilley believes this feat is made possible due to the presence of an active and organized civil society. Their score on the Freedom House political and civil liberties index is 6 in 2007 (with 7 being the worst) to 2.5 in 2009 (Gilley, 2017). Thus, the role played by civil society groups like the Democracy Forum, the University Presidents' Forum and the University Network for Free and Fair elections helps ensure fair elections through their activities including observation of the whole Electoral process.

The concept of civil society according to liberals like Diamond in his work, *Developing Democracy*, Susanne (2014) defined the term as ‘as the realm of organized social life that is open, voluntary, self-generating, at least partially self-supporting, autonomous from the state and bound by a legal order or a set of shared rules. Civil society is an intermediary phenomenon between the private and sphere and the state. He went further to describe what civil society is and what it is not; actors in civil society recognize the principles of state authority and the rule of law. Accordingly, civil society is concerned with public ends, it relates with the state but does not seek to win control over or position within the state, it encompasses pluralism, diversity and does not seek to represent the complete set of interests of a person or a community. It should therefore be distinguished from the more clearly democracy-enhancing phenomenon of civic community (Susanne, 2014).

According to the United Nations ,election observation is Declared as the systematic, comprehensive and accurate gathering of information concerning the laws, processes and institutions related to the conduct of elections and other factors concerning the overall electoral environment; the impartial and professional analysis of such information; and the drawing of conclusions about the character of Electoral process is based on the highest standards for accuracy of information and impartiality of analysis (United Nations, 2014). Many international election monitoring organizations claim to do more than just observe. Their presence is meant to prevent electoral fraud and help create a freer and fairer election (Jinadu, 2014). Past literature has argued that the presence of election monitoring organizations does in fact have an effect on the confidence of opposition parties. Opposition parties sometimes choose to boycott an election in order to delegitimize it in the eyes of the international community.

The fundamental role of civil society in an electoral process which often takes the form of support for election institutional processes as well as the more substantive development of a democratic space in a country (Susanne, 2014). Civil society does, however, have a role to play in reducing election-related conflict dynamics and promoting a peaceful electoral environment. They in many occasions have been

recognized to have had a significant role in promoting peace as it is less controlled by mandates that are able to talk to several stakeholders without losing credibility, and at the same time are able to deal directly with the people in the ground through provision of civic education (Daxecker, 2014).

Likewise, civil society organizations have also other recognized roles to play with regard to election conflict dynamics. They promote peace, reconciliation and coexistence as well as social justice and the development of democratic institutions through observation of elections and giving recommendations and giving advisory to electoral bodies charged with conducting elections. According to Jinadu, (2014), operating within civil society organization represents citizens' interests by challenging the state's power by various means, such as providing alternative services that may compete with or supplement the services of the state and challenging state policies through advocacy and constituency mobilization.

Like non-governmental organizations, they are able to create social and cultural capital through the power of association and network building. Daxecker (2014) argues that the presence of international monitors could increase boycotts by endorsing unfair elections knowingly or because governments simply hide their corruption and cheating more carefully in their presence. According to AU (2014) on Kenya's 2013 General Elections, the African Union (AU) deployed an election observation mission in Kenya from 24 February to 9 March 2013. The Mission comprised 69 observers drawn from 29 Countries across Africa.

The AU observed the Kenyan elections in accordance with AU Instruments namely; Durban Declaration on the Principles Governing Democratic Elections in Africa; The African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance, which came to force on 15 February 2012; and the African Union Guidelines for Elections Observation and Monitoring programs.

Accordingly, the African Union report assessed various aspects of the Electoral process focusing on pre- voting day and the immediate post-election period.

Overall, the AU expressed satisfaction with the conduct of 2013 elections in Kenya and concluded that the elections were a reflection of the will and aspirations of the Kenyan voters (Oloo, 2016). The AU assessment of the Kenyan 2013 elections is not without shortcomings. While acknowledging improvements on the legal framework, the AU failed to critically examine the law in relation to credible election and constitutional liberalism. With regard to electoral administration, its conclusion that the IEBC is largely prepared to conduct successful elections is not in tandem with logistical challenges that the IEBC experienced on voting day particularly with technological failures. The European Union (EU) Elections Mission to Kenya is deployed weeks to the general elections. Indeed, over the last decade, the EU has distinguished itself as an objective and impartial observer of elections throughout the world (Susanne, 2014).

The EU Mission comprised of 65 Observers from the EU Member States were deployed between January and April 2013. The Mission observed the critical election phases and noted improvement and shortcomings in the various stages of Electoral process in Kenya. For the purposes of this study, the EU report is relevant on three main areas; the legal and constitutional framework for elections; the conduct of IEBC and election management and the Electoral Dispute Resolution (EDR). The Mission also noted the transformative nature of the new laws and the potential for securing credible elections (Mutua, 2015). The EU however pointed out that the statutory amendments by parliament enacted shortly before the elections had substantial impact on the overall conduct of the elections. The Mission further noted the ambitious nature of the new legal framework especially with regard to holding six elections at the same time (Jinadu, 2014).

While the Mission appreciated the relevance of technology in enhancing the transparency of the Electoral process, the Mission decried massive failures of the Biometric Voter Registers (BVR), Electronic Voter Identification Devices (EVIDs) among others. The Mission recommended that appropriate technology should be considered and deployed well in advance. On Election Dispute Resolution (EDR), the Mission acknowledged the efforts used to reform the Judiciary and expressed

satisfaction with dispute resolution mechanisms in Kenya. However, the Mission observed that the legislative framework for pre- election dispute in Kenya is extensive but complex and involves multiple channels for complaints and appeals on electoral issues (Lumumba, 2014). On the whole, the EU report is very detailed. However, the Mission while noting problems with the IEBC, failed to make recommendations of structural and institutional nature that could enhance election administration in Kenya.

Mutua (2015) notes that civil society advances democracy in two ways: by helping to generate a transition from authoritarian rule to electoral democracy and by deepening and consolidating democracy once it is established. A democracy-building function of civil society is to supplement the role of political parties in stimulating political participation, increasing the political efficacy and skill of democratic citizens. It does not show how civil society can increase political participation especially during elections. This variable tested hypothesis here is: Civil society participation has no role in Electoral process in Kenya.

2.4.5 Constitutional Framework

The constitution of a country refers to the written supreme law by which all other laws and rules of that country must comply. It defines the main rights and responsibilities of the state, the various institutions that make up the state and, in some cases, those of citizens (Diamond, 2015). A constitution is generally more difficult to adopt, amend or revoke, as it requires some form of special approval process that includes a specifically created assembly, a referendum or a super majority within a country. Constitutions regularly include some definition of the role and responsibilities of an institution that is elected or appointed to pass legislation and represent the interests of citizens and in this case parliament in Kenya.

According to Bertelsmam (2014), the starting point for unpacking the correlation between elections, democracy and constitutionalism is by reference to the now acclaimed article by Fareed Zakaria, "The Rise of Illiberal Democracy". The illiberal

democracy theory emerged partly in response to the imperfections of liberal democracy. To draw a distinction between liberal and illiberal democracy. Democracy is a political system marked not only by free and fair elections, the rule of law, separation of powers, and the protection of basic liberties of speech, assembly, religion, and property. By definitions, illiberal democracy denotes a governing system in which although fairly free elections take place, citizens are cut off from real power due to the lack of civil liberties (Ngunyi, 2014). This may be because a constitution limiting government power exists but its liberties are ignored, or to the simple absence of an adequate legal and constitutional framework of liberties.

While elections are synonymous with democracy, the fundamental rights and freedoms that form the cornerstone of sound democratic dispensation fall under Constitutional Liberalism (Diamond, 2015). Democracy and constitutional liberalism are inextricably linked and are mutually reinforcing, illiberal democracy theorists contend that the two concepts do not necessarily go hand in hand. The point of departure between democracy and constitutional liberalism is succinctly captured thus; today the two strands of liberal democracy, interwoven in the western political fabric, are coming apart in the rest of the world. Democracy is flourishing constitutional liberalism is not.

According to Jinadu, (2014) constitutional liberalism has led to democracy and democracy does not seem to bring constitutional liberalism. From the foregoing, it is clear that consolidation of democracy mirrors a pendulum with countries swinging between liberal democracy, semi democracy, and liberal autocracy. In Latin America 10 out of 22 countries have human rights abuses incompatible with the consolidation of liberal democracy. In some African countries, democracy is understood to mean elections and whereas many countries have held periodic multi- party elections since 1990 consolidation of liberal democratic ideals remain a pipe dream (Jinadu, 2014). There are two additional distinctions; absolute sovereignty and ethnic conflict and war. Absolute sovereignty concern itself with centralization and accumulation of power.

The central difference between the two concepts with regard to handling of power is that constitutional liberalism is about the limitation of power, while democracy is about its accumulation and use. This obsession with power accumulation, referred to by Tocqueville as „Tyranny of the Majority“ which implies centralization of power by employing extra constitutional means which often lead to disaster (Kibwana, 2015). Within the context of elections, centralization of power manifests itself through the desire to control Electoral Process Bodies as a prerequisite to accessing and accumulating power.

Despite elaborate fusion of liberal democracy and constitutional liberalism in the Kenyan constitution for example, the goal of securing a credible and transparent elections in 2013 is largely unmet and compliance with the constitutional liberalism anchored in the Bill of Rights Chapter is still a pipe dream (Mutunga, 2015). There is a useful reference to periodic multi-party elections as a means of selecting governments.

Regrettably, the role of Election Management Bodies (EMBs) in procuring quality electoral process is not examined. Admittedly, while elections remain an important element of democracy, the obsession with the numbers (quantitative) as opposed to the quality of those elections is not addressed. Given the significance of elections to democracy, it is this author’s contention that the process of electing leaders and the body charged with that responsibility must comply with certain qualitative requirements that eventually confer legitimacy to the outcome (Kibwana, 2015). Mutunga (2015) posit that the Constitution of Kenya 2010 contains far reaching reforms of electoral democracy in Kenya. First the Constitution is normative and inherently post-liberal in its architecture. It declares Kenya’s republic based on sovereignty of the people exercised in accordance with the Constitution. It sets out the values and principles of governance and a progressive Bill of Rights.

Ongaro & Ambani (2015), Governance and exercise of public authority is tied to a rights-based agenda. Article 81 reinforces the normative agenda by setting out the general principles that governs the electoral system and representation. The

Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission Act, 2011 restates and expounds on the functions of the IEBC. Ongaro & Ambani (2015), the Elections Act is the main operational legislation on the performance of elections. It consolidates the former legislative provisions and provide in an elaborate fashion the procedure and processes associated with voter registration; nominations, elections, referendum, election offences and election dispute resolutions.

The Elections Act vests the powers to manage the elections on the IEBC (Lumumba 2015). Ngunyi (2014), The Act provides for registration of voters and the determination of questions relating to registration of voters; the nomination and election of the president, members of parliament, the governors and county assembly representatives; nomination of party lists members envisaged under Article 90 of the Constitution, recall of elected members of parliament; conduct of referendum; election offenses; and resolution of election.

The first is the conferment of the sovereign power to Kenyans, and the explicit provision that sovereignty can be exercised directly or through freely chosen representatives. Secondly constitutionalizing of fundamental rights and freedoms that form an integral part of the democratic process including political rights (Mutua, 2015). The Constitution of Kenya 2010 provides the legal basis for the IEBC. Article 88 provides for the establishment and functions of the IEBC. Article 89 outlines the process and criteria for boundaries delimitation. Articles 248-254 provide common provisions designed to protect the independence of independent commissions. (Mutunga, 2015).

The legal framework therefore reflects particular indifference in according the IEBC full financial autonomy. Section 17 of the IEBC Act provides for funds of the Commission to consist of: monies allocated by Parliament for purposes of the Commission; any grants, gifts, donations or other endowments given to the Commission (Kibwana, 2015). According to Lumumba (2014), the legal and legislative framework of elections and election management in Kenya can be found

principally in five laws; The Constitution of Kenya 2010, the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission Act 2011, the Elections Act 2011.

Others are the Political Parties Act 2011 and the Elections Campaign Finance Act 2013. As the Supreme Law of the land, the Constitution of Kenya 2010 is the most important law that governs performance of elections and election management in Kenya, Mutunga (2015). The Constitution devotes substantial chapters to deal with elections and establishes elective offices and institutions that have a direct role in the performance of elections, (Mutua (2016). The transformative aspect of elections with regard to performance of elections emanates from two salient features.

According to Mutua (2016) dispute resolution refers to the process of resolving differences between different parties. Dispute resolution requires special techniques to assist in the determination of resentments of disputes between parties that can include citizens, corporations, and governments. In most countries, the legal systems provide resolutions for many different types of disputes. Some disputants do not reach agreement through a collaborative process. Some disputes need the coercive power of the state to enforce a resolution. Perhaps more importantly, many people want a professional advocate when they become involved in a dispute, particularly if the dispute involves perceived legal rights, legal wrongdoing, or threat of legal action against them (Oloo, 2016).

Dispute resolution is important to the society as it helps bring down societal tempers. This in turn helps arrest any potential damage associated with conflicts existing within the society. It is a fact that disputes are damaging, expensive, and time consuming. They affect individuals, communities, organizations, government, and the economy. Preventing disputes, and resolving disputes earlier and more effectively, can benefit the country and the economy in general (Lumumba, 2016).

The Constitution of Kenya 2010 contains far reaching reforms of electoral democracy in Kenya. First the Constitution is normative and inherently post-liberal in its architecture. It declares Kenya's republic based on sovereignty of the people

exercised in accordance with the Constitution. It sets out the values and principles of governance and a progressive Bill of Rights. Governance and exercise of public authority is tied to a rights-based agenda. Article 81 reinforces the normative agenda by setting out the general principles that governs the electoral system and representation (Mutua, 2016). The legal and legislative framework of elections and election management in Kenya can be found principally in five laws.

These are the Constitution of Kenya (2010), the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission Act (2011), the Elections Act (2011), the Political Parties Act (2011) and the recently enacted Elections Campaign Finance Act (2013). As the Supreme Law of the land, the Constitution of Kenya 2010 is the most important law that governs performance of elections and election management in Kenya. The Constitution devotes substantial chapters to deal with elections and establishes elective offices and institutions that have a direct role in the performance of elections. The transformative aspect of elections with regard to performance of elections emanates from two salient features.

The first is the conferment of the sovereign power to Kenyans, and the explicit provision that sovereignty can be exercised directly or through freely chosen representatives and secondly constitutionalizing of fundamental rights and freedoms that form an integral part of the democratic process including political rights (Oloo, 2016). The foregoing is augmented by provisions on Constitutional Values and Principles, as well as a Chapter on Leadership and Integrity. The Constitutional basis for election in Kenya must of essence take into consideration the provisions in Article 1 (5-6) with regard to the incorporation of the general rules of international laws (Article 5) and the application of treaties and conventions that Kenya has ratified (Article 6).

The Constitution of Kenya 2010 provides the legal basis for the IEBC. Article 88 provides for the establishment and functions of the IEBC. Article 89 outlines the process and criteria for boundaries delimitation. Articles 248-254 provide common provisions designed to protect the independence of independent commissions. Under

Article 248 Commissions are not expected to act under the direction of any person or authority (Mutua, 2016). IEBC Commissioners are appointed for a fixed single term of 6 years. The IEBC Act provides for the manner of appointment, the establishment of the offices, financial provisions and the conduct of commissioners and officials. The Commissioners are full time Commissioners inevitably bringing into question whether they are policy oversight organ or executive. Commissioners are organized into committees which oversee various aspects of the operational and technical aspects of election planning and management. Commissioners are also assigned regions which they oversee (Lumumba, 2016). This arrangement is comparable to the organizational culture established by the ECK.

The legal framework therefore reflects particular indifference in according the IEBC full financial autonomy. Section 17 of the IEBC Act provides for funds of the Commission to consist of: monies allocated by Parliament for purposes of the Commission; any grants, gifts, donations or other endowments given to the Commission. Such funds as may vest in or accrue to the Commission in the performance of its functions under this Act or under any other written law Section 18 of the Act establish the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission Fund which shall be administered by the Commission Secretary.

The functions of the IEBC are set out under Article 88(4) of the Constitution (AU, 2014). These include: the voter registration and revision of the voter's roll; delimitation of electoral boundaries; regulation of party nomination; settlement of electoral disputes except election petitions; registration of candidates for election; voter education; facilitation of election observation, monitoring and evaluation; regulation of campaign expenditures; developing party codes of conduct; and monitoring compliance with election law. This function expands and clarifies the functions contained under Articles 41 and 42 of the former Constitution. The Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission Act, 2011 restates and expounds on the functions of the IEBC.

The Elections Act is the main operational legislation on the performance of elections. It consolidates the former legislative provisions and provide in an elaborate fashion the procedure and processes associated with voter registration; nominations, elections, referendum, election offences and election dispute resolutions (Lumumba, 2016). The Elections Act vests the powers to manage the elections on the IEBC.

The Act provides for registration of voters and the determination of questions relating to registration of voters; the nomination and election of the president, members of parliament, the governors and county assembly representatives; nomination of party lists members envisaged under Article 90 of the Constitution. It also envisions recall of elected members of parliament; conduct of referendum; election offences; and resolution of election.

Accordingly, such funds as may vest in or accrue to the Commission in the performance of its functions under this Act or under any other written law Section 18 of the Act establish the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission Fund which shall be administered by the Commission Secretary. Lumumba (2016), the functions of the IEBC are set out under Article 88(4) of the Constitution. These include: the voter registration and revision of the voter's roll; delimitation of electoral boundaries; regulation of party nomination; settlement of electoral disputes except election petitions; registration of candidates for election; voter education; facilitation of election observation, monitoring and evaluation; regulation of campaign expenditures; developing party codes of conduct; and monitoring compliance with election law. Mutunga (2015) asserts this function expands and clarifies the functions contained under Articles 41 and 42 of the former Constitution.

This section is fundamental to this study as intends to assess the role of the constitutional framework in Electoral Process in Kenya.

2.4.6 Electoral process

The professionalization of electoral processes has been defined as an important policy objective AU (2014). Electoral process encompasses the practical and administrative aspects of elections including the composition of the performance of elections bodies.

According to the electoral Knowledge Network (EKN), the complexity and specialist skills necessary for performance of elections require that an institution or institutions be responsible for electoral activities with a set of activities arranged in a cyclic supportive and complimenting manner. As described by the International Institute for Democracy Assistance (IDEA), the electoral cycle is the step-by-step process that begins with the promulgation of electoral laws and includes processes such as the delimitation of constituencies, voter registration, and procurement of electoral materials, party nominations, campaigns, Election Day activities, voter transmission and the resolution of election disputes arising (Van Ham & Staffan, 2015).

The term Electoral process has been coined to refer to the process responsible for conducting successful elections, regardless of the wider institutional framework in place (Catt & Wolf, 2014). Electoral process depends on an electoral body that has the sole purpose of, and is legally responsible for, managing some or all of the elements that are essential for the conduct of elections and direct democracy instruments such as referendums, citizens' initiatives and recall votes if those are part of the legal framework. EMBs come in many different organizational forms around the world. (Alistair, 2014).

Bazeley (2015), points out that at the same time, there has been considerable variation in the quality of elections. Alongside many well-run elections, which often use technology, resources and personnel innovatively and efficiently, there are often concerns about administrative problems, technological failures, incomplete electoral registers and opportunities for fraud. This variation is found in both established and

transitional democracies (Norris 2014). In most countries, these independent Electoral Bodies (EMBs) have been championed as a key institutional reform measure to successfully strengthen election integrity, and as a result independent EMBs are now the most common institutional model for Electoral process in the world (Catt, 2014). Accordingly, such bodies have a variety of shapes and sizes, with a wide range of titles to match, such as Election Commission, Department of Elections, Electoral Council, Election Unit or Electoral Board. (Van Ham & Staffan, 2015).

The study examines the role of the independent variables; media participation, citizen participation, civil society and election observers on the dependent variable Electoral process through appropriate observation and performance measures for objective analysis. The measure of Electoral process is limited to electoral process indicators that would include results transmission, and voter registration, and voter sensitization. The use of management indicators has been used in past studies to examine electoral process (James 2014). Whichever model is chosen, all EMBs should demonstrate fearless independence in the sense that they are not affected by governmental, political or other partisan influences in their decisions. Experts on elections rightly regard securing and safeguarding EMB independence as a priority for democratic transitions. Studies have shown that independent and professional EMBs that are free from government control offer a much greater chance of successful elections (Freezell, 2017). The study of Electoral process in this section is that it assists the researcher to learn from existing literature on how to conduct successful elections in Kenya.

2.5 Empirical Literature Review

The section identifies and discusses past studies on the role of stakeholder participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. In an attempt to identify the existing gaps in literature relevant to the study,

A study by Van Ham & Staffan (2015) on Electoral process reviewed that organizations have a responsibility to provide an enabling environment and resources for effective electoral process. Countries have therefore a definite organ of reconciliation and integration. These organs are mandated to come up with organs for national cohesion, unity and healing and laying the foundation for a society occasioned by mutual respect. Political tolerant and development has to come through the relevant constitutional setups. This means the end result is meant to develop and a good mechanism which can address the culture of impunity during an electoral process.

Oloo (2016) did a study on systems of political parties funding, he found out that funding has an adverse effect of continuously marginalizing the smaller parties. Funding of electoral parties who do not appropriately make effective use of resources, should receive sanctions which include being isolated from funds allocation. The guidelines also direct that future state funding to political parties is likely to benefit the larger parties, as the amount of funds given to them were based on their share of the total votes in their previous elections

A study by Mutunga, (2015) on Electoral process he found out that Several countries in Africa for example have addressed the issue of funding of political parties in their national assembly electoral acts since a decade ago whereby political parties receive party funds from the exchequer for their daily operations. In some cases, the political parties are entitled to both party funding and campaign funding from the exchequer. The main difference between the two funding types goes as their names suggest, is that party funding finances the day to day running of each political party. While campaign funding exclusively for the financing of activities that are in relation to campaigning during elections

2.6 Critique of the existing Literature

As Dolezal, (2016) observes, people are eager to join the plethora of electoral malpractices without realizing that it is they who is victims of bad government

resulting from involvement in electoral fraud. Freezell (2017) argues that 43% of our population is still illiterate, a rather large group which requires the special attention of the media. For this group, it is necessary that every electoral information be repeatedly disseminated and in the local languages too. This is why the media must go beyond the mere dissemination of information and engage in political education. For example, the study argued that it is necessary to educate non-voting population on why they cannot vote instead of scaring them with numerous penalties for breaching the electoral law.

As for the voting population, voter education programs must be user friendly, especially for the disadvantaged groups like the non-literate and physically incapacitated. Dolezal, (2016) in his study of role of observers in an election demonstrated that the presence of international monitors that are known to be more reputable or strict is associated with a lower likelihood of boycotts. Depending on the opposition parties' perceptions of the election monitoring organizations that have been invited by the incumbent government, they may decide not to boycott the election because they feel more confident in the quality of the upcoming election. This study establishes the possible role of stakeholder participation in Electoral Process that monitoring organizations may have, on the confidence of the general public and not just opposition parties.

The challenges posed by managing elections in transition democracy countries, brought with it domestic and international interest in observing and monitoring elections (Mutunga, 2015). In its publication the National Democratic Institute (NDI 2020), handbook on how Organizations Observe Elections an A-to-Z Guide, NDI documented a comparative study on 75 countries the Institute had conducted and observed elections. The publication also benefitted from analysis of other election observer reports in different parts of the world. According to NDI, the rationale for conducting election observation mission is premised on International Obligation that affirms fundamental rights and freedoms.

The basis of the handbook is traceable to the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (UDHR) and the recognition that performance of elections is an actualization of fundamental rights and freedoms (AU, 2014). The NDI publication provides a comprehensive analysis and guide on how domestic and international organizations can mount effective observation throughout the performance of elections. According to NDI, election observation enhances the conduct of the performance of elections by among other things; boost public confidence in the elections, provides deterrence on election fraud, contribute to democracy consolidation and mitigate electoral disputes.

In a bid to give more powers to the Election commission, the Elections Act 2012 introduced two more provisions that is a departure from the previous dispensation (AU, 2014). These are the prosecutorial powers of the IEBC with respect to Election Offences and the enforcement of the Election Code of Conduct. In enforcing the Code, the Commission can issue a formal warning, disqualify a candidate or a political party from contesting the elections and may ban a candidate or a political party from contesting subsequent elections.

Political Parties Act, 2011 is also a major law governing elections in Kenya. The Act deals mainly with the regulations and funding of political and is therefore not important for the purposes of this research (Mutunga, 2015). The Campaign Finance Act, 2013 implements Article 88(4) (i) of the Constitution by providing a framework for the regulation of amount of money that may be used by candidates in an election. The Act provides for the powers of the IEBC, obligations of political parties and candidates, regulation of contributions and expenditures, disclosure and resolution of disputes. While this legislation is not enacted in time for the 2013 and 2017 General Elections, it is expected to provide a new dimension of electoral reform in the run up to the 2017 and 2022 General Elections.

2.7 Research Gap

Stakeholder participation in Electoral process has been an area with little attention including civil society. Most Governments not offer support to other players such as

observers and monitors but only do so to those perceived to be pro system (Abel 2008). There is scarce literature or analysis relating to the system for election management and administration in the colonial period. Greater focus in this period had tended to disproportionately analyses the restriction of franchise, limits on political rights including controls of political parties or outright discrimination of the electoral system. (Mutua, 2015). In Kenya, prior to 2013, General Elections were administered by the supervisor of elections, an office under the executive branch of government who is a civil servant supported by other public officials mainly drawn from the provincial administration.

This meant that the independence and impartiality that ought to be exercised in performance of elections could not be realized (Oloo, 2016). This has some in respect to financial autonomy; IEBC is a victim of fate, imprudence by its predecessors and itself. Prior to the Kriegler Commission it had been argued by many policy activists and observers that the full budget of the Commission should be a charge on the consolidated fund and not subject to review by the Treasury or Parliament.

The objective is to insulate elections budgeting from partisan debate in parliament or cabinet as a means to reinforce the independence of the Electoral Commission. The Kriegler Commission however made findings of significant unaccountable management of funds by the ECK and reserved an unequivocal recommendation in this for full financial autonomy. The report further recommended expanded avenues for stakeholder participation through increased freedoms for institutions such as Media, Political parties, Observer missions both local and international, all with an aim of ensuring the management of elections in the country meets certain international norms and standards.

2.8 Summary

The chapter looked into the theories supporting the research topic, the concept behind election process, previous studies done on the research area, a critical review of the studies done and the gaps that the studies done have not addressed. In summary a broad-based participation of stakeholders in electoral matters is an imperative component in democratization process. Every entity should be able to express itself in the public sphere and feel that its identity is respected and should appreciate that they all have a stake in the Governance of their affairs. People centered decision making process should find its way to the way men and women are mandated to manage the existing resources in the country through competitive and periodic elections. The most suitable way of addressing this is by laying the electoral fiber capable of warranting fairness in representation through fundamental universal suffrage.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The Chapter captures the methods and all the procedures that were applied in conducting this study. It explains the research design, the target population, sampling frame/design and size, the data collection methods and the procedures of analyzing the data that is collected from the field. It presents the methodological concerns to be used in conducting this research and provides a justification for each step taken. It also involves a summary of statistical measurement methods, validity, reliability and hypothesis testing.

3.2 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy refers to the basis of information and the landscape that knowledge has fundamental assumptions on how researchers view the world (Sekaran, 2015). According to Kothari (2014), research philosophy relates to the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge. It contains several assumptions which include; ontology which is concerned with nature of reality, axiology which studies judgments about value, objectivism which represents the position that social entities exist in reality external to social actors, epistemology which concerns what constitutes acceptable knowledge in a field of study, positivism adopts the philosophical stance of the natural scientist and realism which relates to scientific enquiry.

Epistemology attempts to answer the basic question on what distinguishes true knowledge from the inadequate one. It is concerned with determination with scenery of information and relevant degree of human knowledge (Young, 2016). In epistemology, there exist various paradigms such as ontology, realism, positivist and phenomenological paradigms, but the main paradigms that serve as guideline to

research in the field of social science are the phenomenological and positivist paradigms.

Bryman and Bell (2015) believe that positivist research paradigm adopts the quantitative approach and it always bases its information on real facts, neutrality, has objectivity and contains measurement of validity of results. The results of positivism specifically lie with the empiricism that it's all factual knowledge is based on positive information acquired from observable experiences and only analytic statements are allowed to determine the truth through reason only. Positivism maintains that knowledge has to be based on facts and not from abstractions and this there believes that knowledge is predicated on observations and experiments based on existing theories (Orodho & Mugireza, 2016). According to Young (2016) observe that positivism describes the research task as entailing the collection of data upon which to base generalizable propositions that is tested. By adopting a positivist approach, the researcher assumes that the research concepts are phenomena with known properties or dimensions and is measured with standard instrument.

This approach assumed that reality was multiple subjective and mentally constructed by individual persons. The use of flexible and multiple methods is desirable as a way of studying a small sample in depth over time that can establish warranted, assert ability as opposed to absolute truth (Kothari, 2014). This study adopted the foregoing beliefs and practices, they were appropriate to assert that a predominantly positive framework was followed.

3.3 Research Design

Research design is an arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure (Kothari, 2014). Bryman and Bell, (2015) defines research design as a roadmap one uses in answering the research questions. Orodho and Mugireza (2016) assert that a research design is the arrangement of all conditions that affect research. Research design is the blueprint that enables the researcher to come up with solutions

to problems and guides him in the various stages of the research. The purpose of a research design therefore is to ensure that the evidence obtained enables the researcher to effectively address the research problem logically and as unambiguously as possible. Sekaran (2015) sees a research design as the logical sequence that links the empirical data to a study's initial research questions and as such the study design discourages the situation in which the evidence was disconnected from the initial question for the research.

The study adopted a quantitative approach of both descriptive and correlation design. The design suits the study since they enable the researcher to examine the role of performance of elections on the political stability in Kenya. In addition, the design provides an insight of electoral processes with without altering the research context and at the same time ensures that the data collection procedures are fairly explicit in terms of adequately addressing the study objectives. Quantitative data was captured through the use of a questionnaire. The variables were measured with numbers and analyzed with statistical procedures so as to determine whether the prognostic overviews hold true (Sekaran, 2015).

3.4 Target Population

Population refers to the set of entities about which researcher wishes to draw conclusion. It also refers to the entire group of individual's cases or objects having similar observable attributes (Young, 2016). In addition, target population is the collection of individuals to whom the study results apply. According to Cooper and Schidler (2014), population as a collection of all individual persons with specific characteristics and are of interest to research. All these authors see a population as "a universe" that consists of a group of individuals, objects or items from which samples are taken for measurements. Cooper and Schidler (2014) further observed that target population is the total collection of elements about which one wants to make inference on. A study population is the people or individuals that meet the researcher's scope of the study population.

Target population for the study comprised of 519 officials from the main election stakeholders in Kenya. This included 69 IEBC, 37 staff from three Media, 225 Kenyan Voters, 63 Election observers, 114 Civil society organization members (NGOs) and 11 Legal officers who were interviewed (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The choice of these officials was based on the fact that they have vast knowledge of the matters relating to elections in Kenya and are best placed to offer valuable information to the study without bias. This applied to the election observers and the media as have covered many elections and thus was bound to give relevant viewpoints.

Table 3.1: Target Population Distribution

Organization	Target Population	Percent
IEBC	69	13.3
Media	37	7.1
Citizenry	225	43.4
Election Observers	63	12.1
Civil Society(NGO's)	114	22.0
Legal Officers	11	2.1
TOTAL	519	100

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

The section of research addresses the methods of getting the sample size and the sampling technique that was used in the study. In determination of the sample size the researcher discussed and illustrated all the process that were followed to arrive at the reasonable sample size.

3.5.1 Sampling Frame

Sampling frame is a complete and correct technique of all population elements from which the sample is drawn from (Cooper & Schidler, 2014). A sample represents the

selected respondents of a study who should be as closely representative of the total population as possible and should not be excessively large or small. It is a finite and representative number of individuals or objects in a population to be studied (Kothari, 2014). According to Young and Kirkland (2014), sampling frame facilitates formation of a sampling unit that refers to one member of a set of entities being studied which is the material source the random variable or a published list in which a set of direction from identifying a population.

The choice of the sample size was mainly cast on the need for accuracy required by the researcher and the degree of variation (Sekaran, 2015). This made the study units to have 199 participants.

The sampled departments play key roles in electoral matters in their respective organizations and the officers in the said departments are the major drivers of electoral process. To arrive at the required sample size, the researcher used Yamane's (1967) formula to calculate the sample size. A list of the participants from the said organizations were as shown in Table 3.5.

$$n = \frac{N}{(1+Ne^2)}$$

Where:

n = minimum sample size

N = Population

E = precision set at 95% (5% = 0.05)

Hence; $n = 519 / 1 + (519 \times 0.0025)$

n = 199 participants

Table 3.2: Sample Distribution

Organization	Target Population	Sample Size	Percent
IEBC Staff	69	27	13.3
Media	37	14	7.1
Citizens	225	86	43.4
Election Observers	63	24	12.1
Civil Society (NGO's)	114	44	22.0
al Officers	11	4	2.1
Total	519	199	100

3.5.2 Sampling Techniques

The study in this section applied stratified random sampling with proportional allocation method which were used to obtain the sample of the phenomenon to be studied. Stratified random sampling involves stratification or segregation of sampling elements, followed by random selection of the subjects from each stratum (Sekaran, 2015).

The main advantage with stratified sampling is that it captures key population characteristics in the sample list as it is in a weighted average, this method of sampling produces characteristics in the sample that are proportional to the overall population. This means that election stakeholders were stratified based on their functional areas. Sampling frame consisted of officials from the IEBC, Media journalists, citizens, election observer officials, civil society members and legal officers. This study required this technique because it intends to provide either similarities or differences with consideration to the various aspects raised in electoral processes in general.

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

Bryman (2015) asserts that data collection instruments as the tools and procedures to be used in the measurement of variables in research. The current research intends to establish the role of stakeholder participation on performance of elections in Kenya. According to Orodho and Mugiraneza (2016), the most commonly used instruments of data collection are questionnaires, interview schedules, observational forms and standardized tests. This study used structured open and closed ended questionnaires to collect data from staff/officials of various stakeholders dealing with election management.

This enabled the study to balance between the amount of excellence of data collected and at the same time provide more information on election performance. The Likert scale questionnaire was designed in the form of a five- point Likert scale rating. A set of items in the questionnaire addresses each specific objective. This type of questionnaire is ideal for the study because it is easy to administer and analyze. Besides, the targeted respondents are experts in election related matters and highly likely to give accurate information.

Accuracy of the responses further reduces error in the research. Primary data was collected using a questionnaire administered to the Media and selected through stratification. According to Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2014), a questionnaire is a powerful tool to collect primary data since it contains both open ended and closed ended questions with the quantitative section of the instrument utilizing both a nominal and a five Likert-type scale format.

The Likert-type format was selected because it yields equal-interval data, a fact that allows for the use of more powerful statistical statistics to test research variables.

Secondary data was obtained from annual reports of the different election stakeholders like the media, civil society, observers/monitors and the IEBC reports. This was done through reading, analyzing, collecting and recording data contained in

readily prepared materials such as private and public statistical records, records, documents books, newsletters, magazines and journals on the performance of elections. Respondents in this research was required to score appropriate values which corresponds to each statement in the drafted questionnaire

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

According to Cooper and Schindler (2014), data collection is the process of gathering data from a samples o that the research questions can be answered. Data collection is fundamental to a research study as it allows for dissemination of accurate information and developments of meaningful programs. The study used both primary and secondary data to collect data. Primary data was collected using a questionnaire. This questionnaire was developed and prepared by the researcher. These questionnaires were hand delivered to all respondents after the research has applied for a letter of introduction from the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT).

The researcher then then notified the organization sampled so that they give the necessary cooperation and provide respondents for filling the questionnaires. The researcher then administered the questionnaires and guaranteed the subjects that the information collected was only for the purpose of the research and it was to be kept confidential. By doing so the study intended to solicit the full cooperation of the respondents to achieve successful completion of the exercise. The questionnaires were self-administered. Self-administered questionnaires are advantageous in that they cost less than personal interviews and also enable the researcher to contact participants who might otherwise be in accessible (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).Secondary data was collected by way of reading, analyzing, collecting and recording of data found in readily available and prepared information materials which include documents, newsletters, books, public and private statistical records, journals, magazines which talk about electoral process in general. Respondents were notified in advance before administration of the questionnaire.

3.8 Pilot Test

A pilot test is a technique that is adopted to test the design, instrument, methods before conducting the actual research. It involves conducting an initial test, which is the pre-test sample of between (1-10) percent (%) depending on the sample. Accordingly, 10% of the sampled size was sufficient for this pilot study. The pilot study was undertaken to pretest data collection instrument for validity and reliability. According to (Orodho & Mugiraneza 2016) a pilot study is necessary for testing the reliability of data collection instruments. Cooper and Schindler (2014) explain reliability of research as determining whether the research truly measures that it is intended to measure or how truthful the research results are.

The study included a pilot test to pretest and validate the questionnaire. According to Young & Kirkland (2014), a pilot test is necessary for the validity of a study instrument. A pilot test was conducted using questionnaires administered to selected officials and staff members of the various organizations related with the electoral process. A pilot study was thus conducted to detect weakness in design and instrumentation and to provide accurate data for selection of a sample. In the study, the rule of thumb was that 10% of the sample constituted the pilot test. The pretest questionnaires were distributed randomly 10% of the selected officials from election stakeholders who were not part of this study sample during the main study.

3.8.1 Validity of Research Instruments

According to Creswell (2014) validity is the degree by which the sample of test items represents the content the test is designed to measure. Content validity which is employed in the study is a measure of the degree to which data collected using a particular instrument represents a specific domain or content of a particular concept. Young & Kirkland (2014) contend that the usual procedure in assessing the content validity of a measure is to use a professional or expert in a particular field.

According to young (2016), validity is the scope to which the study results is precisely understood and widespread to other populations. It also refers to the level to which research instruments quantify what they are intended to measure.

This study adopted both construct validity and content validity in order to achieve the study objectives. To establish construct validity, the questionnaire was divided into several sections to ensure that each section access information from a specific objective and ensures that the same closely ties to the conceptual framework for the study. To establish instrument validity, the researcher sought the opinions of experts in electoral matters and management specialists especially the researcher's supervisors and lecturers. This facilitated the necessary revision and modification of the research instrument thereby enhancing validity. Furthermore, the study assessed the responses and non-responses per question to determine if there were any technical issues with the questions asked.

3.8.2 Reliability of the Research Instruments

According to Abraham and barker (2014), reliability test is the measure of how relevant the measurement items are to the study. Reliability is the precision and consistency of the results. A reliable instrument provides a similar score when the same test is administered twice or used in a similar group of respondents in the same context (Creswell, 2017). This means that if people answer the same question, the same way on repeated occasions, then this instrument was said to be reliable. In the study, reliability of the research instrument was ensured by having the questions framed correctly without ambiguity and leading questions. Questionnaires were tested on 10% of the sample population to determine their relevance and effectiveness. The reliability of the questionnaires was then measured statistically using Cronbach's alpha. Coefficient of 0.6-0.7 which is within the limits of reliability while a coefficient of 0.8 and above denoted good reliability (Creswell, 2017). Table 3.6 shows the range of Cronbach alpha and their respective strength of association.

Table 3.3: Cronbach alpha decision matrix

Cronbach Alpha Coefficient	Strength of Association
< 0.6	Poor
0.6 > 0.7	Moderate
0.7 > 0.8	Good
0.8 > 0.9	Very Good
0.9	Excellent

3.9 Data Processing and Analysis

Babin and Zikmund (2015), data processing and analysis is the submission of the cognitive to comprehend the data that was collected with the purpose of determining the consistent patterns and giving a summary of relevant details in a given study. Data analysis refers to the examination of e data to be collected and making deductions and inferences which involves uncovering the underlying assumptions. It involves conducting a scrutiny of the acquired information and making inferences. In order to adopt an appropriate model for the study, necessary diagnostic tests was carried out.

This study produced quantitative data. Immediately filled questionnaires were received from respondents, they were coded and checked for completeness and consistency. Data obtained was cleaned and coded, and then SPSS was used for data analysis via quantitative as well as qualitative data analysis. The study collected and analyze primary data, which were keyed on excel table, before being subjected to meaningful analysis through SPSS version 22. The process involved the identification and correcting of errors in the data collected (data cleaning and coding, storing of data in excel form.

Creswell. (2017) asserts that data processing and analysis is the process reading through the questionnaires, developing codes, coding the data, and coming up with

connections between discrete pieces of data. Information was sorted, coded and input through the use of SPSS tool. Descriptive statistics described the mean frequency counts and standard deviation. Pearson's correlation coefficient exploratory examined the relations between the variables under study. Multiple regression scrutinized the results of the inner correlation of the variable and describe the amount of variance.

Linearity was tested using analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine the relationship between independent and dependent variables. Deviation from linearity is > 0.05 , then the relationship between the dependent and independent variables are linearly dependent while if < 0.05 there is no linear relationship (Samuels, 2015). Mwaniki (2015) asserts that identification of multicollinearity in a model is important and is tested by examining both the tolerance and the variance inflation factor (VIF) diagnostic factors. The variance inflation factor measures the impact of multicollinearity among the variable in a regression model. According to Keraro (2014) concludes that even though there is no formal criterion for determining the bottom line of the tolerance value or VIF, tolerance values that are less than 0.1 and VIF greater than 10 roughly indicates significant multicollinearity.

Autocorrelation refers to the correlation between members of a series of observations ordered in time or space (Babin & Zikmund, 2015). A Durbin Watson test was used to detect the presence of autocorrelation between the variable and this produced a value of 1.630. The Durbin Watson statistics ranges in value between 0 and 4 (Young, 2016). A value near 2 indicates non-autocorrelation; a value closer to 0 which indicates positive correlation while a value closer to 4 indicates negative correlation. An autocorrelation test was performed on the sturdy variable and the results obtained were discussed in chapter four of this research.

3.10 Hypotheses Testing

The hypothesis testing was done at 5% level of significance and SPSS was used for this purpose. The data was then presented using frequency distribution tables, bar

charts and pie charts for easy understanding. Regression model was tested on how well it fitted the data. The significance of each independent variable was also tested through Fischer distribution test called F test which applied; which refers to ratio between the model mean square divided by the error mean square. F test was used to test the significance of the overall model at a 95% confidence level. The study tested the linear regression models for each hypothesis of the form,

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta X_i + e$$

Multiple regression models attempt to determine whether a group of variables together can predict a given dependent variable (Hoepfl, 2015). A multiple regression model separates each independent variable from the rest allowing each to have its own coefficient describing its relationship to dependent variable. This model therefore adopted because the study had more than one variable. A multiple linear regression model was also used to test the significance between the independent variables on the dependent variable. The multiple linear regression model was used as shown below:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + X_4 + X_5 + \varepsilon \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Where:

Y = Electoral process (Dependent Variable)

$\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4$, are regression coefficients to be estimated

X₁ = Media participation

X₂ = Citizen Participation

X₃ = Election Observers participation

X₄ = Civil Society participation

ε = Error term

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also be done to establish whether the whole model was a significant fit of the data and therefore formed the test of significance. ANOVA is a data analysis procedure that is used to determine whether there is

significant difference between two or more groups of samples at a selected probability level (Young & Kirkland, 2014). The data was presented using distribution table for easy understanding. The p value for the f statistic was applied in determining the robustness of the model. The conclusion was based on p value where in the null hypothesis of the beta was rejected, and where the overall model was significant the null hypothesis was accepted, the overall model was insignificant. In other words, if the p value was less than 0.05 then it was concluded that the models significant and was good predictors of the dependent variable and the result was not based on chance. If the p value was greater than 0.05, then the model was not significant and was not used to explain the variations in the dependent variable. After moderation the multiple linear regression model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 Z + \beta_2 X_2 Z + \beta_3 X_3 Z + \beta_4 Z + \varepsilon$$

The equation above is the OLS for the relationship between the moderator variable, dependent variable and the independent variables.

Where:

Z = Moderating variable (Constitutional framework)

The decision role summarized in table 3.7 and table 3.8 shows the summary of the analytical models that were employed to test the hypothesis in the study.

H₀₅ Constitutional framework as a stakeholder has no significant moderating role on electoral management in Kenya.

H_{A5} Constitutional framework have a significant moderating role in Electoral Process in Kenya

Table 3.7: Hypothesis Tests (Direct Effects Model)

Hypothesis Statement	Hypothesis Test	Decision Rule
H₀₁ Media participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya	Karl-person's coefficient correlation (ANOVA)- T- Test H ₀₁ : $\beta_{01} = 0$	Reject H ₀₁ of F test If p- value ≤ 0.05 otherwise fail to reject H ₀₁ if p is > 0.05
H_{A1} Media participation plays a significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya		
H₀₂ Citizen Participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.	Karl- Parsons Coefficient correlation (ANOVA) – T- Test H _{A1} : $\beta_{A1} = 0$	Reject H ₀₂ of F test If p- value ≤ 0.05 otherwise fail to reject H ₀₁ if p is > 0.05
H_{A2} Citizen Participation has a significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.		
H₀₃ Election observers have no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.	Karl- Parsons Coefficient correlation (ANOVA) – T- Test H ₀₂ : $\beta_{02} = 0$	Reject H ₀₃ of F test If p- value ≤ 0.05 otherwise fail to reject H ₀₁ if p is > 0.05
H_{A3} Election observers' participation has significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.		
H₀₄ Civil society organization participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.	Karl- Parsons Coefficient correlation (ANOVA) – T- Test H ₀₄ : $\beta_{04} = 0$	Reject H ₀₄ of F test If p- value ≤ 0.05 otherwise fail to reject H ₀₁ if p is > 0.05
H_{A4} Civil society organization participation has a significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.	Karl- Parsons Coefficient correlation (ANOVA) – T- Test H _{A4} : $\beta_{A4} = 0$	
H₀₅ Constitutional framework has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.	Karl- Parsons Coefficient correlation (ANOVA) – T- Test H ₀₅ : $\beta_{05} = 0$	Reject H ₀₅ of F test If p- value ≤ 0.05 otherwise fail to reject H ₀₁ if p is > 0.05
H_{A5} Constitutional framework has a significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya	Karl- Parsons Coefficient correlation (ANOVA) – T- Test H _{A5} : $\beta_{A5} = 0$	

3.10.1 Measure of Variables

In this study the dependent variable was tested using three predictive variables. Correlation analysis was used to determine whether there was a correlation

relationship between the elements and composite of performance of elections in Kenya. Regression analysis was used to investigate the relationship between a set of predictor variables. For the purpose of conducting the analysis of the study, five independent variables were taken into account namely: media participation, Citizen Participation, Election observer's participation, civil society organization participation and constitutional framework. Each of these variables and their sub variables was then used.

Table 3.8: Measurement of the Variables

Variable Type	Variable Name	Sub Variable/Indicators	Measurement Tool	Question naire Item
Independent Variables	Media participation	➤ Election Monitoring	Five-point Likert scale, and sub variables and composite of 13 parts	Section 2
		➤ Election Coverage		
		➤ political debate platforms		
	Citizen Participation	➤ Campaigns	Five-point Likert scale, and sub variables and composite of 8 parts	Section 3
➤ Voting				
Election Observers participation		➤ Monitoring	Five-point Likert scale, and sub variables and composite of 10 parts	Section 4
		➤ Reporting		
Civil Society Organizations participation		➤ Civic education	Five-point Likert scale, and sub variables and composite of 10 parts	Section 5
		➤ Advisory opinions		
		➤ Electoral observation		
Moderating Variable	Constitutional Frameworks	➤ Legal Framework ➤ Dispute resolution	Five-point Likert scale, and sub variables and composite of 10 parts	Section 6
Dependent Variable	Electoral process	➤ Voter registration ➤ Result transmission ➤ Inform electorate	Five-point Likert scale, and sub variables and composite of 3 parts	Section 7

3.11 Diagnostic Testing

Diagnostic tests are guided by mathematical, quantitative models, often overlooking the practitioners' judgment. These quantitative models are important in order to estimate the true, independent (or added) value of a test, just as they are necessary in social studies to estimate the independent association of a particular exposure and the occurrence of a particular outcome (Pemberton & Barber ,2011). Diagnostic refers to the value of a population parameter. The population is so large that it may not be possible to study all the items or persons in the population (WIIG, 2007). Through a diagnostic test based on sampled evidence and probability theory a reasonable statement may be rejected or not (Grant 1997).

According to Mason & Lind (1996), there are five steps in diagnostic testing which include stating null (H_0) and alternative diagnostic (H_1), selecting the level of significance or risk, the test statistics, decision rule and making a decision. According to (Wiig, 2007), 0.05 level of significance is used for consumer research project, 0.01 for quality assurance and 0.10 for political polling. In this case therefore, 0.05 significance level was used since we are establishing the relationship between establish the role of stakeholder participation in electoral process in Kenya.

For a large population that is more than 30, z-test is to be done (Johnson & Scholes, 2002). In this case therefore, a z-test will be adopted.

H_0 : Media participation plays a significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya

H_0 : $\mu=0$

H₁: Media participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya

H₁: $\mu \neq 0$

Level of significance is 0.05 and the test statistic will be z-test where:

$$Z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}}$$

Decision rule: Accept Diagnostic test if $-1.96 \geq z \leq 1.96$

H₁₀: Citizen Participation has a significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.

H₁₀: $\mu = 0$

H₁₁: Citizen Participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.

H₁₁: $\mu \neq 0$

Level of significance is 0.05 and the test statistic will be z-test where:

$$Z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}}$$

Decision rule: Accept Diagnostic test if $-1.96 \geq z \leq 1.96$

H₀: Election observer's participation has a significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.

H₀: $\mu = 0$

H₁: Election observer's participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.

H₁: $\mu \neq 0$

Level of significance is 0.05 and the test statistic will be z-test where:

$$Z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}}$$

Decision rule: Accept diagnostic test if $-1.96 \geq z \leq 1.96$

H₀: Civil society organizations participation has a significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.

H₀: $\mu=0$

H₁: Civil society organizations participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya.

H₁: $\mu \neq 0$

Level of significance is 0.05 and the test statistic will be z-test where;

$$Z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}}$$

Decision rule: Accept diagnostic test if $-1.96 \geq z \leq 1.96$

H₀: Constitutional frameworks have a significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya

H₀: $\mu=0$

H₁: Constitutional frameworks as a stakeholder have no significant role on electoral management in Kenya

H₁: $\mu \neq 0$

Level of significance is 0.05 and the test statistic will be z-test where:

$$Z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}}$$

Decision rule: Accept Diagnostic test if $-1.96 \geq z \leq 1.96$

H₀: Constitutional frameworks have a significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya

H₀: $\mu=0$

H₁: Constitutional frameworks as a stakeholder have no significant role on electoral management in Kenya

H₁: $\mu \neq 0$

Level of significance is 0.05 and the test statistic will be z-test where:

$$Z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}}$$

Decision rule: Accept Diagnostic test if $-1.96 \geq z \leq 1.96$

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents data collected from the field of study. Data in the section was analysed, interpreted and presented in accordance to the research objectives on the role of stakeholder participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. The findings of the study were presented following the research questions as shown in (appendix: I). The general background information of the respondents and their presentations were done in this section. This was followed by a descriptive analysis of the study variables plus inferential statistics. The discussions of findings as well as their implications were also presented in the chapter.

4.2 Response Rate

Response rate in research refers to the number of people who answered the research questions divided by the number of people in the sample. This is normally expressed in the form of a percent (%).

Table 4.1: Response Rate

Response	Frequency	Percent
Returned	173	86
Unreturned	26	14
TOTAL	199	100

The number of questionnaires that were issued to respondents for data collection was 199. The results show that 173 of those questionnaires were duly filled and returned for analysis. This represented a response rate of 86% as presented in figure 4.1. The response rate was considered as an appropriate return rate. This then agrees with Bryman and Bell (2015) who asserts that a return rate of 50% is adequate for

analysis; a 60% return rate is good enough for analysis and above 70% return rate is excellent for analysis.

4.3 Pilot Study Results

The main indicators of the quality of a measuring tool used in the study were the reliability and validity of the measures. This involves the process of developing and validating the research instrument which focused on reducing errors in the measurement process. According to Kothari (2014), reliability estimates evaluate the stability of measures, internal consistency of measurement instruments, and interrater reliability of instrument scores. Validity is therefore the extent to which the interpretations of the result of a test are acceptable depending on the specified use the test anticipates to serve.

4.3.1 Reliability Results

In this section, the study tested the reliability of the questionnaire using Cronbach alpha coefficient. Cronbach alpha coefficient shows how well the items in the questionnaire are positively correlated. Internal consistency here was the most commonly used measure in assessing the research tool and its scales. Cronbach alpha formula was applied to determine the reliability based on internal consistency as this measure was viewed as an extension of the Kuder-Richardson Formula (20 KR-20) used to measure dichotomous items (Kothari, 2014). Cronbach alpha values range between 0 and 1.0. A Cronbach alpha value of 0.9 is most set as the threshold value for reliability. Though a Cronbach Alpha of 0.6 is acceptable when the number of items is less.

The study used four independent variables plus one moderating variable plus the dependent variable. The independent variables included the role of Media participation, role of Citizen participation, role of observer's participation and role of Civil society participation; moderating variable of role of Constitutional framework while the dependent variable was Electoral process. The constructs applied in this study were tested for reliability using Cronbach alpha test and its results were presented in table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Reliability of the Questionnaires

Variable	Cronbach alpha	No of items
Media Participation	0.812	4
Citizen Participation	0.816	4
Observers' Participation	0.817	4
Civil society Participation	0.868	4
Constitutional Frameworks	0.856	4
Electoral Process	0.864	4
TOTAL	0.892	20

In this study, an internal consistency was done using Cronbach's Alpha to measure how well the items were correlated to each other for all the questionnaires issued to different groups of piloted respondents. Zinbarg, (2015) recommends an alpha value of 0.70 and above as an indicator that the data collected has achieved a relatively high internal consistency and can hence be generalized to be representative of the target population. The rule of thumb for Cronbach Alpha is that the closer the alpha is to 1 the higher the reliability (Sekaran, 2010) and a value of at least 0.7 is recommended as shown on table 4.2. The study therefore reported a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.812, 0.816, 0.817 and 0.868 and 0.864 for media participation, citizen participation s, observer's participation, material requirement and electoral management in Kenya. These values were above 0.70 threshold as recommended by Zinbarg, (2015) implying that the data collected had achieved a relatively high level of consistency and could be used for further analysis.

4.3.2 Validity of Research Instrument

The study applied factor analysis and principal component analysis (PCA) to validate data collection. PCA is a variable reduction procedure that aims at decomposing many correlated measurements into a small set of correlated artificial variables called principal components. Factor analysis, on the other hand is a statistical data exploration technique which is used in reducing a set of correlated variables to a

small number of an observed, uncorrelated factors (Cooper &Schindler, 2014). Before proceeding for the field, the data collected from the pilot study was subjected to factor analysis; appropriateness of factor analysis was assessed.

While it is generally agreed that loadings from factor analysis of 0.7 and above are preferable for analysis, Kothari (2014) explains that studies use 0.4 as a realistic measure if they are consistent with the theoretical labels given that 0.7 can be high for real life data to meet this threshold. However, as indicated in the principal component matrices, all the components show a value of above 0.7 and therefore none was dropped. The two tests were performed to ensure that the data was suitable for analysis.

KMO Bartlett's Test was conducted to test sample adequacy for Media before factor analysis was conducted. Factor analysis was necessary in research to test for construct validity and highlight variability among observed variables and to also check for any correlated variables in order to reduce redundancy in data. The findings in table 4.3 indicated that the KMO statistic for media house measures was 0.785 which was significant high; that is greater than the critical level of significant of the test which was set at 0.5 (cite). In addition to the KMO test, the Bartlett's test of Sphericity was also highly significant (chi- square= 239.224 with 45 degrees of freedom at $p < 0.05$). KMO and Bartlett's test results provided an excellent satisfaction for factor analysis to be conducted.

Table 4.3: Factor Analysis KMO and Bartlett

KMO and Bartlett's test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling	Adequacy	0.812
	Approx. Chi-Square	239.224
Bartlett's test of Sphericity	Df	45
	Sig.	.000

4.4 Demographic Characteristics

This section analyses the demographic characteristics of the study respondents. The study sought to establish the role of demographic information in order to find out whether it had any influence on the role of stakeholder participation on electoral management in Kenya. The descriptions of the study responses included gender, age and highest level of education.

4.4.1 Gender of Respondents

In this part, the research sought to find out the gender of the respondent with an intention of confirming whether it had an influence on electoral management in Kenya. This was important for the study as it establishes the level of representation by gender. The responses were tabulated as shown in table 4.4

Table 4.4: Gender distribution of respondents

Gender	Frequency	Valid Percent
Female	102	58.96
Male	71	41.04
Total	173	100.0

The study sought to analyze the gender characteristics of the respondent. A descriptive analysis was presented in the table 4.3. As it indicates, out of 173 respondents who actively participated in this study, 102 (58.96) % were female while 71 (41.04) % were male. The results indicate that there were more female respondents than their male counterparts by (17.92%). This finding implies that Kenyan electorate had adhered to gender rule as stipulated in the United Nations representation guidelines. This gender distribution was expected to accommodate the opinions and views from both sides of the gender divide. This study was dominated by the female which is in line with (UNDP, 2014) who asserted that the most electoral process in developing world is female controlled where male participants in development activities is traditionally looked down upon.

4.4.2 Age of Respondents

The study sought to determine the distribution of age among the study respondents. When the perception of age is widely accepted and incorporated into the general narratives and stories on effects of aging on any electoral process, this perpetuates negative beliefs about one becoming old. This then makes people to reduce physical activity as they age, and it supports the notion that communities should not be concerned about electioneering process. The results on age of respondent were presented as shown in table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Age of Respondents

Age	Frequency	Valid Percent
18-29	93	57.1
30-39	46	28.2
40-49	17	10.4
50-59	7	4.3
Total	173	100.0

The study sought to determine the age of the respondents. Age is considered as an important aspect of people's maturity and in this case election stakeholders in Kenya. The results as presented in table 4.5 indicate that 18 - 29 years 57.1%, 30-39 years 28.2%, 40-39 years constituted 10.4%, those above 50 years 4.3%, the mean was 3.2 indicating that majority of the respondents were aged 18 to 29 years with a standard deviation of 0.721. This standard deviation implies that there were no big variations in the respondents' age.

4.4.3 Level of Education

Education has become a critical aspect of human life. With the highly educated people being considered as drivers of the social, economic and politics of the world. Highly educated people have been tasked to provide direction in the society. For this reason, election stakeholders in Kenya ought to have advanced level of education

considering the nature of work they regularly do. This is because good education enables individuals to have specialized skills which guarantee quality service delivery. The results of level of education were presented as shown in table 4.6

Table 4.6: Level of Education

Education	Frequency	Valid Percent
Primary	1	.5
High School	3	1.7
College	52	30.1
University 1st Degree	84	48.6
University-Post Graduate (masters)	32	18.6
University-Post Graduate (PhD)	1	.5
Total	173	100.0

The targeted groups in this section were all the sampled respondents. The question was answered by a total of 173 respondents. The study established that majority of the respondents that is 84 had University 1st Degree which accounted for (48.6%) followed by college holders who were 52 which accounted for (30.1%). This was followed with 22 University-Post Graduate (masters) which accounted for (18.6%). This was followed by 3 who had High School with (1.7%). Those who had attained University-Post Graduate (PhD) and primary were 1 in each category representing (0.5%) each. From these findings, it was concluded that the majority were educated. However, some levels of education posted less than 1% as shown in Table 4.6

4.5 Descriptive Results

The aim of this study was to establish the role of stakeholder participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. The study analyzed descriptive statistics for the specific objectives of which were; role of Media participation, role of Citizen Participation,

role of election observer's participation, role of the civil society participation and role of constitutional framework in Electoral Process in Kenya. The section therefore presents descriptive results of the sub sections of the study.

4.5.1 Role of Media Participation in Electoral Process.

The first objective was to establish the role of Media participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. Media allows the relay of information from one person to another via radio, mobile phones, television for news updates the internet and email plus newspapers (Lindberg, 2015). The media also acts as a watchdog for accountability of democracy and implementation of manifestos of government thereby creating awareness to the public against any malpractice (Norris, 2015). Respondent opinions was recorded as shown in table 4.7 describes the respondents on the statements used to measure role of Media participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. The study used means and standard deviation in the study analysis

Table 4.7: Role of Media participation

Statements	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	Std dev.
My organization covers matters of elections	30.3%	32.3%	18.3%	11.0%	8.0%	3.52	1.631
Media offers a campaign platform to election candidates	27.9%	26.3%	21.5%	16.3%	8.0%	2.98	1.585
Media involvement in voter education contributes to sound Electoral process	3.4%	23.1%	22.5%	29.9%	31.1%	4.05	1.048
A good media coverage offers equal airtime to all political parties and candidates	5.0%	3.4%	12.3%	34.5%	44.8%	3.68	1.117
Media organization adheres to media council of Kenya code of conduct and regulation	8.6%	31.1%	21.5%	16.1%	22.7%	3.88	1.100
Sensitization on voter rights in Electoral process is a key role of Media participation	15.9%	10.4%	22.7%	27.9%	23.1%	4.54	.883
Allocation of equal amount of time to specific political manifestos is crucial contributor in shaping Electoral process	5.0%	4.6%	9.4%	39.2%	42.8%	3.89	.926
Political opinion can be shaped by media involvement in election matters	9.2%	8.6%	27.9%	23.9%	30.3%	3.96	.972
As long as Media continue to focus too much on elections, other pillars such as economic, social will suffer marginally	13.5%	16.7%	20.3%	21.9%	27.7%	3.92	1.290
Media propaganda is a highly used tool to influence voting patterns	18.3%	25.1%	18.1%	18.3%	20.3%	4.11	1.152
Polling by media gives a snapshot of the ideal election outcome	24.3%	19.1%	29.9%	16.5%	10.3%	3.59	1.143
Media reach is biased as it only covers a few and alienates others	19.5%	15.5%	27.3%	23.1%	14.7%	3.34	1.118
The challenge of ensuring clear media strategy on election coverage is primarily an organization one and depends on strategic leadership	7.0%	12.3%	14.3%	25.1%	41.4%	3.40	1.086

Items that were measured on a five-point Likert-Type scale ranging from a Likert Scale of 5-1; where 5 = very high extent; 4 = high extent, 3 = moderate extent; 2 = low extent and 1 = very low extent. The results in Table 4.7 shows that, 30.3% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that many organizations cover matters of elections, 32.3% had disagreed that many organizations cover matters of elections, 18.3% had somehow agreed that many organizations cover matters of elections, 11.0% had agreed that many organizations cover matters of elections and 8.0% had strongly agreed that many organizations cover matters of elections.

Table 4.7 shows that, 27.9% of the respondents had strongly disagreed with the statement that media offers a campaign platform to election candidates, 26.3% disagreed that media offers a campaign platform to election candidates, 21.5% had somehow agreed that media offers a campaign platform to election candidates 16.3% had agreed that media offers a campaign platform to election candidates while 8% strongly agreed that media offers a campaign platform to election candidates.

Table 4.7 shows that, 3.4% of the 173 respondents had strongly disagreed with the statement that media involvement in voter education contributes to sound Electoral process, 21.1% had disagreed media involvement in voter education contributes to sound Electoral process, 22.5% had somehow agreed that Media involvement in voter education contributes to sound Electoral process, 29.9% had agreed that Media involvement in voter education contributes to sound Electoral process while 31.1% had strongly agreed that Media involvement in voter education contributes to sound Electoral process.

Table 4.7 shows that, 5.0% of the respondents had strongly disagreed good media coverage offers equal airtime to all political parties and candidates, 3.4% had disagreed good media coverage offers equal airtime to all political parties and candidates, 12.3% had somehow agreed that good media coverage offers equal airtime to all political parties and candidates, 33.5% had agreed that good media coverage offers equal airtime to all political parties and candidates while 45.8% had

strongly agreed that good media coverage offers equal airtime to all political parties and candidates.

Table 4.7 shows that 8.6% of the respondents had strongly disagreed Media organization adheres to media council of Kenya code of conduct and regulation, 31.1% had disagreed Media organization adheres to media council of Kenya code of conduct and regulation, 21.5% had somehow agreed that Media organization adheres to media council of Kenya code of conduct and regulation, 16.1% had agreed that Media organization adheres to media council of Kenya code of conduct and regulation while 22.7% had strongly agreed Media organization adheres to media council of Kenya code of conduct and regulation.

Table 4.7 shows that, 15.9% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that Sensitization on voter rights in Electoral process is a key role of Media participation, 10.4% had disagreed that Sensitization on voter rights in Electoral process is a key role of Media participation, 22.7% had somehow agreed that Sensitization on voter rights in Electoral process is a key role of Media participation, 27.9% had agreed Sensitization on voter rights in Electoral process is a key role of Media participation while 23.1% had strongly agreed that Sensitization on voter rights in Electoral process is a key role of Media participation.

Table 4.7 shows that out of the 173 respondents, 5.0% had strongly disagreed that Allocation of equal amount of time to specific political manifestos is crucial contributor in shaping Electoral process, 4.6% had disagreed that Allocation of equal amount of time to specific political manifestos is crucial contributor in shaping Electoral process, 9.4% had somehow agreed that Allocation of equal amount of time to specific political manifestos is crucial contributor in shaping Electoral process, 39.2% had agreed that Allocation of equal amount of time to specific political manifestos is crucial contributor in shaping Electoral process while 42.8% had strongly agreed that Allocation of equal amount of time to specific political manifestos is crucial contributor in shaping Electoral process.

Table 4.7 shows that, 9.2% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that Political opinion can be shaped by media involvement in election matters, 8.6% had disagreed that Political opinion can be shaped by media involvement in election matters, 27.9% had somehow agreed that Political opinion can be shaped by media involvement in election matters, 23.9% had agreed that Political opinion can be shaped by media involvement in election matters while 30.3% had strongly agreed that Political opinion can be shaped by media involvement in election matters.

Table 4.7 shows that, 13.5% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that Media continue to focus too much on elections, other pillars such as economic, social will suffer marginally, 16.7% had disagreed that Media continue to focus too much on elections, other pillars such as economic, social will suffer marginally, 20.3% had somehow agreed that Media continue to focus too much on elections, other pillars such as economic, social will suffer marginally, 21.9% had agreed that Media continue to focus too much on elections, other pillars such as economic, social will suffer marginally while 27.7% had strongly agreed that Media continue to focus too much on elections, other pillars such as economic, social will suffer marginally.

Table 4.7 shows that, 18.3% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that Media propaganda is a highly used tool to influence voting patterns, 25.1% had disagreed that Media propaganda is a highly used tool to influence voting patterns, 18.1% had somehow agreed that Media propaganda is a highly used tool to influence voting patterns, 18.3% had agreed that Media propaganda is a highly used tool to influence voting patterns while 20.3% had strongly agreed that Media propaganda is a highly used tool to influence voting patterns.

Table 4.7 shows that of the 173 respondents 24.3% had strongly disagreed that Polling by media gives a snapshot of the ideal election outcome, 19.1% had disagreed that Polling by media gives a snapshot of the ideal election outcome, 29.9% had somehow agreed that Polling by media gives a snapshot of the ideal election outcome, 16.5% had agreed that Polling by media gives a snapshot of the

ideal election outcome while 10.3% had strongly agreed that Polling by media gives a snapshot of the ideal election outcome.

Table 4.7 shows that, 19.5% of respondents had strongly disagreed that Media reach is biased as it only covers a few and alienates others, 15.5% had disagreed that Media reach is biased as it only covers a few and alienates others, 27.3% had somehow agreed that Media reach is biased as it only covers a few and alienates others, 23.1% had agreed that Media reach is biased as it only covers a few and alienates others while 14.7% had strongly agreed that Media reach is biased as it only covers a few and alienates others.

According to the Electoral Knowledge Network (EKN), the media play an indispensable role in the proper functioning of a democracy. Discussion of the media's functions within electoral contexts often focuses on their "watchdog" role: by unfettered scrutiny and discussion of the successes and failures of candidates, governments, and electoral bodies, the media can inform the public of how effectively they have performed and help to hold them to account (Paul, 2015). Media have long been recognized as a cornerstone of democracy and play an important role in influencing political discourse during elections.

4.5.2 Role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process.

The second objective was to examine the role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. According to Muriu (2014), citizenry education provides people with the knowledge and relevant skills to understand challenge and engage with democratic society including politics, the media, civil society, the economy and the law. Citizenry may influence the government decisions on the matters of their daily lives through democratic process especially political participation where by citizens can be involved in decision-making either directly or indirectly. In contemporary democracy, citizen`s participation in elections is therefore highly emphasized (Paul, 2015). Responses were recorded as shown in table 4.8. Means and standard deviation were used in the study analysis.

Table 4.8: Role of Citizen Participation

Statements						Mean	Std dev
Citizen Participation in election management offers credibility in outcome	7.0%	12.3%	14.3%	25.1%	41.4%	3.71	1.127
Creating an enabling environment for citizen involvement in elections resonates with tenets of democracy	8.6%	15.5%	17.9%	26.3%	31.7%	3.97	1.060
Inhibiting the role of electorates affects their fundamental role in shaping the electoral landscape	3.4%	26.7%	24.3%	27.4%	18.2%	3.74	1.311
Citizen involvement enhances credibility in election outcome	17.1%	19.1%	24.3%	14.4%	25.2%	3.52	1.271
Equipping citizens with more updated information during elections is a catalyst to informed citizenry	18.3%	21.5%	23.1%	24.7%	12.5%	4.00	1.013
Creating more avenues for citizen engagement in defining their political destiny is crucial contributor to better election management	19.3%	20.5%	24.1%	21.7%	14.5%	4.05	.953
With more emphasis on enhanced citizen awareness comes with the need to address the need for improved education standards	3.4%	20.7%	22.9%	35.9%	17.1%	4.06	.771
Structures and systems that favor friendly citizen voice contribute to better election management and credibility.	17.1%	19.1%	11.3%	20.2%	32.4%	3.92	1.22

Respondents in this section were required to agree or disagree with the statement Citizen Participation in election management offers credibility in outcome. A mean response of 3.71 with a standard deviation of 1.127 was recorded. Items for data analysis in this part were measured on a five-point Likert-Type scale ranging between 5-1; where 5 = very high extent; 4 = high extent; 3 = moderate extent; 2 = low extent and 1 = very low extent. The results are as shown in table 4.8. The study results indicated that majority of respondents were in agreement with statement that Citizen Participation in election management offers credibility in outcome. The study concluded that Citizen Participation in election management offers credibility in outcome in Kenya.

Items that were measured on a five-point Likert-Type scale ranging from a Likert Scale of 5-1; where 5 = very high extent; 4 = high extent, 3 = moderate extent; 2 = low extent and 1 = very low extent. The results in Table 4.7 shows that of the 173 respondents, 7.0% had strongly disagreed that Citizen Participation in election management offers credibility in outcome, 12.3% had somehow agreed that Citizen Participation in election management offers credibility in outcome, 14.3% had agreed that Citizen Participation in election management offers credibility in outcome, 25.1% agreed that Citizen Participation in election management offers credibility in outcome while 41.4% had strongly agreed that Citizen Participation in election management offers credibility in outcome. Table 4.8 shows that of the 173 respondents, 27.9% had strongly disagreed with the statement that media offers a campaign platform to election candidates, 26.3% disagreed that media offers a campaign platform to election candidates, 21.5% had somehow agreed that media offers a campaign platform to election candidates 16.3% had agreed that media offers a campaign platform to election candidates while 8% strongly agreed that media offers a campaign platform to election candidates.

Table 4.8 shows that, 8.6% of the respondents had strongly disagreed with the statement that Creating an enabling environment for citizen involvement in elections resonates with tenets of democracy, 15.5% had disagreed that Creating an enabling environment for citizen involvement in elections resonates with tenets of democracy,

17.9% had somehow agreed that Creating an enabling environment for citizen involvement in elections resonates with tenets of democracy, 26.3% had agreed that Creating an enabling environment for citizen involvement in elections resonates with tenets of democracy while 31.7% had strongly agreed that Creating an enabling environment for citizen involvement in elections resonates with tenets of democracy.

Table 4.8 shows that of the 173 respondents, 3.4% had strongly disagreed that inhibiting the role of electorates affects their fundamental role in shaping the electoral landscape, 26.7% had disagreed that Inhibiting the role of electorates affects their fundamental role in shaping the electoral landscape, 24.3% had somehow agreed that Inhibiting the role of electorates affects their fundamental role in shaping the electoral landscape, 27.4% had agreed that Inhibiting the role of electorates affects their fundamental role in shaping the electoral landscape while 18.2% had strongly agreed that Inhibiting the role of electorates affects their fundamental role in shaping the electoral landscape.

Table 4.8 shows that of the 173 respondents 17.1% had strongly disagreed that Citizen involvement enhances credibility in election outcome, 19.1% had disagreed that Citizen involvement enhances credibility in election outcome, 24.3% had somehow agreed that Citizen involvement enhances credibility in election outcome, 14.4% had agreed that Media organization adheres to media council of Kenya code of conduct and regulation while 25.2% had strongly agreed that Citizen involvement enhances credibility in election outcome.

Table 4.8 shows that, 18.3% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that equipping citizens with more updated information during elections is a catalyst to informed citizenry, 21.5% had disagreed that Equipping citizens with more updated information during elections is a catalyst to informed citizenry, 23.1% had somehow agreed that Equipping citizens with more updated information during elections is a catalyst to informed citizenry, 24.7% had agreed that Equipping citizens with more updated information during elections is a catalyst to informed citizenry while 12.5%

had strongly agreed that Equipping citizens with more updated information during elections is a catalyst to informed citizenry.

Table 4.8 shows that out of the 173 respondents, 19.3% had strongly disagreed that creating more avenues for citizen engagement in defining their political destiny is crucial contributor to better election management, 20.5% had disagreed that Creating more avenues for citizen engagement in defining their political destiny is crucial contributor to better election management, 24.1% had somehow agreed that Creating more avenues for citizen engagement in defining their political destiny is crucial contributor to better election management, 21.7% had agreed that Creating more avenues for citizen engagement in defining their political destiny is crucial contributor to better election management while 14.5% had strongly agreed that Creating more avenues for citizen engagement in defining their political destiny is crucial contributor to better election management.

Table 4.8 shows that of the 173 respondents, 3.4% had strongly disagreed that with more emphasis on enhanced citizen awareness comes with the need to address the need for improved education standards, 20.7% had disagreed that with more emphasis on enhanced citizen awareness comes with the need to address the need for improved education standards, 22.9% had somehow agreed that with more emphasis on enhanced citizen awareness comes with the need to address the need for improved education standards, 35.9% had agreed that With more emphasis on enhanced citizen awareness comes with the need to address the need for improved education standards while 17.1% had strongly agreed that With more emphasis on enhanced citizen awareness comes with the need to address the need for improved education standards.

Table 4.8 shows that, 17.1% of respondents had strongly disagreed that structures and systems that favor friendly citizen voice contribute to better election processes and credibility, 19.1% had disagreed that structures and systems that favor friendly citizen voice contribute to better election processes, 11.3% had somehow agreed that structures and systems that favor friendly citizen voice contribute to better election

processes, 20.2% had agreed that structures and systems that favor friendly citizen voice contribute to better election process while 32.4% had strongly agreed that structures and systems that favor friendly citizen voice contribute to better election process. There is a fundamental and constitutional difference between the previous local authorities and current county governments. The difference is not only at constitutional provisions but also the architecture, philosophy and express interface between government and its people at the local levels.

This study is in agreement with Paul (2015) who assert that citizenry is the re-distribution of power that enables the haves-not citizens, presently excluded from the political and economic process to be deliberately included in the future. De Villiers (2001), Citizens may influence the government decisions on the matters of their daily lives through democratic process especially political participation where by citizens can be involved in decision-making either directly or indirectly. In contemporary democracy, citizen`s participation in elections is highly emphasized, for example the ideas by (Okinda, 2014) signify that, citizen`s participation in elections gives legitimacy to the government serving the people in particular areas of jurisdictions and thus reducing the existence of undemocratic systems associated with the violence, corruptions and political and economic instability.

4.5.3 Role of Election Observers Participation in Electoral Process

This section required respondents to state the role of election observer`s participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. Election observers are the people or organizations who monitor an election either as single or more independent parties. They can be from another country or if internal as a non-governmental organization (AU, 2014). Election observers are important as they are fundamentally meant to assess the conduct of an election process on the basis of national legislation and international election standards (Jinadu, 2014). Election observers improve the quality of elections, they help build public confidence in the honesty of electoral processes, they can also help promote and protect the civil and political rights of election participants. Election observation can lead to the correction of errors or weak

practices, even while an election process is still under way. It can stop election manipulation and fraud, or expose such problems if they do occur. When election observers issue positive reports on an election, it builds trust in the democratic process and enhances the legitimacy of the governments that emerge from elections (Susanne, 2014). Results are shown in table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Role of election Observers’ participation

Statements	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	Std dev
Election observer’s involvement in electoral matters is paramount in enhancing election credibility	4.6%	16.9%	27.7%	36.3%	14.5%	3.422	.785
Successful elections in Kenya is open to external observers and monitors	20.9%	21.7%	25.3%	15.7%	16.5%	3.427	1.167
Access to polling stations and tallying results enhances election credibility	19.9%	21.5%	22.7%	18.1%	17.9%	2.931	.899
Both local and international observer teams contribute to the success in enhancing credible elections	21.9%	21.7%	24.3%	16.7%	15.5%	3.896	.723
The International development partners acceptance to elections is guided by the verdict offered by observers and monitors	8.6%	14.5%	16.9%	25.3%	34.7%	3.012	1.524
Fundamental freedom to observers is a key tenet in enhancing collaboration by stakeholders in performance of elections	11.2%	25.3%	21.5%	24.1%	17.9%	3.399	1.306
Credible electoral outcome is dependent on how communication, reporting and feedback is managed during performance of elections	2.6%	6.3%	8.1%	42.2%	40.8%	3.133	1.536
Satisfaction of other stakeholders in electoral outcome is directly related to observer final verdict	4.6%	6.3%	8.1%	42.2%	38.8%	3.7688	1.212
Unlimited access to voting centers and voter tallying by observers contributes to fundamental right to access to information for all	8.2%	14.6%	16.8%	18.1%	42.4%	4.0694	1.015
Denial to fundamental right to access of information is a recipe for incredibility in electoral outcome	21.5%	13.5%	25.3%	23.1%	16.7%	3.9827	.924

The results as tabulated in table 4.9 on the role of election observer’s intention to determine the vibrancy of observers in the electoral process in Kenya, the researcher

intendent to get the respondents views on whether election observer's involvement in electoral matters is paramount in enhancing election credibility. Items that were measured on a five-point Likert-Type scale ranging from a Likert Scale of 5-1; where 5 = strongly agree; 4 = agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagreement; 2 = disagree and 1 = strongly agree. The results in Table 4.8 shows that, 4.6% of the 173 respondents had strongly disagreed that Election observer's involvement in electoral matters is paramount in enhancing election credibility, 16.9% had somehow agreed that Election observer's involvement in electoral matters is paramount in enhancing election credibility, 27.7% had agreed that Election observer's involvement in electoral matters is paramount in enhancing election credibility, 36.3% agreed that Election observer's involvement in electoral matters is paramount in enhancing election credibility while 14.5% had strongly agreed that election observer's involvement in electoral matters is paramount in enhancing election credibility.

Table 4.9 shows that of the 173 respondents, 20.9% had strongly disagreed with the statement that Successful elections in Kenya is open to external observers and monitors, 21.7% disagreed that Successful elections in Kenya is open to external observers and monitors, 25.3% had somehow agreed that successful elections in Kenya is open to external observers and monitors, 15.7% had agreed that Successful elections in Kenya is open to external observers and monitors while 16.5% strongly agreed that successful elections in Kenya is open to external observers and monitors.

Table 4.9 shows that, 19.9% of the respondents had strongly disagreed with the statement that access to polling stations and tallying results enhances election credibility, 21.5% had disagreed that access to polling stations and tallying results enhances election credibility and election process, 22.7% had somehow agreed that access to polling stations and tallying results enhances election processes and credibility, 18.1% had agreed that access to polling stations and tallying results enhances election process while 17.9% had strongly agreed that Access to polling stations and tallying results enhances election process and credibility.

Table 4.9 shows that, 21.9% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that both local and international observer teams contribute to the success in enhancing credible

elections, 21.7% had disagreed that both local and international observer teams contribute to the success in enhancing credible elections and process, 24.3% had somehow agreed that both local and international observer teams contribute to the success in enhancing electoral process, 16.7% had agreed that both local and international observer teams contribute to the success in enhancing elections process while 15.5% had strongly agreed that both local and international observer teams contribute to the success in enhancing electoral process

Table 4.9 shows that of the 173 respondents 8.6% had strongly disagreed that the international development partners acceptance to elections is guided by the verdict offered by observers and monitors, 14.5% had disagreed that the international development partners acceptance to elections is guided by the verdict offered by observers and monitors, 16.9% had somehow agreed that the international development partners acceptance to elections is guided by the verdict offered by observers and monitors, 25.3% had agreed that the international development partners acceptance to elections is guided by the verdict offered by observers and monitors while 34.7% had strongly agreed that the international development partners acceptance to elections is guided by the verdict offered by observers and monitors.

Table 4.9 shows that of the 173 respondents, 11.2% had strongly disagreed that fundamental freedom to observers is a key tenet in enhancing collaboration by stakeholders in performance of elections, 25.3% had disagreed that fundamental freedom to observers is a key tenet in enhancing collaboration by stakeholders in performance of elections, 21.5% had somehow agreed that fundamental freedom to observers is a key tenet in enhancing collaboration by stakeholders in performance of elections, 24.1% had agreed that fundamental freedom to observers is a key tenet in enhancing collaboration by stakeholders in performance of elections while 17.9% had strongly agreed that fundamental freedom to observers is a key tenet in enhancing collaboration by stakeholders in performance of elections.

Table 4.9 shows that out of the 173 respondents, 2.6% had strongly disagreed that credible electoral outcome is dependent on how communication, reporting and

feedback is managed during performance of elections, 6.3% had disagreed that credible electoral outcome is dependent on how communication, reporting and feedback is managed during performance of elections, 8.1% had somehow agreed that credible electoral outcome is dependent on how communication, reporting and feedback is managed during performance of elections, 42.2% had agreed credible electoral outcome is dependent on how communication, reporting and feedback is managed during performance of elections while 40.8% had strongly agreed that credible electoral outcome is dependent on how communication, reporting and feedback is managed during performance of elections.

Table 4.9 shows that, 4.6% respondents had strongly disagreed that satisfaction of other stakeholders in electoral outcome is directly related to observer final verdict, 6.3% had disagreed that satisfaction of other stakeholders in electoral outcome is directly related to observer final verdict, 8.1% had somehow agreed that satisfaction of other stakeholders in electoral outcome is directly related to observer final verdict, 42.2% had agreed that satisfaction of other stakeholders in electoral outcome is directly related to observer final verdict while 38.8% had strongly agreed that satisfaction of other stakeholders in electoral outcome is directly related to observer final verdict.

Table 4.9 shows that of the 173 respondents, 8.2% had strongly disagreed that unlimited access to voting centers and voter tallying by observers contributes to fundamental right to access to information for all, 14.6% had disagreed that unlimited access to voting centers and voter tallying by observers contributes to fundamental right to access to information for all, 16.8% had somehow agreed that unlimited access to voting centers and voter tallying by observers contributes to fundamental right to access to information for all, 18.1% had agreed that unlimited access to voting centers and voter tallying by observers contributes to fundamental right to access to information for all while 42.4% had strongly agreed that unlimited access to voting centers and voter tallying by observers contributes to fundamental right to access to information for all.

Table 4.9 shows that, 21.5% of respondents had strongly disagreed denial to fundamental right to access of information is a recipe for incredibility in electoral outcome, 13.5% had disagreed that denial to fundamental right to access of information is a recipe for incredibility in electoral outcome, 25.3% had somehow agreed that denial to fundamental right to access of information is a recipe for incredibility in electoral outcome, 23.1% had agreed that denial to fundamental right to access of information is a recipe for incredibility in electoral outcome while 16.7% had strongly agreed that denial to fundamental right to access of information is a recipe for incredibility in electoral outcome.

The findings are in agreement with Susanne (2014) who assert that when observers can issue positive reports, it builds trust in the democratic process and enhances the legitimacy of the governments that emerge from elections. Election observation by domestic groups encourages civic involvement in the political process. Following elections, reports and recommendations by observer groups can lead to changes and improvements in national law and practice (Jinadu, 2014).

Daxecker (2014) argues that politics and Society in Contemporary Africa, trace the birth of civil society as associations which emerged explicitly around associational interests. To them, these organizations were established to secure occupational, social, ideological, leisure, self-improvement and service goals. Civil society organizations according to these scholars initially sprang around the urban areas and were originally connected with the growth of colonial state institutions and official markets. From economic and social groups like occupational groups which include professional groups, trade unions, entrepreneurs to women's and students' associations as well as religious ones have played great roles in the pre-independence and post- independence period (Jinadu, 2014).

4.5.4 Role of Civil Society Participation in Electoral Process

The section required respondents to rate the role civil society have on the electoral process in Kenya. Civil society comprises of groups or organizations working in the

interest of the country's citizens, but they operate outside of the government. Organizations and institutions that make up civil society include labour unions, nonprofit organizations, churches and any other service agencies that provide important services to the society. Civil society organizations are important as they are committed to partner with other groups and stakeholders so as to ensure transparency and inclusiveness in the intergovernmental decision-making process. Civil society organizations ensure that advocacy functions such as electoral processes are achieved. Responses were recorded as shown in table 4.10. Means and standard deviation were used in the study analysis

Table 4.10: Role of Civil Society

Statements	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	Std dev
A vibrant civil society body is paramount in contributing effectively in sound elections election process	18.3%	21.5%	24.1%	20.7%	15.5%	4.25	.872
Civil society bodies have basic fundamental right to participate reliable in electoral process	3.8%	10.6%	18.1%	27.7%	39.8%	3.90	.910
Checking of the excesses by Electoral process bodies (EMBs) is welcome role of civil society	4.6%	9.6%	13.3%	36.1%	36.3%	3.81	.925
Strengthening weak laws offers civil society the opportunity to thrive in participating in election matters	11.1%	25.2%	21.7%	24.1%	17.9%	3.99	.940
Political goodwill contributes to civil society to effectively champion expansion of the democratic space in their role in participating in electoral matters	3.4%	16.9%	22.9%	33.7%	23.1%	4.03	.871
More awareness on fundamental rights of citizens is enhanced by civil society participation in electoral matters	5.6%	3.8%	9.8%	39.8%	41.0%	3.86	.944
Credibility in outcome is as a result of full involvement of civil society in designing electoral systems and processes devoid of gaps	8.6%	14.3%	8.4%	27.9%	40.8%	3.57	.838
Sound policies on electoral governance forms the foundation for successful electoral process by elections bodies (EMBSs) in their code of conduct	9.8%	8.4%	13.3%	20.5%	41.5%	3.61	.904
The mandate and ability to stick to their core functions of Electoral commission is checked by strong civil society	2.6%	10.6%	7.2%	25.5%	54.0%	3.85	.988
Regulation of financial expenditure by civil society curtails their ability to effectively participate in electoral process	3.8%	11.8%	10.8%	26.7%	46.8%	3.21	1.008

The researcher required respondents to give their views on the statement whether a vibrant civil society body is paramount in contributing effectively in sound electoral

process. Items of analysis in this section were measured on a five-point Likert-Type scale ranging between 5-1; where 5 = strongly agree; 4 = agree; 3 = neither agree nor disagree; 2 = disagree and 1 = strongly disagree. The results of the study as shown in table 4.10 indicated that majority of the respondents were in agreement with the statements that vibrant civil society body is paramount in contributing effectively in sound electoral process. The study concluded that vibrant civil society body is paramount in contributing effectively in sound electoral process in Kenya.

Items that were measured on a five-point Likert-Type scale ranging from a Likert Scale of 5-1; where 5 = Strongly Agree; 4 = Agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagreement; 2 = disagree and 1 = strongly disagree. The results in Table 4.10 shows that, 18.3% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that a vibrant civil society body is paramount in contributing effectively in sound elections election process, 21.5% had somehow agreed that a vibrant civil society body is paramount in contributing effectively in sound elections election process, 24.1% had agreed that a vibrant civil society body is paramount in contributing effectively in sound elections election process, 20.7% agreed that a vibrant civil society body is paramount in contributing effectively in sound elections election process while 15.5% had strongly agreed that a vibrant civil society body is paramount in contributing effectively in sound elections election process.

Table 4.10 shows that of the 173 respondents, 3.8% had strongly disagreed with the statement that civil society bodies have basic fundamental right to participate reliable in electoral process, 10.6% disagreed that civil society bodies have basic fundamental right to participate reliable in electoral process, 18.1% had somehow agreed that civil society bodies have basic fundamental right to participate reliable in electoral process, 27.7% had agreed that civil society bodies have basic fundamental right to participate reliable in electoral process while 39.8% strongly agreed that civil society bodies have basic fundamental right to participate reliable in electoral process.

Table 4.10 shows that, 4.6% of the respondents had strongly disagreed with the statement that checking of the excesses by electoral process bodies (EMB;s) is welcome role of civil society, 9.6% had disagreed that checking of the excesses by electoral process bodies (EMB;s) is welcome role of civil society, 13.3% had somehow agreed that checking of the excesses by electoral process bodies (EMB;s) is welcome role of civil society, 36.1% had agreed that checking of the excesses by electoral process bodies (EMB;s) is welcome role of civil society while 36.3% had strongly agreed that checking of the excesses by electoral process bodies (EMB;s) is welcome role of civil society.

Table 4.10 shows that of the 173 respondents, 11.1% had strongly disagreed that strengthening weak laws offers civil society the opportunity to thrive in participating in election matters, 25.2% had disagreed that strengthening weak laws offers civil society the opportunity to thrive in participating in election matters, 21.7% had somehow agreed that strengthening weak laws offers civil society the opportunity to thrive in participating in election matters, 24.1% had agreed that strengthening weak laws offers civil society the opportunity to thrive in participating in election matters while 17.9% had strongly agreed that strengthening weak laws offers civil society the opportunity to thrive in participating in election matters.

Table 4.10 shows that 3.4% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that political goodwill contributes to civil society to effectively champion expansion of the democratic space in their role in participating in electoral matters, 16.9% had disagreed that political goodwill contributes to civil society to effectively champion expansion of the democratic space in their role in participating in electoral matters, 22.9% had somehow agreed that Political goodwill contributes to civil society to effectively champion expansion of the democratic space in their role in participating in electoral matters, 33.7% had agreed that political goodwill contributes to civil society to effectively champion expansion of the democratic space in their role in participating in electoral matters while 23.1% had strongly agreed that Political

goodwill contributes to civil society to effectively champion expansion of the democratic space in their role in participating in electoral matters.

Table 4.10 shows that, 5.6% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that more awareness on fundamental rights of citizens is enhanced by civil society participation in electoral matters, 3.8% had disagreed that more awareness on fundamental rights of citizens is enhanced by civil society participation in electoral matters, 9.8% had somehow agreed that more awareness on fundamental rights of citizens is enhanced by civil society participation in electoral matters, 39.8% had agreed that more awareness on fundamental rights of citizens is enhanced by civil society participation in electoral matters while 41% had strongly agreed that more awareness on fundamental rights of citizens is enhanced by civil society participation in electoral matters.

Table 4.10 shows that out of the 173 respondents, 8.6% had strongly disagreed that credibility in outcome is as a result of full involvement of civil society in designing electoral systems and processes devoid of gaps, 14.3% had disagreed that credibility in outcome is as a result of full involvement of civil society in designing electoral systems and processes devoid of gaps, 8.4% had somehow agreed that credibility in outcome is as a result of full involvement of civil society in designing electoral systems and processes devoid of gaps, 27.9% had agreed credibility in outcome is as a result of full involvement of civil society in designing electoral systems and processes devoid of gaps while 40.8% had strongly agreed that credibility in outcome is as a result of full involvement of civil society in designing electoral systems and processes devoid of gaps.

Table 4.10 shows that, 9.8% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that sound policies on electoral governance forms the foundation for successful electoral process by elections bodies (EMBS;s) in their code of conduct, 8.4% had disagreed that sound policies on electoral governance forms the foundation for successful electoral process by elections bodies (EMBS;s) in their code of conduct, 13.3% had somehow agreed that sound policies on electoral governance forms the foundation for

successful electoral process by elections bodies (EMBS;s) in their code of conduct, 20.5% had agreed that sound policies on electoral governance forms the foundation for successful electoral process by elections bodies (EMBS;s) in their code of conduct while 41.5% had strongly agreed that sound policies on electoral governance forms the foundation for successful electoral process by elections bodies (EMBS;s) in their code of conduct.

Table 4.10 shows that of the 173 respondents, 2.6% had strongly disagreed that the mandate and ability to stick to their core functions of Electoral commission is checked by strong civil society, 10.6% had disagreed that the mandate and ability to stick to their core functions of Electoral commission is checked by strong civil society, 7.2% had somehow agreed that the mandate and ability to stick to their core functions of Electoral commission is checked by strong civil society, 25.5% had agreed that the mandate and ability to stick to their core functions of Electoral commission is checked by strong civil society while 54% had strongly agreed that the mandate and ability to stick to their core functions of Electoral commission is checked by strong civil society.

Table 4.10 shows that, 3.8% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that regulation of financial expenditure by civil society curtails their ability to effectively participate in electoral process, 11.8% had disagreed that regulation of financial expenditure by civil society curtails their ability to effectively participate in electoral process, 10.8% had somehow agreed that regulation of financial expenditure by civil society curtails their ability to effectively participate in electoral process, 26.7% had agreed that regulation of financial expenditure by civil society curtails their ability to effectively participate in electoral process while 46.8% had strongly agreed that regulation of financial expenditure by civil society curtails their ability to effectively participate in electoral process.

These findings are in agreement with past literature that has argued that the presence of election monitoring organizations does in fact have an effect on the confidence of

opposition parties. Opposition parties sometimes choose to boycott an election in order to delegitimize it in the eyes of the international community.

The fundamental role of civil society in an electoral process which often takes the form of support for election institutional processes as well as the more substantive development of a democratic space in a country (Susanne, 2014). Civil society does, however, have a role to play in reducing election-related conflict dynamics and promoting a peaceful electoral environment. They in many occasions have been recognized to have had a significant role in promoting peace as it is less controlled by mandates that are able to talk to several stakeholders without losing credibility, and at the same time are able to deal directly with the people in the ground through provision of civic education (Daxecker, 2014).

Likewise, civil society organizations have also other recognized roles to play with regard to election conflict dynamics. They promote peace, reconciliation and coexistence as well as social justice and the development of democratic institutions through observation of elections and giving recommendations and giving advisory to electoral bodies charged with conducting elections. According to Jinadu, (2014), operating within civil society organization represents citizens' interests by challenging the state's power by various means, such as providing alternative services that may compete with or supplement the services of the state and challenging state policies through advocacy and constituency mobilization.

4.5.5 Role Constitutional Framework in Electoral Process

A constitutional framework is a written supreme law by which all other laws and rules of a given country must comply. Constitutional framework defines the main rights and responsibilities of the state, the various institutions that make up the state and, in some cases, those of citizens. It is generally more difficult to adopt, amend or revoke, as it requires some form of special approval process that includes a specifically created assembly, a referendum or a super majority within a parliament or the approval of national and sub-national parliaments. In electoral process constitutional framework is a combination of legislation and rules related to elections

of a given country. A constitutional framework for elections includes the applicable provisions in the constitution, the electoral law and other laws that affect elections, such as a law on political parties. It also includes any regulations attached to the electoral law and other relevant laws, as well as relevant instructions and regulations issued by the responsible electoral management bodies. Respondents' statements, their opinions, means and standard deviation on constitutional framework was captured in table 4.11

Table 4.11 Constitutional Framework in Electoral Process

Constitutional Framework	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	Std dev
Provides for popular sovereignty	3.8%	10.6%	9.4%	32.5%	43.6%	3.89	.950
Limits powers of government	2.4%	8.4%	8.4%	43.4%	37.3%	3.86	.944
Provides for majority rule and minority rights	7.7%	1.3%	14.4%	42.0%	34.6%	3.67	.848
Provides for institutional and procedural limitations on powers	4.0%	9.2%	15.7%	29.1%	42.0%	3.80	.925
Provides for separated and shared powers	5.0%	8.1%	15.6%	30.1%	41.2%	3.97	.941
Provides for checks and balances	9.2%	9.6%	36.1%	42.2%	2.8%	3.87	.943
Supports for due process of law	11.3%	16.9%	18.1%	39.8%	14.0%	3.21	1.007
Supports leadership succession through elections	17.1%	18.1%	26.3%	14.2%	24.4%	3.74	1.31

The researcher in this section requested respondents to give their views on whether constitutional framework provides for popular sovereignty in Kenya. Items that were measured on a five-point Likert-Type scale ranging from a Likert Scale of 5-1; where 5 = Strongly Agree; 4 = Agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagreement; 2 = disagree and 1 = strongly disagree. The results in Table 4.11 shows that of the 173 respondents, 3.8% had strongly disagreed that constitutional framework provides for popular

sovereignty, 10.6% had somehow agreed that provides for popular sovereignty, 9.4% had agreed that provides for popular sovereignty, 32.5% agreed that provides for popular sovereignty while 43.6% had strongly agreed that provides for popular sovereignty.

Table 4.11 shows that, 2.4% of respondents had strongly disagreed with the statement that constitutional framework limits powers of government, 8.4% disagreed that limits powers of government, 8.4% had somehow agreed that limits powers of government, 43.4% had agreed that limits powers of government while 37.3% strongly agreed that limits powers of government.

Table 4.9 shows that of the 173 respondents, 7.7% had strongly disagreed with the statement that constitutional framework provides for majority rule and minority rights, 1.3% had disagreed that provides for majority rule and minority rights, 14.4% had somehow agreed that provides for majority rule and minority rights, 42% had agreed that provides for majority rule and minority rights while 34.6% had strongly agreed that provides for majority rule and minority rights.

Table 4.11 shows that of the 173 respondents, 4% had strongly disagreed that constitutional framework provides for institutional and procedural limitations on powers, 9.2% had disagreed that constitutional framework provides for institutional and procedural limitations on powers, 15.7% had somehow agreed that constitutional framework provides for institutional and procedural limitations on powers, 29.1% had agreed that constitutional framework provides for institutional and procedural limitations on powers while 42% had strongly agreed that Constitutional framework provides for institutional and procedural limitations on powers.

Table 4.11 shows that 5% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that constitutional framework provides for separated and shared powers, 8.1% had disagreed that constitutional framework provides for separated and shared powers, 15.6% had somehow agreed that constitutional framework provides for separated and shared powers, 30.1% had agreed that constitutional framework provides for

separated and shared powers while 41.2% had strongly agreed that constitutional framework provides for separated and shared powers.

Table 4.11 shows that out of the 173 respondents, 9.2% had strongly disagreed that constitutional framework provides for checks and balances, 9.6% had disagreed that constitutional framework provides for checks and balances, 36.1% had somehow agreed that constitutional framework provides for checks and balances, 42.2% had agreed constitutional framework provides for checks and balances while 2.8% had strongly agreed that constitutional framework provides for checks and balances.

Table 4.11 shows that, 11.3% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that constitutional framework supports for due process of law, 16.9% had disagreed that constitutional framework supports for due process of law, 18.1% had somehow agreed that constitutional framework supports for due process of law, 39.8% had agreed that constitutional framework supports for due process of law while 14% had strongly agreed that constitutional framework supports for due process of law.

Table 4.11 shows that , 17.1% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that constitutional framework supports leadership succession through elections, 18.1% had disagreed that constitutional framework supports leadership succession through elections, 26.3% had somehow agreed that constitutional framework supports leadership succession through elections, 14.2% had agreed that constitutional framework supports leadership succession through elections while 24.4% had strongly agreed that constitutional framework supports leadership succession through elections.

The findings are in corroboration with Bertelsmam (2014), who assert that the starting point for unpacking the correlation between elections, democracy and constitutionalism is by reference to the now acclaimed article by Fareed Zakaria, *The Rise of Illiberal Democracy*". The illiberal democracy theory emerged partly in response to the imperfections of liberal democracy. To draw a distinction between liberal and illiberal democracy. Democracy is a political system marked not only by free and fair elections, the rule of law, separation of powers, and the protection of

basic liberties of speech, assembly, religion, and property. By definitions, illiberal democracy denotes a governing system in which although fairly free elections take place, citizens are cut off from real power due to the lack of civil liberties (Ngunyi, 2014). This may be because a constitution limiting government power exists but its liberties are ignored, or to the simple absence of an adequate legal and constitutional framework of liberties.

4.5.6 Electoral Process

The study investigated the views of respondents in Electoral Process in Kenya. Electoral process is a set of rules that determine how elections and referendums are conducted and how their results are determined. Political processes are mainly organized by governments. Respondents' statements, their opinions, means and standard deviation in Electoral Process was captured in table 4.12

Table 4.12: Electoral Process

Electoral Process	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	Std dev
There is a high number of voter registration in IEBC	18.3%	24.1%	22.7%	13.5%	21.5%	3.99	1.22
Independent electoral and boundaries commission is adequately funded during elections	3.0%	14.5%	32.5%	19.3%	30.7%	3.60	1.45
Independent electoral and boundaries commission have a body to manage election disputes	3.4%	21.9%	34.9%	16.1%	23.7%	3.10	1.44
There are enough personnel to oversee elections in IEBC	9.8%	21.1%	27.5%	17.1%	21.5%	2.92	1.34
Recording of election results in IEBC is electronic	4.6%	6.2%	8.4%	31.4%	49.3%	3.20	1.27
Transmission of election results by IEBC is electronic	4.2%	8.4%	15.3%	31.3%	40.8%	4.16	1.09

The researcher in this part required respondents to give their views on the statement if there is high number of voter registration in IEBC. Items that were measured on a five-point Likert-Type scale ranging from a Likert Scale of 5-1; where 5 = Strongly

Agree; 4 = Agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagreement; 2 = disagree and 1 = strongly disagree. The results in Table 4.12 shows that, 18.3% of respondents had strongly disagreed that there is a high number of voter registration in IEBC, 24.1% had somehow agreed that there is a high number of voter registration in IEBC, 22,7% had agreed that there is a high number of voter registration in IEBC, 13.5% agreed that there is a high number of voter registration in IEBC while 21.5% had strongly agreed that there is a high number of voter registration in IEBC.

Table 4.12 shows that, 3% of respondents had strongly disagreed with the statement that independent electoral and boundaries commission is adequately funded during elections, 14.5% had disagreed that independent electoral and boundaries commission is adequately funded during elections, 32.5% had somehow agreed that independent electoral and boundaries commission is adequately funded during elections, 19.3% had agreed that independent electoral and boundaries commission is adequately funded during elections while 30.7% had strongly agreed that independent electoral and boundaries commission is adequately funded during elections.

Table 4.12 shows that of the 173 respondents, 3.4% had strongly disagreed that independent electoral and boundaries commission has a body to manage election disputes, 21.9% had disagreed that independent electoral and boundaries commission has a body to manage election disputes, 34.9% had somehow agreed that independent electoral and boundaries commission has a body to manage election disputes, 16.1% had agreed that independent electoral and boundaries commission has a body to manage election disputes while 23.7% had strongly agreed that Constitutional framework provides for institutional and procedural limitations on powers.

Table 4.12 shows that 9.8% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that there are enough personnel to oversee elections in IEBC, 21.1% had disagreed that there are enough personnel to oversee elections in IEBC, 27.5% had somehow agreed that there are enough personnel to oversee elections in IEBC, 17.1% had agreed that there

are enough personnel to oversee elections in IEBC while 21.5% had strongly agreed that there are enough personnel to oversee elections in IEBC.

Table 4.12 shows that out of the 173 respondents, 4.6% had strongly disagreed that recording of election results in IEBC is electronic, 6.2% had disagreed that recording of election results in IEBC is electronic, 8.4% had somehow agreed that recording of election results in IEBC is electronic, 31.4% had agreed recording of election results in IEBC is electronic while 49.3% had strongly agreed that recording of election results in IEBC is electronic.

Table 4.12 shows that, 4.2% of the respondents had strongly disagreed that transmission of election results by IEBC is electronic, 8.4% had disagreed that transmission of election results by IEBC is electronic, 15.3% had somehow agreed that transmission of election results by IEBC is electronic, 31.3% had agreed that transmission of election results by IEBC is electronic while 40.8% had strongly agreed that transmission of election results by IEBC should be through electronic model

The findings of this study corroborate with Bazeley (2015), who points out that at the same time, there has been considerable variation in the quality of elections. Alongside many well-run elections, which often use technology, resources and personnel innovatively and efficiently, there are often concerns about administrative problems, technological failures, incomplete electoral registers and opportunities for fraud. This variation is found in both established and transitional democracies (Norris 2014). In most countries, these independent Electoral Bodies (EMBs) have been championed as a key institutional reform measure to successfully strengthen election integrity, and as a result independent EMBs are now the most common institutional model for Electoral process in the world (Catt, 2014). Accordingly, such bodies have a variety of shapes and sizes, with a wide range of titles to match, such as Election Commission, Department of Elections, Electoral Council, Election Unit or Electoral Board. (Van Ham & Staffan, 2015).

4.6 Diagnostics Test Results

To assess the Role of Stakeholder Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya, this study used ordinary least regression (OLS) model whose general form is stated in chapter three. However, before the results of this model are presented, bearing in mind that OLS modeling is based on specific assumptions, it was deemed prudent to determine how well these assumptions were upheld hence the diagnostics. Various diagnostic tests were conducted to ensure that the coefficients of the estimates were consistent and could be relied upon in making inferences. As argued by Greene (2013) regression can only be accurately estimated if the basic assumptions of multiple linear regressions are observed. The study thus performed tests for, linearity, homoscedasticity, autocorrelation, multicollinearity and normality taking remedial action where necessary as presented below.

4.6.1 Homoscedastic Test Results

One of the assumptions of linear regression analysis tested in this study was homoscedasticity; this implies that the error terms along the regression line were equal. According to Barley (2009), the violation of homoscedasticity which is otherwise known as heteroscedasticity make it difficult to gauge the true standard deviation of the forecast errors, usually resulting in confidence intervals that are too wide or too narrow. Particularly, if there is increase in the variance of the error term over time, confidence intervals for out-of-sample predictions tend to be unrealistically narrow. In that case, heteroscedasticity may also have the effect of giving too much weight to a small subset of the data (namely the subset where the error variance was largest) when estimating coefficients. Thus, to prevent such scenario when conducting research, it is expedient to test for homoscedasticity before carrying out a regression analysis. Therefore, this study tested the null hypothesis that the data collected was homoscedastic in variance using Breusch pagan test. The Chi Square statistic was used for testing relationships between categorical variables.

Table 4.13: Breusch Pagan Test for Homoscedasticity

Chi square statistic	P value	Conclusion
51.23	0.90	H0 is rejected

The result of the test presented in table 4.13 revealed that the test statistics was 51.23 while the p-value was 0.9 indicating that the data collected was not heteroscedasticity in variance and thus necessitating the acceptance of null hypothesis that the data collected was homoscedastic in variance and can be relied on for regression analysis.

4.6.2 Autocorrelation Test

Durbin Watson Statistic was conducted to test for autocorrelation in the data before accepting it for regression analysis. According to Kothari, (2004), Autocorrelation occurs when the residuals are not independent from each other. In other words, when the value of $y(x+1)$ is not independent from the value of $y(x)$. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there was no autocorrelation in the data collected for this study was tested with use of Durbin Watson Statistics. The results that the Durbin Watson Statistics for lag 1 was 2.138 which was between the two critical values $1.5 < d < 2.5$. Therefore the null hypothesis which stated that there was no autocorrelation in the data was rejected. This implies that the residuals were independent from each other. Similarly, the result satisfied the rule of thumb which states that values of $1.5 < d < 2.5$ show that there is no autocorrelation in the data (Barley, 2014). Results as shown in table 4.14

Table 4.14: Autocorrelation

Model Summary					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.746 ^a	.557	.541	.45301	2.138

4.6.3 Normality Test

In this section the researcher was required to provide the normative test for data collected. The results presented in table 4.15 showed a K-S statistic whose probability values were greater than 0.05 which was an indication the data was normally distributed.

Table 4.15: Normality Test

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Electoral Process	.161	172	.087	.841	172	.068
Media Participation	.121	172	.079	.835	172	.076
Citizen Participation	.171	172	.061	.806	172	.476
Civil Society	.125	172	.340	.973	172	.089
Observer Participation	.126	172	.567	.841	172	.056

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The results presented in the table showed a K-S statistic whose probability values were greater than 0.05 which was an indication the data was normally distributed. This was also supported by the normality plots

4.6.4 Test for Multicollinearity

The results in table 4.16 show the independent variables had variance inflation factor less than 10 which was an indication of non- existence of multicollinearity.

Table 4.16: Test for Multicollinearity

Model	Tolerance	ViF
(Constant)		
Media Participation	.276	3.628
Citizen Participation	.851	1.175
Civil Society	.824	1.214
Observer Participation	.281	3.561

4.7 Correlation Results

In order to specify the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the independent variables and electoral process in Kenya, bivariate correlations between the computed study variables and the dependent variables were conducted.

Correlations between independent variables media participation, observers' participation, civil society participation, citizen participation and dependent variable-electoral Process in Kenya were found to be significant at 0.05 level of significance.

Table 4.17: Correlation Matrix

		Correlations				
		EP	MP	CP	CS	OP
EP	Pearson Correlation	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)					
	N	173				
MP	Pearson Correlation	.649**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000				
	N	173	173			
CP	Pearson Correlation	.296**	.106	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.257			
	N	173	173	173		
CS	Pearson Correlation	.420**	.210*	.384**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.024	.000		
	N	172	172	172	173	
OP	Pearson Correlation	.642**	.848**	.065	.164	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.486	.079	
	N	173	173	173	173	173

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.8 Regression Results

Regression analysis is a statistical process for estimating the relationships among variables. It helps one understand how the typical value of the dependent variable (Electoral process) changes when any one of the independent variables is varied, while the other independent variables are held constant. Regression analysis was used to predict the variation in a dependent variable caused by the independent variables and was determined. The greater the coefficient, the greater the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. According to Carver et al (2009), R square ranges between 0.000 up to 1.000, with 1.000 indicating a perfect fit and suggesting that each point is on the straight line. In this study, both the standardized and unstandardized coefficients are given in the multiple regression equations. However, the standardized coefficients are the ones used in the discussions.

4.8.1 Regression results for Media Participation

Regression analysis was performed in order to determine whether the independent variable, pre-election phase processes could be reliable for explaining the change in the dependent variable, electoral process in Kenya. The study sought to examine the role of Media participation in Electoral Process in Kenya using objective 1 and the hypothesis as stated as follows.

Objective 1: To explore the role of media participation in Electoral Process in Kenya

H₀₁: Media participation have no significant relationship with electoral process in Kenya

The regression results for role of media participation in Electoral Process in Kenya were provided as shown in table 4.18

Table 4.18: Model summary showing Media participation

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.842	.709	.813	.51

In the table 4.18 $R=0.842$ implying a strong correlation $R^2 = 0.709$ implying that 70.9% of the variables are explained in the regression while 29.1 are unexplained in the regression line

The regression results for role of media participation in Electoral Process in Kenya were provided as shown in table 4.19

Table 4.19: ANOVA for Media participation

ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	21.470	1	21.470	83.001	.000 ^b
	Residual	29.489	171	.259		
	Total	50.960	172			

In the table 4.19, ANOVA measures the overall significance of the regression model. The significance of 0.000 indicate the variables are statistically significant.

Table 4.20: Coefficients for Media Participation

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.621	.245		6.621	.000
	MP	.581	.064	.649	9.110	.000

The regression results in table 4.18– 4.20 show that the effect of media Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya was significant ($F(1, 172) = 83.001, p=0.000 < 0.05$). With $R = 0.842$ and $R^2 = 0.709$, the model implies that about 84.2% of electoral

process in Kenya changes were accounted for by media participation, while a variation of 70.9% in electoral process in Kenya was brought about by Media participation.

The F test was significant with a p value =0.000 which was less than the standard p value of 0.05 and this meant that the model was significant. From ANOVA, since p value $p=0.000$ and was lower than $p=0.05$ (p value $0.000<0.05$), then the contribution of Media Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya was significant, and the conclusion is that media have a positive relationship with electoral process in Kenya.

The coefficient for media (β) was also significant ($\beta = 0.581$, $t = 9.110$, $p = 0.000<0.05$) indicating that Media Participation increased electoral process in Kenya by about 0.581units. Since p -value = $0.000< 0.05$, the null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that there was a statistically significant relationship between Media and electoral process in Kenya. The study findings are consistent with the findings of a study by Mwai (2016) who concluded that media play a major role and its processes goes a long way in helping the organization to grow.

4.8.2 Regression results for Citizen Participation

The study sought to establish the role of Citizen Participation on electoral process in Kenya using the following objective 2 and hypothesis that is stated below.

Objective 2 To examine the role of Citizen Participation electoral process in Kenya

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship between Citizen Participation and Electoral Process in Kenya

The regression results for role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya were provided as shown in table 4.21

Table 4.21: Model Summary for Citizen Participation

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.791 ^a	.626	.604	.592

In the table 4.21 R=0.791 implying a strong correlation $R^2 = 0.626$ implying that 60.4% of the variables are explained in the regression while 39.6% are unexplained in the regression line

The regression results for role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya were provided as shown in table 4.22

Table 4.22: ANOVA for Citizen Participation

ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.451	1	4.451	10.911	.001 ^b
	Residual	46.508	171	.408		
	Total	50.960	172			

In the table 4.22, ANOVA measures the overall significance of the regression model. The significance of 0.001 indicate the variables are not statistically significant.

Table 4.23: Coefficients for Citizen Participation

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.074	.230		13.349	.000
	CP	.193	.058	.296	3.303	.001

The regression results in table 4.20 -4.22 show that the effect of Citizen Participation on electoral process in Kenya was significant ($F(1, 171) = 10.911, p = 0.001 < 0.05$). With $R = 0.791$ and $R^2 = 0.626$, the model implies that about 79.1% of electoral process in Kenya changes were accounted for by Citizen Participation, while a variation of 62.6% in electoral process in Kenya was brought about by the Citizen Participation.

The F test was significant with a p value = 0.000 which was less than the standard p value of 0.05 and this meant that the model was significant. From ANOVA, since p value $p = 0.000$ and was lower than $p = 0.05$ (p value $0.000 < 0.05$), then the contribution of Citizen Participation to electoral process in Kenya was significant, and the conclusion is that citizen participation has contributed electoral process in Kenya significantly.

The coefficient for Citizen Participation (β) was also significant ($\beta = 0.193, t = 3.303, p = 0.001 < 0.05$) indicating that citizen process significantly contributed electoral process in Kenya by about 0.193 units. Since p-value = $0.001 < 0.05$, the null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that there was a statistically significant relationship between citizen participation and electoral process in Kenya. The findings agree with the findings of a study by Sentuya (2015) which demonstrated that Citizen Participation is the people directly or indirectly involved in electoral process. Citizen Participation is fundamental to the voting process and thus this is an important element in the electoral process in Kenya.

4.8.3 Regression results for Observer's participation

The research sought to establish the role of the election observer's participation in Electoral Process in Kenya using the objective 3 and hypothesis that is stated below:

Objective 3 To establish the role of election observer's participation on electoral process in Kenya

H₀₃: Election observers' participation do not play a role in electoral process in Kenya.

The regression results for election observers show that electoral process in Kenya were provided as shown in table 4.23

Table 4.23: Model Summary for Election Observers participation

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.864 ^a	.745	.715	.612

In the table 4.23 R=0.864 implying a strong correlation .R₂ =0.745 implying that 71.5% of the variables are explained in the regression while 29.5% are unexplained in the regression line

The regression results for role of Election Observers participation in Electoral Process in Kenya were provided as shown in table 4.24

Table 4.24: ANOVA for Election Observers participation

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8.971	1	8.971	24.148	.000 ^b
	Residual	41.980	171	.372		
	Total	50.951	172			

In the table 4.24, ANOVA measures the overall significance of the regression model.

The significance of 0.000 indicate the variables are statically significant.

Table 4.25: Coefficients for Election Observers participation

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.172	.349		6.057	.000
	EO	.452	.092	.420	4.914	.000

The regression results in table 4.23 - 4.25 show that the role of election observers' participation in Electoral Process in Kenya was significant ($F(1, 171) = 24.148$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$). With $R = 0.864$ and $R^2 = 0.745$, the model implies that about 86.4% of electoral process in Kenya changes were accounted for by election observers' participation, while a variation of 74.5% in electoral process in Kenya was brought about by election observers.

The F test was significant with a p value = 0.000 which was less than the standard p value of 0.05 and this meant that the model was significant. From ANOVA, since p value $p = 0.000$ and was lower than $p = 0.05$ (p value $0.000 < 0.05$), then the contribution of election observers' participation to electoral process in Kenya was significant, and the conclusion is that election observers contributed significantly to credible electoral process in Kenya.

The coefficient for election observers' (β) was also significant ($\beta = 0.452$, $t = 4.914$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) indicating that election observer's participation contributed to electoral process in Kenya by about 0.452 units. Since p-value = 0.000 < 0.05, the null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that there was a statistically significant relationship between election observer participation and electoral process in Kenya.

4.8.4 Regression results for civil society participation

The study sought to establish the magnitude and direction of the effect of civil society participation in Electoral Process in Kenya using objective 4 and hypothesis was stated as follows.

Objective 4 To assess the role of civil society participation in electoral process in Kenya

H₀₄: Civil society participation does not play a significant role in electoral process in Kenya

The regression results for role of civil society participation in Electoral Process in Kenya were provided as shown in table 4.26.

Table 4.26: Model Summary for Civil Society Participation

Model Summary					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	
1	.731 ^a	.534	.526	.512	

Predictors: (Constant), OP

In the table 4.26 R=0.731 implying a strong correlation .R2 =0.534 implying that 52.6% of the variables are explained in the regression while 48.4% are unexplained in the regression line

The regression results for role of Civil Society participation in Electoral Process in Kenya were provided as shown in table 4.27

Table 4.27: ANOVA for Civil Society participation

ANOVA^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	21.012	1	21.012	79.983	.000 ^b
1	Residual	29.948	171	.263		
	Total	50.960	172			

In the table 4.27, ANOVA measures the overall significance of the regression model.

The significance of 0.001 indicate the variables are statistically significant.

Table 4.28: Coefficients for Civil Society participation

Model		Coefficients			t	Sig.
		Unstandardized		Standardized		
		Coefficients		Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.478	.265		5.574	.000
	CS	.610	.068	.642	8.943	.000

The regression results in table 4.29-4.30 show that the role of civil society participation in Electoral Process in Kenya was significant ($F(1, 171) = 79.983$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$). With $R = 0.731$ and $R^2 = 0.534$, the model implies that about 73.1% of electoral process in Kenya changes accounts for civil society organizations participation, while a variation of 73.1% in electoral process was brought about by the role of civil society organizations in Kenya.

The F test was significant with a p value = 0.000 which was less than the standard p value of 0.05 and this meant that the model was significant. From ANOVA, since p value $p = 0.000$ and was lower than $p = 0.05$ (p value $0.000 < 0.05$), then the contribution of civil society participation to electoral process in Kenya was significant, and the conclusion is that civil society organizations participation has a positive role in contributing to better Electoral Process in Kenya.

The coefficient for civil society participation (β) was also significant ($\beta = 0.610$, $t = 8.943$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) indicating that civil society organization's role on electoral processes in Kenya was about 0.610 units. Since p-value = $0.000 < 0.05$, the null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that there was a statistically significant relationship between civil society participation and electoral process in Kenya.

4.8.5 Regression Results for Constitutional Framework

The study sought to establish the role of Constitutional Framework in Electoral Process in Kenya using objective 5 and hypothesis that is stated below:

Objective 5 To evaluate the moderating role of constitutional framework in Electoral Process in Kenya

H₀₅: Constitutional framework do not have a significant role in electoral process in Kenya

The regression results for Constitutional framework in Electoral Process in Kenya were provided as shown in table 4.29

Table 4.29: Model Summary for Constitutional framework

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.753 ^a	.567	.544	.513

a. Predictors: (Constant), CF

In the table 4.29 R=0.753 implying a strong correlation .R² =0.567 implying that 54.4% of the variables are explained in the regression while 46.6% are unexplained in the regression line

The regression results for role of Civil Society participation in Electoral Process in Kenya were provided as shown in table 4.30

Table 4.30: ANOVA for Constitutional framework

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	21.014	1	21.012	79.783	.000 ^b
	Residual	29.848	171	.253		
	Total	51.950	172			

In the table 4.30, ANOVA measures the overall significance of the regression model.

The significance of 0.000 indicate the variables are statistically significant.

Table 4.31: Coefficients for Constitutional framework

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.578	.265		5.575	.000
	CF	.630	.067	.651	8.847	.000

The regression results in table 4.31 – 4.33 show that the role of civil society participation in Electoral Process in Kenya was significant ($F(1, 171) = 79.783$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$). With $R = 0.753$ and $R^2 = 0.567$, the model implies that about 75.3% of electoral process in Kenya changes accounts for Constitutional framework, while a variation of 75.3 % in electoral process was brought about by the role of civil society participation in Kenya.

The F test was significant with a p value =0.000 which was less than the standard p value of 0.05 and this meant that the model was significant. From ANOVA, since p value $p = 0.000$ and was lower than $p = 0.05$ (p value $0.000 < 0.05$), then the contribution of civil society participation to electoral process in Kenya was

significant, and the conclusion is that Constitutional framework has a significant moderating role in Electoral Process in Kenya.

The coefficient for Constitutional framework (β) was also significant ($\beta = 0.651$, $t = 8.847$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) indicating that civil society participation plays a significant moderating role in electoral process in Kenya by about 0.610 units. Since p -value $= 0.000 < 0.05$, the null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that there was a statistically significant relationship between Constitutional framework and electoral process in Kenya.

4.8.6 Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

To determine the relationship, the model $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1MP + \beta_2CP + \beta_3CS + \beta_4OP + \varepsilon$ was fitted to present the integrated models of the study at the four combined independent variables, as the study used a hierarchical regression analysis method to for the integrated model for the study

The regression results were as shown in table 4.32.

Table 4.32: Model Summary for Multivariate Regression

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.746 ^a	.557	.541	.453

In the table 4.32 $R = 0.746$ implying a strong correlation $R^2 = 0.557$ implying that 54.1% of the variables are explained in the regression while 46.9% are unexplained in the regression line

The regression results for role of Civil Society participation in Electoral Process in Kenya were provided as shown in table 4.33

Table 4.33: ANOVA for Multivariate Regression

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	28.377	4	7.094	34.569	.000 ^b
	Residual	22.574	110	.205		
	Total	50.951	171			

In the table 4.33, ANOVA measures the overall significance of the regression model.

The significance of 0.000 indicate the variables are statistically significant.

Table 4.34: Coefficients for Multivariate Regression

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.215	.329		.655	.014
	MP	.254	.108	.284	2.350	.021
	CP	.097	.045	.149	2.159	.033
	CS	.264	.075	.245	3.505	.001
	OP	.334	.171	.351	2.935	.004

As shown in table 4.34 the estimated multiple regression model is given as

$$Y=0.215 +0.254X_1 +0.97X_2 +0.264X_3+0.334X_4$$

4.8.7 Moderation Role of Constitutional framework on Electoral Process.

To determine the moderating role of constitutional framework (Z), the model $Y= \beta_0 + \beta_1MP*Z+ \beta_2CP*Z + \beta_3CS*Z +\beta_4OP*Z + \varepsilon$ was fitted to present the integrated models of the study at the four combined independent variables, as the study used a hierarchical regression analysis method to for the integrated model for the study.

Table 4.35: Model Summary results of Electoral Process

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.761 ^a	.579	.563	.44173

Table 4.36: ANOVA for results of Electoral Process

ANOVA^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	29.488	4	7.372	37.781	.000 ^b
	Residual	21.464	167	.195		
	Total	50.951	171			

In the table 4.36, ANOVA measures the overall significance of the regression model. The significance of 0.000 indicate the variables are statistically significant.

Table 4.37: Coefficient Results for Electoral Process

Coefficients					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.125	.164		12.977	.000
OP*Z	.077	.030	.714	2.600	.011
MP*Z	.030	.031	.285	.982	.028
CP*Z	.025	.013	.183	1.985	.050
CS*Z	.044	.017	.255	2.664	.009

From the table 4.37, the significance results for OP are 0.011 implying that they were statistically significant. The significance results for MP are 0.028 implying that they were statistically significant. The significance results for CP are 0.050 implying that they were statistically indifferent. the significance results for CS are 0.009 implying that they were statistically significant .The regression results in table 4.37 - 4.39

show that the role of Media participation, Citizen Participation, election observers, participation and civil society participation in Electoral Process in Kenya in presence of moderating variable (Constitutional framework) was significant ($F(4, 169) = 34.569, p=0.000 < 0.05$). With $R = 0.761$ and $R^2 = 0.559$, the model implies that about 76.1% of electoral process in Kenya were contributed by Media participation, Citizen Participation, election observers participation and civil society organizations participation in presence of moderating variable (Constitutional framework) while a variation of 57.9% in electoral process in Kenya were brought about by Media participation, Citizen Participation, election observers participation and civil society organizations participation in presence of moderating variable (constitutional framework)

The F test was significant with a p value =0.000 which was less than the standard p value of 0.05 and this meant that the model was significant. From ANOVA, since p value $p=0.000$ and was lower than $p=0.05$ (p value $0.00 < 0.05$), then the contribution of media participation, Citizen Participation, election observers ‘participation and civil society organization participation in Electoral Process in presence of moderating variable (constitutional framework) was significant.

4.9 Hypotheses Testing

All the hypotheses were tested using multiple linear regression analysis.

4.9.1 Hypothesis Testing for Role of Media Participation

H₀₁: Media Participation has no significant role in the electoral process in Kenya

The hypothesis was tested by using multiple linear regression and determined using P-value. The acceptance/rejection criteria were that, if the p value is less than 0.05, was to reject the H₀₁ but if it was more than 0.05, the H₀₁ is not rejected. The coefficient for media participation (β) was also significant ($\beta = 0.581, t = 9.110, p = 0.000 < 0.05$) indicating that Media Participation improved electoral process in Kenya by about 0.581 units. Since p-value =0.000 < 0.05, the null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that there was a statistically significant relationship between Media

participation and electoral process in Kenya. The study therefore rejected the null hypothesis that Media Participation has no significant role in the electoral process in Kenya.

4.9.2 Hypothesis Testing for Role of Citizen Participation

H₀₂: There is no significant role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya

The hypothesis was tested by using multiple linear regression and determined using P-value. The acceptance/rejection criteria were that, if the p value is less than 0.05, was to reject the H₀₂ but if it was more than 0.05, the H₀₂ is not rejected. The coefficient for Citizen Participation (β) was also significant ($\beta = 0.193$, $t = 3.303$, $p = 0.001 < 0.05$) indicating that Citizen Participation significantly improved electoral process in Kenya by about 0.193 units. Since $p\text{-value} = 0.001 < 0.05$, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted that there was a statistically significant role of citizen participation in electoral process in Kenya.

4.9.3 Hypothesis Testing for Role of election Observer Participation

H₀₃: Election observer participation does not have a significant role in electoral process in Kenya.

The hypothesis was tested by using multiple linear regression and determined using P-value approach. The acceptance/rejection criteria were that, if the p value is less than 0.05, was to reject the H₀₃ but if it was more than 0.05, the H₀₃ is not rejected. The coefficient for election observer participation (β) was also significant ($\beta = 0.452$, $t = 4.914$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) indicating that election observer participation improved electoral process in Kenya by about 0.452 units. Since $p\text{-value} = 0.000 < 0.05$, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted that there was a statistically significant role of election observer participation in electoral process in Kenya. Lappin (2009) contends that international election observers are an essential element to peace building but that their promise can only be fully realised if several

policy shortcomings are addressed, not least the necessity to acknowledge a distinction between international election observers conducted in the post-conflict environment and those conducted under more peaceful conditions.

4.9.4 Hypothesis Testing for Role of Civil Society Participation

H₀₄: Civil society participation do not play a significant role in electoral process in Kenya

The hypothesis was tested by using multiple linear regression and determined using P-value. The acceptance/rejection criteria were that, if the p value is less than 0.05, was to reject the H₀₄ but if it was more than 0.05, the H₀₄ is not rejected. The coefficient for civil society participation (β) was also significant ($\beta = 0.610$, $t = 8.943$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) indicating that civil society participation plays a significant role in electoral processes in Kenya by about 0.610 units. Since $p\text{-value} = 0.000 < 0.05$, the null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that there was a statistically significant role of civil society participation in electoral process in Kenya.

4.9.5 Hypothesis Testing for Moderating Role of Constitutional Framework

H₀₅ Constitutional framework have no significant role in electoral process in Kenya.

The hypothesis was tested by using multiple linear regression and determined using P-value. The acceptance/rejection criteria were that, if the p value is less than 0.05, was to reject the H₀₅ but if it was more than 0.05, the H₀₅ is not rejected. The coefficient for Constitutional framework (β) was also significant ($\beta = 0.651$, $t = 8.847$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) indicating that constitutional framework plays a significant role in electoral processes in Kenya by about 0.610 units. Since $p\text{-value} = 0.000 < 0.05$, the null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that there was a statistically significant role played by constitutional framework in electoral process in Kenya.

4.10 Discussion of Key Findings

4.10.1 Media Participation and Electoral Process in Kenya

The first objective of the study was to establish the role of Media participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. Regression of coefficient revealed that there was a positive and significant relationship between Media participation and electoral process in Kenya ($r=0.842$). This was supported by a p value of 0.000 which was less than 0.05. The coefficient of media participation was 0.581. This means that a unitary improvement in Media participation leads to an improvement in electoral Process by 0.581 units holding other factors constant.

This is in agreement with Paul (2015) who found that Media are able the control capability of suitable electorates to partake in an electoral process, which is the key component in the impartiality of an election. Registration of voters is usually done earlier before the Election Day to allow the direct inspection of the voter register by various stakeholders including media. This aims at increasing the efficiency as well as the integrity of voter awareness processes in Kenya but more still needs to be done through media house enlightenment (Paul, 2015).

This is also in agreement with a study conducted by Okinda (2014) who believes that media programs must offer opportunities for all issues at stake in an electoral process. These include basic issues such as who can vote or contest an election, date of the election and where to vote.

4.10.2 The Role of Citizen Participation.

The second objective of the study was to examine the role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. Regression of coefficient revealed that there was a positive and significant role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya ($r=0.791$, $p=0.00$). This was supported by a p value of 0.000 which was less than 0.05. The coefficient of Citizen Participation was 0.193. This means that a unitary

improvement in Citizen Participation leads to an improvement in electoral Process by 0.193 units holding other factors constant.

Citizens have a vital role to play in landscaping electoral process in Kenya. These include inter alia registering as voters, voting, creating awareness, as agents representing political party interests (Sifuna, 2015).

4.10.3 Election Observer Participation and Electoral Process in Kenya

The third objective of the study was to determine the role of election observer's participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. Regression of coefficient revealed that there was a positive and significant relationship between election observers and electoral process in Kenya ($r=0.864$). This was supported by a p value of 0.000 which was less than 0.05. The coefficient of election observer participation was 0.452. This means that a unitary improvement in election observer participation leads to an improvement in electoral Process by 0.452 units holding other factors constant.

4.10.4 Civil Society Participation and Electoral Process in Kenya.

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the role of election observers' participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. Regression of coefficient revealed that there was a positive and significant relationship between civil society organization and electoral process in Kenya ($r=0.731$). This was supported by a P value of 0.000 which was less than 0.05. The coefficient of civil society participation was .610. This means that a unitary improvement in post-election phase processes leads to an improvement in electoral process in Kenya by 0.240 units holding other factors constant.

Mottiar (2018) notes that the role of civil society in elections often takes the form of support for the institutional processes of a democratic election as well as the more substantive development of a democratic electorate. Civil society does, however, have a role to play in reducing election-related conflict dynamics and promoting a peaceful electoral environment.

4.10.5 Constitutional Framework and Electoral Process in Kenya.

The fifth objective of the study was to evaluate the moderating role of constitutional framework in Electoral Process in Kenya. Constitutional framework had a positive and significant moderating role for Media participation with a p value $0.028 < 0.05$, Citizen Participation with a p value $0.045 < 0.05$, Election observer participation with a p value $0.011 < 0.05$ and civil society participation with a p value of $0.009 < 0.05$.

This correlated with research undertaken by Sifuna (2015) who found out that the election-related violence that broke out in Kenya in 2007-08 was triggered by the announcement of the presidential election results and aggravated when the president was sworn in on the same day due to constitutional inadequacies.

4.11 Summary of Hypothesis Testing

Table 4.38: Summary of Hypothesis Testing

Objective	Objective No	Hypothesis	Rule	p-value	Comment
Objective 1	To establish the role of media participation in Electoral Process in Kenya	Ho1: Media Participation has no significant role in the electoral process in Kenya	Do not reject HA1 if pvalue <0.05	p<0.05	The null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that there was a statistically significant relationship between Media participation and electoral process in Kenya.
Objective 2	To examine the role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya	Ho2: Citizen Participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya	Do not reject HA2 if p value <0.05	p<0.05	The null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted that there was a statistically significant role of citizen participation in electoral process in Kenya
Objective 3	to determine the role of election observers' participation in Electoral Process in Kenya	Ho3: Election observer's participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya	DonotrejectHA3ifpvalue <0.05	p<0.05	The null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted that there was a statistically significant role of election observer participation in electoral process in Kenya
Objective 4	To determine the role of civil society participation in Electoral Process in Kenya	Ho4: Civil society organizations participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya	Do not rejectHA4if pvalue <0.05	p<0.05	The null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that there was a statistically significant role of civil society participation in electoral process in Kenya
Objective 5	To evaluate the moderating role of Constitutional framework in Electoral Process in Kenya	Ho5 Constitutional frameworks as a stakeholder have no significant role on electoral process in Kenya	Do not rejectHA5if pvalue <0.05	p<0.05	The null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted that there was a statistically significant role of election observer participation in electoral process in Kenya

4.12 Optimal model and Revised Conceptual Framework

Based on the results in table 4.39 a model optimization was conducted. The aim of model optimization was to guide in derivation of the final model (revised conceptual framework) where only the significant variables are included for objectivity. Results were arrived at through running multiple regressions. Results of the new conceptual framework are presented in figure 4.1

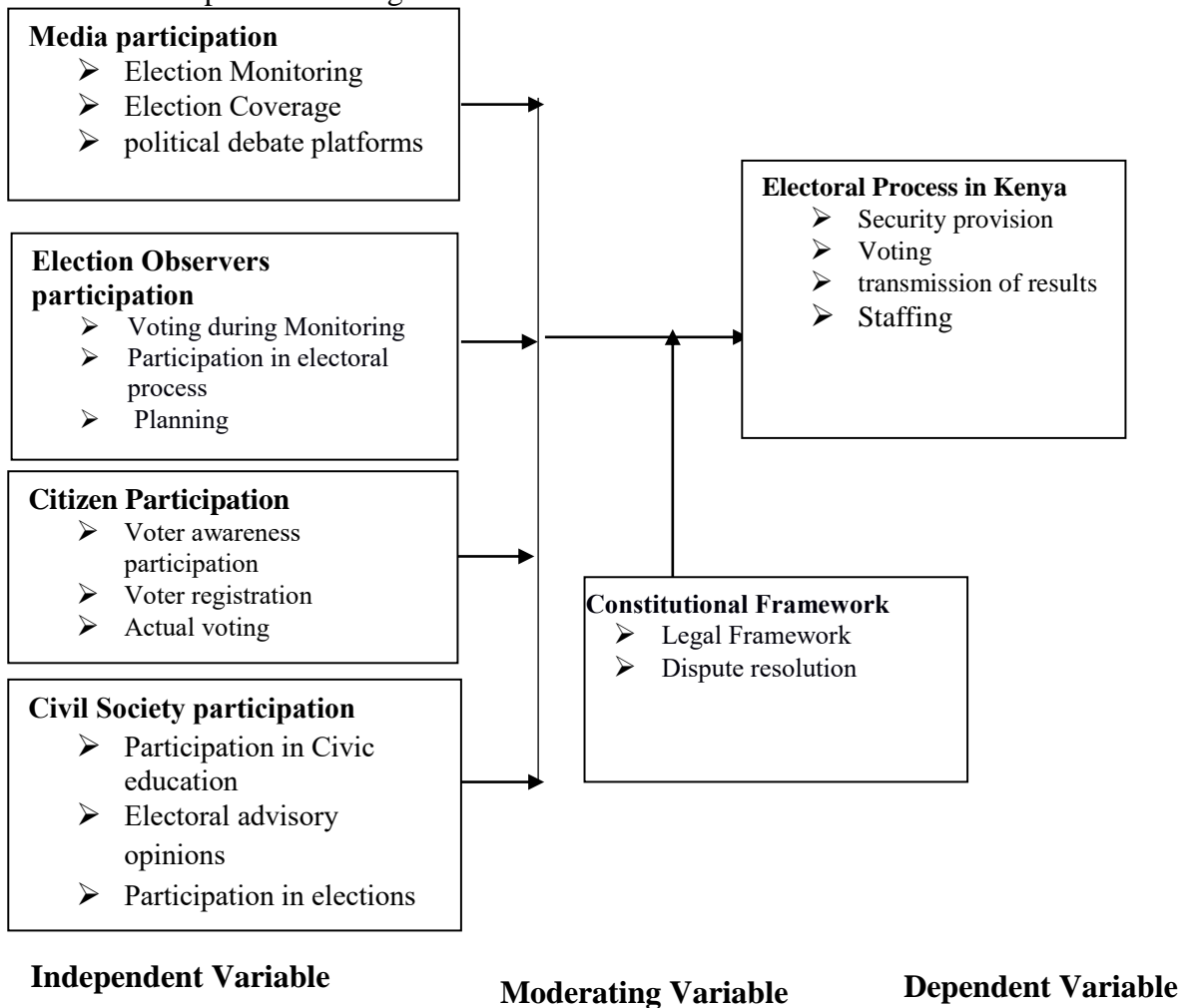


Figure 4.1: Revised Conceptual Framework

As shown in figure 4.1 no variable was dropped since all of them were significant

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The chapter highlights summary of key findings, gives conclusions and provides recommendations. Conclusions and recommendations are derived from the research questions and the identified variables supporting the study.

5.2 Summary

The study sought to establish the role of stakeholder participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. The results are summarized in the order of study objectives. The specific objectives of the study were: To establish the role of Media participation, to examine the role of Citizen Participation, to determine the role of election observer's participation, to assess the role of the civil society participation and to evaluate the moderating role of constitutional framework in Electoral Process in Kenya.

The study adopted descriptive survey design. The target population was 519 officials from the main election stakeholders in Kenya. Stratified sampling technique was used to bring together respondents of same characteristics. Questionnaire was used as data collection instrument. The study established that there was a positive relationship between the roles of stakeholder participation in Electoral Process in Kenya

5.2.1 Role of Media participation in Electoral Process in Kenya

The first objective was to establish the role of Media participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. From this objective, it was hypothesized that there is no significant relationship between media and electoral process in Kenya. The results of this study

showed a positive statistically significant relationship between role of Media participation and electoral process in Kenya.

Therefore, this means that the hypothesis that media has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya was rejected and concluded that media has a significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya. This confirmed that there is a positive linear relationship between media participation and electoral process in Kenya.

The researcher attributes this to the fact that before election process it is still young and countries are at initial stage of implementation electoral rules.

5.2.2 Role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya

The second objective was to examine the role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. From this objective, it was hypothesized that there is no significant relationship between Citizen Participation and electoral process in Kenya. The results of this study showed a positive statistically significant relationship between role of Citizen Participation and electoral process in Kenya.

This therefore means that the hypothesis that Citizen Participation has no significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya was rejected and concluded that Citizen Participation has a significant role in Electoral Process in Kenya. This confirmed that there is a positive linear relationship between Citizen Participation and electoral process in Kenya.

5.2.3 Role of election observers' participation in Electoral Process in Kenya

The third objective was to determine the role of election observer's participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. From this objective, it was hypothesized that there is no significant relationship between election observers and electoral process in Kenya. The results of this study showed a positive statistically significant relationship between role of election observer's participation and electoral process in Kenya.

This therefore means that the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between election observer participation and electoral process in Kenya was rejected and the study concluded that there is a significant relationship between election observer participation and electoral process in Kenya. This confirmed that there is a positive linear relationship between election observer participation and electoral process in Kenya.

5.2.4 Role of Civil Society participation in Electoral Process in Kenya

The fourth objective was to assess the role of the civil society participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. From this objective, it was hypothesized that there is no significant relationship between civil society participation and electoral process in Kenya.

The results of this study showed a positive statistically significant relationship between role of civil society participation and electoral process in Kenya.

This therefore means that the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between civil society participation and electoral process in Kenya was rejected and the study therefore concluded that there is a significant relationship between civil society participation and electoral process in Kenya. This confirmed that there is a positive linear relationship between civil society participation and electoral process in Kenya.

5.2.5 Moderating the Role of Constitutional Framework in Electoral Process in Kenya

The fifth objective was to evaluate the moderating role of constitutional framework in Electoral Process in Kenya. From this objective, it was hypothesized that there is no significant relationship between constitutional framework and electoral process in Kenya. The results of this study showed a statistically significant relationship between role of constitutional framework and electoral process in Kenya. This

therefore means that the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between the independent variables moderated by constitutional framework and electoral process in Kenya was rejected and the study therefore concluded that there is a significant relationship between the independent variables moderated by constitutional framework and electoral process in Kenya.

5.3 Conclusions

5.3.1 Role of Media participation in Electoral Process in Kenya

The first objective was to establish the role of Media participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. The findings confirm that there is a statistically significant relationship between the media participation and electoral process in Kenya. A positive increase in media participation leads to an improvement in electoral process in Kenya. It can therefore be concluded from this study that media participation was statistically significant in improving electoral processes in Kenya.

And this has improved Kenya's global ranking in ease to political right to participate in elections. Compared to other countries, Kenya's media in today's politics and society at large, has established itself as being indispensable to the role of safeguarding transparency of each democratic and election processes. Transparency is necessary on numerous levels including for access to data/information; answerability and credibility of individuals, agencies, institutions including the processes themselves; as well as for rightful involvement and public debate.

5.3.2 Role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya

The second objective of the study was to examine the role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. The findings confirm that there is a statistically significant relationship between Citizen Participation and electoral process in Kenya. A positive increase in Citizen Participation leads to an improvement in electoral process in Kenya. It can therefore be concluded from this study that Citizen Participation was statistically significant in improving electoral process in Kenya.

5.3.3 Role of Election Observers Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya

The third objective of the study was to determine the role of election observer participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. The findings confirm that there is a statistically significant relationship between election observer participation and electoral process in Kenya. An improvement in election observer participation leads to an improvement in electoral process in Kenya. It can therefore be concluded from this study that election observer participation was statistically significant in improving electoral process in Kenya.

5.3.4 Role of Civil Society participation in Electoral Process in Kenya

The fourth objective of the study was to assess the role of the civil society participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. The findings of the study confirm that there is a statistically significant relationship between civil society participation and electoral process in Kenya. An improvement in civil society organization leads to an increase in electoral process in Kenya. It can therefore be concluded from this study that civil society organization was statistically significant in improvement electoral process in Kenya.

5.3.5 Moderating the Role of Constitutional Framework in Electoral Process in Kenya

The fifth objective of the study was to evaluate the moderating role of constitutional framework in Electoral Process in Kenya. The findings confirm that there is a statistically significant relationship between moderating role of constitutional framework and electoral process in in constitutional framework leads to an increase in electoral process in Kenya. It can therefore be concluded from this study that constitutional framework was statistically significant in improving electoral processes in Kenya. The study therefore concludes that legal framework and dispute

resolution on effective electoral process and their implementation have a moderating role.

5.4 Recommendations

From the conclusions drawn on this study, the study was seen to provide important insights on the role of stakeholder participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. Therefore, the results of this study are of interest to Kenyan leaders, policy makers, media, election observers, citizenry and civil society organizations. The study made the following recommendations.

5.4.1 Managerial Recommendations

Kenyan leaders should consider the many factors involved in a complex and dynamic situation before making decisions in Electoral Process that influence the effectiveness, efficiency and ultimately the political stability of the country. The management of the elections and political leadership to lead the way in the design, measurement and evolution of election practices that help attract and retain talent with skills and competencies necessary for political stability. The study examines the role of the independent variables; media participation, citizen participation, civil society and election observers on the dependent variable Electoral process through appropriate observation and performance measures for objective analysis.

The measure of electoral process is limited to electoral process indicators that would include results transmission, and voter registration, and voter sensitization. The use of management indicators has been used in past studies to examine electoral process. Whichever model is chosen, the study recommends that all participants in the election process should demonstrate fearless independence in the sense that they are not affected by governmental, political or other partisan influences in their decisions. The Study also recommends that independent and professional election bodies should be free from government control so that they can offer a much greater chance of successful elections.

5.4.2 Policy Recommendations

The study recommended that policy makers should formulate policies that embrace electoral process that would be implemented by the county to give it a competitive advantage and for the new countries willing to partner with Kenya to have a reason for this. This study also recommends new frontiers to motivate stakeholders to involve more in elections. It is evident voter turnout has been declining globally since the beginning of 1990s, and Kenya is no exception. Such a tendency in democratic involvement has raised numerous concerns among election all stakeholders.

The current study has contributed knowledge to the role of stakeholder participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. The study recommends that the academicians, scholars should team up to develop theories in Electoral Processes that enhance the knowledge on political stability in the developing world instead of relying more on theories from the western world. The study recommended the policy makers to formulate policies than embrace electoral process that could be implemented by individual partner states to give the region a competitive advantage

5.5 Areas for Further Research

This study sought to establish the role of stakeholder participation in Electoral Process in Kenya. The dependent variable was electoral process and the independent variables were media participation, Citizen Participation, election observer participation, civil society participation and moderating variable was constitutional framework. There are other mediating or intervening factors that can affect electoral process that would be researched further for example election rigging and the role of executive arm of the government in landscaping the electoral terrain. Again, this study used cross sectional research design which means that the constructs were measured from a static perspective. Future researchers can use longitudinal study which can provide more insights on electoral process in Kenya.

Further, since the study applied questionnaires, a descriptive and explanatory design. Further studies could be carried out using additional qualitative or mixed methods to enrich the findings. Future studies should apply different research instruments like focused group discussions to involve respondents in discussions in order to generate detailed information which would help improve the findings. Further empirical work should be carried out to expose other variables rather than the ones used in this study like political stability and accountability.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Letter of introduction

Date.....

Dear Respondent,

RE: INTRODUCTION LETTER

I am a postgraduate student from the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology in the college of Human Resource Management. Am carrying out a research on “*Stakeholder participation in Electoral Process in Kenya.*” and you have been selected to participate in the study. The attached questionnaire have been designed to assist there searcher gather data for the purpose of the research only. You will not be required to write your name.

You are kindly requested to respond to all items thoughtfully and honestly. You are here by assured that the information you will give will be treated with confidentiality it deserves and used strictly and only for academic purposes.

Thank you in advance.

Yours faithfully

Brian Muithya Mutie

Researcher

Appendix II: Questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data for academic use only. The study seeks to examine the role of stakeholder participation in electoral process in Kenya. All the information provided herein shall be treated with utmost confidence. You need not indicate your name or any other identification details in this questionnaire.

Kindly respond to all the questions and statements as honestly and precisely as possible as well as ticking and filling blank spaces as provided

SECTION 1: GENERAL INFORMATION

Please indicate (**Tick as appropriate**).

Age (Years)

18-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 and Over

Level of Education

Primary	
High School	
College	
University-1 st Degree	
University-Post Graduate(Masters)	
University-Post Graduate(PhD)	
Others, Specify.....	

What sector are you in?

International IGO	
Civil Society/Local NGO	
Electorate	
Media	
Government	

Has your organization been involved in matters of elections during the last 5 election cycles?

Yes \ No \

SECTION 2: MEDIA AND ELECTORAL PROCESS

Objective 1: To assess the role of Media participation participation in electoral process in Kenya

For each of the following factors on the role of Media participation participation indicate the extend of influence/agreement in electoral process, use a scale of 1-5, where **5 is very high extent,4 High extent,3 Moderate extent,2 low exrtent,1 very low extent.**

Media	1	2	3	4	5
My organization conduct political debates matters of elections					
It offers a campaign platform to candidates					
Media involvement in voter education contributes to election monitoring					

A good media coverage offers equal airtime to all political parties and candidates					
The organization adheres to media council of Kenya code of conduct and regulation					
Sensitization on voter rights in performance of elections is a key role of Media participation					
Allocation of equal amount of time to specific political manifestos is crucial contributor in shaping electoral process					
Political opinion can be shaped by media involvement in election matters					
As long as Media continue to focus too much on elections, other pillars such as economic, social will suffer marginally					
Media propaganda is a highly used tool to influence voting patterns					
Polling by media gives a snapshot of the ideal election outcome					
Media reach is biased as it only covers a few and alienates others					
The challenge of ensuring clear media strategy on election coverage is primarily an					

organization one and depends on strategic leadership					
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SECTION 3: CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

Objective 2: To establish the role of Citizen Participation in Electoral Process in Kenya

For each of the following roles of citizen participation, establish the of citizen participation in electoral process in Kenya. Use a scale of 1-5, where 5 is very high extent, 4 High extent,3 Moderate extent,2 low exrtent,1 very low extent.

Citizen Participation	1	2	3	4	5
Citizen participation in elections amounts to campaign platforms					
Citizen participation in elections resonates with voting					
Citizen participation in elections shapes the electoral landscape					
Citizen involvement enhances credibility in election outcome					
citizens awareness in elections a catalyzes the citizenry					
Creates more avenues for citizen engagement to fundraising for better electoral process					
Enhanced citizen participation results to an informed electorate					
Citizen participation in electoral					

structures and systems contribute to a credible electoral process.					
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SECTION 4: ELECTION OBSERVERS

Objective 3: To establish the role of election observer's participation in Electoral Process in Kenya

For each of the following roles of election observers in Electoral Process in Kenya. Use a scale of 1-5, where **5 is very high extent, 4 high extent 3 Moderate extents, 2 low extents, 1 very low extent.**

Election Observers	1	2	3	4	5
Observer involvement in electoral matters amounts to monitoring					
Successful elections in Kenya is open to reporting					
Access to polling stations and tallying results reduces fraud					
Both local and international observer teams contribute to credible elections					
The International development partners acceptance to elections is guided by credible election verdict					
Fundamental freedom to observers is a key tenet in enhancing collaboration by stakeholders in electoral process					

Credible electoral outcome is dependent on feedback					
Satisfaction of election stakeholders better election tallying					
Unlimited access to voting centers and voter tallying by observers contributes information for all					
Reporting wrong information by observers is a recipe for incredible electoral outcome					

SECTION 5: CIVIL SOCIETY AND ELECTORAL PROCESS

Objective 4: To establish the role of civil society organizations in Electoral Process in Kenya

For each of the following roles of civil society in Electoral Process in Kenya, use a scale of 1-5, where 5 is very high extent, 4 high extents 3 Moderate extent, 2 low extent, 1 very low extent.

Civil Society	1	2	3	4	5
Vibrant civil society body contributes to effective civic education.					
Civil society bodies have basic fundamental right to participate in credible electoral process					
Checking of the excesses by civil society organizations amounts better vote counting					

Strengthening weak laws offers civil society the opportunity to participate effectively on voter observation					
Effective civil society organizations contributes to expansion of the democratic space					
civil society participation in electoral matters amounts to electoral advisory					
Good electoral systems and processes developed by civil society organizations amounts to credible elections					
Sound policies by civil society organizations allows for better governance of electoral process					
By civil society sticking to the core functions of Electoral process, it amount to informed decisions					
Civil society participation in electoral process amounts to regulation of financial expenditure					

SECTION 6: CONSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK AND ELECTORAL PROCESS

Objective 5: To evaluate the moderating role of constitutional framework in Electoral Process in Kenya

For each of the following roles of civil society in Electoral Process in Kenya, use a scale of 1-5, where 5 is very high extent, 4 high extents 3 Moderate extent, 2 low extent,1 very low extent.

Constitutional Framework	1	2	3	4	5
Provides for popular sovereignty					
Limits powers of government					
Provides for majority rule and minority rights					
Provides for institutional and procedural limitations on powers					
Provides for separated and shared powers					
Provides for checks and balances					
Provides for due process of law					
Provides for leadership succession through elections					

SECTION 7: ELETORAL PROCESS IN KENYA

According to your organization, how did planning, organization, and results transmission contribute to successful electoral process in Kenya? Use a scale of 1-5, where 5 is substantially improved, 4 marginally improved 3 neutrals, 2 marginally decline, 1 substantial decline

Electoral Process	5	4	3	2	1
There high number of voter registration in IEBC					
Independent electoral and boundaries commission is adequately funded during elections					
The Independent Electoral and					

Boundaries Commission has a body to manage election disputes					
There are enough personnel to oversee elections in my organization					
Recording of election results in my organization is electronic					
Transmission of election results by IEBC is electronic					

Thank you for taking your time to answer the questions.