EFFECTS OF CHILDREN'S POLITICAL AWARENESS, AFFILIATION AND

PARTICIPATION ON INTER-PERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS AMONG

10-13-YEAR OLDS IN A MULTI-ETHNIC KENYA

BY

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A Dissertation Presented to

The Faculty of Asia-Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary (APNTS)

In Partnership with Asia Graduate School of Theology (AGST)

In Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of

PhD in Holistic Child Development

MAY 2019

ASIA-PACIFIC NAZARENE THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY

IN PARTNERSHIP WTH THE ASIA GRADUATE SCHOOL OF THEOLOGY

WE HEREBY APPROVE THE DISSERTATION

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AS PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

HOLISTIC CHILD DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

Children learn about politics from early years forming affiliations to political parties. Kenyan politics have been known to divide people ethnically leading to political tensions, and this has an effect on children. In 2013 and 2017, children were observed to closely follow political issues and hold strong views regarding political candidates. This study sought to investigate how children's political awareness, affiliation and participation affect their interpersonal relationships.

The study used Albert Bandura's theory to explain how socialization impacts children's learning; Henri Tajfel and John Turner's theory of social identity to discuss interpersonal relationships; and Urie Bronfenbrenner's ecological system's theory to explain environmental influences on children's political awareness, affiliation and interpersonal relationships. The interplay among independent variables: children's political awareness; political affiliation and political participation affect the dependent variable: children's interpersonal relationships. This outcome was influenced by intervening variables: child's age, gender, teachers, media, parents, religion, educational level and tribe.

A mixed methods design was adopted and multi-stage sampling used to select 363children aged eight to thirteen years out of a population of 4368. Data from children was collected using questionnaires uploaded onto Online Data Kit (ODK) and focus group discussions (FGDs), while key informant interviews (KII) were used to collect data from purposively selected teachers. SPSS version 24 and NVIVO 10 were used for data analysis.

Results revealed that children are aware of politics. They get political information from electronic and print media, parents, friends, teachers and political rallies. Religious institutions were least contributors to children's political awareness. Most children had no party affiliation, but some had preferred political parties. A positive relationship was established between children's political awareness and political affiliation. Findings also revealed that children participate in political activities however, most do at manipulation and decoration levels, which is non-participation. Children's political affiliation had a direct effect on their interpersonal relationships as some expressed hostility, mistrust and ethnocentrism towards friends. Finally, political outcomes in Kenya affect children at all domains of development.

This study recommends that teachers, parents, government agencies and religious institutions provide appropriate political information to children, model good citizenship, teach values that promote inclusive relationships and offer psychosocial support to children who are affected by political outcomes.

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No portion of the work referred to in the dissertation has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university or other institute of learning.

Roseline Shimuli Olumbe

April 2019
Date

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my three sons (Roy, Ronnie and Robert) and all children in Kenya who have been affected by our political activities in one way or another. I pray that as they grow they will seek to embrace biblical values of leadership and become leaders of positive influence in their generation. I hope that they will embrace inclusive interpersonal relationships that will bring about harmony and unity in Kenya. May God grant you wisdom and courage to deal with the political challenges of your times.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Eighth, my gratitude goes to Karen Community Church for granting me opportunity to serve among children and enjoy hands-on experience with children. Specifically, I would like to appreciate Sunday school teachers for overwhelming support, and my class three and four children for enjoying my lessons and challenging my theology. Ninth, my appreciation goes to my long serving househelp, Juliet who never tired of holding fort when I needed to sit and read for many hours. When I needed to travel and get to school, she was there to watch over my children. May the Lord bless the work of your hands. Tenth, I acknowledge the Overseas Council for awarding me tuition scholarship. Without their support, I would have not completed my studies. Lastly but not least, I would like to acknowledge Jane Wambua for doing superb job in editing my dissertation.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND ITS BACKGROUND

Introduction

In March 2013, Kenya held its general election and many people were apprehensive because of the 2007-2008 post-election violence that followed the 2007 general election and devastated the nation. During the 2013 campaign period, children actively followed the discussions aired on television and this formed a large part of their discussions during playtime. Children within my neighborhood strongly supported their preferred political parties and presidential candidates. I took little interest in the children's discussions and as a result did not perceive how passionate they were about their candidates. It was 'kids talk after all,' I thought.

On 9th March 2013, the official presidential election results were announced. My son who was nine years old then, woke up to the news of the results and was very sad because his preferred candidate had lost. He requested to watch something else and I honored his position. I probed his decisions but he could not disclose at that moment. He later went out to play with his friends and found those who were really celebrating their victory. This saddened him more and he came to the house feeling unhappier. The more I probed his actions and feelings, the more he withheld his feelings. I later found him sobbing bitterly and chose to have a one-on-one talk with him. He finally admitted that he was sad because his preferred president had lost the election. He said, "*I do not care who*

has won, I still support my presidential candidate." My husband and I comforted him and explained to him why it was important to accept the winning president and realize that it is God who appoints leaders. We prayed and he left to go and play with others. He seemed to bounce back to life and play though he still held his strong feelings for his preferred presidential candidate.

In August 2017, Kenya held another general election whose results were disputed. During the campaign period leading to this election, I noticed children's strong support for their preferred political candidates and parties. I consequently conducted a mini survey among children aged ten to thirteen years in my local church as part of a class assignment. The findings indicated that some of the children had strong political inclinations. The majority (83%) of the respondents, that is twenty-five children out of target population of thirty, indicated that they feel sad when their political leader loses the election. However, it was notable that some of the children clearly indicated that they do not support any political leader. It was also evident that children participate in politics when they vote their leaders in schools. In response to the question, "How can people support different leaders yet maintain friendships?" an eleven-year-old boy wrote, "*don't let politics come before friendship.*"

My son's actions and other children's behavior during the electioneering periods in 2013 and 2017 in Kenya caused me to realize that children have very strong political affiliations from early ages, and that this needs to be understood by parents and other stakeholders. I also wondered how these political affiliations among children affect their relationships with one another. As a result, the desire to study the effects of children's

political awareness, affiliation, and participation on their interpersonal relationships was birthed in me.

Background of the Problem

Children grow and develop within a society and this society plays a major role in shaping their attitudes and views about life. A child's life outcome is affected by the socialization process which includes biological, sociocultural and interactive factors (Berns 2015, 39). Since children are social and interactive, sociocultural factors significantly affect what a child learns and embraces in life. An argument can thus be made that the behaviour of an individual, and particularly for a child, is largely affected by the society within which he or she lives. And this is true in regard to political attitudes and behaviours, since political socialisation is a "process by which the individual acquires attitudes, beliefs, and values relating to the political system of which he is a member and to his own role as citizen within that political system" (Greenberg 2009, 3).

The involvement of children during political campaigns and voting in Kenya is minimal and at times negative. Children are taught political propaganda songs to be used for entertainment or publicity of a particular leader hence biasing their views. Based on Hart's ladder of participation, children function at the lowest levels of manipulation, decoration and tokenism (Hart 1992, 8) which is essentially non-participation. In Kenya, political debates and polls' opinions mainly involve adults and exclude children's opinions.

On a positive note, during the 2017 elections, there was an initiative to have children participate in praying for the elections. The Child for Peace Campaign Initiative, through Arba Publications prepared a calendar as a guide for children to pray. The prayer

period lasted from 7 May to 7 August 2017. Over fifty churches participated and approximately 50,000 children were expected to participate. The Arba Publications Director said that, "Following the 2007 post-election violence, we made a commitment that as a company, we will not sit and see the nation go down in violence while there is something we could do to help the situation. This year, we chose to bank on the sincere and unbiased prayers offered by children" (Nyamai 2017).

This study sought to explore the ways in which children become aware of politics, form political affiliations, and participate in the politics of their nation, and eventually how these three factors affect such children's interpersonal relationships.

Statement of the Problem

This study investigates the question: how do children's political awareness, affiliation and participations affect their interpersonal relationships within a multi-ethnic context?

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to grow in understanding the political awareness, affiliation and participation of selected 10-13 year old children in Nairobi County, Kenya; how political issues affect them and their interpersonal relationships, and to seek insights on how children can be helped to embrace inclusive relationships in their political pursuit within a multi-ethnic context.

Objectives of the Study

This study was guided by the following objectives:

1. To establish the knowledge children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County have about politics.

2. To find out ways in which children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya learn about politics.

3. To establish ways in which children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya participate in political activities in Kenya.

4. To analyze ways children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya are impacted by political outcomes.

Research Questions

This study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What knowledge do children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya have about politics?

2. How do children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya learn about politics?

3. How does the political awareness of children aged10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya affect their political affiliation?

4. In what ways do children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya participate in political activities in Kenya?

5. How does the political affiliation of children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya affect their interpersonal relationships?

6. How are the selected children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County impacted by political outcomes?

Research Null Hypothesis

1. H_0: Children's political awareness does not affect their political affiliation.

2. H_0: Political affiliation does not affect children's interpersonal relationships.

Theoretical Framework

The researcher used three theories to guide her views and discussions that helped explain children's political awareness, affiliation and participation. First, Albert Bandura's social learning theory was explored to explain how socialization impacts people's learning. Bandura posits that most behavior displayed by individuals is deliberately or inadvertently learnt through observation of an example or model (Bandura 1971, 5). In this study, it was presumed that children's political behavior and the effect of this behavior on their relationships was based on how adults behave during political campaigns and elections.

Second, Henri Tajfel and John Turner's theory of social identity was explored. This helped the researcher identify how in-groups and out-groups are formed among children. Tajfel and Turner argue that social identity consists of aspects of an individual's self-image which are derived from social categories to which the person perceives him or herself to belong (Tajfel and Turner 1979, 40).

The third theory that this study explored was Urie Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory with the aim of identifying how nested systems in the natural environment make an impact on the developing person. Bronfenbrenner advances that, "Human beings create environments that shape the course of human development." Equally, these actions

influence multiple tiers of the ecology that shapes individuals, making them active products of their development (Bronfenbrenner 2004, xxvii). Bronfenbrenner's theory helped explain how the environment in which Kenyan children live affects their political attitudes and eventually their relationships.

Conceptual Framework

This study was informed by the conceptual framework presented in Figure 1. It was the researcher's conviction that there is an interplay among the independent variables, namely children's political awareness, affiliation, and participation. Each of these variables affects the outcomes of the others. However, the level within which variables affect children is intervened with variables such as the child's age, gender, teachers, media, parents, socioeconomic status, educational level, peers, and religion.

Based on what the child has learnt and how the same has been adequately intervened, there is an effect on the child's interpersonal relationships. All these concepts individually or combined have a cumulative effect on the interpersonal relationships among children within a multi-ethnic context. The child may develop positive interpersonal relationships such as reconciliation, openness, equality, fairness, and tolerance toward others. On the other hand, the child may exhibit negative relationships with peers such as prejudice, competition, hostility, favoritism, ethnocentrism, stereotypes, bias, and discrimination.

Henderer-Harrison interpersonal relations scale (1967) suggests that children are likely to manifest trust, guilt, hostility, dominance, seduction, or giving within their relationships. The current study sought to establish that every child embraces positive interpersonal relationships regardless of their political affiliation.

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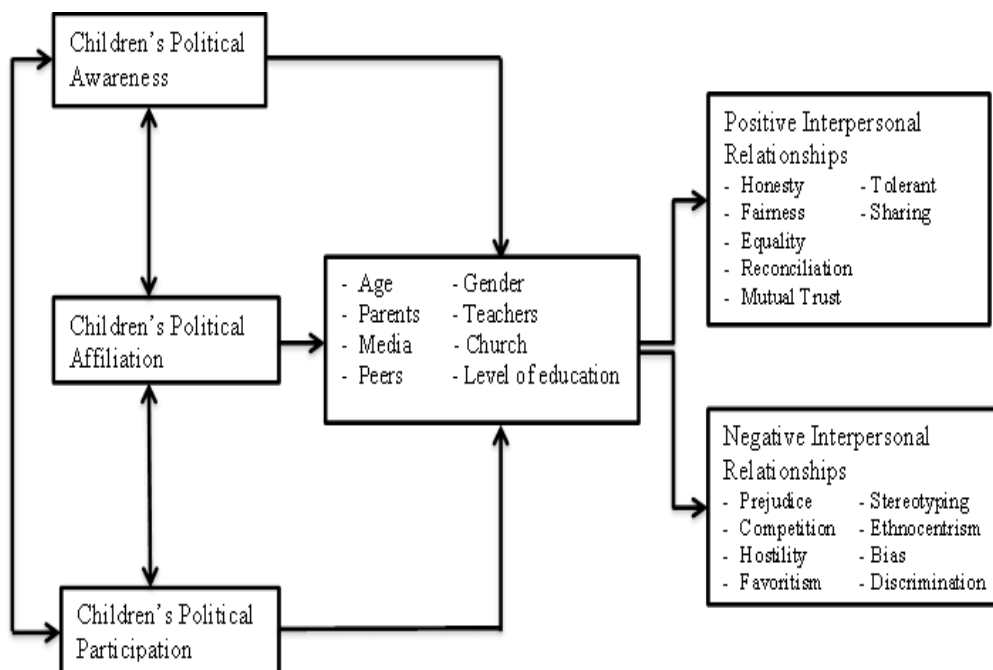
Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Significance of the Study

This study is significant on different levels. First, its findings revealed ways through which children in Kenya become aware of politics. This can go a long way in helping adults understand how to pass on political information to children.

In addition, the study exposed different political affiliations that children uphold. In a context where adult's political affiliations have been primarily based on ethnic grounds and friendships, understanding children's values would be of great benefit towards changing the current trend. This could help parents and teachers to guide children on in understanding the values to identify in leaders and political parties. It is hoped that these findings will inform teachers, parents, and church leaders on the way to pass non-partisan political information to children.

The study also unearthed some of the ways through which children participate in politics in Kenya. In case of incidences of negative or minimal participation, it is hoped

that teachers will seek to help children participate more positively especially within the schools. This would be a good preparation for children's later participation in national politics as adults.

Furthermore, the findings of this study have the potential of promoting national cohesion as children seek to uphold non-partisan political information. Being future leaders, these children are likely to establish a better Kenya that embraces people from all ethnic groups. As a result, the divisions and ethnic tensions that have been held for many years are likely to be dealt with as children grow and build a better Kenya which promotes democracy.

The researcher hopes to share the information gathered from children with the current Nairobi County leaders and by so doing potentially cause these leaders to evaluate their political standpoints and leadership styles. The findings would also go a long way in helping the country's national leaders exercise good governance and fair politics.

Moreover, it was evident from the literature review that no similar study had been done in Kenya. The existing studies have to do with effect of political violence on children and issues of ethnic clashes in Kenya. As such, this study would be significant in highlighting how children in Kenya become aware of politics, form political affiliations, and participate in politics.

Finally, the study findings could help lay down strategies for helping children form relationships that are interethnic rather than those based on one's ethnic or political background. The outcome of this study could inform parents and other stakeholders towards raising children who are inclusive in their friendship formation as opposed to

those who form friendships based on ethnic bias and stereotypes. Consequently, parents and other stakeholders such as guardians, teachers, and religious leaders would be able to train children to become better citizens who practice their civic rights by choosing leaders of integrity.

Assumptions of the Study

The assumptions of this study included the following:

First, children have some level of knowledge about politics and are able to express that knowledge. This was confirmed during the study. The children who participated openly talked about Kenya's politics and its effects on them.

Second, children have political affiliations, and in turn support specific political leaders. This was found to be true considering that in their responses, the children indicated that they have favorite political parties and leaders.

Finally, children have had opportunities to participate in politics through serving as leaders in schools, selecting school leaders, voting for the members of Kenya Children Assembly, and attending political rallies. This was true in all the schools that participated in the study.

Definition of Terms

Child refers to any young person below the age of 18 years (Government of Kenya 2010). In this study, the term child was used to refer to children aged 10–13 years.

Child participation refers to "the informed and willing involvement of children, including children with disabilities and other especially vulnerable children, in any matter concerning them directly or indirectly, in such a manner as to enable them to express their views" (African Child Policy Forum (ACPF) 2015, 3). In this study child

participation was used to refer to the level to which children are empowered and involved in community and political activities.

Ethnic group refers to " . . . an assembly of people or collectivities of persons who share some characteristics premised on ancestry, language, culture, geographical locality and common objectives" (Kioli 2013, 69). In this study, this definition was upheld in addition to shared kinship, values, traditions, cultural practices, and shared history.

Ethnicity is a term that refers to sentiments of origin and descent that people uphold (Thomson 2010, 61). It has nothing to do with geographical location but a state of the mind of a people. Furthermore, Kioli perceives ethnicity to be "a group identity, expressed behaviorally (by individuals or group) that emanates from membership to an ethnic group" (Kioli 2013, 69). These two aspects of ethnicity were upheld in this study.

Multi-ethnic refers to two or more ethnic groups according to The Oxford English Dictionary. In this paper, the term multi-ethnic was used to refer to many tribal communities living within the same country.

Political affiliation refers to the familiarity that an individual has about the "… history of a political movement, its party structure, its leading politicians, objectives, slogan and motto" (Maryns 2014, 164). In this study, political affiliation was used to refer to the knowledge a child has about political parties in Kenya and the child's ability to support a particular party.

Political awareness is believed to be significant and helpful for true democracy since it helps the citizens to hold the politicians and leaders accountable (Kizilbash 2010 cited in Ahmed et al. 2015, 65). In this study the phrase political awareness was used to

refer to the knowledge that children have about politicians and political parties in Kenya which helps them affiliate or participate in politics.

Political participation refers to "activities by private citizens that are more or less directly aimed at influencing the selection of governmental personnel and/or the actions they take" (Verba and Nie cited in Wong et al. 2011, 17). Additionally participation involves voting, political donations, contacting government officials, community activism, and protest (Wong et al. 2011, 20). In this study, political participation was used to refer to the way children are allowed to participate in political affairs through the following: Attending political rallies, campaigning, voting for the Kenya Children Assembly parliament representatives, and listening to political leaders.

Political socialisation is the "… process through which one generation transmits political norms and behaviors to next generation" (Waseem and Shabir 2017, 3). In this study, the definition was maintained but with a specific reference to the way children become political members of their country.

Politics refers to "…the process of making collective decisions in a community, society, or group through the application of influence and power" (Ethridge and Handelman 2015, 7). In this paper, this definition was maintained.

Socialisation is an ongoing process through which children become functional members of society (Raj and Raval 2013, 58). In this study, the word socialisation was used to refer to the way children learn and adjust to the political climate in their society and how they become active participating members in their nation's politics.

Scope and Delimitations of the Study

The study was conducted in selected primary schools in Kenya, through a multi-stage sampling, within Nairobi County among children aged 10–13 years. This age group was preferred because most of the children within it are able to read and engage in a discussion. There are approximately 19,397 public primary schools in Kenya with a population of 134, 416 children enrolled in those schools ("Kenya Primary Schools | Open Kenya | Transparent Africa" n.d.). There are 47 counties in Kenya ("Counties and County Government in Kenya" n.d.) after the promulgation of the Kenya Constitution, 2010. Children were selected from purposively sampled schools in Nairobi County. Nairobi County was preferred because it is cosmopolitan.

This study had the following limitations:

Regarding factors that affect relationships among children, the researcher only focused on some of the factors relating to children's political awareness, affiliation, and participation. These were age, gender, media, peers, parents, teachers, religious background, ethnicity, social class, and level of education. Other factors affecting relationships among children such as academic performance and child's personality were not considered due to time and irrelevance to the current study. The researcher created a survey instrument based on literature review and prevailing political issues in her country to generate data that dealt with politics and interpersonal relationships.

The researcher was aware of her own bias as a Kenyan researcher, with own political and ethnic background which could interfere with the study. However, questions were structured (see Appendix A) based on literature. In addition, the researcher made use of research assistants selected from different ethnic and political backgrounds. As

well, analysis of data was handled without consideration of the researcher's own political and ethnic background. The study used scientifically tested and approved tools for analyzing data.

The research was conducted two years after Kenya's national election held in 2017 and thus some of the children had forgotten part of their experiences. The researcher created scenarios (see Appendix B) to help the children remember their experiences and make it possible for observation purposes and gathering of qualitative data. These scenarios were based on the disputed election results in Kenya and children were expected to share their feelings and actions in case their presidential candidate lost or won an election. These scenarios were validated by a team of experts from Kenya and the program director and faculty from Asia Pacific Theological Seminary in Philippines to enhance objectivity.

The researcher sought to find Christian resources on children and politics to help equip the church fraternity, therefore this study did not delve into the depth of politics, its meaning within a Kenyan context, and the church understanding of the same. As a result, no deeper theological reflections on politics within Kenyan context and children's perceptions of the same were provided.

Finally, the researcher was not able to collect data from all children in Kenya. She selected only four schools with a sample of 363 children. To avoid sampling bias, the researcher ensured that children from different ethnic groups, gender, age, and economic background were selected to represent the rest.

Overview of the Dissertation

This chapter described the background of the problem and provided an overview of the study. Furthermore, the chapter provided a statement of the problem, statement of purpose, study questions, theoretical and conceptual framework, significance of the study, assumptions of the study, definition of terms, and scope and delimitations of the study.

Chapter two delves into literature review focusing on knowledge children have about politics, ways by which they learn about politics and form political affiliations, and the effect of children's political affiliations on their interpersonal relationships. Additionally, a biblical and theological perspective on politics and relationships is explored.

Chapter three discusses the research methods and procedures that were used in this study. Chapter four provides a detailed data presentation, analysis, and interpretation based on the study findings. Finally, Chapter five focuses on concluding remarks and recommendations based on the study findings.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Overview

Politics and children seem to be two incomparable concepts for discussion. However, studies on children's political orientation have been done across the globe and they indicate that children have a political mind. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss literature and relevant studies that have dealt with the issue of children's political awareness, affiliation, and participation. Specifically, this section addresses the following topics: Historical background on politics in relation to children and adults; review of related literature on development of political awareness and affiliation in children, factors influencing children's political awareness, ways through which children learn about politics, children's political participation, and effect of political socialization on interpersonal relationships; review of research methodologies; biblical and theological perspectives on politics and interpersonal relationships; theoretical and conceptual frameworks; and a summary of the reviewed literature.

Historical Background

According to Greenberg, political understanding and attitudes of children is an area that has been widely surveyed right from the 1950s (cited in Berti 2005, 70). Partly, the interest in such studies was to help in designing a suitable civic education program. As a result of such studies, many philosophers and political leaders have shown interest

in the political orientations acquired by young people (Greenberg 2009, 4). The interest in children's political knowledge and affiliation is critical in helping understand not only children's reflections on politics, but also how these reflections affect the children's political participation as children and later as adults.

More studies on children's political awareness were done in the 1960s and 1970s. One major study was done in America by Robert Hess and Judith Torney who established that political awareness evolves from identification with authority figures and later children develop abstract ideas about politics and the fundamentals of political participation (cited in Hess and Torney 2009, 213-17). Other studies conducted in this area considered intervening variables such as gender, socioeconomic status, family size, race, nationality, and educational attainment, as well as independent variables such as political knowledge, interest in politics, and predictions of future engagements in politics (Berti 2005, 71). The findings of these studies indicated that the aforementioned variables have an effect on the way a child conceptualises politics. For example, in the Netherlands, it was established that boys were more interested in politics than girls, while the girls had fewer racial prejudices than boys (Dekker 1991, 23). Apart from gender and age factors, Greenstein (cited in Lazarsfeld, Berelson, and Gaudet 1968, 140-45) established that voters' party identification had a close relationship with that of their parents. These findings indicate that the environment and a child's personal attributes play a role in affecting the child's understanding and participation in politics.

According to Greenstein (cited in Berti 2005, 70), some studies investigating children's political understanding -with the aim of helping understand how children are politically socialized - indicate that children have a political mind, and just like adults,

they express their views in ways clear and appropriate to their level. One such study was conducted by Robert Hess and Judith Torney in 1960 and the findings were published in 1967 in a book titled *The Development of Political Attitudes in Children*. The researchers established that children's political awareness evolves from identification with authority figures and that the children later develop abstract ideas about politics and the fundamentals of political participation (Hess and Torney 2009, 213-17).

Kolka posits that "a child is usually a member of a social group, the family. Survival of the group is contingent on the child's socialization and his subsequent activity as a socializing agent" (Kolka 1969,1). This presupposes that a child is an active member of the society and plays a role in the socialization process. Through socialization, a child learns a lot about his or her society and the value of relations within that society. The understanding of the socialization process provides a basis for understanding political socialization of children.

Children are naturally socialized into politics within controlled and uncontrolled settings. Whether through intentional or in unintentional ways, children learn about their nation and how the political affairs are conducted. Greenstein argues that a child's first conception of political authority has to do more with affective than cognitive content. For example, children may have a firm impression that a political leader such as a president is important but they do not have a clear understanding of the role political leaders play (Greenstein 2009, 57). This means that from their very early years, children become politically aware and conscious of the fact that there are leaders who govern the nation. This argument supports views of Easton and Hess (1962) who claimed that "the truly formative years of the maturing member of a political system are between the years of

three and thirteen" (as cited in Berti 2005, 70). Although children may not cognitively explain the functions of political leaders, they have basic knowledge of politics and political leaders.

Conversely, Greenstein posits that "children acquire party attachments before they can make more than the most fragmentary distinctions about the nature of political parties, about what the parties stand for, even about who the parties' public representatives are" (Greenstein 2009, 57). This reveals the fact that within a nation that has many political parties, children can distinguish those parties and choose which ones to affiliate with or support.

Political orientation is discussed between two contrasting facets (Friesen and Ksiazkiewicz 2015, 793-4). On one hand, political behaviour and attitudes are construed as products of political socialisation from family, peers, schools, media, and voluntary associations (Quintelier 2013, 139-46). Dekker adds to this list and notes that other political socialization agencies such as church, employment structures and processes, and political structures and processes (Dekker 1991, 30-8) affect people's political socialisation. On the other hand, these views have been challenged by scholars such as Jennings and Niemi, and Alford et al. who assert that political behaviour is inherent in one's genes. Heritability studies show that " . . . genetics explain some portion of the variance in the transmission of, for example, social and political beliefs across generations in addition to and in concert with environmental factors" (cited in Friesen and Ksiazkiewicz 2015, 794). Based on these contrasting views, it is evident that developing of political attitudes in children is influenced by both nurture and nature.

Most of the existing studies on political socialization have been done in Western and Asian countries. Some of these studies explored children's participation in politics either by voting for leaders or vying for leadership roles. For example, Meirick and Wackman explored children's voting and political knowledge in America. In their study, they noted that children who underwent Kids Voting USA program, and were allowed to vote had more knowledge on politics (Meirick and Wackman 2004, 1161). Meirick and Wackman's study further noted that children were socialized into politics by being taught and allowed to vote for leaders. The choice for leaders by children was significantly affected by parent's views and inclinations (Meirick and Wackman 2004, 1162). Positive views and correct knowledge about politics can only be learnt by children if the socialization agents have modelled the lifestyle. However, a child's personality and intelligence quotient (IQ) is also likely to influence his or her views and attitudes.

Apart from studies dealing with political knowledge and attitudes, other studies have been done to explore children's way of forming relationships. An example is Ladd and Sechler who posit that "children are selective about the persons they choose as friends, and their choices are guided by demographic, behavioural, personal, or psychological considerations" (Ladd and Sechler 2014, 44). This reveals that children have a system through which they choose their friends. There may be need for further research on this aspect in order to understand how these choices are influenced and eventually how they affect relationships among children. Ladd and Sechler further determined that children make friends with other children who are similar to them in terms of age, sex, and race (Ladd and Sechler 2014, 44).

In Africa, studies that have been done regarding children and politics have to do with political violence and the effects of the same on children. Some of these studies include Dawes work in South Africa where he determined that though some children were affected by the violence during apartheid, the majority of them were not significantly affected since political violence is given more positive meaning by the community. He thus noted that such political violence "… transforms people from 'victims' to 'fighters' as a means of building community resilience and binding them to a political cause" (Dawes 1990, 26).

A study done in South Africa established that children's problems increased when their mothers were severely affected by political violence and that age and gender of the child had a direct impact on the symptoms expressed by the child (Dawes, Tredoux, and Feinstein 1989, 39). It is notable from this finding that while children have a way of coping through life experiences, their mothers' experiences either increase or reduce the children's problems. In the same study, it was also established that the perceptions held by children had the potential of playing a role in their political socialisation with the broader South African context and could contribute to their evaluation of the apartheid regime (Dawes, Tredoux, and Feinstein 1989, 40).

According to Skinner, Oburu, Lansford and Bacchini, most of the studies linking political violence and child adjustment dealt with issues such as psychological difficulties, PTSD symptoms among children, aggressive behaviors, and a decrease in persistent prosocial behaviors (Skinner et al. 2014, 2). In their findings, it was notable that there was a relationship between a child's behavior and the extent to which political violence had been experienced. However, it was established that the age of the child,

community support, and the extent to which a child experienced violence played a major intervening role to help the child cope.

Another study was conducted in Nigeria by Tesunbi and Nwoye to establish the relationship between media use among students and their political knowledge and behavior. In their work, Tesnubi and Nwoye established that while media use increased political participation, media cognition did not increase political knowledge (Tesunbi and Nwoye 2014, 12). Mbabvu reports that studies by Booysen and Kotzé (1985), Kotzé (1986), Mattes, Denmark and Niemi (2012), and Esau and Roman (2015) on political socialisation were conducted in in South Africa and thereafter not many studies have been done on the same (Mbabvu 2017, 6). Except for these studies that have been highlighted in this section, there has not been much research done in Africa on the area of children's political socialisation.

<div align="center">Historical Issues in African Politics</div>

Keller traces the history of African politics and notes that by the mid-1980s, when almost 60 percent of African countries were under colonial rule, the political system was merely an illusion of democracy as many Africans experienced a denial of their citizenship and human rights (Keller 2014, 10). Keller further argues that this was to a large extent a focus on business model, where individuals sought personal benefit as opposed to national cohesiveness. Thus, political position entitles persons to their own economic advancement and that of their community. As a result, politics in Africa have been marked by conflicts based on ethnic tensions due to historic claims to land and power (Keller 2014, 13).

The historic conflicts of states such as Nigeria, Rwanda, Ethiopia, and Kenya have had to do with historic rights and claims over land and civil rights (Keller 2014, 149-150). According to Nyukuri (1997, 3-4), there is a historical fact and reality that most Kenyan districts are haunted by actual or potential ethnic conflicts. Nyukuri further notes that different communities continue to consciously or unconsciously rely on ethnicity to perpetuate their dominance and hegemony in an atmosphere characterized by scarce resources, fear, and prejudice (Nyukuri 1997, 3-4). This historical challenge has disturbed the country and affected relationships for many years. The resultant effect is that the majority of the ethnic groups and the elite in the country continue to rule without fair consideration of the minority ethnic groups and the non-elite in the country. The dominance of these majority ethnic groups and few elite leads to marginalization of the minority ethnic groups and non-elite in the society. Such fights have had effects on the lives of children who become victims of circumstances. This view is supported by Roysircar who opines that "… the most unfortunate victims of ethnic and religious cleansing have been innocent children" (cited in Ochieng' 2010, 275).

According to Keller, politics in Africa are marked by conflicts due to historic challenges in the continent. Keller also observes that "ethnic tensions are heightened as a result of historic ethnic claims to land and power" (Keller 2014, 13). As communities strive to claim what they feel rightfully belongs to them, hatred and war becomes the end result of such struggles. The historic conflicts of states such as Nigeria, Rwanda, Ethiopia, and Kenya have had more to do with historic rights and claims over land and civil rights (Keller 2014, 149-50). How is this propagated over the years? Could it be that children are taught from early years to fight for their rights and keep safe or claim their

land? Who informs children about the politicians and qualities to identify in a leader? If a child is given a chance to vote, what kind of leader would they vote for the specific leadership position?

Most of the countries in Africa are faced with the challenge of ethnicity. Koter opines that ethnic politics are the norm in Africa (Koter 2016, 3) and as a result the selection of political leaders is based on ethnic lines. Notably, one of the main reasons leading individuals to select leaders from their ethnic groups is expectations of material gain (Koter 2016, 5). Furthermore, Kasfir points out that "groups use ethnicity to advance their goals, improve their own share of economic rewards and avoid domination by others (Kasfir 1979, 369). The search for personal gain and rewards pushes individuals to elect leaders who will fulfil their interests. Koter also notes that political competition between ethnic groups is about the division of what Nigerians call 'the National Cake'" (Koter 2016, 5). This indicates that the motivation behind ethnic politics is purely selfish and personal. Van de Walle argues that "…citizens may feel that only a member of their own ethnic group may end up defending the interests of the ethnic group as a whole and that voting for another ethnic group will certainly not do so" (Van de Walle 2007, 65).

Despite the forgoing discussion on ethnicity and its effect on politics in Africa, it is evident that not all African countries practice ethnicity in politics. Koter argues that countries such as Senegal are diverse in ethnicity and religion, yet their patterns of voting are not influenced by the same (Koter 2016, 6). The differences are as shown in Figure 2 which displays the levels of ethnic politics in Africa. Evidently, countries such as Benin, Zambia, and Kenya are severely influenced by ethnicity in their voting whereas for others

such as Lesotho, Cape Town [SIC], Botswana, and Senegal, the effect of ethnicity is

minimal.
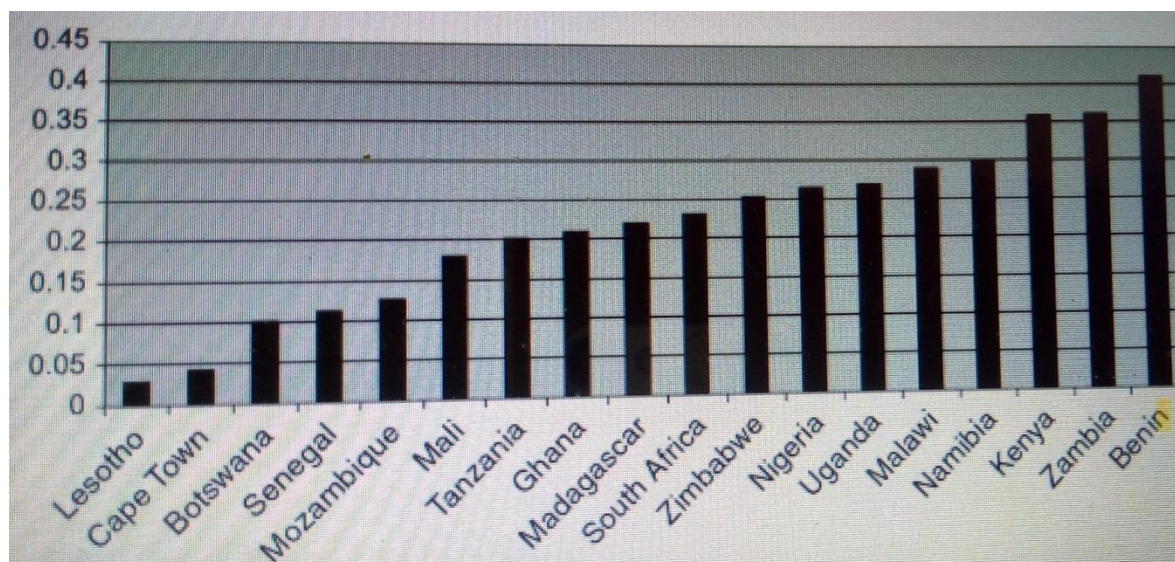
Figure 2. Level of Ethnic Politics in Africa (Koter 2016, 7)

Politics in Africa has evolved over the years from precolonial, colonial, and

postcolonial eras. Precolonial Africa was a stateless society and interaction among

individuals was generally cordial and power was respected. The precolonial politics in

Africa were mainly non-hegemonic and followed the lineage system (Thomson 2010,

10). Thomson further argues that, as a non-hegemonic continent, there were no defined

boundaries, there was no single source of power, and borders were not clear hence free

movement of people. He further states that "… pre-colonial states were not designed to

be all-powerful political entities, monopolising politics within a given territory (Thomson

2010, 11).

On the issue of lineage, it is evident that a more cordial relationship among the

people was necessary. Thomson claims that the main characteristic of the lineage system

was the element of kingship and the idea of extended family. He further clarified that

with the lineage kinship, a group could theoretically trace their origin to the same ancestor and this bound the people or communities together. As a result, the lineage groups provided solidarity, security, and enhanced members' welfare leading to a reciprocal relationship where members respected their leaders and leaders in turn took care of the followers (Thomson 2010, 10). It seems clear that the non-hegemonic and lineage systems in the precolonial period enhanced cordial relationships among the people and those in power were respected due to the authority they held within the society.

This precolonial system of politics in Africa was largely contrasted with the colonial politics which were largely imperial and power was vested in one person who controlled the rest. Coleman and Rosberg pointed out that the style of leadership adopted after independence had been formed by the autocratic power of the colonialists and consequently most African leaders were predisposed towards authoritarian forms of government (Coleman and Roseberg 1964 cited in Smith 2003, 143).

Historical Issues in Kenyan Politics

In Kenya, the colonial government ended its rulership once the country attained her independence in 1963. The British colonialists left Kenya with a democratic constitution that had been generated during the pre-independence negotiations. The onset of this new constitution led to the rise of multipartyism, a legacy left behind by the imperial rule (Thomson 2010, 26). This brought in the idea of pluralism, an idea that had not been experienced in the Kenyan politics. Smith points out that;

> Multi-party democracy was too alien an importation for it to survive in the
> local political culture, traditions and history. Perceptions of tradition and
> what was appropriate for society combined with the colonial legacy such
> as a centralized administrative apparatus, paternalism and electoral

systems, giving unfettered control to a party that has not necessarily
gained a plurality of the votes (Smith 2003, 143).

According to Kioli, the colonial government legalized the creation of parties in

1957, although such parties were confined to their own districts. Kioli further notes that

when national parties were allowed, the Kenya African National Union (KANU) was the

first to be formed in 1960 and it catered for the interests of the larger ethnic groups

(Kikuyu and Luo), while Kenya African Democratic Union (KADU) was formed to cater

for the "smaller communities." Notable is the fact that behind these political groupings,

ethnic consciousness was quite prominent and in spite of the parties merging later, ethnic

suspicion and mistrust persisted (Kioli 2013, 73).

Although the party formation interfered with the relationships among different

cultural groups, Muriuki in 1974 noted that various cultural groups in Eastern, Central,

and Rift Valley provinces had intimate relationships and disregarded ethnicity (cited in

Kioli 2013, 71-2). Furthermore, the declaration of a State of Emergency in Kenya on

October 20, 1952 where Africans were advised to go back to their ethnic regions meant

that people were confined to their regions of origin thus creating pressure groups to

safeguard their own interests (Kioli 2013, 73). This, in essence marked the origin of

ethnic divisions and hatred that have affected Kenya significantly.

The challenges of managing the multiparty system affected Kenya for a period of

time and in 1964 Kenya African Democratic Union (KADU) merged with the then ruling

party, Kenya African National Union (KANU), after losing in politics. As a result,

KANU governed Kenya without an opposition until electoral reforms were forced upon

the state, and the party lost the 2002 election (Thomson 2010, 27). The turn of events in

2002 was significant for Kenya and since then the nation has operated on a multiparty

system. The rise and entrenchment of the multiparty system has had its own effects on the country. The party formation has been significantly informed by regional boundaries, tribal groups, and class status. Observably, the country's politics have divided the people along tribal lines and social groups leading to disunity and partisan relationships.

Political divide in Kenya has been instigated by many factors which have affected people's relationships. These factors include negative ethnicity where tribal communities are excluded from development and ostracized by the government. In most cases, the political leaders propagate this system and as a result entrench it in their practices. This has created a system of social injustices that have become systemic, creating social divisions. For example, Wamwere in his works in 2011 pointed out:

> President Kenyatta withheld development from Luo land because the Luo under Oginga Odinga opposed him. President Moi …withheld development in Gikuyu land and Luo land because both Gikuyu and Luo had opposed him ever since he consolidated his ethnic power. Both Kenyatta and Moi governments withheld development from North Eastern province most likely in retaliation for 'shifta' war and rebellion (Wamwere 2011 cited in Kioli, 2013, 82).

Such a trend is negative and interferes with the development of marginalized communities. Kioli argues that the tendency for ethnicity to define politics and economic development is quite a pervasive, dangerous and harmful trend (Kioli 2013, 83).

The politics in Kenya are extensively characterised by negative ethnicity which divides the citizens along tribal lines. Wamwere observes that negative ethnicity is manifested when individuals begin to imagine that they are superior to others based on their "religion, food, language, culture, or even looks are better" (Wamwere 2011, 22). According to Yash Pal Ghai (cited in Wamwere 2011, 23), exclusions and rampant discrimination are a major characteristic in the Kenyan politics and economic system.

Some of the groups feel that they are the minority and eventually experience discrimination by the majority groups. It is thus felt that no one from the minority group has an opportunity to win the election (Wamwere 2011, 23). It is worrying that the political atmosphere in Kenya strongly polarizes the country according to ethnic inclinations. How can inclusivity in a multi-ethnic context be achieved?

<center>Historical Issues on Child Participation</center>

Child participation is a concept widely discussed and currently entrenched in the international, regional, and national legal and policy instruments (ACPF 2015, 1). The main goal is to enhance involvement of children in matters affecting them and providing an avenue for their voice. Baraldi and Lervese note that participation is a process of partaking and engaging in relations with others. It is both an action and a connection (Baraldi and Iervese 2013, 180). Essentially, participation enhances involvement and is a basic requirement in social life. In political sense, "participation was to provide development with a new source of legitimization, assigning to it the task of empowering the voiceless and powerless, and also eventually, of creating a bridge between the establishment and its target population, including even the groups opposing development" (Rahnema 1992 cited in Baraldi and Iervese 2013, 180). It is thus notable that participation provides voice to the voiceless and enhances networks among differing groups.

Specifically, child participation refers to the opportunity of involving children in decision making on issues that affect their lives. Children are provided with a chance to express their views in accordance with their evolving capacities. The concept of child participation acknowledges the fact that children are not a "passive, powerless, target

group, but rather capable communicators, who can effectively engage in activities within their communities" (Ministry of Labour and East African Affairs and National Council for Children Services 2016, 5, 9; Mbugua, Ambwaya, and Munene 2012, 47). This view is further emphasized by the ACPF who insist that children must be willing to be involved and that all children, including the disabled and vulnerable children, should be involved in any matter concerning them either directly or indirectly, in such a manner as to enable them to express their views(ACPF 2015, 3).

Child participation has been domesticated in the Kenya Constitution, 2010 and further entrenched in the Children's Act 2010. The main idea was to ensure that children's voices are heard and their ideas incorporated in the policy matters. The Kenyan primary school curriculum has Social Studies as a core subject from class one to eight. In the syllabus, specific topics regarding children/human rights and politics are taught. The topics include children's rights (Ministry of Education 2002, 84-5); democracy and human rights; citizenship; law, peace and reconciliation; the government of Kenya and its governance structures; and political developments and systems (Ministry of Education 2002, 96-129).

Kenya Children's Assembly is a body that was founded in 2011 to enhance child participation and as a result ensure that the voice of the child is heard at all fronts. The United Nations on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) (1989), the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC) (1990), the Children Act 2001, and the Kenya Constitution (2010) stipulate that "children have the right to form and air views, right to expression, right to thought, conscience and religion, right to association amongst others" (Kenya Children Assembly (KCA) Operational guidelines 2016, 7). The role of the KCA is to act as a medium for children to articulate the various issues, especially in matters

concerning education, health, protection from violence, abuse and exploitation and HIV/AIDS (Ministry of Labour and East African Affairs and National Council for Children Services 2016, 9). Specific milestones and drawbacks are yet to be established on how KCA has enhanced children's participation in politics as well as in other community activities.

As reported by the Kenya National Commission on Human Rights (KNCHR), there were negative ways in which children were used during the political campaigns in Kenya. For example, children's rights, especially the right to education and protection were violated. The Commission established that during the campaigns in preparation for the 8 August 2017 poll, children had been removed from their schedules so as to entertain and attend political rallies (KNCHR 2017b, 36). This was not only a violation of the children's education rights but also exposure to risks in case of violence during the meetings.

In a separate report, KNCHR noted that school grounds, buses, and children were used in political campaigns (KNCHR 2017a, 101) Children were taken from schools to sing and entertain politicians, they also carried posters for specific political parties and leaders during the campaign rallies. In addition, posters were stuck on school buses thus communicating to the children the political standpoints of their school head teachers and other teachers (KNCHR) 2017a, 101-9). These are observed as negative ways of engaging children in politics and infringing on their rights as opposed to preparing them for good citizenship.

Development of Political Awareness and Affiliation in Children

Studies regarding children and politics have been conducted so as to establish and understand ways in which children acquire knowledge and attitudes prescribed for them by the society (Berti 1988, 437). These studies have taken different forms and shapes to shed light on ways in which children develop political understanding of their society. Among the early studies is one conducted by Hess and Torney which involved 12,000 elementary school children drawn from eight large and medium sized American cities between December 1961 and May 1962 (Hess and Torney 2009, 213). Other studies include the works of people like Stacey who, in 1978 sought to examine how children develop their conceptions of politics. Additionally Cornell studied Australian children's conceptions of political institutions in 1971, Furth studied children's conceptions of adult world in Great Britain in 1980, and finally Berti and Bambi studied children in Italy in 1988. Critically, these studies indicated that "children have a limited and concrete concept of different political figures . . . which they construe as one or several rich and powerful men" (Berti 1988, 438).

Children are naturally wired to learn about their environment and all that surrounds their world. From a very tender age, a child is able to learn his environment and cope in ways that suit his age. The age and context of children controls what they learn about politics and how the learning takes place. In his book, *The Political Life of a Child,* Robert Coles argues that people are inducted into the political culture of their nation through the political socialization process when young citizens become conscious of their nation (Coles 2000, 14). Further, Coles concludes that "Young and not-so-young children, from four or five to nine or ten, say, not only show evidence of "socialization,"

but are surprisingly outspoken, idiosyncratic, blunt, and imaginative [in their] political opinions" (Coles 2000, 27).

Robert Cole's view is in agreement with Berti who claims that children's understanding of politics happens during their very formative years of 3-13 years (Berti 2005, 70) and the more complex ideas about politics develop later. The principle is rooted in Piaget's work who found out that younger children are more egocentric and do not have the capacity for logical reasoning. He therefore concluded that before the age of 7-8 years," the child's ego-centrism prevents the desire for objective proof" (Piaget 1928b, 24). It is evident that political socialization begins at childhood and proceeds to adolescence and then adulthood. Simpler concepts are developed in early life and the more complex ideas develop later.

Mbabvu reiterates this idea by saying that "political attitudes, values, knowledge and behaviour patterns that are learned during childhood persist and influence later views and behavior" (Mbabvu 2017, 114). According to Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, the human physiology provides a receptive period of some ten to twelve years whereby individuals can quickly and largely unconsciously absorb necessary information from their environment (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov 2010, 9). These authors further argue that the information is received through ". . . symbols (such as language), heroes (such as parents, and rituals (such as toilet training), and most important, it includes our basic values" (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov 2010, 9-10). This confirms the fact that early years of life are very significant for children learning various concepts and ideals of life.

Almond, Pye and Easton (cited in Kolka 1969, 4) reason that children's awareness of politics is predicated by the political behavior of the adults. As children observe adults'

behaviour in matters of politics, they engage in the learning process and get to understand their political system. To elaborate on the ways in which children acquire this awareness and how they get socialized, Easton and Hess describe the following three cognitive levels of a political system that an individual undergoes: the government, the regime, and the community (cited in Kolka 1969, 4). Based on this idea, Kolka argues that " . . . as children progress in age they will also progress in their knowledge of each successive level" (Kolka 1969, 4). Easton and Hess state that "a young child in elementary is capable of identifying political leaders (the government), political structures and rules (the regime level) and their role as future members of the polity (the community level)" (Easton and Hess 1962, 229-46). This denotes that the age of the child plays a major role regarding what they learn and know about politics and politicians.

In seeking to understand how children develop political attitudes, Hess and Torney undertook a cross-sectional study in which children between grades two to eight participated. Their selection of these grades was in search of children who could read and write (Hess and Torney 2009, 226-7). Data was collected using a questionnaire that was developed over a period of one year after several interviews with children during pretesting. The findings indicated that children's involvement with political systems began with a strong positive attachment to the country and the children perceived the government to be powerful, competent, benign and infallible and hence trusted it to offer them protection (Hess and Torney 2009, 213). Moreover, Hess and Torney note that children start to engage in political activities as early as grade three and participation increases as they advance to higher grades (Hess and Torney 2009, 215). These findings seem inconsistent with Berti's suggestion that "young people have a poorly articulated

structure of political beliefs until the age at which they are entitled to vote" (Berti 2005, 96).

<div align="center">Factors Influencing Children's Political Awareness and Affiliation</div>

The development of political awareness and affiliation of children is influenced by several factors. These factors influence children on different levels, with some of them having higher impact than others. According to Berti, relationships among variables such as gender, socioeconomic status (SES), family, race, nationality, educational attainment; and dependent variables such as political knowledge, and interest in politics, have been studied to show how they predict on future political engagement (Berti 2005, 71). It is evident from Berti's findings that the knowledge one gains about politics is dependent on the environment of the child, age, and other socializing agents. These factors intervene to increase or reduce the knowledge a child gains about politics.

Children's interaction with parents, teachers, peers, and friends enables them to develop political attitudes. Parental influence plays a major role in children's political awareness; however the intensity of the relationship changes over a child's life course (Corbetta, Tuorto, and Cavazza 2013, 13). The younger the children are, the more they adopt their parents' views. However, as they become older, they adopt their own unique views and standpoints. Contrastingly, Eveland, McLeod and Horrowitz opine that children's capacity to think about politics happens about 12 years of age, the beginning of the stage Piaget (cited in McDevitt and Kiousis 2015, 1166) referred to as formal operations; when children can now think abstractly.

A study carried out by Friesen and Ksiazkiewicz in Minnesota sought to identify shared genetic influence between religiosity and bedrock social principles (Friesen and

Ksiazkiewicz 2015, 795). The study explored sources of variation regarding the overlap of religious and political beliefs. The researchers hypothesised that "political beliefs, religious beliefs, and bedrock social principles are heritable, and more importantly, that the correlation between these variables is at least partially explained by a common genetic pathway" (Ksiazkiewicz 2015, 796). Classic twin design with survey on social and political issues was used. The researchers accessed the Minnesota Twin Family Registry containing approximately 8,000 twin pairs born in Minnesota from 1936 to 1955, however the sample included only those born between 1947 and 1955.

Most of the data was collected using a web survey; however, for those who had limited internet, a paper questionnaire was availed. Analysis was limited to 1,192 respondents who were part of a matched twin pair. A Society Works Best (SWB) tool and Wilson-Patterson Inventory were used to collect data and correlations done (Friesen and Ksiazkiewicz 2015, 797). The findings of Friesen and Ksiazkiewicz's study indicated that there is a correlation between genes and political attitudes. Also, according to the findings, "certain religious, political, and first principle beliefs can be explained by genetic and unique environmental components and the correlation between these three trait structures is primarily due to a genetic path" (Friesen and Ksiazkiewicz 2015, 813). This finding was in agreement with prior studies (Alford et al. 2005; Jennings and Niemi, 1974) that supported heritability in politics.

In 1979, Sidanius, Ekehammar, and Brewer conducted a study among 783 Swedish second-year high schools students in Stockholm, averaging 18 years of age. The study sought to establish the number and nature of higher order socio-political dimensions such as gender effects, parental political ideology, parental education, child-

rearing practices, day-care experience, emotional atmosphere at home, among others. The study employed a cluster sampling of five secondary schools within the metropolitan Stockholm, Sweden during spring; and a random selection of all second year students within the institutions. Schools were selected to represent both academic and vocational areas of study. A total of 397 boys and 375 girls were selected. To collect data, a questionnaire was distributed to schools and different items were tested. The findings of Sidanius, Ekehammar, and Brewer's study indicated that "there was no substantial relationship between socio-emotional variables and nature of children's socio-political relationship" (Sidanius, Ekehammar, and Brewer 1986, 18). Contrary to the expectations of the researchers, the social status of the child was weakly related to political ideology (Sidanius, Ekehammar, and Brewer 1986, 19). Two socialisation agents that strongly related to the attitude of the students were the political beliefs of the mother and the subjects' gender. The mothers had a greater influence on their children's socio-political life (Sidanius, Ekehammar, and Brewer 1986, 20).

Meirick and Wackman conducted a study in 2000 to establish how the Kids Voting programme in the USA contributed to the children's knowledge and voting pattern. A total of 385 children from 7th and 8th grade were sampled shortly before the 2000 elections, while 648 children were sampled after the elections in America (Meirick and Wackman 2004, 1161). The study findings indicated that exposure to the Kids Voting Programme directly related to political knowledge. These students were found to be more informed about civics and political candidates. Additionally, exposure to the programme produced a positive relationship between party identity and candidate preference. On the overall, the researchers established that there was similarity between adolescents' and

adults' political knowledge and its effect on the voting pattern (Meirick and Wackman 2004, 1174-5). Children made political decisions based on their political knowledge.

A study conducted by Tesnubi and Nwoye among 125 students in Nigeria explored the relationship between media use and political knowledge and behaviour. A questionnaire containing 23 close-ended questions was used to collect data. The researchers used SPSS to analyse their data and tabulate the findings (Tesunbi and Nwoye 2014, 12). Unlike previous researches, this study was interested in establishing how print media and internet contribute to students' political knowledge and behaviour. The findingsTesunbi and Nwoye's study indicated that there was no significant relationship between political cognition and use of media; however, there is a relationship between internet use and political action and interest among students. The study did not find any significant relationship between reading newspaper and political knowledge. On the contrary, students would rather use internet to access political information rather than read newspaper (Tesunbi and Nwoye 2014, 16-7). The findings were likely a reflection of the fact that students in this University were not interested in the political activities of the nation. One of the major limitations of Tesunbi and Nwoye's study was the fact that it used judgmental sampling and only one institution was selected. As a result, generalisations cannot be made but the findings can only be limited to the institution.

The aforementioned studies indicate that a child's political awareness, affiliation, and participation are largely influenced by biological and environmental factors. It can be deduced that no child forms his or her political views without any influencing factors. Evidently, these studies were not conducted in Kenya, consequently, it was necessary to establish whether these factors have an impact on the Kenyan child during his or her

political socialisation process. It is also observable that none of these studies sought to establish the influence of these factors on the child's political participation. Finally, it is evident that these studies did not explore the effect of children's political awareness, affiliation and participation on their own interpersonal relationships.

Political Socializing Agents

According to Abendschön, "the scholarly literature has tended to focus on family, parents, school, peers, media and voluntary associations as institutions that provide information on processes and concepts of politics, attitudes, norms and abilities" (Abendschön 2013, 3). These agencies aid children in understanding what is expected of them within the society. They promote the child's ability to become politically aware, affiliate, and participate in politics. The impact and intensity of each agency varies based on other intervening factors. To aid in understanding these political socializing agencies, the following factors will be discussed in this section: family, school, peers, mass media, and secondary groups.

Family

Family is the first agent of political socialization where there is a high possibility that parental socialization has a great effect on political participation of children (Quintelier 2013, 141). Children, at very tender ages, learn from their parents and imitate what they observe within the family. Grusec depicts the family as the main context where early socialization happens and the most important place for learning about moral and social values (cited in Quintelier 2013, 141). This view is in agreement with Abendschön who claims that political and democratic value system are formed in childhood as the

child's values are "constructed, refined, and reconstructed in the course of growing up"

(Abendschön 2013a, 38).

The family as a primary influencing agent in the political understanding of

children has significant impact on the views that the child formulates about politics and

politicians. This has a cumulative effect on party preference and political affiliations that

a child may uphold later in life. Hess and Torney noted:

> The family transmits preference for political party, but in most other areas
> its most effective role is to support other institutions in teaching political
> information and orientations. Clear-cut similarities among children in the
> same family are confined to partisanship and related attitudes, such as
> feelings of distress or pleasure over the outcome of an election campaign.
> Aside from party preference, the influence of the family seems to be
> primarily indirect and to influence attitudes toward authority, rules and
> compliance (Hess and Torney 2009, 71).

The attitude of partisanship and voting preferences is an idea that is also

supported in Mbabvu who notes that "the family exerts influence on the socialisation of

adolescents by transmitting political attitudes such as partisanship, party identification

and voting preferences. Parents influence adolescents' political development through

political discussion, explicit political teaching and by serving as role models" (Mbabvu

2017, 66).

Parents and other family members directly or indirectly make a major contribution

in children's political socialization. According to Hyman and Jennings (cited in

Quintelier 2013, 141), the families play an important role in the direct political

socialization of children. The direct influence of children's political outcomes within

families happens as parents provide information to their children by talking or discussing

politics or media use (McDevitt and Chaffee cited in Quintelier 2013, 141). Additionally,

Quintelier supports the fact that parents influence the children's political behavioral outcomes such as party identification and social participation (Quintelier 2013, 141).

Apart from direct influence, the family also indirectly influences children's political views. Plutzer concludes that children are likely to be involved in political life if their parents have been involved in elections, electoral campaigns, and other political affairs (cited in Quintelier 2013, 141). In such incidences, though parents do not directly communicate to their children about politics, children happen to observe and on their own accord get involved in politics. Parents thus function as political role models to their children.

According to Dawson and Prewitt (cited in Mbabvu 2017, 66), the family can indirectly socialize adolescents through enabling them to understand the ways in which decisions are made in the household. However, it is reported that this influence tends to weaken during the adolescence stage due to the fact that other socializing agencies such as school, peers, and mass media (Mbabvu 2017, 66) start to gain influence as the child interacts with the outside world and seeks to gain personal identity. The role of the child is to evaluate what society has to offer against the backdrop of family values and norms.

School

Schools have been found to be contexts where children get influenced concerning their political attitudes, knowledge, and skills. Mainly, schools play the largest part in teaching attitudes, conceptions, and beliefs about the operation of a political system (Hess and Torney 2009, 71). The equipping of children with such political knowledge is very essential and helps them in making decisions concerning their political engagement. According to Verba, Schlozman, and Brady, schools can equip students with the relevant

resources to enhance their political participation (cited in Quintelier 2013, 143). Pupils within a school context are exposed to political content through their classroom and extracurricular activities. Studies by Bachner in 2010; Dawson and Prewitt in 1969; and Langton in 1969indicate that the school socializes adolescents through the curriculum, teacher activities, school environment. and extracurricular activities (as cited in Mbabvu 2017, 66).

Historically, schools do not promote much of partisanship in politics since they have a greater standing in the society. Hess and Torney affirm this fact by reporting that schools mainly promote ideal norms because "teachers tend not to deal with partisanship or to discuss the role and importance of conflict in the operation of the system… they apparently stress the virtue of independent political action oriented towards assessment of candidates' worth rather than an alignment with a group of political party" (Hess and Torney 2009, 72).

A study conducted in America by Bachner in 2010 established that education courses strengthened students' psychological engagement with politics by increasing the students' political knowledge. It was also evident in Bachner's study that those students who complete a year of coursework in American Government/Civics were more likely to vote in an election following high school compared to those without exposure to civic education (cited Mbabvu 2017, 67). This indicates that the learning process and actual participation of students in political activities has a cumulative effect on children's political involvement later in life.

Schools also enhance direct and indirect political socialization for children when they become aware of the politics of their nation. Dekker points out that direct political

socialization happens in schools when pupils undertake subjects such as history, economics, and specifically social studies (Dekker 1991, 33). Although the teachers of these subjects may not directly seek to politicize pupils, actual knowledge about politics is passed on the learners. From these lessons, the learners develop their own attitudes and opinions concerning the politics of their nation and map ways in which they can be involved.

Citizenship education in schools is very critical in enhancing participation of children in political matters. One of the approaches is allowing children to debate on controversial matters, hence requiring them to participate in the classroom. This enhances the children's political literacy. Lockyer notes that citizenship education "…involves learning to engage in political argument, demanding an ability to understand and deploy relevant concepts and to operate within the conventions that accommodate 'reasonable disagreement'" (Lockyer 2009, 37). This is further supported by Crick who points out that such a discussion inculcates in children values of tolerance, fairness, and respect for truth (Crick 2000, 68). These values are helpful to the child both within school and beyond the school environment.

Indirectly, the schools pass on political values through their hidden curriculum. According to Dekker, there is a lot more that takes place during the classroom hour than the dispersal of information. In Dekker's words, "students acquire insights, opinions, attitudes, behavioral intentions and behavioral patterns casually by becoming accustomed to the culture… Such learning of culture involves a large number of cultural values which can have political consequences" (Dekker 1991, 34). This means that teachers need to be

careful about what they say and do in a classroom apart from the actual instruction of children.

Quintelier outlines three types of citizen education that takes place in schools which influences young people's political participation. These include formal civic education which aims at directly transmitting political knowledge; active learning strategies where schools encourage pupils to participate in politics through creating a participatory school culture; and open classroom climate where students are allowed to openly engage in discussions that may be handling controversial issues (Quintelier 2013, 143-4).

In summary, the school environment is a good place for children to learn values that are wide and far-reaching. Schools affect how children play and interact with others within their social milieu. According to Dawson, Prewitt, and Dawson, ". . . attitudes toward achievement, toward cooperation, as well as toward obedience and competitiveness, can be shaped by cultures of the classroom. Such components of one's world have important 'spillover' effects and shape political outlooks" (Dawson, Prewitt, and Dawson 1969, 155).

Peers

Peers are significant influencers among young people which greatly impacts their political orientations. Jaros opines that young people are influenced both directly and indirectly through the youth-led activist groups, extracurricular activities and social interactions which provide them opportunities for developing political orientations (cited in Mbabvu 2017, 67). On the same point, Dekker observes that indirect political socialization happens among peers when certain opinions and attitudes are stimulated in

groups such as the scouting, sports and disco groups (Dekker 1991, 35). As young people socialize with one another and engage in the political activities of their nation, they form their own opinions and views which shape how they participate and engage in the nation's politics.

Contrastingly, Hess and Torney established that peer interaction does not have a significant effect on children's political socialization. They argue that although group membership seems related to political activity, it is apparent that a child who is active tends to be active in several areas of their endeavors (Hess and Torney 2009, 73). This idea is further supported by Kporince-Sebert, Jennings and Niemi who, in their study, established that political attitudes cannot be the reason behind intimate friendships since friendships among peers are not clearly based on conformity of political attitudes or other qualities (cited in Dekker 1991, 36). These findings do not necessarily dispute the fact that peers influence one's political ideas and activity; instead they highlight the fact that the level of impact may be insignificant since there are other intervening factors.

Peers may never have the monopoly of political socialization as parents do; conversely, they influence each other quite intensely. The level at which peers impact one another is predicated by the strength of ties within the peer group. The weaker the tie, the higher the influence with new ideas, while the stronger the tie, the lesser the influence. According to Putnam, political discussions with people that hold varied viewpoints causes the members to constantly rethink and refine their issue stances as a result of their opinions being potentially challenged by the non-likeminded others (cited in Quintelier 2013, 142). This means that it is much easier to bridge interactions with people from different social backgrounds than it is with people from the same social background.

A study by Kenneth Langton (cited in Kolka 1969, 17) in Jamaica among secondary school students exposed the fact that heterogeneous classrooms produced a significant change in political attitudes among low socio-economic students and the vice versa happened when a homogeneous school setting was confronted. Langton then concluded that "confrontation between high and low socio-economic students has the effect of changing the political attitudes of the latter to agree more closely with their high socio-economic counterparts" (Langton cited in Kolka 1969, 17). Therefore, it seems clear that socio-economic status of a group of peers plays a major role in influencing their political attitudes. Evidently, from this finding, the more heterogeneous the group, the higher the influence, whereas, the more homogenous the group, the lesser the influence.

Mass Media

The modern generation is significantly influenced by mass media. Subsequently, the development of young people's political identity is greatly influenced by mass media. Dekker opines that intentional direct political socialization happens through television and radio programs which provide political information and propaganda. Moreover, the political section of newspapers, political books and politically-involved music affects the political orientation of young people (Dekker 1991, 35). Children who are involved in reading literature and watching media that has political content get influenced by what is communicated in those materials.

Mbabvu asserts that interactive digital media contributes significantly to the maturation of young people's political identity. He further claims that text messaging, email and online video sharing enable the public to share information, which provides political and civic learning opportunities (Mbabvu 2017, 67). In support of this idea,

Gotlieb et al. affirm that these channels of communication provide young people with opportunities and means to air their concerns relevant to their lifestyles (Mbabvu 2017, 67). The digital media thus creates a conducive environment for a young person to privately express their views without necessarily having to be in a public meeting that could be intimidating at times. Additionally, digital media is fast and instant hence producing immediate response and results which are favorable and desirable for the young people.

A study conducted in Germany by Wember revealed that a large number of people who had watched politically informative television programs reported having learnt political content from that information. Nevertheless, they could only tell very little of what they had watched (cited in Mbabvu 2017, 35). This reveals that to some extent, television is not very effective in enhancing people's political socialization. Quintelier discourses that even though media is assumed to stimulate political participation and attitudes, the causal relationship is not straight forward (Quintelier 2013, 144).

In contrast, Norris determined that watching of television news increased the level of political knowledge; civic and political participation; interest; social trust and efficacy (Norris 2000, 300). In another study, Newton drew a similar conclusion stating that watching television news increases political knowledge, political interest and the feeling that democracy works (cited in Quintelier 2013, 145). These studies clearly indicate that there is a relationship between watching of television and engagement in political activities.

Apart from television, internet has also been found to influence political knowledge and participation. The amount of time young people spend online browsing

the internet provides a wealth of information and there is the likelihood that people will interact with political information that can influence their views and perspectives. Today, with the rise of WhatsApp, Facebook, Hangouts, Telegram, and Instagram among other social media platforms, information is quickly and easily transmitted from one person to another. Within these platforms, people share a lot of political content that influences one's political socialization. Internet is easily accessible and affordable. Additionally, the affordability of smartphones, tablets, and ipads, enhances communication and social interaction by the press of a button. Krueger established that the internet has the potential to draw new people to offline political participation, or at least increase political awareness (Krueger 2002, 491).

Secondary Groups

Children's political life is influenced by other secondary groups and structures in the society which include religious groups, civil society organization, non-governmental organizations, and the political system. These groups shape people's political views as they engage in political debates and discussions on important matters in the society (Mbabvu 2017, 104-5). It is also notable that apart from disseminating political information, secondary groups engage in debates and discussion of political matters during meetings, rallies, conferences and also through media (Dawson and Prewitt 1969,186).

Many governments have structures which enhance the dissemination of political information to children, thus enhancing their awareness and participation. Dekker outlines some of the structures put in place which include:

> … frequent hearing of the national anthem, and seeing other people react dramatically to it; taking part in national ceremonies revolving around the national flag; celebrations of the birthdays of national heroes; appreciation of national cultural monuments; meeting and having meaningful exchanges with politicians, policemen, military figures; political participation experiences; political propaganda, and serving in the military (Dekker 1991, 38).

These functions and activities enhance children's understanding of their history and national heritage. For example, in many Kenyan schools, children sing the national anthem every Monday and Friday during the school parade as they raise the national flag.

Kenya has four national public holidays in a year, namely Labour Day, Madaraka Day, *Mashujaa* Day, and *Jamhuri* Day. Labour Day is celebrated on 1st May to mark the International workers day, just like many other nations across the globe do. *Madaraka*, a Swahili word which means 'freedom' is celebrated on 1st June to commemorate the day Kenya attained internal self-rule from the British colonial rule which ended in 1963 after a long freedom struggle. *Mashujaa* is a Swahili word for 'heroes' and is commemorated on 20th October to celebrate all the statesmen and women who participated in Kenya's struggle for freedom. Prior to the promulgation of the 2010 Constitution in Kenya, *Mashujaa Day* was known as '*Kenyatta Day'* and was celebrated in honor of Kenya's founding president Mzee Jomo Kenyatta (http://www.kenya-information-guide.com/public-holidays-in-kenya.html). *Jamhuri* is a Swahili word meaning 'republic or independence' and is celebrated on 12th December to commemorate two events: First, the day Kenya became a republic in the year 1964 and second, the day Kenya gained its independence from the British rule in 1963. Children participate during these celebrations and make different performances through song, dance, and recitations. This increases children's political awareness, participation and patriotism.

Religious institutions which include churches, mosques, synagogues, and temples have been identified as important agents of political socialization (Mbabvu 2017, 106). The interactions and sometimes messages delivered during religious gatherings promote values of good citizens. Directly or indirectly, children learn about their role in matters related to politics. Dawson and Prewitt mention that even though churches are primarily non-political in their nature, they take stands and issue statements on political issues (Dawson and Prewitt 1969, 186). For example, a religious group like the National Council for Churches in Kenya (NCCK) plays a major role during political campaigns and political reconciliations in Kenya. This group helps in enhancing national cohesiveness and unity in Kenya.

According to Ndzovu, religion can influence the party which an individual supports or campaigns for while political views can play a role in a person's religious conversion, thus people can change their religion to fit their political beliefs (Ndzovu 2005, 227). In Kenya, there has been a close interaction between religious groups and politicians. Some churches have taken partisan stances for their personal benefits while others have confronted the rot in the government system. According to Kenga:

> In the late 1980"'s democratization wave in Africa, mainstream churches including those in Kenya took a prodemocratic stand by speaking against authoritarianism, holding conferences that created new constitutions as well mobilizing their church members to join in the call for a democratic reform. During president's Moi regime, some churches including the Seventh Day Adventist, the Salvation Army, Friends church, African inland Church alongside Pentecostal churches under their umbrella body United Evangelical Churches of Kenya (UECK), stood against the multipartism course and supported the authoritarian regime (Kenga n.d., 12).

It is clear from these statements that religious groups have a great influence on the political life of the country. As a result, children who are participants within these groups get to learn and eventually be influenced politically.

Apart from partisan politics in some religious contexts, the church has been found to be concerned with social issues such as child labor, birth control and censorship of media (Ranney 1982, 225). In support of the church's significant role in politics, Jackson and Jackson posit that religious organizations play a significant informal influence on the political culture of many nations in the world (Jackson and Jackson 2003, 124). It is evident that, during the interaction of religious leaders with their members, there is transfer of knowledge and information that enhances civic education and political participation. Tossutti (cited in Mbabvu 2017, 107) found that in the United States of America (USA) and Canada, participation in religious activities significantly affected democratic institutions and civil society organizations. Tossutti further established that regular church attendance was directly linked to higher rates of electoral turnout, political interest, memberships in voluntary organisations, and volunteering and philanthropy (cited in Mbabvu 2017, 107).

A study by Paul and Djube in 2008 regarding church's influence on political socialisation indicated that the clergy and small church groups such as choirs and church councils participated in dissemination of political information to church members. This information was provided through sermons and political discussions in the church (Mbabvu 2017, 107).

Maria Frahm-Arp (cited in Mbabvu 2017, 107) conducted a study in South Africa in 2015 seeking to establish political involvement of three South African churches,

namely, His People, Grace Bible Church, and Acts of Faith Harvesters. Maria Frahm-Arp examined the political messages expressed by the church leaders during the build-up to the 2014 elections, how the church used select social media sites to spread their messages, and how some members reacted to the political messages of their church leaders. The study findings revealed that all the three churches believed that Christians should be politically active, pray for the country's leaders, vote in the elections and obey the rules of government (cited in Mbabvu 2017, 107). The findings in this section indicate that the church and other religious groups are important agencies in enhancing political awareness, affiliation, and participation of its members.

<div align="center">Ways by Which Children Learn about Politics</div>

Political socialization is largely shaped by the parameters of the society in which it is embedded (Abendschön 2013, 1). Children learn about politics based on the laid down structures within that society. Some of the ways children learn about politics include, but are not limited to the following:

Observation

The patterns of relationships and political affiliations that children observe among adults, peers, and the media have an impact on their political opinions. According to Coles, children learn about politics and relationships from parents, siblings, teachers, friends and media (Coles 2000, 27). These socializing agents influence the manner in which children get to know about politics and form relationships. Parents who set a good model for the children succeed in bringing children who follow their example. However, where parents set a bad example, the children make wrong political choices and their friendships are likely to be biased.

In normal life, children observe what adults say or do and with time internalize these ideas as their own. Bandura and Houston observe that "… children readily imitated behavior exhibited by an adult model in the presence of a model" (Bandura and Houston 1961 cited in Bandura, Ross, and Ross 1961, 575). Furthermore, Bandura, Ross, and Ross confirmed this idea in their study regarding children's learning. The study findings strongly indicated that "observation of cues produced by the behavior of effective means of eliciting certain forms of responses for which the original probability is zero" (Bandura, Ross, and Ross 1961, 580). These findings indicate that if children are exposed to a particular behavior over a period of time, they are sure to reproduce the behavior observed.

The environment within which children live provides several avenues for children to observe behavior from models who may include parents, peers, teachers, or the media. Depending on the behavior modelled, children emulate the same and provide a platform for their political behavior. Jennings, Stoker, and Bowers established that Parent-child similarities in partisan allegiances are interpreted as a product of observational learning through identification, imitation, and modelling. Parents pass on attributes to offspring "wittingly or unwittingly" (Jennings, Stoker, and Bowers 2009, 792 cited in McDevitt and Kiousis 2015, 20).

Instruction

Direct instruction is another way through which children learn about politics. Many schools in Kenya have civic education as a compulsory subject. Children learn not only how to relate with others and how to affiliate politically from what they observe in adults, but also what these adults teach. Most often the older members of society teach

younger members the rules and norms of political life. John Locke (1964) theorized that young children come into the world as blank slates ready to learn and receive that which is to be taught. Locke further argued that education was not just for the intellect but also for social and physical aspects of the child (cited in Farenga and Ness 2015, 463). In this sense, adults spent time in teaching children about the societal matters and how to interact with others.

Civic education is another channel through which children learn about politics. As a subject integrated within the school curriculum, pupils have opportunities to learn about their communities, countries, and other nations. Through the civic education, children learn about the political systems and structures within their countries of origin. Studies such as those by Hess and Torney indicate that schools have a greater influence on the children's political development (Hess and Torney 2009, 217). Within the school, the teacher and peers make a significant influence on the child regarding their political orientation. The school context also does provide students with opportunities to witness how democracy works firsthand, participation in politics, and fully exercise their civil rights (Herczog 2016, 25). Instruction also happens in churches and other religious groups as noted in the preceding discussion under the secondary groups as socializing agencies.

<center>Children's Political Participation</center>

Child participation as outlined in Articles 12-15 of the UNCRC provides children with the means by which they can engage in those processes of change that will bring about the realization of their rights, and prepare them to be active participants in society

and change (Ministry of Labour and East African Affairs and National Council for Children Services 2016, 9). Article 12 of the UNCRC provides that

> States Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child. For this purpose the child shall in particular be provided the opportunity to be heard in any judicial and administrative proceedings affecting the child, either directly, or through a representative or an appropriate body, in a manner consistent with the procedural rules of national law.

Article 13 states that children have the right to freely express themselves as well as seek and receive information. The ACRWC in Articles 7 and 8 states that children have freedom of expression as well as freedom of association. The Kenya Children Act, Section 4 provides that children have a right to be involved in matters affecting them (Mbugua, Ambwaya, and Munene 2012, 48).

Early engagement and involvement of children enables them to be responsible citizens in their adult life. The essence of participation for young people is to enhance future participation in more complex activities (Hart 1992, 5). It is indeed unbelievable to expect young people at the age of twenty years to start engaging and handling more complex things when involvement has not taken place in the earlier years. Modeling and mentoring young people from a very young age is very necessary for developing more stable and responsible citizens. Nonetheless, it must be clear that there have been incidences when involvement of young people has been negative, especially in incidences when they have participated in riots, destruction of property, and killing other people (Hart 1992, 5). This is a negative approach to participation and it negatively influences children regarding political participation, consequently promoting vices in the society.

According to Hart, children in the UK learn social skills and participate in the reproduction of their communities. This has been achieved through their non-formal activities with other children and in most cases, the state has often tried to intervene and control these processes (Hart 2009, 8). It is reported that progress has been made on the social participation of children in the search to fulfil child participation as outlined in the UNCRC and as a result children have been granted opportunities to be heard, express themselves, and have access to and share information (Hart 2009, 9).

Huckfeldt indicates that political participation is not something that happens in isolation but through the interaction that takes place between different social contexts (cited in Quintelier 2013, 140). Children's political participation is enhanced through their being allowed to participate in different activities at home, school, and the community at large. In such participatory ways, the children learn their roles and responsibilities and also adopt values that enhance both community cohesiveness and hard work. Quintelier reveals that parents have both a direct and indirect influence on their children's political participation (Quintelier 2013, 142). This concept is further supported by Quéniart who asserts that "in politicised families, the route to political participation is easily accessible" (Quéniart 2008, 211). This means that children who grow in homes where family members are actively involved in politics are likely to be active in politics both as children and as adults.

According to Jankowski, the general participation of the child in family politics has cumulative effects on how the child participates in the general politics of the country (cited in Hart, 2009, 15). It is possible that the more the child is allowed participation at family level, the more he or she is likely to be involved in the national politics. The

attribute of involvement and participation has to be nurtured effectively at family level. In this context, the adults will serve as role models and help to resolve conflicts or intervene in situations where children deserve attention.

Queniart points out that the socioeconomic status of parents coupled with their social and political participation, influences young people's political participation and behavior. However, Beck and Jennings advance that apart from family, schools also play a major role in enhancing children's political participation (cited in Quéniart 2008, 204). Regardless of family and school, it is evident that within different environments, children are exposed to political information and this aids their participation in political matters. Conclusively, it can be argued that political participation is preceded by social participation. When children are involved in different activities within the home, school, or community, they gain self-confidence that enhances their political Gerson and Wehner articulate that participation in the politics of a nation is essential and that in a thriving democracy, duties of citizenship include paying taxes to voting, serving in government to petitioning, speaking out in public forums to attending rallies and protests (Gerson and Wehner 2010, 38). This principle of participation in politics and making contribution in the society is critical in enhancing good citizenship and enjoyment of democratic rights.

Hart outlines several avenues within the home, school, and community where children can be allowed participation. Some of these avenues include free play, school activities, after school activities and membership to different organizations (Hart 2009, 10-23). These activities enable children to know how to take responsibilities and relate well with one another. In free play, children learn to cooperate, set goals, negotiate, plan ahead, resolve conflicts and grapple with issues of fairness, justice and morality (Hart

2009, 14). In essence, these are values needed in political responsibilities and duties as children or later in life. The participation of children in these contexts needs to be meaningful and go beyond simple presence and observation (May et al. 2005, 140). Children must be allowed to play active roles and make meaningful contributions to issues in their society.

As discussed in schools as socializing agencies, it was noted that activities children engage in in schools increase their political awareness as well as their political affiliation. However, it is important to realize that through civic education and engagement in schools, children have greater chances of political participation. Children learn about the obligations, responsibilities and self-restraint as important qualities of citizens (Hart 2009, 17) enhancing good governance and social relationships. Within schools, children are also members of clubs which enhance participation both in school and in after school activities. Clubs such as scouts and girl guides promote leadership values and ability for children to act on their values and interests (Hart 2009, 20).

Children have been known to participate in decision making processes and speak on matters affecting their lives. Johnson reports that in times of conflict and oppression, children have been at the forefront of political lobbying and reform. For example, in South Africa, children were part of the struggle against apartheid for many years (Johnson 2009, 39). Ennew reiterates this idea highlighting that children have been resourceful in forming their own support groups and having their own ways of supporting each other in times of adversities (cited in Johnson 2009, 39). Evidently, the participation of children in political matters is essential and critical as long as it does not violate their rights and those of others. Coles argued that even though children do not have a vote,

they are not to be secluded from political life and neither should they be shielded against the fall-out from political processes (cited in Smith 2009, 54).

The formation of KCA was strategic in ensuring that children participate at not only a national, but also local level. The forum provides an opportunity for children to voice issues that have been an enigma to them and propose strategies for handling and resolving those issues. "Child participation recognizes that children are not passive, powerless target group, but rather capable communicators, who can effectively engage in activities within their communities" (KCA guideline 2016, 9). Through this forum, children participate in political activities, such as vying for leadership, campaigning, voting, and serving as leaders within their schools or the larger children's national parliament.

The KCA is structured in a way that it correlates with the Kenyan parliament in matters concerning the leadership position. Children are trained to vote and select their leaders both at national and county levels. The guideline encompass six core priorities which include to empower children with knowledge, skills, values and appropriate attitudes on their rights and responsibilities; to involve children in policy formulation, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation; to provide forums for the promotion of child participation at local, regional and international levels; to facilitate networking among children and other relevant stakeholders; to promote patriotism, cohesion and nationhood among Kenyans; and to improve the status, conditions and well-being of children and the realization of their rights in the country (Ministry of Labour and East African Affairs and National Council for Children Services 2016, 12-4).

It is hoped that effective implementation of the Children's Assembly will enhance full participation of children in different matters that affect their lives in Kenya. Notably, only children between 7 to below 17 years of age are eligible for nomination to the Children's Parliament and the parliaments are held in three separate categories, that is 7–10; 11–13 and 14–17 years of age. Issues of gender equity are considered to ensure a ratio of 1:1 gender representation in the children's parliament (Ministry of Labour and East African Affairs and National Council for Children Services 2016, 17). The KCA administrative structure is as shown in Figure 3.

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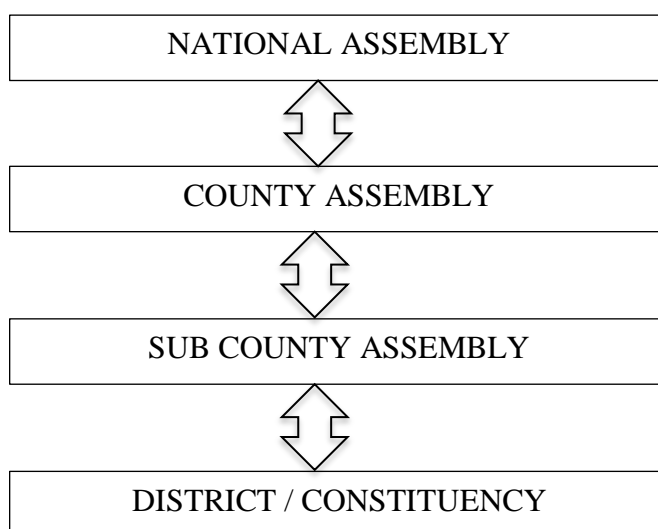
Figure 3. Kenya Children Administrative Structure (Ministry of Labour and
East African Affairs and National Council for Children Services 2016, 14)

Interpersonal Relationships among Children

Human beings are naturally wired to attach to things or people. Children grow within families and from very early days of life learn how to attach and relate to family members. According to Hinde and Stevenson-Hinde, most children grow in nuclear families and within those families, they interact daily with one or two parents, siblings, relatives and friends (Hinde and Stevenson-Hinde 1987, 1). As children grow, their

relationships widen and they start relating with peers in schools, religious institutions, and the wider community. Each interaction among individuals is likely to affect subsequent interactions leading to establishment of a relationship.

In 1959, Heider defined interpersonal relationship as "… a kind of relationship between a few groups of people; it includes ideas, expectation, awareness and reaction of an individual to others" (cited in Huang, Liu, and Yu 2016, 136). This view is in agreement with Hinde and Stevenson-Hinde who believed that a relationship includes not only what individuals do together, but also the perceptions, fears, and expectations that each has about the other and about the future course of the relationship based on individual histories of the two interactants and the history of their relationship (Hinde and Stevenson-Hinde 1987, 2). In this sense, a relationship is established and affected by many factors, which individuals must be aware of and seek to constantly address.

Schutz opines that interpersonal relationship is a need between people and contains three different levels of needs, namely affection, inclusion, and control. He further explains:

> Affection refers to the desire of expressing emotions and gaining
> affection from others; inclusion refers to the hope of an individual of
> being accepted and recognized; control refers to the desire of an
> individual to influence people, things, and objectives in certain aspects
> (as cited in Huang, Liu, and Yu 2016, 136).

This indicates that interpersonal relationships are important and they exist to meet a need among the interactants. Grieve et al. emphasize that due to this need, individuals seek to constantly develop and continue a positive relationship so as to experience a sense of belongingness (cited in Huang, Liu, and Yu 2016, 136).

Baumeister and Leary hypothesized that "human beings have a pervasive drive to form and maintain at least a minimum quantity of lasting, positive, and significant interpersonal relationships" (Baumeister and Leary 1995, 497). This sheds light on the value that individuals place on relationships. The lack of such relationships is likely to affect one, leading to loneliness and stress. Martin and Dowson note that when the need for belongingness is fulfilled, there is a production of positive emotional response (Martin and Dowson 2009). Ideally, individuals feel happy and excited to know they belong to a group or in a relationship with someone else.

Interpersonal relationships exist to fulfil several roles among the members within the relationship. According to Martin and Dowson, interpersonal relationships among students help in "…developing positive interpersonal relationships, bringing healthy physiological functions, bringing happiness, and alleviating stress" (cited Huang, Liu, and Yu 2016, 137). This affirms that interpersonal relationships are very important and they fulfil positive functions promoting the wellbeing of the members. The converse is true in that lack of relationships among individuals is likely to inhibit personal wellbeing and increase stress among the members.

According to Ormrod, peer relationships serve many important roles in children's and adolescents' personal wellbeing (Ormrod 2016, 76). These roles are to enhance personal wellness and increase the ability for one to relate well with others. Erwin notes that peer relations enhance the practice of social skills such as negotiation, persuasion, cooperation, compromise, emotional control, and conflict resolution (cited in Ormrod 2016, 76). It is therefore unmistakable that peers are critical and provide the very essential social and emotional support among children.

Younger children value friendships as a source of recreation but also comfort and safety. However, during adolescence, children rely more on their peers for emotional support rather than adults (Ormrod 2016, 77). It is within such peer groups that teenagers are free to express their feelings since they are more understood by their friends than any other adults. As discussed earlier, peers are significant socializing agents and therefore within these relationships children are able to learn about their society and formulate views that shape their behavior and interactions with wider society.

Ormrod states that peer groups define options for leisure time, offer new ideas and perspectives, serve as role models and provide standards for acceptable behavior, reinforce one another, and sanction one another for stepping beyond the boundaries (Ormrod 2016, 77). This depicts the value of relationships among young people. They are nexus of unity and a source of support in matters affecting members within the relationship.

Interactions among relationships depend upon both participants, meaning that it is not a one-way direction. The resultant action is that the behaviour exhibited by an individual is dependent on the relationships the individual has experienced in the past (Hinde and Stevenson-Hinde 1987, 2). However, it is also clear that the type of relationship experienced is dependent on the social context and influenced by the social nexus of other relationships within which it is embedded (Hinde and Stevenson-Hinde 1987, 3). Since relationships are affected by the social context within which they exist, it is prudent to argue that the political atmosphere of a country is likely to interfere with the types of relationships that exist. If individuals are politically estranged, then relationships among them are likely to be estranged.

Hinde proposed eight dimensions of a relationship that include the content of interactions; diversity of interactions; qualities of several types of interaction; qualities that emerge from relative frequency and patterning of relationships; reciprocity vs. complementarity of various types of interactions; intimacy; interpersonal perception; and commitment to continuing the relationship and/or maintaining or improving its quality (Hinde 1976, 4-11). These dimensions are very critical in any relationship and must be evaluated time and again to ensure that a friendship lasts and fulfils its purpose among the members.

A good relationship is stable and fulfils the functions for which it was established. The members must display their commitment to this relationship and actively participate in enhancing the continuity of the relationship. Hinde states that a relationship has four stages which include sampling, bargaining, commitment and institutionalization (Hinde 1976, 11-2). This means that no relationship just happens without influencing factors. Individuals must sample different people within their context, weigh the options of having such relationships, make a commitment to that relationship, and finally become part and parcel of the relationship. It is implicit that the quality of a relationship must first be evaluated based on the stage of that relationship and secondly based on the context of other relationships in which the participants are involved (Hinde 1976, 12).

Formation and maintenance of relationships is also influenced by other factors such as attraction, similarity, and other background factors. Members in a group need to be attracted to each and this could be due to their shared interests or values. It is on this premise that children may seek to relate with others who share similar political affiliations especially in matters to do with party preference. What is not clear is whether

children would reject another child who may be affiliated to a political party that is not similar to theirs. In friendship formation, adolescents seek to be accepted and respected by peers, and to achieve this, a child must learn to cooperate and be friendly (Seifert and Sutton 2009, 52).

Other factors that influence friendship formation and maintenance of relationships among children include gender, cognitive maturity, family background, and ethnicity (Ladd, Buhs, and Troop 2004, 394). These factors affect ways in which children relate with each other in a school context and thus the child may be prosocial, antisocial, or asocial. Ladd, Buhs, and Troop note that behaviours children bring to school affect the nature and quality of the relationships they form in this setting. Notably, aggressive and antisocial behaviours bring about negative relationships while prosocial behaviours promote positive relationships among children (Ladd, Buhs, and Troop 2004, 399).

Regarding relationships formation and maintenance, Hartup and Stevens argue that older children are concerned with intimacy, identity, sensitivity to others' needs, and what it takes to keep relationships going (Hartup and Abecassis 2004, 286). Friendships among children are known to provide companionships and intimacy which is of essence to school going children. Relationships are less stable when "friendship talk" of the individual children is negative and non-supportive (Berndt and Perry 1986, 645). This suggests that good developmental outcomes take place when a child has friends who are socially skilled, and the friendships are supportive and intimate (Hartup and Abecassis 2004, 299). In a study by Hayes, Gershman, and Halteman in 1996, it was found that preadolescent boys disliked classmates who were insincere and not helpful (cited in

Hartup and Abecassis 2004, 287), meaning that relationships among children are maintained on the basis of sincerity.

Formation of relationships is something that starts at the very early stages of life. Within friendships, mutual support and sharing are key elements in children's relationships. Behavioral studies indicate that younger children below the age of five years make almost no distinction between friends and acquaintances when deciding to share. However, this changes among older children, adolescents, and college students where level of mutual support determines levels of sharing (Hruschka 2010, 125). Regardless of these changes, it is important to note that mutual support and sharing are important aspects of relationships among children. Hruschka further points out that an important part of childhood and adolescence is learning the value of mutual support, trust, and loyalty in friendships (Hruschka 2010, 126). These qualities are important and they provide an opportunity for formation of positive relationships that enhance harmony, peace, and unity among children.

Characteristics of Interpersonal Relationships

Interpersonal experience is a fundamental aspect in human life. People find meaning for existence based on their interpersonal relationships. Circumstances that interfere with effective interpersonal relationships affect an individual's ability to live a full life. According to the Henderer- Harrison Interpersonal Relations Scale (1967), there are six main content areas of interpersonal relationships. These are trust, hostility, giving, seduction, dominance, and guilt. While some of the areas exhibit positive relationships, others have to do with negative ones. These six factors in the Henderer- Harrison

Interpersonal Relations Scale (1967) are significant in building healthy or unhealthy

interpersonal relationships.

Trust

Trust is a very important element in any relationship. It is the one element that

makes or breaks relationships among individuals. According to Luhnann, trust

"…includes a willingness to accept some risk and vulnerability toward others and steps to

grease the wheels of social activity" (Luhnann cited in Waldman 2018, 7). Trust involves

an action of faith and believing that others will keep the information that is shared. Trust

could also be perceived as a mutual faithfulness on which all social interaction depends

(Waldman 2018, 7).

In Henderer's perspective, trust is the confidence that the other person in an

interpersonal relationship will maintain a facilitative approach to the relationship

(Henderer 1967, 10). Evidently, trust is the ability to count on someone within an

interpersonal relationship. It is the measure of stability in one's life. Trust is a function of

choice and this means that individuals have the responsibility in deciding when to trust,

who to trust, and why trust the person. In the context of this study, children may choose

to or not to trust others who have political affiliations different from theirs. Their decision

and action will be based on many factors including the child's personality.

Hostility

Hostility involves negative aggressive feelings directed towards another person

(Itzhaky, Avidor, and Solomon 2017, 229). These feelings of hostility could be as a result

of a traumatic event or an experience one has undergone. Expression of hostility could be

verbal or physical targeting the other person. According to Henderer, hostility is the "desire for an individual to destroy another individual" (Henderer 1967, 10). In most cases, hostility is displayed when two people or two parties are angry at each other or act out the anger (Henderer 1967, 11). It is therefore assumed that in the context of negative interpersonal relationships, children may be hostile to each other. The hostile actions could include verbal abuse, physical fights, destroying of other people's property, and frequent criticism or mockery. In a hostile environment, an individual is ready or engages in frequent fights and has the desire to hit someone or something. Hostility could lead to feelings of anxiety, stress, sorrow, and fatigue among others.

Guilt

Guilt refers to feelings of distress, which arise in response to one's own actions, thoughts, and intentions (Itzhaky, Avidor, and Solomon 2017, 229). It is aggression towards self and can harm one emotionally. Henderer views guilt as rooted in an individual's feelings of inadequacy and incompleteness (Henderer 1967, 13). These feelings could lead to low self-esteem, sadness, poor identity, and discouragement by the person feeling guilty. Guilt feelings could also arise due to someone failing to act at all, either right or wrong in a situation (Henderer 1967, 13). It has a complex phenomenon that needs to be well understood.

O'Connor, Berry, Weiss, Bush, and Sampson in 1997 wrote that guilt can be "evoked by different psychological and environmental mechanisms, and may vary according to the traumatic experience" (cited in Itzhaky, Avidor, and Solomon 2017, 229). The guilt feelings may arise in a person based on another impressing upon them the

wrongness of their actions (Henderer 1967, 13). In the political context, a child may feel guilty when rebuked for doing or saying something negative during the political campaigns or activities. Contrasted with hostility, guilt is aggression directed at self and not at others.

Giving

According to Henderer, giving is characterised by an individual's concern for the welfare of another person by acting on the specific concern (Henderer 1967, 11). It can be deduced that giving has to do with taking a risk for the sake of a relationship or another person. In its nature, giving is the opposite of hostility. Henderer views hostility as destructive whereas giving is viewed as constructive (Henderer 1967, 11). Although hostility seeks to harm the other, giving seeks to protect and offer the best to the other individual. Within a relationship, giving is based on deep respect for the other person's worth and recognition of their rights (Henderer 1967, 11). A giving person within a relationship holds a constructive attitude towards others with a readiness to sacrifice while taking risks on behalf of others.

Seduction

This is a dimension of interpersonal relationships that relates to a temptation or enticement to any action or point of view, whether good or bad (Henderer 1967, 12). The seduction is directed to the emotions of the other person and not his or her intellect. The seducer is always aware of the feelings and interests of the seduced (Henderer 1967, 12). As such, the seducer maintains his or interests so as to achieve personal goals. The goal is not to harm the person seduced but to convince him or her towards an action to be done.

In this study, seduction as an aspect of interpersonal relationships will be expressed by children's status of being easily convinced by others to follow their ideas. The seducer thus is depicted as the person who easily convinces others to follow his or her ideas.

Dominance

Dominance is the actual interactional behaviour by which power and influence can be accomplished (Knapp and Daly 2002, 268). It follows that within a relationship where there is dominance, one person has to be dominant and over the other. In interpersonal relationships, dominance is characterised by the desire to control completely the actions of another (Henderer 1967,12). Fundamentally, the dominant person seeks to make all decisions to determine the final outcome thus eliminating the individuality of others. Knapp and Daly indicate that displays of dominance include "aggressiveness, threat, strength, persuasiveness, dynamism, and self-control (Knapp and Daly 2002, 268). This aspect of relationships is negative since the dominant person seeks self-gratification and exercising of power over others without caring or respecting their views and feelings. It is noteworthy that dominance is a destructive aspect of interpersonal relationship since an individual's views are imposed on others.

Bridging the Gap towards Inclusive Relationships

The context within which children are raised has a significant effect in the way they develop their political affiliations and also the way they form relationships. In cases where adults set bad examples by practicing negative ethnicity and bad politics, children may display similar characteristics not only in their childhood but also later in their adulthood. The media also has a significant role in teaching children about politics.

Negativity in both print and electronic media plays a major role in both instigating negative ethnicity among children and exercising bad governance.

Political understanding involves mastering concepts such as justice, freedom, and other rights (Berti 2005, 88). When these principles are well understood and practiced, there is group cohesion and interaction without infringing on other people's rights. Nevertheless, it is argued that children cannot learn morality on their own since morality is both innate and learned (Haidt 2013, 31). This means that children must encounter good models that are in a position to guide and direct them so that they make sound moral decisions. Based on children's highest levels of morality, it is important to promote biblical values of fairness and justice.

The golden rule principle is very significant "do to others what you would like them to do to you" (Matthew 7:12; Luke 6:31). When embraced, this principle encourages doing good to others. It emphasizes the value of fairness and justice. In doing good, people make the world a better place and increase good social interactions and interpersonal relationships.

Inclusivity in relationships has to do with fairness and accepting others who are different from oneself. The best foundational model for children is constant teaching as well as being an example. The bible is clear about teaching children and the need to enhance lifestyle modelling (Deuteronomy 4; 6; 11). These bible verses sought to challenge Israelites to teach their children at home, along the road, when they go to bed, when they rise, and marking on doors the deeds of the Lord. In this context, adults model inclusivity in relationships to children at all times.

Jesus sets a good example on inclusive relationships that must be adopted in all relationships. Cassidy notes that the gospel of Luke points out critical characteristics of Jesus' political and social engagements while on earth. It is evident in Luke 4:18 that Jesus had a special interest in the marginalized groups such as the poor, oppressed, captives, the blind and women (Cassidy 2015, 22-4). Jesus did not follow the status quo of the society and what his culture expected; on the contrary, He was countercultural in order to bring transformation to the people in his generation.

Jesus was not only concerned with the marginalized; he exercised universalism with all social groups. For example, He included a wide variety of people from diverse backgrounds among the disciples (Levites, Zealots, doctors, tax collectors, fishermen, among others), accepted dinner invitations and hospitality from the wealthy, and extended healing to the rich and powerful (Cassidy 2015, 24). This inclusiveness must be embraced so as to enhance healthy relationships. As observed, the theme of an inclusive community was an important feature in Jesus' response to the social sufferings and injustices around him (Cassidy 2015, 33). In the Kenyan political context, this value must be embraced so as to root out ethnicity, partisanship, and exclusivity.

Christian parents have an opportunity to display inclusive relationships for their children through the way they choose their friends and relate with them. Thompson (cited in May et al. 2005,156) maintains that it is important to welcome friends and persons who are beyond the circle of those close to us as an act of hospitality. Jesus displayed this during His time on earth and it is important for the same to be practiced today.

Biblical and Theological Perspectives on Politics and
Interpersonal Relationships

Politics and theology have been rare discussions especially among Christians.

Many evangelical Christians have conceptualized politics as a dirty game. On the

contrary, Keller posits that "… the claim that we shouldn't be involved in politics, or that

we should "take back our country for Jesus"–is inadequate. In each society, time and

place, the form of political involvement has to be worked out differently with utmost

faithfulness to the scripture, but also the greatest sensitivity to culture, time, and place"

(cited in Gerson and Wehner 2010, 11). The generalization of all politics as a dirty game

has led many Christians to sit on the fence and do nothing about it. Gerson and Wehner

argue that Christians need to care about politics since political acts have profound human

consequences (Gerson and Wehner 2010, 24). The type of government established in any

nation has significant repercussions on its citizens.

Acts of politics are evident in the Bible right from the beginning to the end. One

key passage in the Bible regarding political matters is Romans 13:1-7 where Paul narrates

the relationship that should exist between citizens and the state. Commenting on Romans

13:1-7, Guthrie explains that the Christian must maintain an attitude of loyalty and

orderliness towards the state (Guthrie 1990, 431). In Romans 13:1-2, Paul states:

> Let everyone be subject to the governing authorities, for there is no
> authority except that which God has established. The authorities that exist
> have been established by God. Consequently, whoever rebels against the
> authority is rebelling against what God has instituted, and those who do so
> will bring judgment on themselves (NIV).

The fact that Paul calls on Christians to obey the government, indicates that the political

affairs of a nation are very important and citizens need to be conversant with their roles

and responsibilities. Moreover, a key concept in this passage is that authorities are

established by God and rebellion leads to punishment. In *Life Application Study Bible*, it

is recorded that Jesus and the disciples did not disobey the state for personal reasons, but

they only disobeyed when it was contrary to God's will (*Life Application Study Bible:*

New Living Translation 1792, 1996). This means that good citizenship and compliance to

authority is essential. In Romans 13: 3-5, Paul states that,

> **3** For rulers hold no terror for those who do right, but for those who do
> wrong. Do you want to be free from fear of the one in authority? Then do
> what is right and you will be commended. **4** For the one in authority is God's
> servant for your good. But if you do wrong, be afraid, for rulers do not bear
> the sword for no reason. They are God's servants, agents of wrath to bring
> punishment on the wrongdoer. **5** Therefore, it is necessary to submit to the
> authorities, not only because of possible punishment but also as a matter of
> conscience (NIV).

From a Christian perspective, this passage implies that civil leaders are God's

servants and they do good for the nation. Distinctly, Paul highlights in this passage that

civil leaders should not be feared by non-wrongdoers since they work for the good of the

nation. Walvoord and Cook claim that civil leaders bear arms (the sword) as agents of

wrath. Furthermore, Walvoord and Zuck argue that "governmental force, properly used,

helps prevent tyranny and executes justice; it brings judgment on the wrongdoer"

(Walvoord and Zuck 2000, 490). Clearly, the two-pronged message from these two

verses is that obedience to authority is necessary because it leads to escape from possible

punishment and it is also a conscientious matter. It must however be underscored in this

context that Paul was referring to authorities that do their duties and the leaders who are

just (*Life Application Study Bible: New Living Translation* 1792, 1996).

This concept of political leaders is important for children to know. It provides

them with a proper understanding of the role of political authorities. Such a message

within a church context is necessary because it helps children know that law enforcers

must not only be feared for punishment sake, but also because their position demands respect and submission. Additionally, in a corrupt society, children need to understand that the position that civil authorities hold is not meant for abuse of power and oppression of the civilians, but for purposes of protecting the people and enhancing justice. The key principle to learn from this passage is that obedience to civil authorities is recognition of the "… government's rightful place within the hierarchy of relationships established by God, a hierarchy at whose pinnacle is God" (Wenham et al. 1994, 1153).

Submission to civil authorities and mandate of these authorities is also emphasized in 1 Peter 2:13-17 which states:

> **13** Submit yourselves for the Lord's sake to every human authority: whether to the emperor, as the supreme authority, **14** or to governors, who are sent by him to punish those who do wrong and to commend those who do right. **15** For it is God's will that by doing good you should silence the ignorant talk of foolish people.

The context of this passage was rulers who were evil, persecuting Christians and not submitting to God's authority. However, Peter urged Christians to obey their masters as a form of evangelism. Gerson and Wehner affirm that Christians are urged to obey even unjust masters as a form of Christian witness (Gerson and Wehner 2010, 39). It is therefore critical for children to learn these concepts about political leaders as well as their role as civilians.

Romans 13: 6-7 highlights the need for paying taxes to the government, respect, and honor. Walvoord and Zuck explain that the need for paying taxes emanates from the fact that civil authorities are God's servants and hence they need to spend their full time governing (Walvoord and Zuck 2000, 490). It seems then from this passage that part of the knowledge that children should learn about their role as citizens within a government

is to fulfil their duties as stipulated within the laws and legislations of that nation. Honoring and respect of those in authority is a virtue expected from all civilians.

Political participation is a concept supported in the Bible and children are depicted functioning in political and leadership affairs of their nation. According to Paul (2009), there are critical aspects that Christians can learn from the Bible regarding children's participation in leadership and politics. Paul argues that though Joseph was the youngest in the family, God gave him a gift which later made him the greatest in Egypt. Samuel was called as a very young child and his parents allowed him to participate in ministry. David confronted Goliath regardless of his age and he became the greatest of Kings in his generation. King Joash and Josiah were among the greatest Kings of Israel, yet they were anointed as Kings at a tender age (Paul, 2009). According to Paul, these young Kings (Joash and Josiah) " . . . were protected, nurtured and entrusted with leadership of the Chosen Nation. The family and royal court encouraged these children to participate in decision-making granting their rights that they were able to develop themselves as leaders at their young ages" (Paul 2009, 102). Finally, it is notable that Jesus engaged rulers while he was 12 years of age and God used him in mighty ways. Evidently, God has no hesitation using people regardless of their age or standing in the society (Paul 2009, 102).

The prophets announced the coming of Jesus who was to be the Messiah. In Hebrew context, Messiah signified anointed king and the Israelites long waited for the king to deliver them from their oppressors. Based on biblical records, Jesus provided an upside-down kind of leadership where the leader/king was servant and not master. "He came as a lowly servant born not of noble privileges but in a manger in Bethlehem"

(Gerson and Wehner 2010, 25). In his leadership regime and ministry with the apostles, Jesus confronted the political and religious leaders of this world and challenged their wicked acts. From Jesus' example, children need to learn that the role of political leaders is to serve those they lead and not oppress them. Additionally, leaders should confront evil within their societies and promote justice and fairness.

The principles that can be drawn from these biblical passages and examples are that God desires everyone to obey, respect, and honor their civil leaders. Secondly, God provides an opportunity for children to participate in politics, meaning, He acknowledges children's potential and ability to lead and be involved in the politics of their nations. Thirdly, when God calls children and adults alike, he empowers and enables them to do the task assigned to them. For example, David was young but he managed to kill Goliath by God's enablement. Finally, God promotes equality and fairness among all groups of people. Jesus' ministry in the New Testament was targeted to all who needed his salvation. He declared that He had come to proclaim freedom for the oppressed and to set captives free (Luke 4:18ff). Jesus also interacted with people of different gender, age, social status, and ethnic backgrounds as discussed in the previous section.

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

Theory, as a set of systematically interrelated constructs of propositions, helps to explain or predict behavior within a boundary of conditions and is important in providing explanations of social and natural phenomenon (Bhattacherjee 2012, 14). Studies concerning children's political orientation have utilized diverse theories from cognitive, social, and psychological understanding of children's socialization. This study employed three theories that explain children's ways of socialization and learning. These include

Albert Bandura's social learning theory, Urie Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory, and Henri Tajfel's social identity theory (SIT). These theories help explain how children learn and socialize within their society. They further predict factors that influence children's ways of friendship formation. These factors are important in explaining children's political awareness, affiliation and participation.

Bandura's Social Learning Theory

Albert Bandura postulated the social learning theory in 1977 and opined that people learn from their environment through observation, imitation, and modelling. The environment where children live directly influences what they learn and how they learn. The environment provides role models who children observe and later on imitate what they have observed. Bandura argues that new patterns of behaviour are acquired through direct experience or observing another person (Bandura 1971, 3). The direct experience means that the child needs to be in contact with the person they seek to imitate so that observation takes place. Most behaviour displayed by individuals is deliberately or inadvertently learnt through observation of an example or a model (Bandura, 1971, 5).

Children's ability to speak, or manifest some of the behaviours is mainly through observation of a model. Learning of behaviour must be consistent and the child should be attentive. At the end the child chooses which behaviour to imitate and which one not to (Bandura 1971, 7). Bandura's theory was found applicable for this study in that the knowledge, attitudes, and behaviour displayed by children regarding politics are learned from adults and peers within their environment. These adults and peers included parents, teachers, relatives, friends, and media that children interact with daily. Whatever children see or observe others doing regarding politics is learned and internalised and later

manifested as personal behaviour and attitudes regarding politics. Such behaviour is observed by the child who directly experiences it through paying attention to the model, internalising the behaviour, and finally putting into practice what has been learnt.

Urie Bronfenbrenner's Social Ecological Systems Model

This theory was developed and recorded by Urie Bronfenbrenner in 1979 in his book *The Ecology of Human Development: Experiments by Nature and* Design. This theory postulates that an individual is affected by different nested levels within the smaller and larger society. Bronfenbrenner perceived the ecological environment as a set of nested structures, each inside the next and at the innermost level, resides the developing person (Bronfenbrenner 1979, 3). The environment within which an individual grows and develops has a significant impact on who the individual becomes later in life and the values and virtues the individual upholds. According to Bronfenbrenner, "active engagement in, or even mere exposure to, what others are doing often inspires the person to undertake similar activities on her own" (Bronfenbrenner 1979, 6).

The environment has several structures that are nested within each other like a circle of rings and at the center of these structures is the child (Gordon and Browne 2017, 118). Bronfenbrenner developed four main structures that a child interacts and these are the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and the macrosystem (Bronfenbrenner 1979, 6-15). Later, he added the chronosytem which cuts across these structures. The structures within the society are interconnected and interrelated affecting the developing child at different levels. Each of these systems and the impact they generate on the child's political awareness, affiliation, and participation will be discussed in the following

paragraphs. The diagrammatic representation of Bronfenbrenner's the theory is presented on Figure 4 below.
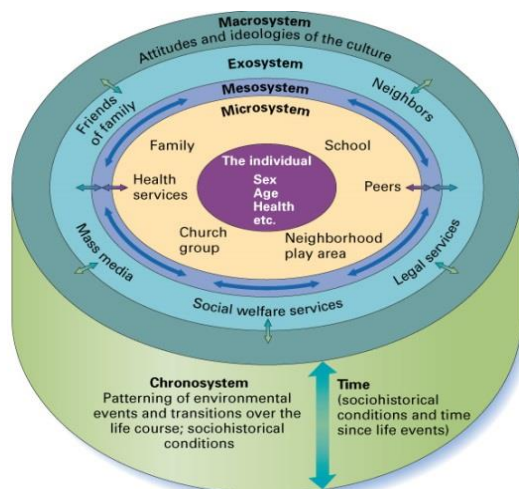
Figure 4: Ecological Systems Model

Bronfenbrenner defines the microsystem as "… a pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations experienced by the developing person in a given setting with particular physical and material characteristics" (Bronfenbrenner 1979, 22). This is the immediate setting within which the child exists and includes the activities or relationships that a child encounters. These are the relationships that a child experiences with immediate family members or primary caregivers in schools, early child care centers, churches, among others. Within the immediate setting, the child is directly influenced by those people or objects he interacts with face to face. Furthermore, the child is indirectly affected by the connections people within his immediate setting have with other persons or objects (Bronfenbrenner 1979, 7).

According to Bronfenbrenner, a mesosystem "comprises the interrelations among two or more settings in which the developing person actively participates (such as, for a child, the relations among home, school, and neighborhood peer group; for an adult,

among family, work, and social life). A mesosystem is thus a system of microsystem" (Bronfenbrenner 1979, 25, 209). The interrelationships among microsystems such as homes, churches, and schools play a major role in influencing the developing person. They impact what a child learns and how they learn. The environment extends as a child moves to new settings and the active participation in these settings impacts the child. The child learns values and attitudes within each context as they are perceived by the members within that setting.

"An Exosystem refers to one or more settings that do not involve the developing person as an active participant, but in which events occur that affect, or are affected by, what happens in the setting containing the developing person" (Bronfenbrenner 1979, 25, 237). Such environments which are likely to influence a developing person include mass media, parents' work place, friends of family members, school attended by older siblings, activities of a school or church board among others. The experiences of family members within these environments have a great effect on the development of a child (Gordon and Browne 2017, 118)

Macrosystem ". . . consists of society and subculture to which the developing person belongs, with particular reference to the belief systems, lifestyles, patterns of social interaction and life changes" (Berns 2015, 25). According to Bronfenbrenner, the macrosystem refers to the ". . . consistencies, in the form and content of lower-order systems (micro-, meso-, and exo-) that exist, or could exist, at the level of the subculture or the culture as a whole, along with any belief systems or ideology underlying such consistencies" (Bronfenbrenner 1979, 26, 258). This system includes aspects of the society and subculture such as race/ethnicity, religion, science and technology, political

ideology, and economics. Essentially, the macrosystem generates the rules and values that the child needs to learn and embrace. Whatever children learn and see within the wider globe affects their behavior or enhances their 'groupness.' It can thus be argued that the political views and ideologies that a child upholds are generated from the society within which the child lives.

The chronosystem was a concept added to the theory later in 2005. It alludes to the fact that changes that take place in the child or the ecological system have an effect on the development of the child and the direction this child is likely to take. The changes in the child include developmental dimensions such as cognitive, social, emotional, physical, and spiritual aspects. Some of these changes comprise aspects such as house moving, death within a family, violence and war in a country, natural disasters, and calamities in the world among others. These changes and experiences affect the values and beliefs a child upholds. For example in the context of politics, if a child experienced violence or displacement, he may associate politics with disaster and negativity.

Bronfenbrenner's theory was used to inform how the environment shapes a child's values and attitudes towards others as they become politically aware, affiliate with political parties, and participate in the political affairs of their nation. Secondly, the theory helped clarify ways by which children learn about politics and its influence on their relationships. Thirdly, Bronfenbrenner's theory confirmed the fact that children learn about politics from their immediate family and schools (microsystem), neighborhood friends (mesosystem) and extended family and friends of family (exosystem), and at large from the global culture such as internet (macrosystem). Fourthly, the theory further emphasized the fact that children's ideologies about politics

are developed over years and affected by the political events that have happened in the past within their contexts.

<div align="center">Henri Tajfel and John Turner's Social Identity Theory</div>

Tajfel and Turner proposed the social identity theory (SIT) in 1979 and submitted that groups provide individuals a sense of social identity that provides a sense of belonging to the world. Tajfel defines social identity as "that *part* of the individuals' self-concept which derives from their knowledge of their membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance of that membership" (Tajfel 1981, 255). Social identity theory suggests that people identify with particular groups based on nationality, race, class, occupation, sex, and religion and these categories are in constant interaction with each other (Hogg and Abrams cited in Sueda 2014, 5).

Tajfel and Turner proposed that individuals undergo three cognitive processes in evaluating others as "us" or "them", that is, "in-group" and "out-group" and these are social categorization, social identification, and social comparison (Tajfel 1982, 3). Individuals not only seek to identify with people who share their values and principles but are also they are keen to know what benefits they will have by joining a particular group.

Social categorization is conceived ". . . as cognitive tools that segment, classify, and order the social environment, and thus enable the individual to undertake many forms of social action. Individuals do not merely systematize the social world; they also provide a system of orientation for *self-reference:* they create and define the individual's place in society" (Tajfel and Turner 1979, 40; Tajfel and Turner 2004, 283). Individuals are categorized in order to understand them and the social environment. Social groups thus

provide the members with a social identity that fits the societal standards. Appropriate behaviour is defined based on group norms. Inarguably, social categorization is one explanation for prejudice attitudes where one group feels they are better than the other and this could be based on tribe, socioeconomic status, and academic prowess among others.

The advocates of social identity theory argue that people construct group norms from appropriate in-group members and in-group behaviors which they internalize to form part of their identity. These specific norms guide the members in terms of their behaviors and the kind of relationships they hold with one another. It is also against these norms that people are likely to dismiss others who do not share similar characteristics. The main essence of groupness in this theory remains identification (Hogg 2005, 138). If the element of identity is lacking then it is possible that people may belong to a group but not feel, think, and behave as a group. Noteworthy to this model is that the groups are not homogeneous. All the members in the group have different titles such as newcomer, old-timer, full member and these roles keep changing as the members of the group interact with each other.

Social identification refers to an individual's self-image that is derived from the social categories to which the individual perceives him or herself as belonging (Tajfel and Turner 1979, 40; Tajfel and Turner 2004, 283). To a large extent, social identification is relational and comparative. The individuals seek to establish what is similar or different from others as far as in-groups and out-groups are concerned. Once individuals categorize themselves in social groups, they adopt the identity of that group. The self-esteem of

members within the group is bound up with the group membership and their significance tagged to the social group.

Social comparison is the final cognitive process where the members of a group tend to compare themselves with other groups. For the group to maintain its esteem, the members need to compare favourably with other groups, which is important for purposes of maintaining self-esteem. Once groups are formed they establish "positive ingroup distinctiveness that is done through creation of favourable comparisons with outgroup" (Tajfel 1982, 24). In order to maintain a group's self-identity, competition and hostility with other groups ensues.

Tajfel and Turner assert that, in order to maintain a group's identity, first the individuals must internalize their group membership as an aspect of self-concept; secondly, social situation must allow for intergroup comparisons that enable selection and evaluation of relevant relational attributes; and thirdly in-groups should not compare themselves with every other out-group (Tajfel and Turner 1979, 41; Tajfel and Turner 2004, 284). Notably, differentiation happens so that a group maintains superiority over an out-group. Social identity theory conceptualises that:

1. Individuals strive to achieve or to maintain positive social identity.

2. Positive social identity is based to a large extent on favorable comparisons that can be made between the in-group and some relevant out-groups: the in-group must be perceived as positively differentiated or distinct from the relevant out-groups.

3. When social identity is unsatisfactory, individuals will strive either to leave their existing group and join some more positively distinct group and/or to

make their existing group more positively distinct. (Tajfel and Turner 1979,

40)

Social identity theory "… addresses phenomena such as prejudice, discrimination, ethnocentrism, stereotyping, intergroup conflict, conformity, normative behavior, group polarization, crowd behavior, organizational behavior, leadership, deviance and group cohesiveness" (Hogg 2005, 111). In order to maintain group identity, the groups have prejudices and stereotypes which encourage in-group favoritism or bias. People tend to minimize differences within own group but maximize the differences with other groups so as to sustain their identity as a group.

Tajfel and Turner's theory was helpful in this study because it helped explain ways by which children form and maintain their relationships. The patterns of relationships were assessed based on ethnic background, political party supported, socio-economic status, and gender. The theory helped in establishing whether children's patterns of friendship formation matched what adults do in Kenya or whether there are any differences.

Summary of Literature Review

Political awareness and attitudes in children happen from very early years. Evidently, children are innately wired to be political and they also learn from family members, peers, schools, and secondary groups such as religious groups and political structures. Studies widely conducted reflect the position of America and Europe, however little documentation exists in Africa to aid understanding of African children's political development.

Literature also indicates that children have the capacity to form political affiliations based on their parents' political associations. Furthermore, it was evident from literature that children have opportunities to participate in civic education and political matters while in school, religious forums, public holidays, and the Kenya Children Assembly. Unfortunately, it was noted in this section that some children have been allowed participation in political forums such as entertainment at campaign rallies and campaigning for political leaders, which is a negative form of participation since their education and protection rights are at risk.

The chapter proposed the need for inclusive relationships that are modelled after Jesus' own example. Theoretically, Bandura's, Bronfenbrenner's, and Tajfel and Turner's theories were used to explain how children learn about politics, the systems in the society that enable children to learn and participate in politics, and ways in which children pattern their friendships due to the social groups which influence their identity formation.

Specifically, this chapter discussed the historical background of African politics, development of political awareness and affiliation in children, children's political participation, development of interpersonal relationships among children, bridging the gap towards inclusive relationships, biblical and theological perspectives on politics and interpersonal relationships, and finally a theoretical and conceptual framework discussing the social learning theory, ecological systems theory, and social identity theory. The next chapter discusses the research methodology adopted in this study.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Overview

The purpose of this study was to establish the effects of political awareness, affiliation and participation on children's interpersonal relationships within a multi-ethnic context in Kenya. This chapter discusses the following aspects: the research methodology that was used in the study, data collection instruments, data collection procedures, research location, sample population and sampling technique, data analysis, and ethical considerations.

Research Methodology

Research involves a systematic process of getting data from participants and generating a report. According to Creswell, research methodology involves all the forms of data collection, analysis, and interpretation of the research one seeks to accomplish in their study (Creswell 2013, 15). This systematic approach aids in ensuring a step-by-step process from the beginning to the end of the research project. To achieve the systematic process, a study needs to employ a clear design and appropriate methods to be used in the field while collecting data. By design, studies may adopt mixed methods. Bhattacherjee notes that quantitative methods may use experiments or survey research; qualitative methods use case studies or action research; while mixed methods combine both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Bhattacherjee 2012, 22).

This study employed a mixed methods research design. According to Creswell, this is an approach of inquiry involving collecting both quantitative and qualitative data and integrating the two forms of data for purposes of breadth and depth using distinct designs (Creswell 2013, 5). This methodology is appropriate in the context of one desiring to be explicit about their priority areas and timing. Application of combined techniques must achieve something substantively unique compared to conducting mono-method analyses alongside one another. This approach is critical since it provides a more comprehensive understanding of the research problem as opposed to when using either a qualitative or a quantitative approach on its own. The researcher found this methodology fit for this study since the qualitative data leveraged on the strengths of the quantitative data, and vice versa. This helped in providing an in-depth understanding of the way children's political awareness, affiliation, and participation affects their interpersonal relationships.

Quantitatively, the study employed survey design (see Appendix A). Creswell notes that a ". . . survey provides quantitative and numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population . . ." (Creswell 2014, 155). Survey was preferred in this study because it enabled the researcher to generalize the findings of a selected sample to the overall population of children between the age of 10–13 years in selected public primary schools in Kenya regarding political attitudes. Additionally, the researcher sought to find out the attitudes and behavior of children concerning politics and this method was appropriate in generating attitudinal and behavioral information. A survey was considered advantageous in this study because it was economical in terms of money and time. The researcher was able to generate a lot of

data within a short period of time. To collect this data, the researcher used structured a questionnaire which had closed-ended questions (see Appendix A).

Qualitatively, the study used focus group discussions (FGDs) (see Appendix B) in order to get in-depth information regarding children's political awareness, affiliation, and participation; and key informant interviews (KIIs) (see Appendix C) to collect data from teachers. According to Merriam, qualitative researchers seek to understand the meaning people have constructed about their world and their lived experiences in the world (Merriam 2014, 13). This aspect was important in this study because it enabled the researcher to establish children's lived experiences on political matters in Kenya. Some of the characteristics of a qualitative research include the researcher as a primary instrument of data collection and analysis; rich description of data in words and pictures rather than numbers; and emergent and flexibility (Merriam 2014, 15-16; Creswell 2014, 6). These characteristics were fit for this study because the researcher had an opportunity to receive the information firsthand from the respondents, thus providing supportive information from qualitative data to the quantitative data regarding children's views on political matters in Kenya. Qualitative data was gathered through the use of open-ended questions on the questionnaire but mainly through FGDs (see Appendix B).

Mixed methods are divided into three broad categories, namely, sequential, concurrent, and transformative (Creswell 2013, 14). This study adopted the concurrent mixed method design because both the qualitative and quantitative data were collected at the same time. Greene, Caracelli, and Graham comment that the concurrent approach ensures that both quantitative and qualitative data are collected at the same time and then the two databases compared to establish convergence, differences, or some combination

(cited in Creswell 2013, 213). This approach was suitable for this study since the researcher sought to collect the data at the same time and be able to establish the similarities or dissimilarities, and eventually integrate the findings to provide a detailed meaning of children's views on politics. The fact that the participants were children, it was important that both approaches be used to help reduce any statistical errors as well as cater for the age and intellectual differences among the children.

There are critical issues to consider in a mixed method approach and these are timing, weighting, and mixing. According to Creswell, mixed methods can be time-consuming especially when the sequential approach is used. Besides, a researcher needs to agree regarding which approach receives more weight and be very clear how to mix the two approaches so that there does not exist two separate reports documenting the quantitative and qualitative findings (Creswell 2013, 208). To counteract these challenges, this study used the concurrent approach to avoid unnecessary time consumption, and to ensure that all the qualitative and quantitative approaches had the same weight. Triangulation was done to ensure that the findings were integrated into one report using the qualitative approach to compliment the quantitative data.

Research Locale

The research was conducted in Nairobi County (see map on Appendix L). This county was selected due to the fact that it is cosmopolitan and has both hot spots and neutral spots during general elections in Kenya. As a cosmopolitan city, Nairobi is host to people from diverse ethnic backgrounds.

Nairobi was founded in 1899 by the colonial authorities and became the colony's center for coffee, tea, and sisal industries. It became the capital city after Kenya gained

independence in 1963. Nairobi City is among the most prominent cities in Africa, both politically and financially, with over 100 organizations operating in the city ("County Statistical Abstract: Nairobi City County" 2015, xii). Nairobi City County (NCC) came into existence in 2013 after the promulgation of the Kenya Constitution, 2010 that abolished eight provinces and established 47 counties. The County covers an area of 695.1km^2 and has approximately 4,410,000 people ("Nairobi Population 2018 (Demographics, Maps, Graphs)" 2018) with 51.1% male and 48.9% female. There is a marked transitional population structure due to the reducing child population, where 0-14 year olds constitute 31% (Ngugi 2013, 10) of the total population. This is a result of low fertility rates among women.

Majority of the inhabitants (68.5%) are aged between 15-64 years and economically the County has a poverty level of 22% with average level of dependency ("Nairobi County - Kenya Decides 2012 | Kenya Decides" 2014). There are various economic activities including small and large-scale businesses, trading, tourism, and professional business services. There are over 3335,056 children enrolled in primary schools with a teacher to pupil ration of 1:39. There are over 500 health facilities dealing with different health issues for the inhabitants. The County holds the largest industrial base in the country and is largely cosmopolitan with high national and international influx ("Nairobi County - Kenya Decides 2012 | Kenya Decides" 2014). There are seventeen sub-counties in Nairobi County, namely Westlands, Dagoretti North, Dagoretti South, Langata, Kibra, Roysambu, Kasarani, Ruaraka, Embakasi South, Embakasi North, Embakasi Central, Embakasi East, Embakasi West, Makadara, Kamkunji, Starehe, and Mathare ("Nairobi County | County Trak Kenya" n.d.). Some of the areas are generally

safe during post-election violence whereas others such as Mathare and Kibra are violence hot spots.

Selection of Respondents

The population for this research was all public primary school children within the age of 10-13 years in Nairobi County. However, the target population was children in this age category from four selected public primary schools within the County. The researcher employed a multistage sampling method to arrive at a sample of the research participants. At stage one, quota sampling was used to select the sub-counties of study within Nairobi County. The County was divided into the seventeen sub-counties. Stage two entailed use of purposive sampling to select four sub-counties in Nairobi based on their locations in terms of hot spot or neutral areas. The selected sub-counties were Kibra, Langata, Westlands, and Dagoretti North.

Further considerations for selecting these four sub-counties were based on the characteristics the researcher was looking for, that is, neutral vis-à-vis hot spot, and low vis-à-vis high economic status. In the third stage, the researcher identified the number of schools within the region and using quota sampling, selected four schools, namely, Olympic Primary School from Kibra; Karen C Primary School from Langata; Nairobi Primary School from Westlands; and Dr. Muthiora Primary School from Dagoretti North. The fourth stage involved a stratified sampling to select pupils from standard five to eight in the selected schools. The fifth stage entailed proportionate sampling to select children from selected schools and classes to represent the sample. In total, 363 children were sampled using Fisher's formula as illustrated below.

$$n = \frac{z^2 \cdot p \cdot q \cdot N}{e^2 (N-1) + z^2 \cdot p \cdot q}$$

As shown on Table 1, purposive sampling was used to select eight children from each school in class seven and eight to participate in the FGDs Class seven and eight pupils were preferred for the FGDs because of their age and their ability to engage in in-depth discussions. The selection was done carefully to ensure gender balance, ethnic balance, socio-economic balance, age balance, mastery of English language, and good communication skills.

Table 1. Sample Size

County	Sub-county	School	Target Population	Sample
Nairobi	Kibra	Olympic Primary School	2615	217
	Lang'ata	Karen C Primary School	661	55
	Westlands	Nairobi Primary School	866	72
	Dagoretti North	Dr. Muthiora Primary School	226	19
Total			4368	363

Ethical Considerations

According to Creswell, social research must be ethical since it involves human beings and these people need to be protected (Creswell 2013, 87). Israel and Hay note that researchers must protect their participants so as to develop trust with them, promote integrity in research, guard against misconduct and impropriety, and help in coping with challenging problems (cited in Creswell 2013, 87). One ethical consideration includes investigating the aims of the study. The study findings are meant to benefit society or do no harm to the society in any way. The researcher explained this study's value to the school leadership and child participants, by helping them understand the political challenges Kenya has experienced and the role of the study in aiding children adopt values that promote the wellness of each other, as well as uphold inclusive relationships. In this context, the study did not seek to cause harm to children in any way but it sought

ways by which children could be helped to socialize politically, being aware, and participating in ways appropriate to their age.

Bhattacherjee notes that a social research must ensure voluntary participation of the respondents, informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality, and disclosure (Bhattacherjee 2012, 137-9). In this study, these ethical issues were upheld and adhered to so as to ensure that the participants were protected. Assent from children was sought before the onset of data collection (see Appendix A and Appendix B). In each of the schools, some children did not assent and thus were allowed to leave the room and other children selected to replace them. It was made clear that participation was voluntary and only those children who voluntarily assented to participate were allowed to participate in the study.

Permission to collect data was sought from the head teachers of the selected schools (see Appendix J) and consent to interview children was granted by the head teachers in the selected schools (see Appendix K). The researcher disclosed to the participants her identity and the purpose of the study. This aided the participants in understanding the study's rationale and importance. All participants were given a chance to agree or disagree to participate in the study without any victimization. During the FGDs, any child who felt uncomfortable to contribute was not forced to talk. The researcher and research assistants gently probed and encouraged the children to participate in the discussions. It was notable that most of the children willingly gave the information that was required for the study.

The researcher ensured that the head teachers understood the purpose of the study and if in agreement sign an informed consent form (see appendix J). Additionally, the

researcher ensured that children understood the purpose of the and voluntarily participated. Children were asked to raise their hands if in agreement as a way of assent (see Appendix A and B). This helped in ensuring that no child felt coerced to participate. Additionally, the purpose of the study was explained to the children and they were required to assent by raising their hands before commencing to respond to the questions. The researcher ensured confidentiality of the participants by not recording their names but using codes that were anonymous to the readers. Each participant in the survey was given a code to help track their information while all the participants in the FGDs were given numbers as identifiers. In doing so, the identity of the children was confidential to the researcher.

Every researcher must endeavor to disseminate the findings of the study to the participants as a good ethical practice. In the dissemination process, the researcher plans to share a copy of the dissertation report with each of the schools that participated in the study. Individual reports for each school will be shared with the head teachers so that they understand how politically aware their pupils are, which parties they affiliate with, and ways in which they have been allowed to participate in political activities. In case of negative approaches from the children, the schools will be advised to seek ways of intervening through the support of the researcher.

Data Gathering Instruments

Data collection technique is the method the researcher uses to collect data from the field for later analysis (Pawar 2004, 105). Due to the large number of participants in this study, the researcher used a questionnaire to collect quantitative data (see Appendix A), FGDs (see Appendix B) and KIIs (see Appendix C) for qualitative data as

instruments for data collection. The instruments were appropriate for this study since they provided the needed quantitative and qualitative data for analysis. Each of the instruments is described in the following section.

<div align="center">Questionnaire</div>

According to Bhattacherjee, "a questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a set of questions (items) intended to capture responses from respondents in a standardized manner. Questions may be unstructured or structured" (Bhattacherjee 2012, 74). Both structured and unstructured questions are important since they seek to collect different details from the respondents. The unstructured questions are open-ended requiring the respondents to respond using their own words. This is helpful in a qualitative research to capture what the respondents feel and think about an issue. Structured questions are close-ended demanding the respondent to choose from options of choices provided in the tool. This is helpful in a quantitative research where the responses are aggregated into a composite scale or index for statistical analysis (Bhattacherjee 2012, 74). In this study, the questionnaire (see Appendix A) entailed structured questions which generated quantitative data. The Questionnaire was used to collect numerical data on children's political awareness, affiliation, participation, as well as ways in which these elements affect children's interpersonal relationships.

Considering that this study involved children, a questionnaire could have posed a methodological challenge. To overcome this possible challenge, the researcher used questions that were simple and easy enough for children to understand. Additionally, the age of the children selected to participate in this study was within Piaget's formal operations stage, meaning that the participants had the mental capacity to understand and

make meaning of the questions in the tool. To ensure that children could answer the questions effectively, the tool was validated by a team of six quantitative research experts to make certain that the questions were simple, clear, relevant, and appropriate to the age of children. Additionally, a pretest with children who were not participants in the research was done to make sure that the children could understand and respond to the questions. Based on the pretest feedback, all difficult questions were simplified and irrelevant questions removed from the tool.

Based on the pre-test experience and results, it was notable that children needed guidance in filling the questionnaire, especially the Likert scale questions which required them to fill tick against "Yes", "Not Sure" and "No" based on their feelings after the results of Kenya's 2017 general election were announced (see Appendix A, section E) . As a result, the researcher adopted a structured interview, also known as researcher-administered survey as the method of data collection. All the questions on appendix A were keyed into an Online Data Collection Kit (ODK collect) and the research assistants used their phones to collect data. Each research assistant installed the ODK collect app on their phone, connected to the server and downloaded the questionnaire. The questions were read to the children, one child at time, and responses keyed in to the software on the phone. This approach meant that the research assistants took longer in the field; however, accuracy of data was assured and time for keying in data into the data analysis software was eliminated. Once data was collected, it was saved and sent to the server, which was secured with a password. Later, it was exported to the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 24 for analysis.

Focus Group Discussion

Focus group discussions are important when seeking to gather information from a team of participants. Bhattacherjee notes that focus group entails a group of six to ten respondents who are interviewed together and they allow deeper examination of complex issues (Bhattacherjee 2012, 78). In such a form of data collection, the interviewer's task is to facilitate the discussion while the participants take turns to respond. According to Stiles, focus groups help in ensuring that members are involved in the change process to help build a consensus on the matter being discussed (Stiles 2004, 130). Furthermore, this method allows participants to agree or disagree on issues as they give information regarding the topic under discussion (Hennink 2013, 45). In this study, the FGDs schedule (see Appendix B) entailed a scenario and three simple unstructured questions to generate qualitative data. In order to generate discussions from children, the researcher created scenarios based on the events and outcomes of Kenya's 2017 general elections. This was preferred because it was an incident that children could recall and relate with easily. In the first scenario, children were to share how they would feel of their presidential candidate won an election, the second scenario dealt with their feelings and actions if their presidential candidate lost an election and the last scenario dealt with children's feelings and actions concerning "*handshake*" that took place on March 2018 in Kenya. *Handshake* is a popular term in Kenya referring to the reconciliation that took place between the president of Kenya and the leader of opposition after the disputed general election results that affected the country significantly.

In order to enhance discussions, pictures of President Uhuru Kenyatta greeting opposition leader Raila Odinga (see Appendix C), and President Uhuru Kenyatta, Deputy

President William Ruto and opposition leader Raila Odinga posing for a photo (see Appendix C) were provided for observation. The focus group discussions were helpful in getting to know the impact of politics on children. Additionally, data generated was helpful in finding out ways by which politics in Kenya affects children's interpersonal relationships.

The groups were designed with ten members (eight respondents, one moderator and one recorder). The moderator used a predesigned tool that had a scenario to be read to children and questions (see Appendix B) to help facilitate the discussions. Moreover, the moderator had the freedom of probing the participants further based on their responses so as to elicit relevant information for the study. The recorder's task was to record the information using a voice recorder and a phone as a backup. It was the recorder's task to ensure that every child had access to the voice recorder. The sessions lasted between thirty and forty-five minutes based on the level of engagement of the group. This was within the time range that children in primary schools in Kenya spent in class for a lesson. The qualitative data from focus group discussions was transcribed and analyzed based on emerging themes.

<center>Key Informant Interviews</center>

These are in-depth interviews with stakeholders in order to get detailed information regarding an issue of concern. Interview with key informants seek to find detailed information about a specific topic of interest to the researcher or to identify other relevant information (Rubin 2016, 12). The key informant interviews (KIIs) allow the researcher to delve deep into the issue of discussion using a schedule but with freedom to

include more questions. Key informant interview is usually open-ended to allow a wide range exploration of the topic (Rubin 2016, 13).

In this study key informant interview schedule (see Appendix D) comprised six questions to help guide the interview. Two teachers from each of the schools were purposively selected to participate in the study. They included the school head teacher or deputy head-teacher and one social studies teacher. A total of eight key informants participated in this study. Key informants were preferred due to their knowledge on the topic of study, but also their knowledge on children who participated in the study. Their main role was to provide information regarding their perceived knowledge of children's political awareness, political issues discussed during Social Studies lesson, mode of selecting children in to school leadership and observed effects of political outcomes on children's interpersonal relationships.

Key informants were alerted ahead of time about the interview and an appointment scheduled. The research assistant met with the key informants in their office for recording and taking short notes during the interview. The interview lasted between fifteen to twenty minutes based on the level of engagement in the discussion. During the interview with head-teachers, charts detailing school leadership structure were provided.

Reliability and Validity

Reliability refers to the dependability or consistency of a tool (Neuman 2013, 210). This means that if the same thing is repeated, the results would the same under the same circumstances. Furthermore, reliability is "…the extent to which measures of the same phenomenon are consistent and repeatable" (Goodwin and Goodwin 2012, 569). In order to ensure reliability for the tool, a Cronbach Alpha measure was done. Cronbach's

Alpha is a widely used reliability coefficient and measures internal consistency indicating the relatedness of the items as a group (Loewenthal and Lewis 2015, 60). Further, Loewenthal and Lewis note that Cronbach's alpha is acceptable measure of reliability in social science research when it is found to be 0.70 or above, although 0.60 could be accepted if the items are less than ten and all other factors of validity are acceptable. (Loewenthal and Lewis 2015, 60). A pretest of the tool was done and from the analysis using SPSS, Cronbach's Alpha fell between .691 and .721 which is within the acceptable levels. The overall Cronbach's Alpha was .708 which was acceptable and thus research tool reliable.

Validity refers to the truthfulness of a tool and seeks to establish if a measure actually measures what it is supposed to measure (Goodwin and Goodwin 2012, 134). This is very important in any study in order to collect data relevant to the purpose and content the study. Using SPSS, an analysis was done to establish if the items actually measured what they were supposed to measure. To establish validity of political awareness, coefficient of correlations was calculated and a positive coefficient was revealed implying a positive relationship between the research question one and items in section B of the questionnaire. In addition, positive coefficients were established between research question two and the items in section C.

However, regarding interpersonal relationships, a positive correlation, which was not significant, was established between child's political awareness and interpersonal relationships in relation to research question five. Similarly the tool was identified not measure research question six. As a result, the researcher revised the tool and generated relevant items for section E and F of the tool in order to measure research question five

and six appropriately. Further a team of six experts, comprising of four PhD holders from

the school of human and social sciences of Daystar University, and two accomplished

PhD research scholars were selected to validate the tool. They sought to ensure construct

and content validity of the tool. Feedback gathered from the team was incorporated and

the end-result were items on the questionnaire (see Appendix A).

Data Collection and Recording

In order to collect data from the field, the researcher first sought ethical approval

permit from the Ethical Review Board of Daystar University (see Appendix F). Once this

was attained, a research permit was sought from the National Council of Science,

Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) (see Appendix E). Thereafter permission was

sought from the County Commissioner of Nairobi (stamped on Appendix E), then the

Regional Coordinator of Education (see Appendix G). The researcher also sought

approval from the Sub-County Education Officers for Dagoretti (stamped on Appendix

G), Lang'ata (stamped on Appendix G), Westlands (see Appendix H), Kibra (see

Appendix I), and. Once all these approvals were done, the researcher further sought

permission from the head teachers of the selected primary schools, namely Karen C, Dr.

Muthiora, Olympic, and Nairobi (see Appendix J). The head teachers signed a consent

form (see Appendix K) to confirm their willingness to allow the children from their

institutions to participate in the study. Once permission was granted from all the schools,

the researcher recruited eleven research assistants, who were graduates at different levels,

to help in conducting the survey. All of them had a wealth of experience in research and

data collection. Before actual engagement, the research assistants were invited to Daystar

University for one-day training. The training addressed overview of the study, ethics in

conducting research, child protection issues, simulation with responding to the data collection tool, and how to use Open Data Kit (ODK) in collecting data. At the end of the training, all the research assistants had to navigate the ODK and fill all the questions on the tool to ensure that they understand the questions.

Upon completion of the training, the researcher and research assistants proceeded to the selected schools for data collection. Prior arrangements had been made with the school deputy head teachers to have a hall ready for use. The researcher had already provided the schools with specifications regarding the children required for the study, that is, the specific number of children needed from standard five, six, seven, and eight; children aged between ten and thirteen years; and children from different tribes and socio-economic backgrounds.

Once on the ground, children were invited to the hall per their class to reduce long queues and noise. The lead research assistant introduced herself and the other research assistants. She explained the purpose of the study and the fact that participation was voluntary. Thereafter, assent was sought from children and all those assenting were asked to raise their hands. Those who did not wish to participate were asked to leave the room. It was notable that all the children would raise their hands but during the actual interview, some expressed their wish not to participate and they were allowed to leave the room.

Each assenting child was given a code representing the school, gender, and class level for identification purposes. The research assistants guided the children through the process of answering the questions step-by-step and simplified any difficult words. Once the filling process was done, the data was saved and the child sent to class before another child was invited to participate.

In order to conduct the FGDs, the researcher talked to class teachers of standard

seven and eight so as to select four children from each class. Teachers were asked to

provide names of four children (two boys and two girls) from standard seven and a

similar number and proportion from standard eight. The criterion for selection was as

follows: good mastery of English language, good communicators, high academic

performance, between age of ten and thirteen, and diverse socio-economic and ethnic

backgrounds. There was one focus group in each selected school. This group was

preferred because standard seven and eight children were mostly within the age bracket

of twelve and thirteen. They had good mastery of English language and were able to

engage actively in the discussion. These children also participated in the survey.

Selected children were taken to the school hall where the survey was taking place.

Since they had already participated in the survey, there was no need to explain the

purpose of the study. However, assent was sought since the FGD involved voice

recording. In all the schools, the children assented to participate in FGDs. The moderator

explained to the children their role in the group and reminded them that participation was

voluntary. Introductions were done so that all the members were conversant with one

another. Further, the moderator explained that the discussions would be recorded and

gave the children a chance to interact with the recorder.

To enhance anonymity, the children were assigned numbers to help identify each

participant. The numbers were written on large masking tape and stuck on the child's

hand. Thereafter, the following aspects were brought to the attention of the participants:

that there were no right or wrong answers; the need to speak in turns; the need to speak

loud enough so that their voices could be captured; and the need to mention one's number

before giving a response. The moderator then read the scenarios in the FGD (see appendix B) and allowed the participants to provide their responses. Once the discussions were completed, an action song was done to help the participants relax. The moderator then appreciated the children for participating in the study and released them to their respective classes.

Data Processing and Analysis

All qualitative data collected from the FGDs was transcribed and then keyed into NVIVO10 software for coding and analysis. This tool was preferred because it is best for qualitative data analysis. It was helpful in organizing data whereby, after data entry themes were automatically generated and the researcher adopted these themes for use. The data was later retrieved and analyzed. The qualitative data has mainly been presented in narratives as shown in chapter four. Direct quotes from the respondents' were also included verbatim to support quantitative data.

Quantitative data generated from the questionnaire was sorted, coded, and then entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 24. This data aided in generating both descriptive and inferential data. Descriptive data has been presented using frequency tables, graphs, and pie charts. Inferential data which was primarily non-parametric in nature has been presented using chi-square and T-Test to show the relationships between the variables under consideration. Qualitative data from the questionnaire was analyzed using Content Analysis and the generated data was used to discuss the findings. Both quantitate and qualitative data was integrated and triangulation done so that narratives from qualitative data were utilized to support the quantitative data.

Summary

In this chapter, the research methodology utilized in the study has been discussed. The study adopted a mixed methods approach. The chapter has further described the data collection instruments that were used which included questionnaire, focus group discussion, and key informant interviews. The data collection procedures, research location, sample population, and sampling technique have also been discussed. The researcher has explained how the collected data was analyzed, as well as the ethical considerations undertaken in the study. Chapter four focuses on presentation, analysis, and interpretation of the collected data.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The study sought to establish the effect of children's political awareness, affiliation, and participation on the interpersonal relationships among 10 – 13 year olds in selected public primary schools in Nairobi County, Kenya. This chapter presents the respondents' demographic data, and their responses to the specific questions investigated in the study. Specifically, this chapter focuses on the descriptive and inferential statistics associated with the quantitative analysis, detailed descriptions of responses from qualitative data, and synthesized findings from the two analyses.

A mixed methods approach was used to achieve the purpose of the study. A questionnaire was used to generate quantitative data from 363 children aged 10 – 13 years in four selected primary schools in Nairobi County, Kenya. Focus group discussions were conducted to generate qualitative data from four groups among children aged 12 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County, Kenya. To validate these findings, key informant interviews (KII) were conducted among eight primary school teachers who were purposively selected.

Findings of the study are presented in this chapter based on the study's research questions, and in line with the four main variables. The research questions were as follows:

1. What knowledge do children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya have about politics?

2. How do children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya learn about politics?

3. How does the political awareness of children aged10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya affect their political affiliation?

4. In what ways do children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya participate in political activities in Kenya?

5. How does the political affiliation of children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya affect their interpersonal relationships?

6. How are the selected children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County impacted by political outcomes?

Instrument Return Rate

Data was collected from 363 children aged 10 to 13 years from four selected primary schools in Nairobi County, Kenya. Two schools (Olympic primary and Dr. Muthiora primary) were selected from a politically hotspot area while the other two schools (Nairobi primary and Karen C primary) were selected from a politically neutral area. A questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data from 363 children from class five to class eight. Qualitative data was obtained from selected children from classes seven and eight using focus group discussion (FGD) guide, and from selected teachers using key informant interviews (KII).

 The return rate for the questionnaire was obtained to determine whether data collected was sufficient to proceed with statistical analysis. The study sampled 363 children from the selected schools. Table 2 presents the response rate of the survey.

Table 2. Response Rate

Questionnaire (n=329, 90.63%)	Frequency (f)	Response Rate (%)
Nairobi Primary School	51	94.93%
Karen C Primary School	54	98.18%
Olympic Primary School	206	70.83%
Dr. Muthiora Primary School	18	94.74%
Average Questionnaires Rate	329	90.63

Out of 363 children sampled, the researcher received 329 clean and duly completed questionnaires after discarding the incomplete and irrelevant questionnaires. This gave a response rate of (90.63%). Mangione 1995 (as cited in Bryman and Bell 2015, 242) notes that a completion rate of less than 50% is unacceptable; 50 – 60% is barely acceptable; 60 – 70% is acceptable; 70 – 85% is good; and over 85% is excellent enough to proceed with statistical analysis. Therefore, in regard to this study, a (90.63%) response rate was excellent and reasonable for statistical analysis.

The high response rate was attributed to the use of research assistants at schools who helped the children to understand the tool and answer all the questions required. The use of Online Data Kit (ODK) Collect, an online tool installed on the phone, structured interview, and researcher's follow up activities also contributed to the high response rate. Moreover, the teachers were supportive in availing the children to participate in the study. The researcher pre-notified the head teachers and scheduled a date and time to collect data. Consequently, teachers availed children to the researcher and research assistants at the agreed upon time in the respective schools' halls.

Demographic Information of the Respondents

The demographic information included the children's general profile and their

parents' background information. This was considered important in helping the

researcher understand how these factors affect children's awareness, affiliation, and

participation in politics.

Children's General Profile

The general profile details were the child's age, gender, school, class level, place

of residence, religion, and tribe. Table 3 presents a summary of the responses to questions

regarding gender, age, class level, and religion.

Table 3. Demographic Information of the Respondents *(n=329)*

Item	Category	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Boys	153	46.5%
	Girls	176	53.5%
Age			
	10 years	40	12.2%
	11 years	79	24.0%
	12 years	92	28.0%
	13 years	118	35.9%
Class			
	Class 5	74	22.5%
	Class 6	90	27.4%
	Class 7	93	28.3%
	Class 8	72	21.9%
Children's Religion			
	Christianity	288	87.5%
	Islam	41	12.5%

Gender

Results presented in Table 3 reveal that most of the respondents (53.5%) were

girls, while boys constituted (46.5%) of the respondents. These results indicate that

gender parity has been achieved in Kenya, with more girls enrolling in school. These

findings resonate with an earlier study which established that Kenya has made progress in having more girls and boys in school and that the gender gap has been narrowed (Wango, Musomi, and Akinyi 2012, 13). Additionally, a study by Kibui and Mwaniki revealed that Kenya's achievement in gender parity has been made possible through the implementation of the free primary education (FPE) in 2003, leading to the rise in enrolment of girls in primary schools and offering a platform for gender equity in education and development (Kibui and Mwaniki 2014, 27).

Nevertheless, it is evident that girls were slightly more than the boys meaning that the schools under study had more girls than boys. These findings are in line with Kenya's economic survey 2017 which established that the net enrolment of girls in primary school in Kenya was slightly higher than that of boys (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) 2017, 37).

Age

Children were categorized into the following age brackets: Ten, eleven, twelve, and thirteen years. The findings show that the respondents as per the age were as follows: thirteen year olds (35.9%), twelve years olds (28.0%), eleven year olds (24%), and ten year olds (12.2%). These results indicate that the majority of the children in the upper primary schools in Kenyan public schools are within the age bracket of eleven and thirteen years.

Distribution of Children by Class

Findings displayed in Table 3 indicate that the highest number of respondents (28.3%) was drawn from class seven. These were closely followed by class six at

(27.4%). Class five constituted (22.5%) of the respondents, while class eight registered

the lowest rate at (21.9%). The lower representation in class eight could be attributed to a

reduced retention rate of children in school as they climb the education ladder.

Religion

According to the results shown in Table 3, (87.5%) of the respondents were

Christians, while (12.5%) were Muslims. These were the only religions represented in the

sample. It is therefore clear that most children in the selected public primary schools were

Christians. This finding is similar to (Juergensmeyer and Roof 2012, 658) claim that

"Most Kenyans claim adherence to either Christianity or Islam with the remaining

population professing adherence to indigenous or traditional beliefs." Furthermore,

Kenya's 2009 census findings revealed that "…out of a population of 40 million, Kenya

is 83.1% Christian. . . ." (Lando and Mwangi 2014, 295).

Tribe/Ethnicity

The researcher was interested in establishing the tribe/ethnicity of each

respondent in order to determine how tribe affects children's interpersonal relationships

as they become aware, affiliate, and participate in politics. Children were requested to

indicate their ethnic tribes and the results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Children's Tribe *(n=325)*

Tribe	Frequency	Percentage
Luo	104	32.0
Luhya	60	18.5
Kikuyu	44	13.5
Kamba	29	8.9
Kisii	29	8.9
Nubian	18	5.5
Meru	10	3.1
Maasai	5	1.5
Taita	5	1.5
Somali	4	1.2
Kalenjin	4	1.2
Borana	4	1.2
Mixed tribe	4	1.2
Arab	1	0.3
Iteso	1	0.3
Abagusi	1	0.3
Gusii	1	0.3
Embu	1	0.3
Total	325	100.0

These results reveal that (72.9%) of the respondents were from four tribes, that is, Luo, Luhya, Kikuyu and Kamba. These four are some of the largest tribes in Kenya. Respondents from the smaller tribes comprised (27.9%) of the total respondents. This implies that children who participated in the study were from different ethnic backgrounds in Kenya.

<p style="text-align:center">Parents' Background Information</p>

Further, the study sought to establish the background information of the respondents' parents. The information in this regard included parents' employment status, political leadership position, and political participation. Table 5 presents the findings.

Table 5. Parents' Background Information

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Parents' Go to Work		
Yes	313	95.1%
No	16	4.9%
Parents/Guardians Hold a Political Position		
Yes	40	12.2%
No	289	87.8%
Parents/guardians participate in political campaigns		
Yes	120	36.5%
No	209	63.5%

These findings reveal that a majority of the parents (95.1%) do go to work while a few (4.9%) do not work. This means that parents of the children from the selected primary schools were involved in some work, either employed or self-employed. This figure was much higher than 2009 census statistics results which indicated that (68.3%) of people in Nairobi work in varied contexts such as: work for pay, family business, and family agricultural holding (Ngugi 2013, 10).

The findings further disclosed that (12.2%) of the parents hold a political position in Kenya, while (36.5%) participate in political campaigns and other political activities. These results imply that a majority of the parents neither held a political position nor participated in political campaigns. Although Plutzer argues that children are likely to be involved in political affairs if their parents have been involved in political elections, campaigns, and other relevant activities (cited in Quintelier 2013, 141), findings of this study negate that idea. It was evident (as shown in Figure 6) that (48.6%) of children were involved in leadership positions within their schools.

Children's Political Awareness

The study sought to establish the children's awareness of politics. The findings relating to this aspect were categorized into two areas, namely knowledge about politics, and ways through which children learnt about politics.

Children's Knowledge about Politics

Findings on children's knowledge about politics focused on their knowledge of political parties in Kenya and political leaders within Nairobi County.

Knowledge of Political Parties

The respondents were asked to put a tick against the political parties they were aware of based on a list that was provided. The results were as presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Knowledge of Political Parties

Gender	Not aware of any political party	Aware of 1 to 2 political Parties	Aware of 3 to 4 political Parties	Aware of 5 and above political Parties
Boys	.7%(1)	9.8%(15)	27.5%(42)	62.1%(95)
Girls	0.0%(0)	6.8%(12)	22.2%(39)	71.0%(125)
Total	.3%(1)	8.2%(27)	24.6%(81)	66.9%(220)

Results on knowledge of political parties were categorized into four groups, namely children who were not aware of any political party, children who were aware of one or two political parties, children who were aware of three or four political parties, and children who were aware of five and more political parties. The results show that (99.7%) of the children were aware of more than one political party in Kenya. This signifies that children in Kenya are aware of politics.

Knowledge of Political Leaders

In order to establish the knowledge that children have about political leaders, the researcher provided a list of politicians within Nairobi County and asked the respondents to put a tick against names of the politicians they could identify. The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Knowledge of Politicians

Gender	Aware of 5 and below politicians	Aware of 6-10 Politicians	Aware of 11-14 Politicians	Aware of 15 and above politicians
Boys	0.0%(0)	6.5%(10)	19.6%(30)	73.9%(113)
Girls	1.1%(2)	4.5%(8)	22.7%(40)	71.6%(126)
Total	.6%(2)	5.5%(18)	21.3%(70)	72.6%(239)

Results on knowledge of political leaders were categorized into four groups as follows: children who were aware of less than six politicians in Nairobi County, those who were aware of between 6 – 10 politicians, those who were aware of between 11 – 14 politicians, and finally those who were aware of 15 and more politicians in Nairobi County. As the findings show, all the respondents were aware of at least one politician, with the majority 309 (93.9 %) being aware of 11 and more politicians in Nairobi County. It is also clear that (98.8%) of the girls were aware of six politicians and above while all the boys (100%) were aware of six politicians and above. This denotes that the boys were more aware of politics than the girls. These findings are in line with Greenstein's assertion that from early years girls show less interest in politics compared to boys and that gradually, children acquire an explicit conception of politics as a male function (Greenstein 2009, 59).

Results summarized in Table 6 and Table 7 reveal a high level of children's awareness of politics in regard to knowledge on political parties and political leaders in

Kenya. According to Easton and Hess (1962), the formative years of an individual's

knowledge on politics are between three and thirteen years (cited in Berti 2009, 70). The

children under study were within this age bracket and had sufficient knowledge on

politics at their age level.

How Children in Kenya Learn about Politics

The researcher sought to establish how children aged 10 – 13 years learn about

politics. Children were asked to indicate their source of information on politics and the

results were as presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Source of Political Information

Children's Source of Information	Responses		Percent of Cases	
	Frequency	Percentage	Yes	No
Television	320	15.3%	97.3%	2.70%
Newspapers	282	13.5%	85.7%	14.30%
Radio	277	13.2%	84.2%	15.80%
Posters	225	10.8%	68.4%	31.60%
Social Media	204	9.8%	62.0%	38.00%
Parents	185	8.8%	56.2%	43.80%
Friends	180	8.6%	54.7%	45.30%
Political Rallies	144	6.9%	43.8%	56.20%
Teachers	142	6.8%	43.2%	56.80%
Religious Leaders	68	3.3%	20.7%	79.30%
Teachers in church and mosque	65	3.1%	19.8%	80.20%
Total		100.0%		

These results show that most of the respondents get information about politics

from print and electronic media which includes television, newspapers, radio, posters and

internet. A good number (15.3%) indicated that they get political information from

television. This was closely followed by newspapers and radio which recorded (13.5%)

and (13.2%) respectively. Posters recorded (10.8%) and internet (9.8%). These findings

are in agreement with Coles work which established that parents, siblings, teachers,

friends and media are major influencers on children's political awareness (Coles 2000,

27). Furthermore, this is supported by Garcìa-Albacete, who notes that children's

attitudes are formed while in institutions such as family, school, peers and the media and

this includes political attitudes (Garcìa-Albacete 2013, 93). The lowest sources of

information for politics were religious leaders and teachers in religious institutions which

recorded (3.3%) and (3.1%) respectively.

These results indicate that electronic and print media are the largest sources of

political information for children. Television was the main source of political information

for (97.3%) of the respondents. Only (2.7%) of the respondents indicated that they did

not get political information from television. The finding on television as main source of

information is consistent with Newton's argument that watching television news

increases political knowledge, political interest and the feeling that democracy works (as

cited in Quintelier 2013, 145). Additionally, in an earlier study, Norris established that

watching television increased the level of political knowledge (Norris 2000, 300). It is

evident within these studies and the current study that television has a critical role in

transmitting political knowledge that enhances political awareness.

A key finding was that (62%) of the respondents got information about politics

from the internet. This implies that children have access to technological devices with

internet connection hence able to access political information. It is argued that internet

has risen steadily as a source of political information as opposed to television (Waseem

and Shabir 2017, 5). Access to internet on digital devices by children was confirmed in

an earlier study which determined that children access internet using devices such as

mobile phones, laptops, Tablets and Ipads. Further, an earlier study by (Olumbe 2017, no

page) determined that children have access to digital devices at home, while others access these devices from relatives, neighbors, school, cybercafé, friends, church, and when travelling (Olumbe 2017, no page). The current study did not seek to establish the social network platforms children accessed and the devices used to get political information.

Parents, friends, teachers, and political rallies were also established as significant sources of political information. It was notable that (56.2%) of children indicated their parents as their source of information on politics. This demonstrates that parents play a major role in socializing children into politics. It confirms the fact that family is a crucial actor in the socialization process since it constitutes the primary socializing context (Abendschön 2013a, 38). This was further confirmed by Waseem and Shabir who established that family is the most influential agent in political behavior of young voters (Waseem and Shabir 2017, 2).

Teachers were also indicated as contributors to children's knowledge on politics confirming Hess and Torney's finding that teachers transmit a large share of information about the government system, its functions and actions. Additionally, teachers transmit ideals of citizenship and teach relevant skills necessary to fulfil these requirement (Hess and Torney 2009, 13). Garcìa-Albacete notes that schools transmit citizenship education through curriculum, out-of school curriculum, pedagogical climate, and extra-curriculum (Garcìa-Albacete 2013, 94). Teachers, as implementers of these four aspects in schools, are thus sources of political information for children. In Kenya, Social Studies is offered to all elementary school children and this subject seeks to help learners appreciate the environment they live and realize their place, privileges, rights and responsibilities as citizens (Ministry of Education 2002, 82). In addition, one of the objectives of Social

Studies is to help learners "understand the structure and functions of the government of Kenya and demonstrate ability to participate in its operation" (Ministry of Education 2002, 83). This was further confirmed by OPSKI02 who said, "*In Social Studies we teach pupils ... to know the leaders such as MCAs, MPs and President. We also teach them about former and current political parties...*" These arguments justify the role of teachers as sources of political information for children Kenya.

Religious leaders and teachers in churches and mosques registered the lowest score which suggests that most religious leaders and teachers do not inform children about politics. The finding indicates that religious institutions seldom equip children in political matters, hence do not prepare them to participate in politics. Mbabvu's study in South Africa established that church attendance was directly linked to higher rates of electoral turnout and political interest (Mbabvu 2017, 107). Nonetheless, this study's findings are clear that churches had no significant impact on children's political lives. It seems that majority of the children in this study attended churches that did not address political issues, thus not empowering children. The failure of churches to engage in political issues not only affects children but may also explain the dilemma many Christians in Kenya face regarding political engagements. Nevertheless, Gerson and Wehner point out that the role of the church is to interpret and provide Christians a moral framework to work out their duties and engage the world in a thoughtful way (Gerson and Wehner 2010, 36), and this includes political matters.

The results relating to how children access political information are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. Manner of Accessing Political Information

Manner of Accessing Political Information	Responses		Percent of Cases	
	Frequency	Percentage	Yes	No
By reading books and newspapers	286	19.3%	87.2%	12.8%
Listening to radio	272	18.3%	82.9%	17.1%
By listening to adults talk	171	11.5%	52.1%	47.9%
By listening to my friends as we play	171	11.5%	52.1%	47.9%
Asking adults questions about politics or politicians	165	11.1%	50.3%	49.7%
In class while in school	146	9.8%	44.5%	55.5%
From talking with my parents or guardians	144	9.7%	43.9%	56.1%
By observing adults behavior	130	8.8%	39.6%	60.4%
Total		100.0%		

These results show that most children access political information by reading books, newspapers, listening to radio and listening to adults talk as shown by (19.3%), (18.3%) and 11.5% respectively. In addition, children learn about politics by listening to their friends as they play, asking adults questions about politics or politicians, and from talking with their parents or guardians. Learning about politics through observing adults' behavior recorded the lowest scores (8.8%) meaning that this was rare among children. Although this was a lower score, this finding was in agreement with Bandura, Ross, and Ross who indicated that when children observe a particular behavior over a period of time, they are sure to reproduce the behavior observed (Bandura, Ross, and Ross 1961, 580). This difference could have occurred due to the fact that majority of the respondents were between 11 – 13 years, an age that Piaget notes is characterized by abstract thinking and application of rules by formal deductions (Piaget 1928b, 73).

Children's Political Affiliation

Children's political affiliation was established and discussed in relation to their political awareness. In order to establish children's political affiliation, respondents were

asked to indicate the following: whether they had a favorite political party, whether they had a favorite political leader, and the reason they would vote for a preferred political leader. The results on whether respondents had preferred political parties in Kenya were as outlined in Table 10.

Table 10. Children's Political Affiliation

Gender	Children Political Affiliation	
	No	Yes
Boys	60.8%(93)	39.2%(60)
Girls	64.8%(114)	35.2%(62)
Total	62.9%(207)	37.1%(122)

As the results show, most of the respondents (62.9%) have no affiliation with specific political parties, while (37.1%) of the children had political parties with which they affiliate. This finding indicates that (37.1%) have a political affiliation and this concurs with earlier studies by Hess and Torney in 1960 and Fred Greenstein in 1965. The latter notes that the conception of political authority in children is more affective than cognitive and therefore children acquire party preference way before they can make distinctions on the political party's nature, manifesto, or representatives.

Greenstein further observes that party preference is fixed from an early age shaping aspects of candidate preference and perception on politics (Greenstein 2009, 57-8). Hess and Torney pointed out that party affiliation is not salient to younger children but that the effect of party preference becomes stronger in late elementary and high school years. Furthermore, a child's image of political parties develops late and a meaningful party commitment is acquired in the upper elementary grades (Hess and Torney 2009, 225; Hess and Torney 2009, 69). Although most of the children in the

current study had not decided on which party to support, it is evident that children have a preference regarding political parties of their choice.

Children's Political Leader Attributes

Following the finding on political affiliation where (37.1%) of the respondents showed party preference, the respondents were asked to indicate a national political leader whom they would vote for if they were given a chance. They were further asked to put a tick against a list of attributes they would look for when voting for their preferred political leader. These questions aimed at finding out the values children uphold when choosing a leader. The findings are presented in Table 11.

Table 11. Children's Preferred Political Leader Attributes

Preference	Responses		Percent of Cases	
	Frequency	Percentage	Yes	No
Someone who is concerned about the success of my country	312	24.6%	94.8%	5.2%
Someone who likes people	259	20.4%	78.7%	21.3%
Someone who is educated	214	16.9%	65.0%	35.0%
A man	79	6.2%	24.0%	76.0%
An old person	68	5.4%	20.7%	79.3%
A woman	64	5.0%	19.5%	80.5%
A relative	61	4.8%	18.5%	81.5%
A young person	56	4.4%	17.0%	83.0%
A friend to my family	50	3.9%	15.2%	84.8%
Someone from my tribe	46	3.6%	14.0%	86.0%
Someone who gives money to followers	38	3.0%	11.6%	88.4%
Someone who is rich	22	1.7%	6.7%	93.3%

Results reveal that (24.6%) of the respondents indicated that they would vote for someone who is concerned about the success of their country. Other preferred qualities of the leader they would vote for were: someone who likes people and is educated as shown

by (20.4%) and (65%) respectively. This signifies that most of the children in this study would uphold good values when selecting a political leader.

The findings also point out that given a chance (6.2%) of the respondents would vote for a man as a national political leader compared to a woman (5.0%). This finding was interesting considering that most of the respondents were girls. This could be indicative of the fact that male leaders are preferred in Kenya. This study compares to a finding by Elesser and Janet who studied 60,000 individuals, and out of which (54%) indicated they had no preference for male or female leader, while the rest indicated their preference for a male leader (cited in Gardiner 2015, no page). It is also notable that out of 159 United Nations member states, only 21 have women as political leaders or heads of state (Gardiner 2015, n.p.). These studies indicate that embracing women as top-level political leaders is not yet fully adopted. Richmond and McCroskey, in their study found out that men had no preference for leaders based on sex, while, women had a distinct preference for women, except on political matters (cited in Bass and Bass 2009, 923). These arguments could offer some explanation for why most of the respondents, who were female, preferred a male leader.

Further (5.4%) of the respondents indicated that they would vote for an old person compared to a young one (4.4%). This result shows that children seem to have confidence in an older person being in leadership position as opposed to a younger one. Authority figures for children are mainly parents, teachers and other significant adults in their lives.

A small proportion of the respondents (1.7%) expressed that they would vote for someone who is rich and gives money to his or her followers. It seems that children were

not so much concerned by the wealth status of an individual. This could mean that the children may have not attached value to money. On the other hand, it could be that these children did not support the need for politicians enticing voters with money so that they vote for them. It therefore appears that the children's focus was on people of integrity who can make their country a better place. The value of integrity was noted when [Respondent NPS06] from Nairobi primary school said that the *handshake* in Kenya " *. . . helps to stop corruption."*

Only (3.6%) of the respondents indicated that they would vote for someone who is from their tribe or a friend to their family. This implies that most of the children are not ethnocentric when selecting leaders. However, there are small proportions of children who hold ethnic biases. This finding partially confirms Koter's view that ethnic politics are the norm in Africa (Koter 2016, 3) where selection of political leaders is based largely on ethnic lines. Since the basic drive for ethnic politics is selfishness as people seek to get their share of the national cake, this may not be the drive for children. Considering the fact that the study was conducted in Nairobi, a cosmopolitan city, and children may have learnt to socialize with one another regardless of tribe. However, the fact that 46 children indicated that they would vote for someone from their tribe is a significant finding that may indicate some of the children's inclination to tribalism/negative ethnicity. The aspect of some children expressing ethnic preference was further confirmed by key informant DMPSKI02 who said that ". . . *in class we notice that children laugh at each other because of their tribes. . . We also observe children sharing food with others from certain tribes. . ."*

Effect of Political Awareness on Political Affiliation

A Chi-square analysis was conducted to determine the association between children's political awareness and their political affiliation. Table 12 presents the findings.

Table 12. Political Affiliation Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	36.836[a]	23	.034
Likelihood Ratio	41.720	23	.010
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.074	1	.003
N of Valid Cases	329		

a. 20 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .37.

These results show that there is a statistical significant association between children's political awareness and political affiliation ($\chi2=36.836^a$, p=.034<0.05), implying that the level of political awareness affects a child's political affiliation. Further, the linear-by-linear association of .003 it implies that the more knowledge a child has about politics, the more the child is affiliated to a political party.

Children's Participation in Political Activities in Kenya

Children's political participation was determined through establishing their leadership involvement and political activities they engage in while in school. Findings are discussed in these broad areas.

Children's Involvement in Leadership and Political Activities at School

The respondents were asked to indicate if they held any leadership position at school. Furthermore, they were asked to indicate how they got into the leadership position. The results are presented in Figure 5 and Figure 6 respectively.
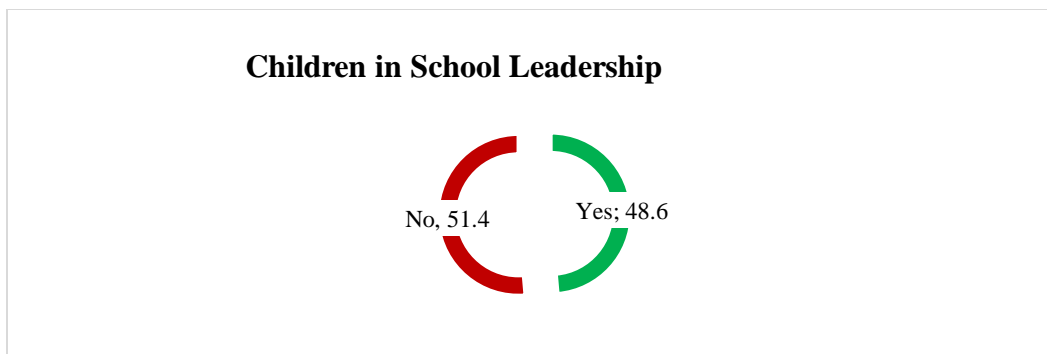
Figure 5. School Leadership Involvement

The results illustrated in Figure 5 highlight that (48.6%) of the respondents held a

leadership position in their school while (51.4%) did not. This communicates that

children in Kenyan public schools hold leadership positions. Involvement of children in

leadership positions implies that schools are enhancing child participation as stipulated in

the Kenya Children Assembly (KCA) guidelines. Further it was reported by all the school

head teachers that leadership roles are set in line with KCA guidelines and structured to

resemble the parliament of Kenya. These roles include president, governors, senators,

members of parliament (MP), and member of country assembly (MCA) (as reported by

OPSKI01; NPSKI01; DMPSKI01; KCPSKI01). This is an indication that the schools'

leadership appreciate that children are not a passive, powerless target group; instead, they

have capacity to communicate and engage in activities within their community and other

environs (KCA Guideline 2016, 9).

Based on this result, the researcher sought to establish how the children got into

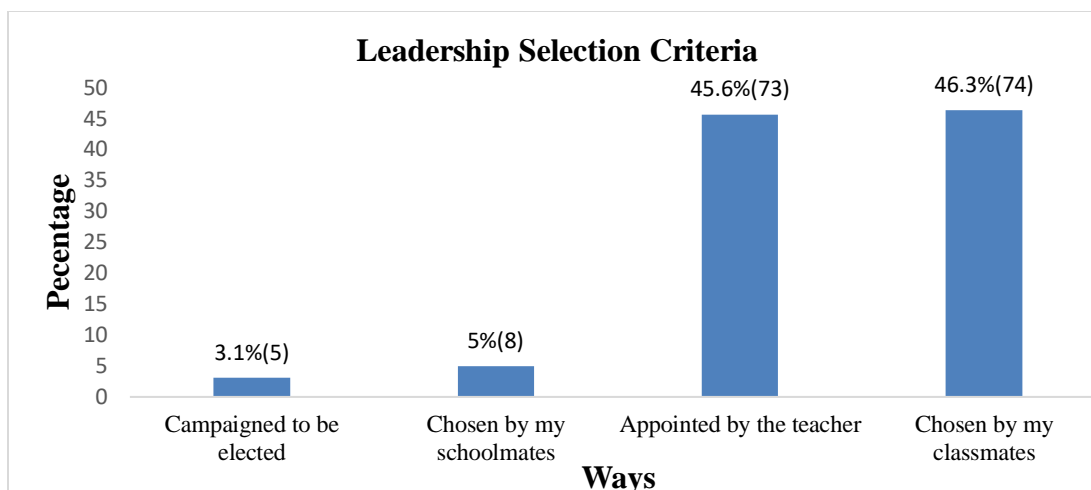their leadership positions. The findings are presented in Figure 6.

Figure 6. Leadership Selection Criteria

These results demonstrate that (46.3%) of the respondents in leadership position were chosen by their classmates while (45.6%) were appointed by their teachers. A notable aspect is that only (3.1%) of those respondents in leadership positions campaigned to be elected as school leaders. This points out that most of the children in schools become leaders through being chosen by their classmates, something that encourages democracy and participation of children. This was in line with KCA guidelines that children should participate in political activities, such as vying for leadership, campaigning, voting and serving as leaders within their schools or the larger children's national parliament (KCA Guideline 2016, 9).

The process of becoming a leader in the student council varied as was reported by the teachers. In some of the schools such as Dr. Muthiora Primary School, Nairobi Primary School, and Olympic Primary School, the process varied on how names were identified. In some cases, the teachers propose names, while in others, the names are proposed by pupils, Still, in other cases, students are expected to volunteer their names. After the initial step, some of the schools (Dr. Muthiora and, Olympic Primary and Nairobi Primary) allow for campaigns before the actual elections. Other schools have an

even finer process of teachers vetting candidates and giving them an opportunity to express their planned activities for the school. During voting, teachers serve as the retuning officers. It was notable that Karen C Primary school does not allow campaign due to their past experience where children would bring posters to display in school, or even money or other items to bribe other pupils so that they can be elected (KCPSKI01).

These findings further reveal that children meaningfully engage in leadership roles at school. Basing on Hart's ladder of child participation, the children who are chosen by their classmates and teachers may be at level four of the ladder "assigned but informed" which is a level of meaningful participation (Hart 1992, 11). The children who vie for leadership position are at rung seven "child initiated and directed" (Hart 1992, 14). These children seem to be well empowered and know what is expected of them. As a result, they opt to vie for leadership roles through campaign and assuring the rest of their deliverables. The study also sought to establish ways in which children engage in political activities while at school. The results are presented in Table 13.

Table 13. Political Involvement Within School

Activities	Responses		Percent of Cases	
	N	Percent	Yes	No
Campaigning to be a school leader	117	9.8%	36.4%	63.6%
Voting for school leaders	298	24.9%	92.8%	7.2%
Campaigning to be a member of the Kenya Children Assembly	43	3.6%	13.4%	86.6%
Voting for a member of the Kenya Children Assembly	116	9.7%	36.1%	63.9%
Talking to others about relating well with others in politics	142	11.9%	44.2%	55.8%
Giving a speech during school parade	75	6.3%	23.4%	76.6%
Speaking on issues that affect children	136	11.4%	42.4%	57.6%
Serving as a leader in the school	164	13.7%	51.1%	48.9%
Talking to others about importance of participating in politics	106	8.9%	33.0%	67.0%
Total	1197	100.0%	372.9%	527.1%

These results reveal that (24.9%) of the respondents participate in politics by voting for school leaders. Others (13.7%) participate by serving as leaders in the school. Some (11.9%) participate by talking to others about relating well with others in politics, (9.8%) by campaigning to be school leaders, while (8.9%) were involved in talking to others about the importance of participating in politics. Children also indicated also being involved in giving a speech during school parade, speaking on issues that affect children, as well as campaigning and voting to be a member of the Kenya Children Assembly.

The results imply that schools have made great effort in engaging children in political activities in line with the child participation rights. These results are partially in line with the Kenya Children Assembly guidelines which stipulate that children in schools should participate in activities such as vying for leadership, campaigning and voting for leaders (KCA Guidelines 2016, 9). It is evident that children are allowed to participate. It was however not clear in this study, whether these activities are initiated by children or are fully organized by teachers.

Children's Involvement in Political Activities Outside of School

Children were given a list of political activities and were required (from the list) to tick against the activities they engage in when not in school. The findings in relation to this are presented in Table 14.

Table 14. Children's Political Involvement Outside School

	Responses		Percent of Cases	
Activities	N	Percent	Yes	No
Attending political party meetings on my own	18	2.4%	6.3%	93.7%
Attending political meetings with other people	84	11.4%	29.6%	70.4%
Listening to politicians who visit my school	222	30.0%	78.2%	21.8%
Listening to politicians who visit my place of worship	130	17.6%	45.8%	54.2%
Singing a song about a politician/political party during a public meeting	85	11.5%	29.9%	70.1%
Reciting a poem about a politician/political party during a public meeting	69	9.3%	24.3%	75.7%
Giving a speech about issues that affect children in a public meeting	99	13.4%	34.9%	65.1%
Joining a group of political demonstrators	33	4.5%	11.6%	88.4%
Total		100.0%		

The results show that (30%) of the respondents claimed that they participate in politics through listening to politicians who visit their school, while (17.6%) participate through listening to politicians who visit their place of worship. Others (11.4%) indicated they attend political meetings with other people, while (11.5%) sing songs about a politician/political party during a public meeting. It is evident that the majority of the respondents (93.7%) asserted that, they do not attend political meetings on their own, with only a very small percentage indicating that they did so on their own. When asked what they do during the political meetings, (29.9%) stated that they presented songs, while others (24.3%) indicated that they recited poems. These results are clear that most of the children had opportunity to participate passively in politics, which according to (Hart 1992, 8) is "decoration" and basically non-participation.

In addition, the results reveal that children participated at the lowest levels of manipulation, decoration and tokenism based on Hart's ladder of child participation (Hart 1992, 8). Genuine participation would mean that children are informed and then

supported to develop the abilities so that they are able to get the highest level of participation where they initiate and share decisions with adults (Hart 1992, 14). Children indicated that they listened to politicians as discussed above. They also indicated that they sung about a politician/political party, recited poems, and joined a group of political demonstrators, which are forms of "manipulation", the lowest rung on the ladder. Worth noting is that, eighteen children mentioned that they attended political meetings on their own and seemingly a high level of interest and personal initiation. It was noted that ninety-nine children indicated that they gave a speech about issues that affect children: this is rung seven of "lead and initiate action" of the Hart's ladder. This study also established that politicians visited school grounds to talk to children, an action that had been prohibited in 2017 during the general elections in the country (Kenya National Commission on Human Rights (KNCHR) 2017a, 101-9).

Effect of Political Affiliation on Interpersonal Relationships

This study sought to determine how children's political affiliation affects their interpersonal relationships. Towards establishing this, a Likert scale, FGD and KIIs were used. Children were asked to rate the interpersonal relationships on the Likert scale; where 1= yes, 2= not sure and 3=no. Findings were as shown in Table 15. For each Likert score, FGD narration and where relevant a KII was also provided as supporting evidence of children's feelings and experiences. Results on interpersonal relationships were discussed based on seven factors of interpersonal relationships; six of which were identified from Henderer-Harrision Interpersonal Relations Scale (trust, giving, dominance, hostility, seduction and guilt), and one based on the interest of the study (ethnicity). The items in table 15 were categorized into seven broad areas. Items one, two,

ten, and eleven tested the element of trust; items three, eight and nine tested the element

of giving; items four and five tested dominance; item six tested hostility; item seven

tested seduction; while item twelve and thirteen tested ethnicity.

Table 15. Interpersonal Relationships

Relationships with others	Yes	Not Sure	No	Mean	Std. Dev
I trusted my friends without thinking about their political party	57.1% (188)	11.6% (38)	31.3% (103)	1.7416	.90567
I was very scared of my friends who supported a different political party	22.5% (74)	10.9% (36)	66.6% (219)	2.4407	.83574
I helped my friends without thinking of their political party	69.3% (228)	6.4% (21)	24.3% (80)	1.5502	.85793
I did not care about others feelings and ideas but wanted them to take my ideas	13.7% (45)	8.2% (27)	78.1% (78.1)	2.6444	.71010
When my presidential candidate won, I felt better than my friends and I told them so	32.5% (107)	13.1% (43)	54.4% (179)	2.2188	.90770
I was angry with my friends who supported a different political party than mine and I told them so	9.1% (30)	6.7% (22)	84.2% (227)	2.7508	.60878
I was easily convinced by my friends to support their political parties	15.2% (50)	11.6% (38)	73.3% (241)	2.5805	.74103
I felt bad that I supported a different political party from my friends	19.1% (63)	9.7% (32)	71.1% (234)	2.5198	.79657
I was sad because my friend was in a different political party	18.5% (61)	4.9% (16)	76.6% (252)	2.5805	.78499
I left my friends because my political leader lost and their leader won	6.1% (20)	4.9% (16)	89.1% (293)	2.8298	.51344
I was able to keep my friends even when we had different political leaders we supported	84.2% (277)	5.5% (18)	10.3% (34)	1.2614	.63323
I stopped talking to my friends who were from other tribes that won the elections	3.6% (12)	2.4% (8)	93.9% (309)	2.9027	.40155
I stopped talking to my friends who were from other tribes that lost the elections	3% (10)	2.1% (7)	94.8% (312)	2.9179	.36951

Trust

According to the results (57.1%) of the respondents indicated that they trusted their friends without thinking about their political party. This implies that trust among friends was maintained regardless of affiliation to different political parties. This act of maintaining trust in friendships was further revealed in the FGD responses. The focus to maintain trust in friendships was marked by responses such as "*To me I can't lose our friendship with my friend because…friendship is a valued treasure that I found and I can't let it go just like that…*" [Respondent OPS04]. Furthermore, [Respondent OPS07] said "*I will continue with our friendship because political differences should not come between us.*" [Respondent DMPS04] said *"I will continue being friends"* and [Respondent OPS06] said "*I will still allow them to be my friend because the elections come and go so I will still be their friends.*"

The results further indicate that (31.3%) of the respondents thought about their friend's political party before trusting them during the 2017 general election campaigns in Kenya. This implies that trust among some children was affected due to their affiliation with different political parties. [Respondent NPS08] said, "*I will still want her to be my friend… but if she is bitter the entire period during the election period because of her candidate… and causes us to drift apart I will let her be.*" This implies that trust in a relationship is a matter of choice and one cannot be forced to trust. This is confirmed by Henderer who asserts that trust is a function of choice (Henderer 1967, 10). Therefore individuals have a decision to make on whom to trust, when to trust and why they should trust the person.

Hostility

Results reveal that (84.2%) of the children did not display anger towards their

friends even when they supported different political parties. Most of the children

indicated that if their friends' presidential candidate won the elections, they would

appreciate the results but also appreciate their friends and continue with their friendship.

Others stated that they would celebrate with their friends over election results. This was

further supported by results from FGD responses such as *"I will celebrate with him*

[Respondent NPS 06]; *it will not ruin our friendship* [Respondent NPS03]*, I will act as if

there were no elections* [Respondent NPS07]*."* Other positive responses included "*I am

going to congratulate her* [Respondent DMPS06]; *I will continue being friends and

celebrate together* [Respondent DMPS01]; *I will appreciate her* [Respondent DMPS05];

and *"I can't lose my friendship because of other people because who do not know

(giggles) ... whether we are still living or not…"* [Respondent DMPS06].

[Respondent KCPS08] said *"Yes we will become friends and if he denies…. I will

continue disturbing until one day he gets tired until when I joke and laugh, he will be

doing the same."* Additionally, [Respondent KCPS02] said that "*I suggest that we

continue being friends because if we fight ….for example if we fight with a neighbor you

will feel lonely and you will want to ask for forgiveness…so I will want to be friends with

him….."*Notable, [Respondent KCPS04] did not value hostility and indicated that *"We

will continue being friends because even if we fight by punching or beating her or

kicking, first of all…..I will not vote for anybody until I am 18 years old so even I f I

punch that person I will not have any benefit….so it is rather just be friends continue with

our lives until when I am above eighteen I will have the authority."*

Results further revealed that (9.1%) of the children indicated that they were angry with their friends who supported a different political party. When asked how they would handle friends in a different political party whose presidential candidates won, [Respondent DMPS08] said *"My opinion is that I can feel bad, angry and make enemies with those who have won."* [Respondent KCPS04] mentioned that *"Yes I will beat him up and he stops enjoying because I am not happy……..(laughs) because I am not happy."* Further, the following statement by a child evidenced the element of hostility in friendship.

> *There comes a time when he feels proud of his candidate when yours has lost ...when he is celebrating he comes to incite you saying that they have won…they have won… and it reaches a point where you can't entertain him anymore where by you can kick him, beat him and disappear* [Respondent KCPS08].

Expressions of hostile actions in friendships were also exhibited by strong remarks such as *"You will handle him the same way you do but you will not be happy….even you can beat him up because he is happy…or even can ensure that blood comes out of him so that he stops being happy and starts crying like you"* [Respondent KCPS04]; *"I will beat her… because am angry"* [Respondent DMPS05].

These findings imply that some of the children become hostile towards their friends who were supporting different political parties, thus interfering with their interpersonal relationships. Henderer notes that hostility is the desire to destroy another person (Henderer 1967, 10) and this was evidenced by some of the children's expected behavior in case their political candidate lost while their friend's candidate won the election. As such this is a component that affects interpersonal relationships negatively.

Guilt

On the aspect of guilt, findings reveal that (71.1%) of the respondents did not feel bad when they supported a political party different from the one supported by their friends. Additionally, (76.6%) did not feel sad because their friends were supporting a different political party. This implies that children did not have guilt feelings based on the decision they made regarding which political party to support. However, (19.1%) of the respondents indicated that they felt bad because they supported a political party different from the one supported by their friends. Also, (18.5%) of the respondents were sad because their friends supported a political party different from theirs. These results imply that some children were guilty of their actions based on political party choices. As discussed by Henderer, guilt has to do with feelings of inadequacy and these feelings can arise from one failing to act at all, either right or wrong in a situation (Henderer 1967, 13). From these findings, it seems some of children felt bad, probably feeling they made a wrong choice leading to their being in different political parties from their friends. This study did not seek to further establish why some children were guilty of about their choices.

Giving

On the aspect of giving, results reveal that (69.3%) of the respondents were clear that they helped their friends without thinking of the latter's political parties, (6.4%) were not sure, while (24.3%) responded in the negative. These results imply that children were not so much concerned about the political parties their friends supported but that help in time of need was more important. Giving as a component of interpersonal relationships is important because it is an indicator of friends being ready to sacrifice on behalf of others

regardless of the risks involved. Additionally, it is an indicator of respect for the other person's worth as well as a recognition of their rights (Henderer 1967, 10).

These results imply that children were willing to go out of their way in order to support or advice their friends who may be negatively affected by the election results. A majority of the children from the selected schools indicated that they would seek to maintain friendships but also encourage their friends to move on with life. Giving is a component that affects interpersonal relationships positively and thus children were keen on maintaining their friends.

Dominance

On dominance, the results reveal that (78.1%) of the respondents refuted the statement "I did not care about others' feelings and ideas but wanted them to take mine" while (13.7%) responded positively to the statement. Only (8.2%) were not sure of their actions. When asked to rate their feelings on the statement "when my presidential candidate won, I felt better than my friends and I told them so," (54.4%) disagreed while (32.5%) agreed with the statement. These results imply that most of the children did not display dominance in relationships, signifying that they were not so engrossed in political matters but allowed friends to make their personal decisions concerning who to support. Additionally, feelings of pride were not commonly displayed among the children's relationships.

Seduction

Although seduction has a sexual connotation, in this study it was used to show how children get easily convinced by others. According to the findings reveal that

(73.3%) of the respondents were not easily convinced by their friends to support their political party while only (15.2%) responded positively to the statement. This is an indication that children made a firm decision on who they wanted to support and were not ready to change their decisions. However, as noted earlier in this study, a majority of the children were not affiliated with any political party and therefore there was no conviction or change of mind to be done. Seduction in itself is not a negative aspect in interpersonal relationships hence children in this study maintained positive relationships.

<div align="center">Ethnicity</div>

Findings indicate that relationships among children in this study were not predicated upon their ethnic background and political outcomes did not ruin this aspect. Results reveal that (93.9%) of the respondents indicated that they did not stop talking to their friends who were from other tribes that won the election, while (3.6%) agreed with the statement. Furthermore, (94.8%) indicated that they did not stop talking to their friends from other tribes whose political candidate lost the elections while (3%) indicated that they stopped talking to such friends. This points out that children did not base their friendships on tribal lines, neither did political outcomes affect this position. These results further imply that children in Kenya are not like adults whose political pursuit is strongly affected by their ethnic inclinations (Koter 2016, 3). This contrasts with other instances where politics are marked by conflicts based on ethnic tensions due to historic claims to land and power as discussed by (Keller 2014, 13).

Nevertheless, these results revealed that some children stopped talking to their friends of ethnic groups different from theirs, based on the results of the 2017 general elections in Kenya; an indication that some children allowed ethnic differences to

interfere with their relationships. The idea of children not talking to others from ethnic groups different from theirs was further confirmed by key informant DMPSKI02 who reported that he had observed that the children only share food with those from their ethnic group and this was more common during the general election campaign period. Additionally, OPSKI02 reported that some children stopped talking or playing with their friends who were from different ethnic groups. However, he was quick to report that this behavior was short-lived for after a short while the friendships would be restored.

An independent T-test was conducted to determine the association between the children's political affiliation and interpersonal relationships. Table 16 summarizes the findings.

Table 16. Political Affiliation on Interpersonal Relationships T-Test

. Relationship		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Equal variances assumed	7.960	.005	-2.226	327	.027
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.355	297.723	.019

The result revealed a statistical significant difference in means between those children who have a political affiliation and those who do not in terms of their interpersonal relationship (t (327) = -2.226, p=.027<0.05). Further, the correlation findings as shown in Table 17 revealed a negative correlation between children's political affiliation and interpersonal relationships (r (329) = -.122[*], p=.027<0.05). This means that children who had a political affiliation were more susceptible to negative effect in

this interpersonal relationship. A negative correlation of r (329) = -.122[*] implies that the

more a child is affiliated to politics the higher the effects on their relationship with others.

Table 17. Political Awareness on Interpersonal Relationship Correlations

		Children political affiliation	*Interpersonal Relationship*
Children political affiliation	Pearson Correlation	1	-.122[*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.027
	N	329	329
Interpersonal Relationship	Pearson Correlation	-.122[*]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.027	
	N	329	329

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

Impact of Political Outcomes on Children

The study further, sought to determine the impact of political outcomes on

children aged 10 to 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County. Political

outcomes were centered on the Kenya presidential election outcomes in 2017. The impact

was analyzed based on the five domains of development, that is, physical, social

emotional, cognitive, and spiritual. The findings were as tabulated in Table 18. In

addition, children's perceptions of the popular *handshake* (reconciliatory greetings

between President Uhuru Kenyatta and opposition leader Raila Odinga) were discussed

in the FGD and results are presented to help understand this political outcome on

children.

Table 18. Impact of Political Outcomes on Children

Effect of political outcomes	Always	Sometimes	Not at all	Mean	Std. Dev
Physical Impact					
Our family was displaced	2.4%(8)	9.7% (32)	87.8% (289)	2.8541	.4168
Some of my family members died through the post-election violence	5.5%(18)	8.5% (28)	86% (283)	2.8055	.5166
Some of my friends died through the post-election violence	6.4%(21)	6.1% (20)	87.5% (288)	2.8116	.5305
I was injured by the political demonstrators	5.8%(19)	5.5% (18)	88.8% (292)	2.8298	.5074
Social Impact					
My friends stopped talking to me when my political leader won and theirs lost elections	6.4% (21)	10.9% (36)	82.7% (272)	2.7629	.5563
I fought others whose political leader won elections	2.4% (8)	2.1% (7)	95.4% (314)	2.9301	.3376
I did not want to talk about the results when they were announced	20.7%(68)	17.6% (58)	61.7% (203)	2.4103	.8107
My friends were very proud of their political leader and that made me sad	12.8% (42)	10.9% (36)	76.3% (251)	2.635	.6989
I stopped watching television	4.6% (15)	6.4% (21)	89.1% (293)	2.84	.4720
Emotional Impact					
I made a lot of noise	10.9% (36)	13.4% (44)	75.7% (249)	2.647	0.669
I talked badly to others	2.4% (8)	7.3% (24)	90.3% (297)	2.878	0.394
I blamed others	3.3% (11)	7.6% (25)	89.1% (293)	2.857	0.435
I kept quiet	33.4% (110)	21.9% (72)	44.7% (147)	2.112	0.877
I felt sad	15.5% (51)	13.7% (45)	70.8% (233)	2.553	0.747
I cried	5.2% (17)	6.7% (22)	88.1% (290)	2.829	0.495
I felt nothing	27.1% (89)	19.5% (64)	53.5% (176)	2.264	0.858
I got scared	16.4% (54)	17.3% (57)	66.3% (218)	2.498	0.761
I hated politics	12.2% (40)	15.8% (52)	72% (237)	2.598	0.696
Cognitive Impact					
My marks in class subjects dropped	4.9% (16)	10.9% (36)	84.2% (277)	2.793	.511]
I missed going to school	9.1% (30)	17.6% (58)	73.3% (241)	2.641	.643
I was not able to concentrate in class when learning	7.3% (24)	14% (46)	78.7% (259)	2.71	.592
Spiritual Impact					
I stopped praying	1.5% (5)	2.7% (9)	95.7% (315)	2.942	.291
I stopped going to the place of worship	1.5% (5)	3.6% (12)	94.8% (312)	2.933	.305
I stopped trusting in God/Allah	1.2% (4)	1.2% (4)	97.6% (321)	2.963	.244
I prayed more for the politicians	60.5% (199)	19.8% (65)	19.8% (65)	1.592	.799
I prayed more for my country Kenya	79.6% (262)	10.3% (34)	10% (33)	1.304	.642

A Likert scale was used to rate the effect of political outcomes; where 1= Always, 2= Sometimes and 3= Not at all. Frequencies, means and standard deviation of the Likert scale were calculated. Findings were discussed based on the different domains of human development.

Physical Impact

Results indicated that the majority of the children were not physically affected by the politics (Mean > 2.5). This notwithstanding, 40 (12%) of the respondents indicated that their families were displaced; 46 (14%) lost family members during the post-election violence in Kenya; and 41 (12.5%) lost family members and friends during post- election violence; and 37 (11.3%) were injured by the political demonstrators. These results point out that children experience a significant physical impact whenever violence erupts after a general election in Kenya.

These results imply that political outcomes in Kenya have a direct impact on children. It is evident that children's security and safety is at risk, especially for those who are displaced or lose family members. Losses such as that of family and home, and especially loss of parents are the worst outcomes for a child. It is within home that ". . . children find love, security, trust, belonging, acceptance and care" (Kilbourn 2013, 11). Children who are displaced or lose family members are quite devastated. This loss of physical safety leaves children defenseless and at risk of ". . . torture, arrest and detention, sexual and physical abuse, or being abducted into slavery, prostitution or recruitment into the armed forces" (Kilbourn 2013, 17).

Loss of friends means loss of someone to play with as well as loss of shared memory (Kilbourn 2013, 12). The physical effect of politics on children was also noted

by Dawes, Tredoux, and Feinstein who point out that during apartheid, children in South Africa underwent political violence and their problems were manifested differently (Dawes, Tredoux, and Feinstein 1989, 39). It is therefore evident that political violence affects children negatively. Some of them lose loved ones, while others are left orphaned.

<div align="center">Social Impact</div>

On social effects, the study established that most children were not affected negatively by the political outcomes. However, there were children who indicated negative effects on their social life. Results show that 126 (38.3%) of the respondents did not want to talk about the declared results (M=2.4103, SD=.8107). This was further confirmed by NPS05 who said ". . . *I will go to a counselor as a last resort. The only thing that I would do is to try not to bring up election discussion.*"

Moreover, 78 (23.7%) of the respondents stated that their friends were always very proud of their political leader and that made them sad; 57 (17.3%) indicated that their friends stopped talking to them when the latter's political leader won and theirs lost the election. This was supported by KCPS08 who said ". . . *There comes a time when he feels proud of his candidate when yours has lost . . . when he is celebrating he comes to incite you saying that they have won . . . they have won . . . and it reaches a point you can't entertain him anymore. . .*"

Findings also revealed that some 36 (11%) of the children stopped watching television while 15 (4.1%) fought those whose political leader won elections. The aspect of fighting was revealed in FGD when Respondent OPS07 said that ". . . *I will be jealous of those who have won and you will start saying that the elections were not done in the right way . . . you can even do something bad because there is a difference because she*"

was supporting someone different from you . . . you can even end up fighting just because their candidate has won . . ." Additionally Respondent DMPS03 reported that *". . . I would have fought with somebody who their candidate won."*

These results imply that political outcomes significantly affect children's social life. FGDs revealed a theme of children learning to cope with loss. However, due to value of friendships, the majority indicated that *"the political outcomes should not come in between our friendship."* As such most children reported that whether their political leader won or lost during the election, they would continue with their friendship.

Negative impact on children's social relationships affects their interactions and could lead to loneliness. Ormrod notes that younger children value friendships not only as a source of recreation but also for comfort and safety. During adolescence children rely more on peers for emotional support (Ormrod 2016, 77). Children who participated in this study were in their middle childhood and early adolescence. Thus, a negative effect on their friendships means insecurity and lack of support.

<center>Emotional Impact</center>

The results show that children are affected emotionally by the political outcomes. Findings on table 18 indicate that 182 (55.3%) of the respondents indicated that they kept quiet with a mean of (M=2.112SD=0.877); 153 (46.6%) said that they felt nothing (M=2.264, SD=0.858); 111(33.7%) mentioned that they got scared; 96 (29.2%) felt sad; 92 (28%) hated politics; 36 (10.9%) blamed others; and 32 (9.7%) indicated that they talked badly to others.

Evident in these results is the fact that children are significantly affected emotionally by the political outcomes even though majority of the children are not

negatively affected. During the FGD, when children were asked what they would do if their political candidate lost, most of the children mentioned that they would *"feel sad, feel bad, and feel disappointed."* One of the respondents mentioned that he would *"feel jealousy"* while another said she would *"feel guilty."* Based on the FGDs, the study established that political outcomes have an emotional impact on children.

The fact that children mentioned that they would keep quiet indicates a sense of inadequacy and uncertainty when the political climate is unpredictable. The silence could be an indication of children's inability to express their fears or their thoughts. This means that children reach a state of psychological numbness when there is political uncertainty and hence need to be helped to navigate this challenge. These negative emotional feelings of children can be damaging if not well-handled. Political outcomes such as post-election violence, war, loss of family, displacement among others have severe emotional impact on children. Earlier findings indicate that severe loses and disruptions in children's lives lead to high rates of anxiety and depression. Furthermore, the impacts can be prolonged by exposure to other privations and violence in refugee contexts (Santa Barbara 2006, 892).

Cognitive Impact

According to the results 52 (15.8%) of the respondents indicated that their subject marks dropped; and 88 (26.7%) missed out on school attendance after the announcement of election results in 2017. Further, 70 (21.3%) of the respondents indicated that they were not able to concentrate in class while learning. However, it should be noted that these results did not take into consideration children's previous academic experiences which may have been a contribution to their dropping in academic performance. Even

though the findings indicate that the majority of the children were not significantly affected cognitively, it is evident that political outcomes have significant impact on children's cognitive development. Key informant interviews revealed that political outcomes have an effect in children's academic performance. According to OPSKI02, *". . . it has been observed that every general election year, the mean grade for KCPE drops as children's performance is not good."* This study only focused on the schooling aspect, that is, intellectual abilities of the child.

The fact that (26.7%) of the respondents missed out on school attendance after the announcement of election results is an issue that needs to be addressed. It was further reported by key informant DMPSKI02 that some children traveled upcountry due to the tensions in their area of residence meaning that they miss attending school. These results concur with Kibourn who notes that in the context of war children experience a loss of schooling and this is a very heavy loss to bear (Kilbourn 2013, 23). This loss of schooling interferes with children's social and academic stability. For some children, school is a great place for interaction and socialization, as such missing school is a lonely experience. Additionally, staying at home in fear of the unknown situation in the country increases the levels of fear and insecurity among children.

Children's inability to concentrate in class suggests that they were uncertain of their safety or were remembering their experiences at home or on their way to school. Poor classroom concentration means that children are not able to gain understanding and achieve good grades in class. It was therefore observed that some of the children indicated that their marks dropped lowering their academic performance. Lack of concentration in school was also confirmed during KII as it reported *". . . normally*

children come to school and they are so worried, as a teacher you notice that the child is

not concentrating. . ." (OPSKI02).

Spiritual Impact

The study results further revealed that after the 2017 election results were announced, children were not affected spiritually. A majority of the respondents revealed that they did not stop praying, going to the place of worship and trusting in God/Allah (Mean >2.5). Further, the majority of the respondents mentioned that they prayed more for the politicians (M=1.592, SD=.799) and for their country Kenya (M=1.304, SD=.642). These results indicate that the respondents had a strong belief in God/Allah to help them out of the political crisis. Instead of avoiding any spiritual activity, there was an increase on the same. This is a true reflection that in times of crisis many people turn to their faith and call on God to intervene in the uncertain future. Spirituality is fundamental to children and they need exposure to spiritual matters. Nye argues that spirituality is essential for children in three ways, that is: essential to their faith; essential to childhood and not an optional extra of adulthood or something opted into by minority; and essential to being whole at any stage in life (Nye 2009,18-9).

However, it is notable that 17 (5.1%) of the respondents reported that they stopped going to the place of worship; 14 (4.2%) stopped praying; and 8 2 (2.4%) of children stopped trusting in God/Allah. With this, it can be deduced that political outcomes in Kenya have the potential of making children lose their faith and trust in God.

Positive spiritual response was also reported during FGDs. When asked what they would do if their presidential candidate won elections, respondent NPS02 from Nairobi primary school said *"If it was me, I will celebrate not more of materially but*

religiously…..go back to God tell Him thank you because I participated actively in the campaign so at least I know that my efforts paid." Similarly, respondent OPS07 from Olympic primary school said:

> *All I can do is try to make it a normal day but I will do something . . . all I can do is pray and thank God because leadership is something that is being built by God . . . so thank God that the candidate won and that God has given him the authority to win and so I thank God.*

<div align="center">Children's Perception on the <i>'Handshake'</i></div>

Handshake is a popular term in Kenya referring to the reconciliatory greeting between President Uhuru Kenyatta and opposition leader, Raila Odinga in March 2018 after the disputed general election in August 2017. The study sought to find out children's perceptions of the *handshake* in order to establish their feelings. A picture of the president of Kenya greeting the leader of the opposition in the country and another picture with the president, deputy president and leader of opposition pausing for a photo (See Appendix C) were presented to children for observation. FGD results indicate that all children in the groups were aware of the *handshake*. All children in the FGD at Olympic primary school were able to mention that the *handshake* took place on 9 March 2018. When asked what they felt about the handshake, some of the responses were as follows, "*I am happy as there will be no more fighting between the Luos, Kikuyus and other tribes. There will be peace and life will be good"* [Respondent DMPS08]. This implies that children perceived the handshake as a unifying factor among tribes in Kenya.

Another respondent noted that "*I feel like Kenya is still growing . . . it is not like 2007. . . I was told a story that people fought but now through the handshake . . . they have never fought so that even though Kenya has a huge debt . . . it remains peaceful"*

[Respondent KCPS01]. This response indicated that some of the children were aware of the political trends in the county. [Respondent KCPS01] was able to reflect on the happenings of post-election violence in Kenya in 2007/8 and also the current nation's economic status. This implies that children in Kenya are aware about the handshake and the political trends in Kenya. Other perceptions of children on *handshake* included this:

> *The handshake between Uhuru and Raila brought order and peace because even nowadays people don't fight even if you want assistance . . . for instance I am a Kikuyu and if I am lacking something or even a place to stay I can go to her house (pointing to Respondent KCPS05) and get… so the handshake between Uhuru and Raila has brought peace"* [Respondent KCPS04].

This response focused on the element of peace and unity in the country especially among the different tribes. Another child noted that "*If the handshake wasn't there… Kenya wouldn't be peaceful, people would be killing each other all the time and now they decided to do the handshake so that Kenya can experience peace"* [Respondent OPS03].

Children were also asked to state what their friends thought about the handshake. [Respondent KCPS08] said that "*There are those who are not happy because maybe their parents were injured and others were left orphans and even others left jobless and later Uhuru and Raila had a handshake which they enjoy while others suffer . . . so that one hurts very much and when they grow up they might revenge or they might just leave it like that.*" Children also mentioned that their friends think the *handshake* was a means of reconciliation in the country starting with the influential political leaders.

Summary

This chapter focused on presentation and analysis of data. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to discuss quantitative data, while detailed descriptions of

qualitative data were done. Demographics of the selected children were provided and discussed. Analysis of the findings was based on the four broad variables of the study which were children's political awareness, children's political affiliation, children's political participation and interpersonal relationships among children. The findings in this chapter revealed that the most of the children were female. Most of the children who participated in the study were 12 years old while Christianity was the dominant religion with a small representation of Muslims.

This study established that a majority of the children had high level of knowledge about political leaders in Nairobi County and political parties in Kenya which was evidence that they were aware of politics in Kenya. Additionally, it was established that the children's main source of political information was electronic and print media, with television ranking highest. Regarding political affiliation, some of the children had affiliation to political parties in Kenya. The study findings revealed that children in Kenya participate in political activities at school and outside of school. However, except for school leaders, children's political participation was at the lowest levels of Hart's participation ladder of child participation, which was noted as non-participation. Finally, it was established that political outcomes in Kenya do not significantly affect children's interpersonal relationships. Nonetheless, there were cases of children whose interpersonal relationships were negatively affected by the political outcomes in Kenya. Notable was that political outcomes affect children on all domains of development. Chapter five will provide a summary of the findings, conclusion, and recommendations.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter gives a summary of the study on the effect of children's political awareness, affiliation and participation on their interpersonal relationships. Conclusions of the findings are also provided I the chapter. Finally, recommendations that are likely to be implemented by selected schools, academicians, parents, religious institutions, and policy makers in Kenya are made.

Summary of Findings

Children learn about politics from very early years of life (Coles 2000, 20) and the complexity of what they learn increases as they grow and develop. They are socialized into politics by different agents and their interest in learning of politics is more affective than cognitive (Greenstein 2009, 57). Children's interest and perception of political figures has more to do with what they feel rather than cognitive knowledge. The findings of this study are summarized based on the study variables.

Children's Political Awareness

This study established that children from the selected schools were aware of politics. Their political awareness was based on their knowledge on political parties and political leaders. Findings revealed that children had knowledge about political parties in Kenya and political leaders in Nairobi County. Results indicated that 328 (99.7%) of the children were aware of more than one political party in Kenya. All the girls were aware

of more than one political party one boy was not aware of the same. This study also established that 327 (93.9%) of the children were aware of eleven or more political leaders in Nairobi County. Girls recorded (99.8%) while (100%) of the boys were aware six or more political leaders in Nairobi County.

Furthermore, the study established that children get political information mainly from print and electronic media which included television (15.3%), newspapers (13.5%), radio (13.2%), posters (10.8%), and internet (9.8%). Parents, friends, teachers, and political rallies were also indicated as sources of political information. Outstanding in this study is the fact that religious leaders and teachers in religious institutions recorded lowest scores as sources of political information.

<div align="center">Children's Political Affiliation</div>

Results revealed that (62.9%) of the respondents have no affiliation with specific political parties in Kenya, while (37.1%) have political party affiliation. The results further showed that more boys (39.2%) had a political affiliation compared to their female counterparts who recorded (35.2%). All the children indicated that they had a preferred political leader and provided a reason they would vote for the leader. Further Chi-square results revealed a statistical significant association between children's political awareness and political affiliation ($\chi 2=36.836^a$, p=.034<0.05). Moreover, a correlation of means for children political awareness and those who had a political affiliation revealed a positive correlation between children's political awareness and political affiliation (r (329) = .169[**], p=.002<0.05).

Children's Political Participation

The findings revealed that children participate in politics at different levels of leadership. It was noted that (48.6%) held a leadership position in their school while (51.4%) did not hold any leadership positions. Most children in leadership position were chosen by their classmates or their school teachers. Notable in the study was that only 5 (3.1%) of the children campaigned to become school leaders. In addition, the study established that (24.9%) of the children participate in political activities by voting for school leaders, (13.7%) by serving as leaders in the school, (11.9%) through talking to others about relating well with others in politics, (9.8%) through campaigning for their school leaders, and (8.9%) through talking to others about the importance of participating in politics.

Apart from participating in schools, children were also engaged in political activities out of school. Participation was mainly observed at the lowest levels of Hart's ladder, that is, manipulation and decoration. Thirty percent of the children participate in politics through listening to politicians who visit their school; (17.6%) through listening to politicians who visit their place of worship; (11.4%) by attending political meetings with other people while others sing songs about a politician/political party during a public meeting.

Children's Interpersonal Relationships

The results revealed that majority of children's interpersonal relationships were not affected. Nonetheless, it was evident that some aspects of children's interpersonal relationships were affected. Relationships were measured on elements of trust, hostility, guilt, giving, dominance, seduction, and ethnicity. It was evident that (57.1%) trusted

friends without consideration of the latter's political party, while (31.3%) indicated lack of trust for friends with different political affiliations. This was considered quite a significant finding. To support commitment of trust, OPS06 said "*I will still allow them to be my friend because the elections come and go so I will still be their friends.*" However, these results present a worrying trend on the number of children who do not trust others based on political affiliations.

Although (84.2%) of the children did not indicate anger expressions (hostility) towards friends in different political parties, (9.1%) indicated that they were angry with their friends who supported a different political party. Remarkable statements were made by children concerning their actions. KCPS04 said that *"Yes I will beat him up and he stops enjoying because I am not happy…(laughs) because I am not happy."* The element of hostility in friendship was further evidenced by KCPS08, who said:

> *There comes a time when he feels proud of his candidate when yours has lost . . . when he is celebrating he comes to incite you saying that they have won…they have won . . . and it reaches a point where you can't entertain him anymore where by you can kick him, beat him and disappear.*

Expressions of hostile actions in friendships were also exhibited by strong remarks such as:

> *You will handle him the same way you do but you will not be happy . . . even you can beat him up because he is happy . . . or even can ensure that blood comes out of him so that he stops being happy and starts crying like you" (*KCPS04**)** and; "I will beat her . . . because am angry"* (DMPS05).

The results further revealed that majority of the children were not guilty of their actions and thus were not disappointed about being in political parties that are different from those of their friends. On giving, most of the children (69.3%) indicated that they

helped their friends without thinking of their political parties while (24.3%) responded in the negative. Thus, most children were willing to sacrifice on behalf of others without consideration of the latter's political affiliation.

In regard to dominance in relationships, findings revealed that (13.7%) indicated that they did not care about others' feelings and ideas but wanted them to take their opinion, while (32.5%) indicated they felt better when their presidential candidate won and they told their friends about it. On seduction, (15.2%) of the children indicated that were easily convinced by friends to support their political party implying that children were keen to maintain their friendships.

A notable finding of this study what that children's interpersonal relationships were affected based on children's ethnic background. Although most of the children indicated that they did not stop talking to friends based on ethnic background, (3.6%) indicated that they stopped talking to friends who were from other tribes that won the elections while (3%) revealed that they stopped talking to friends who were from the same tribe as the political candidate who lost the election.

An independent T-test to determine the association between the children's political affiliation and interpersonal relationships revealed a statistical significant difference in means between those children who have a political affiliation and those who are not in terms of their interpersonal relationship ($t (327) = -2.226$, $p=.027<0.05$). Further, a negative correlation between children's political affiliation and interpersonal relationships ($r (329) = -.122^{*}$, $p=.027<0.05$) was revealed meaning that children who had a political affiliation were more susceptible to negative effect on their interpersonal

relationship. A negative correlation of r (329) = -.122[*] implies that the more children are affiliated to politics, the higher the effects in their relationship with others.

Impact of Political Outcomes on Children

Effects of political outcomes in Africa are known to result to varying levels of political violence due to ethnocentrism and historical land claims (Keller 2014, 13), and Kenya is not exempt. Results in this study suggest that political activities and outcomes in Kenya impact children's physical, social, emotional, cognitive and spiritual domains. Findings of this study reveal that 40 (12%) of the children indicated their families were displaced; 46 (14%) lost family members during post-election violence in Kenya; 41 (12.5%) lost friends during post- election violence; and 37 (11.3%) were injured by the political demonstrators. It is evident that children experienced losses that could affect their overall wellbeing.

Regarding social impact, results reveal that 126 (38.3%) of the children did not want to talk about the results when they were announced. For example, NPS05 who said "... *I will go to a counselor as a last resort. The only thing that I would do is to try not to bring up election discussion."* Evidently, 78 (23.7%) stated that their friends were always very proud of their political leader and that made them sad; while 57 (17.3%) indicated that their friends stopped talking to them when the latter's political leader won and theirs lost elections. For example KCPS08 said "... *There comes a time when he feels proud of his candidate when yours has lost ... when he is celebrating he comes to incite you saying that they have won ... they have won ... and it reaches a point you can't entertain him anymore. . .*" The findings also revealed that some 36 (11%) of the children

stopped watching television while 15 (4.5%) fought others whose political leaders won the general election in Kenya.

Emotionally, children were impacted significantly. More than half of the respondents 182 (55.3%) indicated that they kept quiet; 153 (46.6%) said that they felt nothing; 111(33.7%) got scared; 96 (29.2%) felt sad; 92 (28%) hated politics; 36 (10.9%) blamed others; and 32 (9.7%) indicated that they talked badly to others. FGD results revealed that children whose political candidate lost elections said they would *"feel sad, feel bad, and feel disappointed."*

Regarding impact on cognitive level, it was notable that 52 (15.8%) children indicated that their subject marks dropped; while 88 (26.7%) missed out on school attendance after the announcement of election results in 2017. Further, 70 (21.3%) indicated that they were not able to concentrate in class during learning.

Children were also impacted on their spiritual domain. Majority revealed that they did not stop praying, going to the place of worship and trusting in God/Allah (Mean >2.5). Majority of the children prayed more for the politicians (M=1.592, SD=.799) and for their country Kenya (M=1.304, SD=.642). However, 17 (5.1%) of the children stopped going to the place of worship, 14 (4.2%) stopped praying; and 8 (2.4%) stopped trusting in God/Allah.

Children's Perception on the *'Handshake'*

Significant in this study were the perceptions children held about the *handshake* in Kenya. With its genesis on reconciliation in Kenya by political leaders after the disputed 2017 general elections in Kenya, children perceived the handshake as an end to inter-tribal wars that affect relationships. For example, DMPS08 said "*I am happy as*

there will be no more fighting between the Luos, Kikuyus and other tribes. There will be

peace and life will be good."

The handshake was also perceived as a sign of peace and unity in the country as

revealed in responses such as "*I feel like Kenya is still growing . . . it is not like 2007. . .*

I was told a story that people fought but now through the handshake . . . they have never

fought so that even though Kenya has a huge debt . . . it remains peaceful" (KCPS01).

Another respondent said:

> *The handshake between Uhuru and Raila brought order and peace because even*
> *nowadays people don't fight even if you want assistance . . . for instance I am a*
> *Kikuyu and if I am lacking something or even a place to stay I can go to her house*
> *(pointing to Respondent KCPS05) and get . . . so the handshake between Uhuru*
> *and Raila has brought peace" (*KCPS04).

OPS03 noted that "*If the handshake wasn't there . . . Kenya wouldn't be peaceful,*

people would be killing each other all the time and now they decided to do the handshake

so that Kenya can experience peace."

However, it was also notable that everyone was not happy with the handshake as

revealed in the following statement,

> *There are those who are not happy because maybe their parents were injured*
> *and others were left orphans and even others left jobless and later Uhuru and*
> *Raila had a handshake which they enjoy while others suffer . . . so that one hurts*
> *very much and when they grow up they might revenge or they might just leave it*
> *like that* (KCPS08).

Conclusions

This study was guided by six research questions which focused on political

awareness, affiliation, participation and interpersonal relationships among children. The

conclusions will be guided by the study's research questions.

Research Question 1: What knowledge do children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi county Nenya have about politics?

Knowledge on politics is acquired from very early years of life. This includes simple knowledge as knowing the political leaders and political parties. This knowledge could be as complex as knowledge about party symbols, slogans, and manifesto. This study only sought to establish children's knowledge of political parties, political leaders within Nairobi County, and political trends in Kenya.

The study established that children from the selected schools were aware of politics. Findings revealed that children were aware of political parties and political leaders in Kenya. Furthermore all girls were aware of political parties in Kenya while one boy was not aware of any political party in Kenya. On the other hand, compared to their female counterparts, more boys were aware of political leaders in Nairobi County. This study concludes that children in Nairobi County, Kenya are aware of politics. This finding confirmed that children acquire knowledge about politics within their formative years (Easton and Hess cited in Berti 2009, 70). It is therefore, important for parents, teachers and religious leaders to proactively provide political knowledge to children in order to enhance their awareness and positive participation in political matters.

Research Question 2: How do children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi county Kenya learn about politics?

Learning takes place in both controlled and uncontrolled environments (Gardner and Miller 1999, 20). The controlled environments are structured places such as classrooms or libraries, which involve the influence of the teacher or trainer while an uncontrolled environment includes the unstructured places such as playground, social

activities among others. This study established that children get information about politics from different sources. Children's source of political information was mainly from the unstructured environment, that is electronic and print media. This implies, that contributors to the political content found in media need to be aware of their consumers and provide accurate and relevant information. Additionally, this study confirmed the nested systems in the ecology influencing the developing person as noted by Urie Bronfenbrenner. These include media, parents, schools, peers, and partly religious institutions. However notable in this study was the little contribution that religious institutions make towards children's political knowledge.

Television as a socializing agent received high scores implying that children access it easily and probably with no regulated viewership. During an electioneering year, most of the television stations concentrate on telecasting political information providing updates on the campaigns and election results. Similarly, the newspapers can be easily accessed from the vendors along the streets, school libraries and some of the homes. Most of the Kenyan newspaper headlines communicate regularly the political events of the country. As such, the ease of access of political information from the electronic and print media provides a rationale for children being politically aware. Access of information on politics from media is an indication that media technology devices are easily available in homes and schools, thus are common channels of conveying information. This study concludes that children are active participants in gathering information about politics. They not only listen to adults but also find this information by reading books and newspapers. However, parents, teachers and guardians, need to regulate information children access from these media sources.

The study concludes that religious institutions and religious leaders are least providers of political information. It is assumed that most religious institutions do not perceive their engagement in political activities as spiritual. Their main concern is to nurture their followers spiritually and not politically. Some consider politics as a dirty game and this affects their political engagement. However, it is important that religious institutions and leaders be concerned about political matters and equip children. As noted earlier, Christians need to care about politics since political acts have profound human consequences (Gerson and Wehner 2010, 24).

Teachers, parents, and peers were sources of political information. Although parents have been traditionally regarded as the most influential primary socializers (Waseem and Shabir 2017, 2), it was not the case in this study. This study concludes that political matters are mostly discussed during the election year and thereafter very little is done between parents and children regarding politics. This was confirmed by [Respondent NPS05] "…*you know our parents do not like discussing about politics, it's just during election period that you find them talking about politics.*"

Research Question 3: How does the political awareness of children aged10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi county Kenya affect their political affiliation?

This study revealed that children in Kenya have an affiliation to a political party of choice. More boys had a political affiliation than the girls. Although the girls were slightly more as respondents in this study, the boys seemed to outnumber them in regard to political affiliation. This study concludes that boys have a stronger inclination to political matters than girls. Chi-square results comparing relationship between political affiliation and political awareness revealed a positive association ($\chi2=36.836^a$, p=.034<0.05). This study concludes that political awareness affects political affiliation

among children. The more knowledge children have about politics, and the older they are, increases their chances of having a political affiliation.

Research Question 4: In what ways do children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi county Kenya participate in political activities in Kenya?

Child participation is a concept widely promoted at global level in line with United Nations Convention of the Rights of the Child (UNCRC). Article 13 of the UNCRC promotes freedom of expression while article 15 promotes freedom of association. Hess and Torney note four steps of political participation: "…awareness, conceptualization, subjective involvement, and active participation" (Hess and Torney 2009, 16). This indicates that political participation is a step-by-step development until children get to the level where they can initiate the process to engage in political matters. At the last stage of participation it is expected that one would engage in activities such as "wearing buttons for a candidate, talking with friends about political matters and listening to political presentations" (Hess and Torney 2009, 16).

This study established that children participate in politics at different levels. A majority of the children had been chosen by their classmates or appointed by teachers to hold leadership positions. Apart from leadership roles, this study established that children participate in varied political activities both at school and out of school. Children engaged in activities such as listening to politicians, attending political rallies, singing or reciting a poem in praise of political leaders or parties. The study concludes that most children functioned at levels of manipulation, decoration and tokenism based on Hart's ladder of child participation. Based on Hess and Torney's levels of political participation, these children were subjectively involved and therefore children in Kenya have no active participation in politics outside school.

Research Question 5: How does the political affiliation of children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi county Kenya affect their interpersonal relationships?

Political affiliations can be very divisive and especially in Kenya where most political parties are largely formed on ethnic grounds. This study established that although the majority of the children did not report being affected, a significant number were affected and upheld negative values in their interpersonal relationships. For some children trust was broken, others expressed hostility to their friends. Notable was the fact that children's relationships were affected based on their ethnic grounds. Statements of hostile actions such as *"Yes I will beat him up and he stops enjoying because I am not happy . . .. (laughs) because I am not happy"* (KCPS04). Additionally, hostility in friendship was evidenced by a KCPS08 who said:

> *There comes a time when he feels proud of his candidate when yours has lost . . . when he is celebrating he comes to incite you saying that they have won . . . they have won . . . and it reaches a point where you can't entertain him anymore where by you can kick him, beat him and disappear.*

A correlation was done to establish if political affiliation affects children's interpersonal relationships. Findings revealed a negative correlation (r (329) = -.122[*], p=.027<0.05). This means that children who had a political affiliation were more susceptible to negative effect on their interpersonal relationship. The FGD results indicated that a majority of the children were not negatively affected by the political happenings in Kenya. However, some of the children indicated they were divided on tribal grounds during the general elections in Kenya in 2017. This was evidenced by Respondent OPS02 who said:

> *. . . it affected children because if you had friends and one might be good in Maths and English and used to perform well in such subjects or the subject leaders and they all supported different political leaders so there will be so much difference which will bring about enmity between them and some will start having*

poor performance and even between teachers and pupils because teachers will support different politicians while the students support different politicians so a pupil might hate a teacher because of that and might even miss coming to school.

This study concludes that political affiliation effects interpersonal relationships among children aged 10 – 13 years in the selected primary schools in Kenya. Parents, teachers, and religious leaders need to pay attention to this and foster positive relationships among children. Children should be helped to embrace inclusivity in their interpersonal relationships. Based on the model of Jesus, children need to understand that they should not follow the status quo of their society but become countercultural like Jesus. In his relationships, Jesus included people from diverse backgrounds, social groups and extended healing to both rich and poor (Cassidy 2015, 24).

It is further concluded that the environment within which the child lives has a great influence on the child's choice of actions. Some of the children, who mentioned that they will engage in violent actions, may have observed adult's actions during times of disputed election results. This confirms Urie Bronfenbrenner's ecological system's theory and Albert Bandura's social learning theories that the environment within which one lives, and the models observed by children affects their final outcome. Therefore, parents and other adults need to display inclusive relationships, but also kind actions that can be imitated by children. Thompson (cited in May et al. 2005, 156) notes that, it is important to welcome friends and persons who are beyond the circle of those close to us and display acts of hospitality. This will set the right basis and model for children to emulate.

Research Question 6: How are the selected children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi county impacted by political outcomes?

Political outcomes could relate to a wide range of actions done within the political arena but this study focused on post-election violence in Kenya after the 2017 general

elections. Most of the participants in this study were children, born at the height of post-election violence in Kenya in 2007-8, and thus lived through the 2017 post-election dispute as nine or 10 year olds. Others were young children at the time of 2007-8 post-election violence, but all the children in the study had either experienced or heard about the political tensions during and after the 2017 disputed general elections. This means that the majority of these children were familiar with political tension and political violence, either through being told by adults or watching television and reading newspapers.

Impact of political outcomes was assessed on five areas namely: physical, social, emotional, cognitive, and spiritual. The study established that some children experienced family displacement, death of family members, death of friends, and physical injury. These were noted as major losses for children, which have the capacity to debilitate their life. On the emotional aspect, children were significantly affected. Due to their emotional pain, some children chose to keep quiet, felt sad, and hated politics. Additionally, the uncertainty of the moment made some children scared, talk badly to, and blame others. Feelings of sorrow, pain, and disappointment were also expressed during the FGD. Although a majority of children were not affected on the cognitive level, this study established that there were some children who missed going to school or had problems concentrating in class. Moreover, a majority of the children indicated that they prayed more for politicians and the country, a sheer indication that the emotional turmoil caused fear in children, and this may have been the reason for turning their hope to God/Allah. The downside of these challenges was that some children stopped going to their places of

worship while others stopped trusting God/Allah. This reflects despondency in children and probably a feeling of being let down by God/Allah.

Political impact on children was also identified in children's perceptions of the *handshake* between the president and opposition leader in Kenya. The overriding themes of this perception were: peace, unity, reconciliation, and development. However, some children felt that the *handshake* was perceived negatively by both children and adults who had experienced great losses during the post-election violence. DMPS07 said *"I think they feel . . . they feel bad because those who supported Raila feel (walichezewa) that they have been played."* In other words, they feel that they were 'taken for a ride' or 'taken advantage.'

This study concludes that children in Kenya are significantly impacted by political outcomes. Although children seemed to express major effects on the emotional level, it is evident that children were affected on all aspects in their lives. In agreement with Kilbourn, this study concludes that "war-related loses form a total experience, not just a series of isolated experiences, and involve all aspects of their lives: emotional, spiritual, physical, and developmental" (Kilbourn 2013, 8).

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to establish how children's political awareness, affiliation and participation affect their interpersonal relationships within a multi-ethnic context. This study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What knowledge do children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya have about politics?

2. How do children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya learn about politics?

3. How does the political awareness of children aged10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya affect their political affiliation?

4. In what ways do children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya participate in political activities in Kenya?

5. How does the political affiliation of children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County Kenya affect their interpersonal relationships?

6. How are the selected children aged 10 – 13 years in selected primary schools in Nairobi County impacted by political outcomes?

Research Design

This study employed a mixed method design to achieve its purpose. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were used to generate data necessary for analysis and making sense of the findings. A questionnaire was used to generate quantitative data from 329 children aged 10 – 13 years while focus group discussions were conducted to generate qualitative data from children aged 12 and 13 years in the selected primary schools in Nairobi County, Kenya. To validate these findings, key informant interviews were conducted among eight teachers from the selected primary schools.

Recommendations

This study makes recommendations to schools, parents, policy makers in Kenya, religious leaders, and the academia.

Recommendations for Selected Schools

Schools play a major role in political socialization of children. As noted earlier in this study, it is within schools that children learn about the government and its functions. Additionally, children in Kenya spent most of their time in schools, therefore teachers make a great contribution in the overall wellbeing of the child. Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

The Social Studies teachers in primary schools should provide knowledge regarding politics to children in order to help them become more aware of politics. Although most of the children had high level of knowledge, continuous provision of this information is necessary in preparing children as responsible citizens. Apart from concentrating on the school syllabus, teachers should engage children on current political matters in the country and help correct any erroneous information that children may have embraced. They should help children embrace values of love, unity, integrity, social justice, responsibility, respect, peace and patriotism that are promoted in the social studies subject. These values will help children avoid hostile tendencies when aggrieved.

School teachers should help children learn the values to consider when selecting a leader. This would go a long way in helping children know which values to seek when choosing a political leader or a political party to support. Teachers should encourage inclusiveness in relationships among children and avoid focussing on tribe, social status and friendship as qualities to look for in a leader.

Children are affected emotionally by political outcomes. As a result, teachers need to be sensitive to children's emotional feelings during political campaigns and elections in order to support children who may be negatively affected. Teachers should be empowered to offer psychosocial support to children who may be sad, crying or quiet and lonely. They should also help bring order in the school if there are children who are celebrating and shouting in the school, affecting the feelings of others.

Head-teachers in schools should assess and regulate the motive of politicians who seek to visit their schools. The politician's visits to schools should not interfere with children's academic programs. The politicians should not be allowed to give speeches that are divisive and promote negative interpersonal relationships.

Finally, schools should help children to participate in political activities relevant to their age. They should avoid using children to sing or recite poems during forums where politicians are available. Children's participation in political activities should be meaningful based on Hart's ladder of child participation, that is, with the support of adults, children should be able to initiate and lead (Hart 1992, 8) specific activities.

Recommendations for Parents

Parents are primary socializers of children into politics and since early life experiences have implications in later life, parents must be careful how they socialize their children. This study makes the following recommendations for parents.

There is need for parents to be aware of their role in political socialization and provide children with relevant political information. Parents should be careful on the type of political discussions they engage with their children. They need to sieve the political

information being passed to children so as to avoid promotion of tribalism and partisan relationships among children.

Parents should be aware of their function as role models, who children choose to imitate and walk in their footsteps. They should be aware that young children choose their political parties or leaders based on parent's choice. Therefore, their choice of political leaders and parties should be based upon the best interest of the country and values that promote citizenship. Facts should be provided to children as opposed to political propaganda.

Parents should regulate the information children access from print and electronic media. Since children access political information from these sources, parents need to know what children are listening to and reading. In case of any negative propaganda, parents should be able to intervene and provide accurate information about political matters.

During and after political turmoil in the country, parents should offer psychosocial support to their children who may have been emotionally affected by the political outcomes. They should furnish children with the right information on how to manage negative emotions.

Recommendations for Policy Makers

The Department of Children Services (DCS) in Kenya is tasked with the responsibility of handling all the affairs of children. This study that the DCS should ensure that all schools and relevant organisations that work with children have integrated child participation programs and activities. Additionally, they should monitor to ensure

that Kenya Children Assembly (KCA) is fulfilling its mandate in Kenya and specific processes for selecting and voting members of the children's parliament are followed.

The Media Council of Kenya (MCK) is tasked with the responsibility of safeguarding media freedom, enhancing professionalism and arbitrating media disputes. Since majority of the children access information about politics from electronic, print and social media, this study recommends that the MCK should censor the information concerning politics being shared through these channels. There should be regulation against non-partisan information, and airing of violence related information which negatively impacts children.

Recommendations for Religious Institutions

Religious institutions are tasked with empowering their congregants with spiritual nurture and appropriate moral values. This study proposes the following recommendations for religious institutions.

They should promote children's acquisition of non-partisan political information within their premises or in other organised places.

They should promote inclusive relationships among their members and as a result children would be beneficiaries.

Teach children values that are appropriate in helping them cope with challenges that are likely to affect relationships. Additionally, children should be taught values upon which to base when selecting a political leader or party.

Recommendations for Further Research

Research is very critical in for scholarly progress to find out new ideas. This study recommends the following:

1. An in-depth study on children's political awareness and affiliation delving into issues of party symbols, party leaders, party slogans, party manifesto and all politicians in the country since this study was only concerned with political parties and political leaders in Nairobi County.

2. A study seeking to understand how children develop a political ideology.

3. A study on the impact of political results on children's wellbeing.

4. An extensive study on the role of schools, parents, and churches on political affiliation of children

5. This study was done in four schools within Nairobi County and results cannot be generalised to all children in Kenya. Therefore, a nationwide study should be done incorporating children from rural and urban areas so as to establish the trends.

6. This study did not delve deeply into theological and biblical implications of politics and children. Therefore the researcher recommends a study focussed on understanding the best ways of communicating biblical guidelines for making political choices, and developing resources for:

    a. parents and their children to explore together;

    b. the church to use in equipping parents and children;

    c. church leaders to use with children and teens;``

    d. addressing existing tribal divides.

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire for Children

Dear pupil,

My name is Roseline Olumbe, a student at Asia Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary in the Philippines and working at Daystar University in Kenya. I am a PhD student doing research on "Effects of Children's Political Awareness, Affiliation and Participation on Inter-Personal Relationships among 10-13 Year Olds in a Multi-Ethnic Kenya." The purpose of this work is to help me understand how you get to know, associate and participate in politics.

Your answers will be used to write my final examination paper. Any private information in your answers will not be told to anyone and I will make sure I protect you. I would like to assure you that all the information collected will be kept in secret and the findings of this paper will not be used to punish you in any way.

If you agree to help me answer the questions, please raise your hand. I am so happy that you have accepted to help me answer these questions. Please be as honest as possible. Do not write your name anywhere on this paper.

Thank you.

Signed:_____

Mrs. Roseline Olumbe

SECTION A: Personal Information

1. How old are you? …………………………………………………………………..

2. Are you a boy or a girl? …………………………………………………………

3. Name of the School you attend: …………………………………………………

4. In which class are you? …………………………………………………………

5. Where do you live? ……………………………………………………………...

6. Do your parents/guardians work: [ ] Yes   [ ] No

7. What type of work do your parents/guardians do? ……………………………..

8. What is your religion? [Christianity, Islam, Hinduism, None]

9. What is your tribe? ………………………………………………………………

10. Are you a leader in your school? [ ] Yes   [ ] No

11. If yes, how were you chosen to be a leader?

    a) Appointed by the teacher   b) campaigned to be elected

    c) Chosen by my classmates   d) chosen by my schoolmates

12. Do your parents/guardians hold a political position? [ ] Yes   [ ] No

13. Do your parents/guardians participate in political campaigns [ ] Yes   [ ] No

SECTION B: Political Awareness

1. Do you know the political parties listed below? Tick **[✓]** Yes or No

Name of party	Yes ☺	No 🚫
Jubilee Party (JP)		
Orange Democratic Movement (ODM)		
Wiper Democratic Movement –Kenya (WDM K)		
Forum for Restoration of Democracy (FORD Kenya)		
Kenya African National Union (KANU)		
Amani National Congress (ANC)		
Party of National Unity (PNU)		

Chama Cha Mwananchi (CCM)		
Maendeleo Chap Chap Party (MCCP)		
National Agenda Party of Kenya (NAPK)		
Other (Please indicate)		

2. Do you know the following politicians? Tick **[✓]** Yes or No

Name of political leader	Yes ☺	No ☹
Uhuru Kenyatta		
William Ruto		
Raila Odinga		
Daniel Arap Moi		
Emilio Stanley Mwai Kibaki		
Gideon Moi		
Kalonzo Musyoka		
Ann Waiguru		
Moses Wetangula		
Hassan Joho		
Mike Sonko		
Martha Karua		
Charity Ngilu		
Esther Passaris		
Racheal Shebesh		
James Orengo		
Moses Cheboi		
Justin Muturi		
Kipchumba Murkomen		
Kithure Kindiki		
Ken Lusaka		

3. Where do you get information about politics? (Tick **[✓]** where relevant).

Where I get information about politics	Yes ☺	No ☹
Parents		
Teachers at school		
Friends		
Religious leaders (e.g. priest, pastor, Imam)		
Religious teachers in church or Mosque		
Television		
Radio		
Internet		
Posters		

Newspapers		
Political rallies		
Other (please indicate here)		

4. How do you get this information about politics? (Tick **[✓]** where relevant).

Ways I get information about politics	**Yes** ☺	**No** 😣
By observing adults behavior		
By listening to adults talk		
By listening to my friends as we play		
In class while in school		
From talking with my parents or guardians		
By reading books and newspapers		
Listening to radio		
Asking adults questions about politics or politicians		
Other (Please mention)		

SECTION C: Political Affiliation

1. a) Do you have a favorite political party in Kenya? (Please tick **[✓]**) [ ] Yes [ ]

   No

   b) If Yes, please mention your favorite political party.

Name of party	**Tick [✓]**
Jubilee Party (JP)	
Orange Democratic Movement (ODM)	
Wiper Democratic Movement – Kenya (WDM K)	
Forum for Restoration of Democracy (FORD Kenya)	
Kenya National Union (KANU)	
Amani National Congress (ANC)	
Party of National Unity (PNU)	
Chama Cha Mwananchi (CCM)	
Maendeleo Chap Chap Party (MCCP)	
National Agenda Party of Kenya (NAPK)	
Other **(Please indicate)**	

2. a) If I were to vote for a national political leader, I would vote for? Please write

   the name in the space provided. ……………………………………………………

3. The reason I would vote for any political leader is… (Tick **[✓]** all that you agree with)

Reason for voting a leader	Yes 🙂	No 😠
Someone who is concerned about the success of my country		
Someone who likes people		
Someone who gives money to followers		
Someone from my tribe		
Someone who is rich		
Someone who is educated		
A friend to my family		
A relative		
A woman		
A man		
A young person		
An old person		
Other (please indicate)		

SECTION D: Political Participation

1. I have participated in politics through… (Tick [✓] from the sentences below)

My political involvement	Yes 🙂	No 😠
Attending political party meetings on my own		
Attending political meetings with other people		
Listening to politicians who visit my school		
Listening to politicians who visit my place of worship		
Singing a song about a politician/political party during a public meeting		
Reciting a poem about a politician/political party during a public meeting		
Giving a speech about issues that affect children in a public meeting		
Joining a group of political demonstrators		

2. I have participated in politics at home through… (tick as many as you agree)

My political involvement at home	Yes	No
Making contribution during family meetings		
Participating in different leadership activities at home		
Leading a meeting held at home		
Other (Please write down)		

3. I have participated in politics in my school through… (tick as many as apply to you)

My political involvement at school	Yes	No
Campaigning to be a school leader		
Voting for school leaders		
Campaigning to be a member of the Kenya Children Assembly		
Voting for a member of the Kenya Children Assembly		
Talking to others about relating well with others in politics		
Giving a speech during school parade		
Speaking on issues that affect children		
Serving as a leader in the school		
Talking to others about importance of participating in politics		

SECTION E: Interpersonal Relationships among children and Politics

1. Think about your feelings and actions during the 2017 elections in Kenya. Please tick what best describes your feelings and actions about the statements provided on the table below.

Relationships with others	Yes	Not sure	No
I trusted my friends without thinking about their political party			
I was very scared of my friends who supported a different political party			
I helped my friends without thinking of their political party			
I did not care about others feelings and ideas but wanted them to take my ideas			
When my presidential candidate won I felt better than my friends and I told them so			
I was angry with my friends who supported a different political party than mine and I told them so			
I was easily convinced by my friends to support their political parties			
I felt bad that I supported a different political party from my friends			
I was sad because my friend was in a different political party			
I left my friends because my political leader lost and their leader won			

I was able to keep my friends even when we had different political leaders we supported			
I stopped talking to my friends who were from other tribes that won the elections			
I stopped talking to my friends who were from other tribes that lost the elections			

SECTION F: Impact of political outcomes on children

1. The political activities and results in Kenya have affected me in the following

   ways… (Tick **[✓] all** the options that relate to you)

   a) Physical

Effect of political outcomes	Always	Sometimes	Not at all
Our family was displaced			
Some of my family members died through the post-election violence			
Some of my friends died through the post-election violence			
I was injured by the political demonstrators			
Other physical effects **(please write in the space provided)**			

   b) Social

Effect of political outcomes	Always	Sometimes	Not at all
My friends stopped talking to me when my political leader won and theirs lost elections			
I fought others whose political leader won elections			
I did not want to talk about the results when they were announced			
My friends were very proud of their political leader and that made me sad			
I stopped watching television			
Other social effects **(please write in the space provided)**			

c) Emotional

Effect of political outcomes	Always	Sometimes	Not at all
I made a lot of noise			
I talked badly to others			
I blamed others			
I kept quiet			
I felt sad			
I cried			
I felt nothing			
I got scared			
I hated politics			
Other emotional effects (please write in the space provided)			

d) Cognitive

Effect of political outcomes	Always	Sometimes	Not at all
My marks in class subjects dropped			
I missed going to school			
I was not able to concentrate in class when learning			
Other cognitive effects (please write in the space provided)			

e) Spiritual

Effect of political outcomes	Always	Sometimes	Not at all
I stopped praying			
I stopped going to the place of worship (e.g. church or mosque)			
I stopped trusting in God/Allah			
I prayed more for politicians			
I prayed more for my country			
Other spiritual effects (please write in the space provided)			

APPENDIX B

Focus Group Discussion Schedule

Dear pupil,

My name is Roseline Olumbe, a student at Asia Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary in the Philippines and working at Daystar University in Kenya. I am a PhD student doing research on "Effects of Children's Political Awareness, Affiliation and Participation on Inter-Personal Relationships among 10-13 Year Olds in a Multi-Ethnic Kenya." The purpose of this work is to help me understand how you get to know, associate and participate in politics.

Your answers will be used to write my final examination paper. Any private information in your answers will be kept secret and I will make sure I protect you. I would like to assure you that all the information collected will be kept in secret and the findings of this paper will not be used to punish you.

If you agree to help me answer the questions, please raise your hand. I am so happy that you have accepted to help me answer these questions. Please be as honest as possible as you respond to the questions.

Thank you.

Signed:_____

Mrs. Roseline Olumbe

Discussion Questions

Case Scenario 1

Assume that Kenya is preparing for the 2019 presidential elections. You are involved in campaigning for your leaders of choice. All of you in this group are supporting different presidential candidates. On the day of voting each one of you goes to vote for your candidate. You go back home and you are very confident that your presidential candidate will win the elections. After two days, the results are announced and you discover that your presidential candidate has lost the elections and you doubt these results…

1. Share with your group what you feel about these results?

2. What are you going to do about these results?

3. How are you going to handle your friend whose presidential candidate has won the elections?

Case Scenario 2

Assume that Kenya is preparing for the 2019 presidential elections. You are involved in campaigning for your leaders of choice. All of you in this group are supporting different presidential candidates. On the day of voting each one of you goes to vote for your candidate. You go back home and you are very confident that your presidential candidate will win the elections. After two days, the results are announced and you discover that your presidential candidate has won the elections and you do not doubt these results…

1. Share with this group what you feel about these results?

2. What are you going to do about these results?

3. How are you going to handle your friend whose presidential candidate has lost the elections?

Case Scenario 3

One year after Kenya's General elections where the results were doubted, the president and his great opponent greeted each other. Let us observe the following pictures.

1. What are your feelings about President Uhuru Kenyatta greeting Hon. Raila Odinga?

2. How do you feel about the handshake?

3. What do you think other children feel about the handshake?

4. In your opinion, how do politics affect children in Kenya?

APPENDIX C

Pictures for Observation
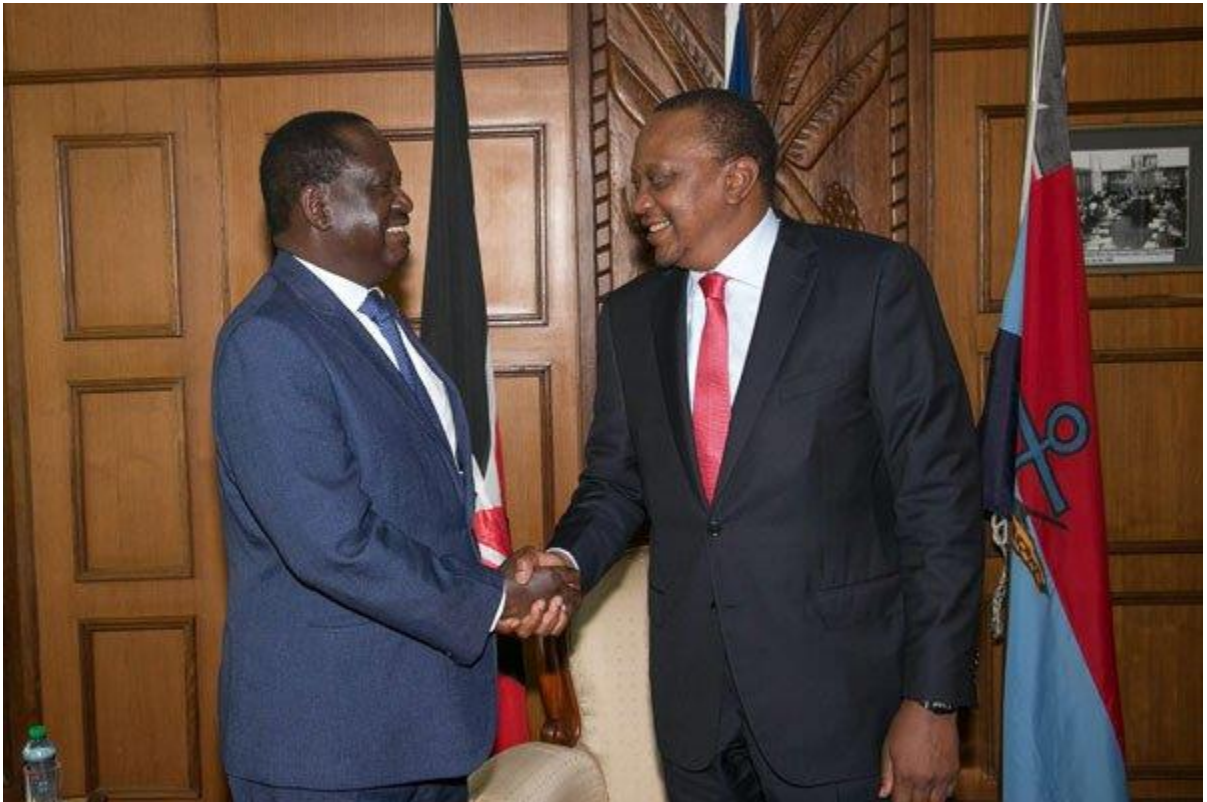
National Super Alliance (NASA) leader Raila Odinga and President Uhuru Kenyatta when they met at Harambee House in Nairobi on March 9, 2018 PHOTO | PSCU

Source (https://www.nation.co.ke/news/politics/Uhuru-Kenyatta-and-Raila-Odinga-handshake/1064-4379964-os1fhtz/index.html)

President Uhuru Kenyatta (centre), Deputy President William Ruto (left) and ODM leader Raila Odinga after Mr Ruto hosted them for lunch at his Karen residence on November 2, 2018. PHOTO | DPPS

Source: https://www.nation.co.ke/news/politics/Raila-assures-Ruto-over-Uhuru-pact/1064-4925392-oi58agz/index.html

APPENDIX D

Key Informant Interview Schedule

1. What knowledge do children in your school have about politics?

2. How do these children get their information about politics?

3. In what ways do children engage in political activities in your school?

4. How are pupils selected into leadership in your school?

5. What patterns of behavior have you observed among children during moments of heated political campaigns in Kenya?

6. How are children's interpersonal relationships affected by politics Kenya?

APPENDIX E

Research Authorization: NACOSTI

**NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,
TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION**

Telephone:+254-20-2213471.
2241349.3310571,2219420
Fax:+254-20-318245,318249
Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke
Website : www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying please quote

NACOSTI, Upper Kabete
Off Waiyaki Way
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref. No. **NACOSTI/P/18/7276/27309**   Date: **11ᵗʰ December, 2018**

Roseline Olumbe
Asia Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary
PHILIPPINES.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on *"Effects of children's political awareness, affiliation and participation on inter-personal relationships among 10-13-year olds in a Multi-Ethnic Kenya"* I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Nairobi County** for the period ending **11ᵗʰ December, 2019.**

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Nairobi County** before embarking on the research project.

Kindly note that, as an applicant who has been licensed under the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 to conduct research in Kenya, you shall deposit **a copy** of the final research report to the Commission within **one year** of completion. The soft copy of the same should be submitted through the Online Research Information System.

**GODFREY P. KALERWA MSc., MBA, MKIM
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO**

Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Nairobi County.

The County Director of Education
Nairobi County.

COUNTY COMMISSIONER
NAIROBI COUNTY
P. O. Box 30124-00100, NBI
TEL: 341666

Approved
13|12|2018

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
MS. ROSELINE OLUMBE
of ASIA PACIFIC NAZARENE
THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY , 782-521
NAIROBI,has been permitted to conduct
research in *Nairobi County*

on the topic: *EFFECTS OF CHILDREN'S*
POLITICAL AWARENESS, AFFILIATION
AND PARTICIPATION ON
INTER-PERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS
AMONG 10-13-YEAR OLDS IN A
MULTI-ETHNIC KENYA

for the period ending:
11th December,2019

Permit No : NACOSTI/P/18/7276/27309
Date Of Issue : 11th December,2018
Fee Recieved :Ksh 2000

....
Applicant's
Signature

....
Director General
National Commission for Science,
Technology & Innovation

**THE SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND
INNOVATION ACT, 2013**

The Grant of Research Licenses is guided by the Science,
Technology and Innovation (Research Licensing) Regulations, 2014.

CONDITIONS

1. The License is valid for the proposed research, location and specified period.
2. The License and any rights thereunder are non-transferable.
3. The Licensee shall inform the County Governor before commencement of the research.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of specimens are subject to further necessary clearance from relevant Government Agencies.
5. The License does not give authority to transfer research materials.
6. NACOSTI may monitor and evaluate the licensed research project.
7. The Licensee shall submit one hard copy and upload a soft copy of their final report within one year of completion of the research.
8. NACOSTI reserves the right to modify the conditions of the License including cancellation without prior notice.

National Commission for Science, Technology and innovation
P.O. Box 30623 - 00100, Nairobi, Kenya
TEL: 020 400 7000, 0713 788787, 0735 404245
Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke, registry@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NACOSTI

**National Commission for Science,
Technology and Innovation**

RESEARCH LICENSE

Serial No.A 22275

CONDITIONS: see back page

APPENDIX F

Ethical Review Board Clearance

Daystar University Ethics Review Board

DAYSTAR
UNIVERSITY
Excellence • Transformation • Servant-Leadership

Athi River Campus
P. O. Box 17 - 90145
Daystar University, Kenya
Tel: 045 6622601 (2) (3)
Fax: 045 6622420
E-mail: admissions@daystar.ac.ke

Nairobi Campus
P. O. Box 44400 - 00100,
Nairobi, Kenya
Tel: 020 2723 002 (3) (4)
Fax: 020 2728338
E-mail: admissions@daystar.ac.ke

www.daystar.ac.ke

Our Ref. DU-ERB/10/01/ 2019 /00221

Date: 11-01-2019

Roseline Shimuli Olumbe

Dear Roseline,

EFFECTS OF CHILDREN'S POLITICAL AWARENESS, AFFILIATION AND PARTICIPATION ON INTER-PERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS AMONG 10-13YEAR OLDS IN A MULTI-ETHINIC KENYA

Reference is made to your request dated 05-12-2018 for ethical approval of your proposal by Daystar University Ethics Review Board.

We are pleased to inform you that ethical review has been done and approval granted. In line with the research projects policy, you will be required to submit a copy of the final research findings to the Board for records.

This approval is valid for a year from 11-01-2019

This approval does not exempt you from obtaining a research permit from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI).

Yours sincerely,

Mrs. Purity Kiambi,
Secretary, Daystar University Ethics Review Board

"...until the day dawn and the *daystar*
arise in your hearts"
2 Peter 1.19 KJV

APPENDIX G

Regional Education County Commissioner Clearance

Republic of Kenya
MINISTY OF EDUCATION
STATE DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION

Telegrams: "SCHOOLING", Nairobi
Telephone; Nairobi 020 2453699
Email: rcenairobi@gmail.com
cdenairobi@gmail.com

When replying please quote

Ref: RCE/NRB/GEN/VOL.1

REGIONAL COORDINATOR OF EDUCATION
NAIROBI REGION
NYAYO HOUSE
P.O. Box 74629 – 00200
NAIROBI

DATE: 17th December, 2018

Roseline Olumbe
Asia Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary
PHILIPPINES

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

We are in receipt of a letter from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation regarding research authorization in Nairobi County on **"Effects of children Political awareness, affiliation and participation on inter-personal relationship among 10-13 years olds in a Multi-Ethnic Kenya".**

This office has no objection and authority is hereby granted for a period ending 11th December, 2019.

Kindly inform the Sub County Director of Education of the Sub County you intend to visit.
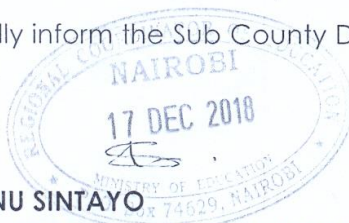
NAIROBI
17 DEC 2018

SHINU SINTAYO
FOR: REGIONAL COORDINATOR OF EDUCATION
NAIROBI

CC:
        Director Secondary

APPENDIX H

Sub-County Education Office Clearance – Westlands

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Telegrams: '**SCHOOLING**", Westlands

Telephone:

When replying please quote

Our Ref:

SUB-COUNTY EDUCATION OFFICE

WESTLANDS SUB-COUNTY

P.O BOX 13788-00800

NAIROBI.

08th January 2019

THE HEADTEACHERS
PUBLIC PRIMARY SCHOOLS

WESTLANDS SUB-COUNTY

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

The bearer of this Letter: **Rosaline Olumbe, of Asia Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary** has been authorized to carry out research on *"Effects of children political awareness, affiliation and participation on inter-personal relationship among 10-13 years olds in a Multi-Ethnic Kenya."*

Kindly accord her the necessary assistance.

FOR SUB COUNTY DIRECTOR
OF EDUCATION - WESTLANDS

Date:.....

Sign:.....

PHILLIP CHIRCHIR
SUB-COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
WESTLANDS

APPENDIX I

Sub-County Education Office Clearance - Kibra

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

State Department of Basic Education and Early Years Education

TELEGRAMS: "SCHOOLING", Nairobi
Telephone:
Email: educationkibra2017@gmail.com

SUB-COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
KIBRA SUB COUNTY.
P.O BOX 74629 NAIROBI.

TO ALL THE HEADTEACHERS

17/01/2019

KIBRA SUB COUNTY

DEAR SIR/MADAM

RE: **RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION**

We are in receipt of your letter from the Regional Coordinator of Education, Nairobi County regarding research authorization in Nairobi County on "**Effects of children political awareness, affiliation and participation on interpersonal relationship among 10-13 years old in a Multi-Ethnic Kenya**".

This office has no objection and authority is hereby granted for a period ending 11th December, 2019.

Kindly accord her any necessary assistance that she may require and she should not interfere with the normal learning.

LYDIA MUTEGI

SUB COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION

KIBRA

APPENDIX J

Institutional Data Collection Request Letter

The Head-teacher

…………………………………………………..

…………………………………………………..

…………………………………………………..

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA FROM YOUR SCHOOL

My name is Roseline Olumbe, a student at Asia Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary in the Philippines and working at Daystar University in Kenya. I am a PhD candidate conducting a study on "*Effects of Children's Political Awareness, Affiliation and Participation on Inter-Personal Relationships among 10-13 Year Old in a Multi-Ethnic Kenya."* The purpose of this study is to help me understand how children in Kenya become aware, affiliate and participate in politics. Moreover, I seek to establish how these factors affect children's interpersonal relationships.
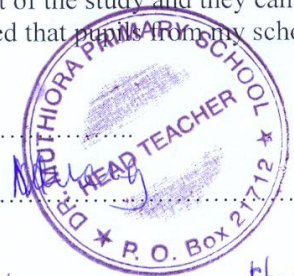
I believe that this study is very significant in helping Kenyans understand how children become politically aware from very early years. This study will also help to establish if children's political affiliations interfere negatively on their relationships with one another. Finally the findings of this study are likely to be helpful in addressing the need to establish a road map of intervention towards a united Kenya.

The findings of this study are primarily for academic purposes and in no way meant to be used to victimize or incriminate your school. I will endeavor to share the findings with you and publish the work in an academic journal. Any private information in this data that is sensitive and private will be held confidential and all the children will be well protected.

If you agree to allow children from your school to participate in this study, kindly read and sign the consent form attached to this letter. Your support is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely Yours

Mrs. Roseline Olumbe

APPENDIX K

Informed Consent Forms

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

STUDY TITLE: Effects of Children's Political Awareness, Affiliation and Participation on Inter-Personal Relationships among 10-13 Year Old in a Multi-Ethnic Kenya

STUDY LOCATION: Nairobi

PURPOSE OF STUDY: The purpose of this study is to help the researcher understand how children in Kenya become aware, affiliate and participate in politics. Moreover, the researcher seeks to establish how these factors affect children's interpersonal relationships.

DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH STUDY: The researcher and research assistants will guide the children in filling questionnaires, and also responding to interview questions, which will help them to explain the research findings. Some of the conversations will be tape recorded, so that he research team does not miss out some of the important things that will be said. The form used to collect information will not have the name of the children but will each participant will be assigned a number that cannot be traced back to the person who responded. The data collected will be secured through an online platform and computer systems that are protected with passwords.
Participation in this study is voluntary and children are free to terminate their responses to questionnaires or Focus group discussions at any time.

RISK/BENEFITS: There is no risk of participation in this study. Children will not be expected to give their names to the person collecting data. The benefits of this study are that the findings will help Kenyans understand how children become aware of politics. Children will benefit from intervention programs that support harmonious and tolerant relationships.

CONFIDENTIALITY: No personal identifiers will be taken in the course of this data collection process. Children's participation will remain anonymous.

CONTACT INFORMATION: If you have any questions now or in future regarding this study, kindly ask Roseline Olumbe, PhD, Student APNTS, Philippines and Lecturer Daystar University on 07221675779.

DECLARATION OF CONSENT: I have understood the content of this consent form; the details of the study and the basis of the pupils' participation. I also understand that the pupils are free to choose to be part of the study and they can withdraw their participation at any time. I have therefore agreed that pupils from my school participate in this study without any coercion whatsoever.

School Ref. No.: ....

Signature (Head teacher)..Date 15/1/2019

Name of person obtaining
consent CYRILLA HEYI................Signature Heyi.............. Date 10/1/2019

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

STUDY TITLE: Effects of Children's Political Awareness, Affiliation and Participation on Inter-Personal Relationships among 10-13 Year Old in a Multi-Ethnic Kenya

STUDY LOCATION: Nairobi

PURPOSE OF STUDY: The purpose of this study is to help the researcher understand how children in Kenya become aware, affiliate and participate in politics. Moreover, the researcher seeks to establish how these factors affect children's interpersonal relationships.

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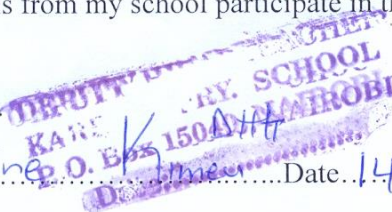
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School Ref. No.: ....

Signature (Head teacher)...Pauline........................Date.14/01/2019.

Name of person obtaining consent ...Hannah Blamsus....Signature ...Hidam.......Date.14/01/2019

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

STUDY TITLE: Effects of Children's Political Awareness, Affiliation and Participation on Inter-Personal Relationships among 10-13 Year Old in a Multi-Ethnic Kenya

STUDY LOCATION: Nairobi

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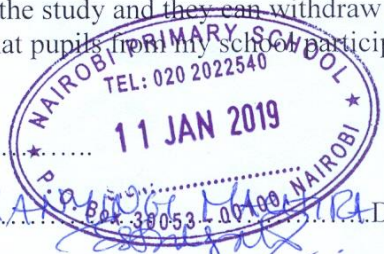
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School Ref. No.: ………………………

Signature (Head teacher)…KA…………………………Date…11/1/2019…;

Name of person obtaining
consent ……Hannah Wamsya……Signature…HWdanu……… Date…11/1/2019

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

STUDY TITLE: Effects of Children's Political Awareness, Affiliation and Participation on Inter-Personal Relationships among 10-13 Year Old in a Multi-Ethnic Kenya

STUDY LOCATION: Nairobi

PURPOSE OF STUDY: The purpose of this study is to help the researcher understand how children in Kenya become aware, affiliate and participate in politics. Moreover, the researcher seeks to establish how these factors affect children's interpersonal relationships.

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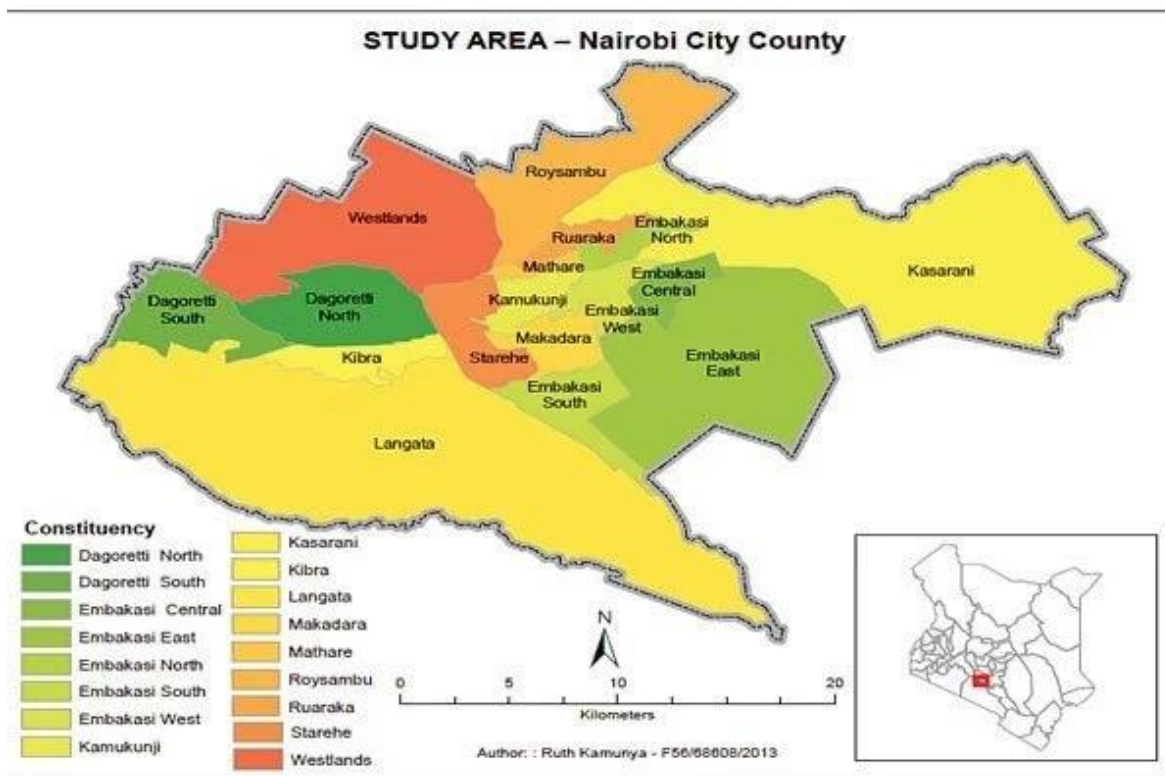School Ref. No.: OPS/10/04/19

Signature (Head teacher) Aldongo .... Date 10/01/2019

Name of person obtaining
consent .... CYRILLA HEYI .... Signature Cyrilla Heyi .... Date 10/01/2019
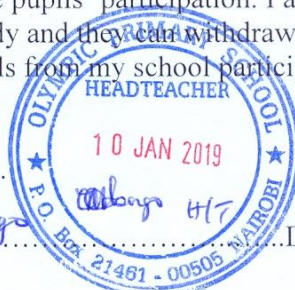
APPENDIX L

Map of Nairobi County

Source: (Kamunya 2013)

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CURRICULUM VITAE

ROSELINE SHIMULI K. OLUMBE

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PERSONAL DETAILS

Date of Birth:	1ˢᵗ September 1974
Nationality:	Kenyan
Gender:	Female
Marital Status:	Married
Languages:	English, Kiswahili and Luhya

PERSONAL PROFILE

I am Holistic Child development expert and trainer keenly interested in education and children,   family and community issues. I have excellent teaching, workshop facilitation, curriculum development, research, report writing, management and communication skills with experience in office procedures. I am a team player who is multi-talented and committed to accomplish assigned tasks with minimum supervision. My training enables me to enhance integrative learning for students and also develop a student holistically. Having facilitated several workshops, I have admirable training and facilitation skills.

KEY COMPETENCIES

a) Overall
- Child Development (with an emphasis Holistic Child Development and Child Protection)
- Research (both at school and community level)
- Curriculum Development and Evaluation (including Child Development, Child protection, Psychosocial support among others).
- Reviewer (Early Childhood Research Quarterly Journal)
- Reviewer (Child Abuse and Neglect: The International Journal)

- Competency Based Curriculum Developer and Reviewer (Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development)
- Trainer and workshop facilitator

b) Teaching competencies
- Taught at university level for over 14 years (certificate, diploma, undergraduate and postgraduate students)
- Supervision of students' thesis and projects

c) Leadership competencies
- Team player and Team leadership
- Budgeting and management of funds
- Staff and team motivation
- Staff and team empowerment

d) Advocacy competencies
- Training in Human rights and advocacy skills
- Advocacy for children Rights issues at school, church and community levels
- Trained on human trafficking and protective skills against traffickers (Phillippines)
- Development of child-friendly child-care centres
- Co- developed the National Guidelines on the Psychosocial Support for OVCs in Kenya

e) Organizational competencies
- Convener of very successful international conferences on the "Best Interest of the Child" (2016) and "Child Protection" (2018)
- Staff board meetings
- Volunteers planning meetings
- Workshop and conferences

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

August 2015 – to Date: Daystar University
Coordinator, Institute of Child Development
- Managing the affairs of the Child Development department including supervision of the lecturers, developing and reviewing curricula, coordinating examination setting, processing and grade moderation, supervising student's thesis and allocating relevant supervisors for students, preparing and monitoring the budget and ensuring that quality teaching and learning takes place, teaching at least 6 hours a semester, advising and mentoring students, preparing reports for School board and Senate.

Jan 2014 – to Date: Daystar University
Lecturer, Institute of Child Development
- Teaching courses in MA – Child Development as assigned, Thesis coordinator for

the Institute of Child Development, mentoring and advising students, Supervisor and Reader for students' thesis, and Participating in development of new programs in the department

Jan 2008 – to December 2013: Daystar University
                        Coordinator, Pre-University
- Managing the affairs of the Pre-University department including supervision of the lecturers, developing and reviewing curricula, coordinating examination setting, processing and grade moderation, preparing and monitoring the budget and ensuring that quality teaching and learning takes place, teaching at least 6 hours a semester, advising and mentoring students, preparing reports for School board and Senate.
- Teaching pre-university, undergraduate and postgraduate courses. The courses include Old Testament Survey and Christian Religious Education (Pre-university), Teaching Methods – Bible (Undergraduate), Role of the Church in Child Development and Evangelism and Discipleship for children (Masters).

Aug 2006 – Dec 2007:   Daystar University
Academic Advisor, Pre-University
- Advising students in academic matters to help them improve in their performance.
- Counselling students with both academic and personal struggles.

Aug 2004 – Dec 2007:   Daystar University
Part-Time Lecturer
- Currently teaching Christian Religious Education and Old Testament Survey. I have also taught New Testament Survey, and trained on Guidance and Counselling for Pre-University.

May 2006 – April 2008:   Carlile College, Church Army
Part-Time Lecturer
- Taught various courses – Leadership in Youth Ministry, Theology of Youth Ministry, Principles of Christian Counselling, and Psychology and Culture of Youth.

Jan – April 2005:   Kabarak University
Part-Time Lecturer
- Taught Old Testament Survey and New Testament Survey.

Sep 2002 - Mar 2004:   Karen Community Church
Graduate Intern
- Church Admin Assistant – accountant, administrator, and secretary.
- Counselling – helped establish the church's Counselling Ministry, developed curriculum for training lay counsellors, trained lay counsellors, and counselled church members.
- In charge of the church's undergraduate Internship programme, Small Groups programme, and training needs of the church.
- Developed and reviewed various church policy papers – Marriage, Divorce and Remarriage, Theological Education, and Communication and Conflict Resolution.

1999 – 2000:   **St. John Ambulance (Kakamega)**
   First Aid Trainer
- Trained various groups (from churches and companies) on basic First Aid.
- Served as the Marketing Officer in schools and other organisations in and around Kakamega.

1997 – 1998:   **Fellowship of Christian Unions (FOCUS)**
   Student Worker (Chepkoilel Campus and Town Campus – Moi University)
- Mentored key students – meeting and spending quality time with them discussing various issues such as academics, economic, social, spiritual and family background.
- Counselled students – boy-girl relationships, broken engagements, peer pressure, career choices, financial struggles, academic problems and difficult family backgrounds.
- Assessed the students' leadership training needs then planned and facilitated several leadership training sessions to address the needs.
- Participatory evaluation of leadership performance of the students with a view to improving their leadership skills and the effectiveness of the Christian Unions.

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

May 2011 – to date:	PhD Candidate in Holistic Child Development (PhD HCD) *Asia Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary (APNTS), Philippines*
2000 – 2002:	Master of Arts in Christian Education (MACE) *Nairobi Evangelical Graduate School of Theology (NEGST), Kenya* Graduate Teacher Diploma *Evangelical Training Association (granted by NEGST)* [MA Thesis: *Factors Affecting the Response of Christian Students Towards HIV/AIDS Epidemic in Selected Kenyan Public Universities*]
1998 – 1999:	Certificate in Biblical and Cross-Cultural Studies *All Nations Christian College, England*
1993 – 1997:	B.Ed. (Hons), Arts – English and Literature *Moi University, Kenya*
1991:	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) *Misikhu Friends School, Kenya*

LEADERSHIP EXPERIENCE

2015 – To date:	Coordinator, Institute of Child Development, Daystar University.
2013 – To date:	Advisor, Child Development Association (CDA)
2011 – To date:	Sunday School teacher and Sunday School curriculum committee member at Karen Community Church
2008 to 2013:	Coordinator, Pre-University program, Daystar University
2012 to 2013:	Children's Ministry leader – Karen Community Church

2007 to 2011:	Member, Board of Trustees – *Kipepeo Designs Trust* (A Christian women empowerment programme in Kibera slums, Nairobi, Kenya)
2004 to 2010:	Treasurer – *NEGST Alumni Association*
1998:	Worship and Christian Ministries Representative, Students' Governing Committee – *All Nations Christian College (UK)*
1996 – 1997:	Vice-Secretary, Eldoret Region Students Executive Committee – *FOCUS*
1995 – 1997:	Secretary and Vice-Secretary, Christian Union – *Moi University Main Campus*
1994 – 1995:	Committee Member, National Executive Council (NEC) – *Western Outreach Evangelistic Team (WESO)*
1989 – 1990:	Treasurer, Christian Union – *Lugari Secondary School*
1988 – 1989:	Vice-Chairperson, 4K Club – *Lugari Secondary School*

SKILLS

Curriculum Development

a) Developed an academic Certificate in Child Protection for Daystar University (2018) (currently being offered to SOS, CV, Kenya Mothers).

b) Christian Religious Education (CRE) Panel member at Kenya Institute of Curriculum Studies (KICD) for Competency Based Curriculum (Grade 4 to 6) being rolled out in Kenya (2018)

c) Co-developer BA in Child Development curriculum for Daystar University (to be approved)

d) Developed a curriculum for Women Ministry at ALARM (not published but in use)

e) Co-authored a one year (2012) curriculum for use by children in the church context;

f) Leader and convener of children's curriculum for my church every year since 2012.

g) Developed distance Learning materials for students at Carlie College on Principles for Christian Counselling; Counselling and Drug Abuse; and Counselling and Conflict Resolution. (2007).

Research

a) Principal Investigator on "An assessment of the capacity of chiefs and assistant chiefs on implementation of policies and laws that protect children from various forms of violence in Kenya (commencing fieldwork in September, 2018)

b) Enhancing Child Participation through Kenya Children Assembly: Milestones and Drawbacks (ongoing)

c) Online Risks of Abuse Against Children in Rural Parts of Kenya: Intervention Strategies for Effective Protection

d) Principal Investigator on "Investigating Factors Promoting Resilience Among Institutionalised Children In Selected Shelters In Lower Kabete And Dagoretti Sub-Counties, Kenya" (2017)

e) Co-Investigator on "Holistic Development of Children in Institutionalised Care: A Case Study of Selected Children Homes in Machakos and Makueni" (since 2016)

f) Principal Investigator on Determining the Psychological wellbeing of children who witnessed Terror attack in Nairobi County – Kenya (2016)

g) An Investigation of the Risky Behaviours University Students Indulge while Living Off-Campus and its Effect on their Lives: A Case Study of Daystar University – Athi River Campus" (2015)

h) Child Protection Policy Mapping Landscape in Kenya (2015)

i) Co-Investigator on "*Socio-cultural Practices and their Effects on the Psychosocial Development of Children: A study of Selected Primary Schools in Rachuonyo District, Homabay County (2014)*

j) The Spiritual State of Children in Selected Churches in Lang'ata Constituency, Nairobi, Kenya 9october, 2011)

k) Effects of Mentoring and Inculcating Life Skills to University Students: A Case Study of Daystar University (2011)

l) Investigating Appropriate Methods for Facilitating Learning for African Adult Learners: A Case Study of Daystar University (2009).

m) Factors Affecting the Response of Christian Students towards HIV/AIDS in Selected Kenyan Public Universities (MA Thesis: 2002)

Conferences

a) Steering Committee member (International Child Protection Conference hosted at Daystar University – August 2018)

b) Presented paper on "Risks, Vulnerabilities and Violations: A Call to Child Protection" during International Child Protection Conference in Africa at Daystar University, Kenya (August, 2018)

c) Presented paper titled "Online Risks of Abuse Against Children in Rural Parts of Kenya: Intervention Strategies for Effective Protection" in Mangochi, Malawi (October, 2017).

d) Presented a paper titled "Resilience Promoting Factors among Vulnerable Juveniles in Charitable Children Institutions in Dagoretti and Lower Kabete Sub-Counties in Nairobi, Kenya" in Pathways to Resilience IV: Global South Perspectives in Cape Town, South Africa (June, 2017).

e) Presented a paper titled "Adolescent Girls' Participation Towards Ending Child Marriage" during the ISPCAN International Conference in Calgary, Canada (August 2016).

f) Co-authored and Presented paper titled "The Advancement of Justice for Institutionalised Children with Disabilities in Remand Homes (August, 2016).

g) Steering Committee member (International Conference on the Best Interest of the Child in the Justice System hosted at Daystar University – August 2016)

h) Presented preliminary findings of the research on Psychological wellbeing of children after Terror attack in Nairobi County in ANPPCAN International conference at Intercontinental Hotel, Nairobi (February 2016).

i) Presented a paper on "*Spirituality as a foundation for Resilience among children from low income communities*" in Pathways to Resilience

Conference III in Canada (June 2015)

j) Attended 4-14 Global Summit in New York, (October 2014)
k) Presented a paper titled "Understanding Aspects of the African Culture and their Effects on the Child's Faith" in an International conference at Sarova Panafric, Kenya (November 2011).
l) Presented a paper during 4-14 Global Summit, Kenya on "Role of Theological Seminaries in Mobilization of Resources" at Kenya High (August 2011).
m) Attended 4-14 Global Summit in Singapore (September 2011)Presented paper on "Mentoring and Inculcating Life Skills in University Curriculum" in an international conference at Kenyatta University, Kenya (July 2011).
n) Presented a paper titled "Appropriate Methods for Adult Learners" in SOTL conference, at Eastern Michigan University, U.S.A (May 2009).

Workshops and Professional Trainings

a) Child Resilience Theraplay, 2017 (Daystar University).
b) Executive Communication (2017)
c) Child focused Art and Play Therapy, 2016. (Daystar University, Kenya)
d) Monitoring and Evaluation from Child Rights Lens, November, 2015 (African Institute of Children Studies, Kenya)
e) Data Analysis and Referencing Softwares (2014).
f) Disaster Management and Response, 2011. (APNTS, Philippines)
g) Risk Assessment, Daystar University, 2010

Publications

Department of Children Services (2016). *National Psychosocial Support Guidelines for Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Kenya* (Popular Version). Nairobi, Kenya

Oladipo, R., Esther, H. M., Manya, S., Nzyuko, S., Olumbe, R., Mogute-Nyangera, M., and Mutunga, D. (Eds.). (2015). *A Modern Approach to Positive and Responsive Parenting*. Nairobi, Kenya: Daystar University.

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Olumbe, R., and Kiarie-Makara, M. (2011). Effects of Mentoring and Inculcating Life Skills to University Students: A Case Study of Daystar University, Pre-University …. In Bwire, A., Huang, Y., Masingila, J.O., and Ayot, H. *International Conference on Education Proceedings* (Pp. 782–796). Nairobi, Kenya: Kenyatta University and Syracuse University. Retrieved From Https://Www.Academia.Edu/6993034/Effects_Of_Mentoring_And_Inculcating_Life_Skills_To_University_Students_A_Case_Study_Of_Daystar_University_Pre-University

Olumbe, R. et. al, (2007). Course Book for Chaplaincy Studies Term Four. THE 231: Principles of Christian Counselling: Nairobi, Kenya.

Olumbe, R. et. al, (2007). Course Book for Chaplaincy Studies Term Four. THE 232: Counselling and Drug Abuse: Nairobi, Kenya.

Olumbe, R. et. al, (2007). Course Book for Chaplaincy Studies Term Four. THE 233: Counselling and Conflict Resolution: Nairobi, Kenya.

Olumbe et. al. (n.d) *Life Skills Education for Secondary Schools.* East African Educational Publishers: Nairobi. (Yet to be Published).

Counselling: Christian Counselling training from All Nations Christian College and NEGST. I have been involved in visiting people living with HIV/AIDS, training people to become lay counsellors and counselling people with various needs. Counselling students and church members.

Computer: Proficient in word-processing (MS Word), spreadsheets (MS Excel), desktop publishing (Page Maker), PowerPoint, email and internet.

Driving: Holder of a clean Class E Kenyan driving license.

Associations
1. Member, Evangelical Training Association (ETA)
2. Member, Society for Research in Child Development (SRCD)
3. Standard member, International Society for the Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect (ISPCAN)
4. Member, African Studies Women's Caucus (ASA)
5. Member, The Australia Sociological Association (TASA)

Hobbies: Writing, travelling, reading and hospitality

REFEREES

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