

**THE ROLE OF SOCIAL CAPITAL IN ENHANCEMENT OF SOCIO-  
ECONOMIC LIVELIHOODS: A CASE OF ELGEYO MARAKWET  
COUNTY, KENYA**

**BY**

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**2024**

**DECLARATION**

**Declaration by Candidate**

This thesis is my original work and to the best of my knowledge has not been presented for examination in any other institution or university.

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## **DEDICATION**

I would like to dedicate this study to the Almighty God, my beloved family, my late dad, my mom, my siblings and not forgetting my friends who have been there for me throughout this academic journey. To all my professors who taught me in the entire process from the time I was doing my coursework to the last stage of defense of my thesis.

I would also like to dedicate this project to my fellow students who supported me and challenged me not to give up but to work smart to achieve my goal.

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## ABSTRACT

Socio economic livelihood is a function of various factors that work interchangeably to influence social relationships. This study was carried out in Keiyo North, Keiyo south, Marakwet West, and Marakwet East sought to examine the role of social capital in enhancing socio economic livelihoods. The specific objectives of the study were; to examine determinants of social capital; to find out components of social capital integration; and to evaluate the effects of social capital integration on people's socio economic livelihood. The study adopted simultaneous triangulation of descriptive and inferential studies; it was guided by social capital theory and Sustainable Livelihood Framework which emphasized the importance of the livelihood resources of social, physical, economic and natural resources. Concurrent mixed method research design was used to facilitate expanded evidence of data and its analysis. Data was collected by use of structured questionnaires, interview schedules and Focus Group Discussion and sample of 384 from the target population of 454,480 was picked using stratified probability sampling technique. Descriptive statistical technique was utilized in analysis of quantitative data, while qualitative aspect were thematically transcribed and interpreted. The study main findings were: For objective one, most households own less than 3 hectares of land; hence the households have a motivation to look for alternative means of generating resources for enhanced socio-economic livelihoods. For the second objective residents of EMC are members of various groups with majority being members of religious groups, women groups and neighboring committees; these networks assist members to deal with common issues including road repair, digging boreholes, ensuring community security and better management of common shared resources. As for the third objective the results indicated that mixed positive and negative effects emerged from social capital integration initiatives. Some negative effects included misuse of pooled resources, failure to repay loans leading to disassociation and loss of trust. The study concluded that social capital enhanced security through *nyumba kumi* initiative, conservation of natural resources; forest swamps areas, better education, improved food security, resource management (climate change, erosion control) and reduced vulnerability. The study recommended the need to intensify the implementation of policies that support the operations of groups and subsequently giving them force through structured frameworks and consequent stakeholder involvement. This would strengthen social capital integration which would in turn have a positive influence on socio economic livelihoods.

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**ABBREVIATION AND ACRONYMS**

**AFDB** : Africa Development Bank

**CBOs** : Community Based Organizations

**CIDP** : County Integrated Development Plan

**FBOs** : Faith Based Organizations

**MDGs** : Millennium Development Goals

**NEMA** : National Environmental Management Authority

**NGO** : Non- Governmental Organization.

**PRSP** : Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper

**SGDs** : Sustainable Development Goals

**UNDP** : United Nations Development Program

**UNEP** : United Nations Environment Program

**WCED** : World Commission on Environment and Development

**OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS**

- Economic-** Gainful and fruitful rewarding in terms of better mutual benefits
- Enhancing -** Provision of social and financial amenities that enables people live a dignified lives
- Livelihood -** Household income, assets, employment opportunities and food security
- Social capital -** Collective action that facilitates the coordination and cooperation of People for mutual benefit and enhanced living
- Social-** What relates to society or organization in terms of improving lives?

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Overview**

This chapter presents the framework from which the study is based. It seeks to bring to discussion, the concept of social capital and social economic livelihoods among households in Elgeyo Marakwet County (EMC). In essence, this chapter's coverage include: the background of the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, and questions, justification of the study, significance of the study, scope of the study and limitation of the study.

#### **1.2 Background of the Study**

Social capital theory contends that social relationships are resources that can lead to the development and accumulation of human capital. In evolutionary terms, social capital can be defined as any feature of a social relationship that yields reproductive benefits (Machalek & Martin, 2015). Social capital (Schuller & Theisens, 2010) as a concept is often defined specifically in terms of networks, stressing the norm-laden nature of relationships within and between them. Bourdieu (1986) as an aggregate of actual and potential resources linked to membership in a group or as a stock of trust and emotional attachment to a group (Coleman, 1988). It has also been referred to as a tacit knowledge, a collection of networks, an aggregation of reputations, and an organizational capital (Stiglitz, 1999). According to Woolcock (1998), a common differentiation of types of social capital is into three basic forms:

- i. bonding social capital, which refers to relations within or between relatively homogenous groups;
- ii. bridging social capital, which refers to relationships within or between relatively homogenous groups; and



- iii. Linking social capital, which refers to relationships between people or groups at different hierarchical levels

According to Savage and Kanazawa (2002), humans have evolved preferences for companionship in general and specific preferences for cues that signal higher levels of social capital. In spite of their different focus of analysis, all authors agree on qualifying social capital as the basic prerequisite for the well-functioning of collective actions and social cooperation, strengthening connectedness among people, and favoring the emergence of a wide variety of social relations (van Schaik, 2002).

Females can be expected to value and derive emotional satisfaction from membership in small social networks comprising close personal relationships constructed from strong social ties. These types of relationships would be especially adaptive for women by providing assistance in foraging and caring for children. Males would be expected to benefit more from membership in larger social networks constructed from weak ties that would constitute hunting groups, political alliances, and fighting parties. Males would benefit especially from forms of social capital that would confer resources and social status. Further to this they (2004) opine that, social capital is any feature of a social relationship that, directly or indirectly, confers reproductive benefits to a participant in that relationship. This definition grounds the construct of social capital in human nature by providing a basis for inferring the underlying motivations that humans may have in common, rather than leaving the matter of what humans use capital for unspoken.

Furthermore, Requena (2003) suggested that the importance of social capital lies in that it brings together several important sociological concepts such as social support, integration and social cohesion. This view is supported by Rothstein (2003) who stated that the real strength of social capital is the combination of macro-sociological

historical structures with micro-level causal mechanisms, which gives a rare feature in development. The above literature recognizes social capital as important to the efficient functioning of modern economies, and stable liberal democracy (Fukuyama, 2001; Kenworthy, 1997), as an important base for cooperation across sector and power differences, and an important product of such cooperation (Brown and Ashman, 1996), and Lyon (2000) described the importance of social capital in shaping regional development patterns. It is clear that social capital is of importance in societal wellbeing. Some aspects of the concept, such as inter-personal trust, are clearly desirable in themselves while other aspects are more instrumental (Bankston and Zhou 2002). Optimism, satisfaction with life, perceptions of government institutions and political involvement all stem from the fundamental dimensions of social capital (Narayan and Cassidy 2001).

Social capital integration (Miković, et. al., 2020) has been popularly used in International Development (ID) parlance. As with other organizations delivering projects, ID NGOs seem to be failing many stakeholders due to poor delivery of results. Lack, and mismanagement, of social links and knowledge resources have been identified as the biggest challenges of ID NGOs in reaching vulnerable beneficiary populations. The use of ID NGOs' social capital and knowledge management systems has been adopted as an integrated model to optimize ID NGO project management through social resources embedded into organizational structures.

In the contemporary world, a sustainable livelihood is crucial in order to withstand unforeseen shocks or disaster as well as to recoup from the same in a better way should they arise. The importance of social capital in explaining economic and social phenomena is exceedingly underscored in eclectic literature. The focus of development efforts has evolved from the building up of simple physical (financial

resources and infrastructure) and human (education and technology transfer) capital to the creation of social capital (organizational/institutional development and trust/networks/norms among people). Social capital is a key but hidden factor that can make a critical difference in productivity and subsequent poverty alleviation (Munakata, 2020). Moreover, the sustainable livelihoods approach facilitates the identification of practical priorities for actions that are based on the views and interests of those concerned but they are not a panacea. It does not replace other tools, such as participatory development, sector-wide approaches, or integrated rural development. However, it makes the connection between people and the overall enabling environment that influences the outcomes of livelihood strategies. It brings attention to bear on the inherent potential of people in terms of their skills, social networks, and access to physical and financial resources, and ability to influence core institutions

Globally, there is a general intuitive sense that links strengthens communities and, specifically, that it is a necessary ingredient for socio-economic development at community level (Dale & Newman 2010). Muller and Coetzee (2012) opine that socio-economic development is essentially a political concept and challenge, and cannot be separated from the political realm or from the state-society arrangements. Further, they argue that this concept can be regarded as the connective tissue in society, emanating from trust and fostered through networks, civic engagement and participation. Society cannot communicate its needs and priorities, and the state cannot respond appropriately without the links between state and society- the social capital concept.

In trying to link social capital to livelihood dynamics, there are various and most famous, and most contested paradigms taken by scholars; the one offered by Putnam

(1993) who links the two variables as: “features of social organization, such as trust, norms, and networks that can improve the efficiency of society by facilitating coordinated actions towards achieving a certain set objective” (Akram and Routray, 2013, p. 761). According to Liu (2017), the whole notion of idea is centered on social relationships and its major elements include social networks, civic engagement, norms of reciprocity, and generalized trust. He further opines that this idea is a complex multidimensional concept having different dimensions, types, and levels of measurement meant to allievate a social- economic, and a political goal. Samsudin and Kamaruddin (2013) stated that social assets involve interactions between households’ members or individuals and the social system, social networks, political parties’ as well local or international based associations.

Generally, As Putnam and Homan’s definitions illustrate, there are different ways to apply the concept. These levels include micro, messo, and macro social capital (Akram and Routray, 2013). It can be measured within the individual, a small group such as a family unit or within an organization, and within a community such as a neighborhood or town. Additionally, social capital has three subcomponents: bonded, bridged, and linked social capital (Akram and Routray, 2013). Bonded social capital exists when groups with the same values and interests work together to further a cause; bridged applies between more distant groups working together to further a cause; and linking occurs in “relations between different social strata in a hierarchy where power, social status and wealth are accessed by different groups” Narayan, (2000), Akram and Routray, (2013). In this study however, it was categorized into (1) social structure perspective (structural, cognitive and relational. (2) Network Perspectives (Bonding, bridging and linking) and levels (macro, meso and micro. Further, in the study, it was best understood as a means or a process for accessing

various forms of resources and support through networks of social relations that are needed for households to develop sustainable livelihood strategies.

The term livelihood has attracted different definitions from many scholars. A prominent definition of livelihoods was provided by Chambers and Conway (1992) who framed a livelihood as “the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources), and activities for a means of living”. According to Chambers (1995), a livelihood consists of the resources that are used by individuals in undertaking an activity, with the aim of making ends meet or gaining a living. Therefore, all activities involved in finding food, searching for water, shelter, clothing and all necessities required for human survival at individual and household level are referred to as a livelihood. In Africa, 70 % of the household income in rural areas is from farming activities, while in Asia and Latin America, 50 % of the income is from farming activities (Davis *et al.*, 2010). Additionally, a livelihood is the strengths, assets both tangible and intangible and activities needed to make a living (Rakodi, 2014). Social units such as individuals, communities, and households are considered the active agents of their own development (Ulrich *et al.*, 2012). Livelihoods also entails what people do in order to earn an income, including the resources that provide people with capability to build acceptable living, the risk factors that people must consider in managing their resources, and the institutional and policy context that help or hold back people in their pursuit of a viable or improved living (Ellis & Freeman, 2005). On the other hand, a rural livelihood is a ‘means to a living’ for households or individuals in rural areas like Elgeyo Marakwet County whereby the households and individuals’ direct attention to the ways of obtaining a living rather than to the net results in terms of income received (Ellis, 2000).

Social capital is important in improving the livelihoods of rural people directly and indirectly through increase in access to goods and services. Ellis (2000), shows the significance of various asset-types, including social capital in underpinning the livelihood strategies of the individual and household. The access attribute of a livelihood, which includes rules and social relations subsumed under the asset-type, is important in determining the ability of people in the rural areas to own, control, claim, and make use of a resource as well as the ability to participate in and derive benefits from social and public services that are provided by the state such as education, health services, roads, water supplies, and among others.

It can therefore be argued that, in order to achieve socio-economic development and to address the needs in a society, a multi-disciplinary approach must be applied, with due regard for the political, economic and social dimensions of development, links is seen as one of the key initiatives that is needed for attainment of Sustainable Development Goals (Muller and Coetzee, 2012). However, the development strategies adopted by most developing countries have mainly focused on economic growth which does not capture the realization of sustainable development. This can be attributed to the fact that economic developments do not incorporate social capital considerations (Dale & Newman, 2010). Development actors therefore, need to consider how the development initiatives can integrate social capital initiatives to aid in socio-economic development in communities.

In Europe, there has been a marked linkage between social capital and social economic well-being of the society. According to various studies by the following authors; Putnam, 2000, using US data; Helliwell and Barrington-Leigh, 2010, for Canada, Leung et al., 2010, for Canada indicates that the macro-, micro-economic or individual factors have a large positive influence of social capital on general life

satisfaction at an individual level through many different channels and in various forms. They see social capital as one of the “most robust correlates of subjective well-being” (Helliwell and Putnam, 2004, p.1437) and further as “more important than economic differences when explaining life satisfaction differences” (Helliwell and Barrington-Leigh, 2010, p.15).

Other scholars, by contrast, point that social capital only has an indirect influence on social-economic well-being, while focusing primarily on its relationship with health, wealth or economic growth. Helliwell and Putnam (2004), for example, identify a strongly positive effect on physical health which, in turn, increases individually reported life satisfaction. Zak and Knack (2001) consider it a driving force behind increasing economic growth rates and Rodrik (1998) rated social capital as an instrument allowing to better absorb external shocks. Helliwell and Barrington-Leigh (2010) and Winkelmann (2009) have identified it as a predictor of well-being using Canadian and German micro-data respectively. However, the literature using cross-country aggregated data yields results which are far from consistent. On the one hand, Bjørnskov (2003) emphasizes a strong and robust relationship between social capital and happiness. He finds that, especially in northern European countries, high levels of social capital led to economic growth, stability and greater well-being. Similar results are found by Helliwell and Putnam (2004) when evaluating a worldwide dataset and by Helliwell et al. (2009), who report that social context variables explain 73.4% of cross-country variation in subjective well-being. On the other hand, Ram (2010) finds only a fragile connection between social capital and well-being if at all.

In Africa, though social capital is very important for development there is scanty literature on it. However, the available sources indicate low levels of existence of social capital due to high heterogeneity of the population (Winder and Mundt, 1998).

A study done in eastern Uganda in Tororo District shows that social capital was hindered because of the following social characteristics of the residence; co-existence of people from five different ethnic groups whose languages were mutually incompressible, this linguistic difference could not allow people from talking to one another. The second aspect was recentness of settlement as many of them had relocated to the area in the last ten to fifteen years being the victims of political instability in the north. They brought differences born of their uprooting (ibid).

Further, elsewhere in Uganda in the southern districts of Bushenyi and Rukungiri were doing well because of homogeneity of the population, development minded, and favorable economic and political environment that fosters social capital integration (Windle and Mundt, 1998).

In summary, social capital cannot achieve everything, or perhaps anything, on its own. If no economic opportunities exist, social capital will not make much of a difference. However, when social capital is combined with other capitals (natural, physical and human) these can become more efficient (Woolcock, 2002). Hence, when considering socio-economic development alternatives, social capital has to be considered. Both in how social capital can contribute, how it can be reengineered and how it should be considered in development initiatives to link state and society for optimal outcomes. It is against this background that the study examined socio capital and its role in enhancing socio economic livelihoods among the communities in Elgeyo Marakwet County, Kenya.

### **1.2.1 Social Capital Policy in Kenya**

Social capital can best be understood as a means or a process for accessing various forms of resources and support through networks of social relations. Social policy has



placed emphasis on the possible role of social capital as a resource and a process in facilitating achievement of a broad range of major public policy objectives in the following areas; health, education, economy, labor markets, immigration management, poverty reduction, social exclusion, crime prevention and safety, neighborhood revitalization and civic renewal (Government of Canada, 2003).

One of the key objectives of Kenya's public policy since independence in 1963 has been to improve the rural livelihood and welfare of the people as well as to reduce poverty and hunger. This policy objective is reflected well in the country's rural development concept, which has remained focused on the transformation of the rural economy (Republic of Kenya, 1994, 1995). Rural transformation has many positive implications. For example, the rural society would achieve self-sufficiency in food and basic material needs; diversify activities into labor intensive small-scale industries; promote a social system based on principles of social justice; and finally enhance a planning system close to the people based on their perceived needs and requirements. Essentially, rural transformation would stimulate growth of the national economy and ensure sustainable development (Republic of Kenya, 1995; 1994). In the rural context, public policy has focused on four broad strategies. These are strategies for increasing rural incomes, providing basic social services, reducing inequality in the distribution of rural incomes, and reducing imbalances in rural urban incomes and economic opportunities (Republic of Kenya: National Development Plans, various issues).

For the above to be achieved social policy should have an interventionist strategy through which is geared towards enabling the population gain or procure their livelihood-means of survival (Ellius and Freedman, 2005). Which entails influence on the macroeconomics of the economy and on certain aspects of economic

development. On the other hand, positive implementing instruments of socio-economic policy, together with instruments of fiscal, budgetary, social and structural policy, etc., are also instruments that will be of assistance to the government implementing specific political goals, practical socio-economic policy should take into account the principles of pro-social and sustainable development. When this type of policy is supported by the public, the county governments achieve its main political goals. If this type of policy is successfully implemented during an economic recession, during an economic crisis and contributes to a speedy recovery of the economy from the crisis, anti-cyclical socio-economic policy as an important anti-crisis factor, then the catastrophe may be used as an important factor in achieving the political goals of decision-makers planning and implementing specific instruments of the aforementioned socio-economic policy.

This type of planning and implementation of an interventionist, anti-crisis socio-economic policy can be effectively carried out if individual, successive, future phases of the business cycle are accurately diagnosed, including, in particular, the phase of economic growth, enhancement of the economic situation immediately after the phase of a significant decline in economic activity of the majority of the economy, business entities, companies and enterprises operating in various industries and sectors of the economy.

In spite of Kenya's efforts in transforming the rural economy and improving the well-being of the rural people, reducing their poverty and hunger, evidence in the recent past showed a declining trend in the performance of the rural sector. For instance, the number of poor people in Kenya increased from 31 percent [or 3.7 million people] in 1972 to 46 percent [or 11.5 million people] in 1994, 50 percent [or 15.0 million people] in 1997, but fell to 46 percent in 2005/2006 (Republic of Kenya, 2007).

Manda, et al. (2001) estimated that about 34.8 percent of the rural poor live in extreme poverty so much that they cannot meet their food needs even with their entire resources devoted to food.

Grootaert (2001) and Reid and Salmen (2000) argue that the effects of social capital on outcomes have proved to be as or more important than the effects from other assets such as human and physical capital. Social capital can lead to the creation of opportunities for enhancing incomes and other dimensions of wellbeing.

### **1.2.2 Background Information of Elgeyo Marakwet County**

Elgeyo Marakwet County is one of the 47 counties in the Government of Kenya that highly depends on agriculture as the main economic activity with maize, wheat, potato, Irish potatoes and beans being the main crop beside livestock and subsistence farming. The Human Development Index (HDI) estimate for Kenya in 2012 was estimated at 0.520. Of the 47 counties in Kenya, 20 (43%) of them have HDI estimates above the national estimate, while 27 (57%) have measures lower than the national average, indicating a disparity of human development within the country. Counties that fall under Arid and Semi-Arid lands exhibit low HDI values. Kenya's HDI is lower than the global average but higher than Sub-Saharan Africa. Elgeyo Marakwets' HDI stands at 0.53 which is lower than the national HDI of 0.520. This can be partly attributed to the ecological zones of the county with Kerio Valley region recording high poverty index. (County integrated Development plan CIDPII, 2018 – 2022).

Elgeyo Marakwet County covers a total area of 3029.6 km<sup>2</sup> which constitutes 0.4 percent of Kenya's total area. It extends from latitude 0<sup>o</sup> 20' to 1<sup>o</sup> 30' to the North and longitude 35<sup>o</sup> 0' to 35<sup>o</sup> 45' to the East. It borders West Pokot County to the

North, Baringo County to the East, Trans Nzoia County to the Northwest and Uasin Gishu County to the West. The county has an elongated shape and is wedged in between the Uasin Gishu Plateau to the West and the Kerio River to the East. The Kerio River has its source in the southern highlands of the county and drains into Lake Turkana. (Elgeyo Marakwet, CIDPII, 2018)

The land generally has rather steep slopes and this type of topography has made transport network very difficult to establish and this factor alone has created a drawback in provision of development facilities in the affected regions. The topography of this region has influenced the type and scale of economic activities in the region just as in other areas. Farming productivity is high due to high soil productivity and less capital injection towards soil conservation activities.

Despite of its endowment with rich soil and resources the county still lags behind in productivity and competitiveness due to contextual issues inherent in this area that reinforce the low livelihoods status. The theory of livelihoods places emphasis on urgency for maintaining people's possessions including capital assets as a prerequisite for survival (Buckland, 2005). In rural Kenya, as in other rural areas elsewhere, households depend for their livelihoods on five capital assets including natural capital, physical capital, human capital, financial capital, and social capital. Access to all capital types is required for a sustainable livelihood (Heffernan and Misturelli, 2000). It is against this background that the study sought to establish the social capital and its role in enhancing socio economic livelihoods in Elgeyo Marakwet County.

### **1.3 Statement of the Problem**

Peoples' socio-economic livelihood is a function of various factors that work interchangeably. In most cases however, not all factors are used and ignoring one leads to unsustainable livelihoods and projects (Kirori, 2018).

Conventionally, the role of social capital on socio – economic livelihoods can be visualized in access to technology, effective networking for knowledge transfers, social networks and associations, and equitable distribution of incomes across the population. However, according to County integrated Development plan CIDPII, (2018), Elgeyo Marakwet County being a rural county that majorly relies on agriculture as the main economic activity presents a contrary scenario. Although farming has been supported by the government over the years, poverty indices have remained high, with 47 percent living below the poverty line. Similarly, the literacy levels stand at 47.4 percent while the unemployment rate is at 50 percent. Consequently, the economic growth rate of 2.9 percent in the County has remained below the national growth rate of 3.1 percent. Furthermore, the Human Development Index (HDI) is 0.52 which less than the national HDI of 0.53. These indicators point to some potential that needs to be explored so as to ensure improved growth and socio-economic livelihoods and ultimately the realization of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The role of social capital is crucial in social cohesion, sharing knowledge, technology, and pooling resources towards increased and efficient productivity (Government of Canada, 2003). For instance, farmers in the rural community do not only require farming inputs for their socio-economic wellness.

Empirically, most studies (such as Kirori 2018) which have been conducted in Kenya relate to other areas this study focused on Elgeyo Marakwet County because of its

unique contextual factors. Similarly, the study intends to employ a mixed approach which enhances the scope of the findings hence providing more details on the problem being examined (Creswell, 2014).

#### **1.4 Research Objectives**

This study was led by the following general research objective:

##### **1.4.1 General Objective**

The broad objective of the study was to examine social capital and its role in enhancing socio-economic livelihoods in Elgeyo Marakwet County, Kenya

##### **1.4.2 Specific Objectives**

The study was guided by the following specific objectives:

1. To examine determinants of social capital in Elgeyo Marakwet County.
2. To find out components of social capital integration in Elgeyo Marakwet County.
3. To evaluate the influence of social capital integration on people's socio-economic livelihood in Elgeyo Marakwet County.

##### **1.4.3 Research Questions**

The study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What determinants of social capital exist in Elgeyo Marakwet County?
2. What are the components of social capital integration in Elgeyo Marakwet County?
3. How does social capital integration influence peoples' socio-economic livelihoods in Elgeyo Marakwet County?

## **1.5 Scope of the Study**

The scope of this study was divided into the following;

### **1.5.1 Geographical scope**

The study focused on social capital integration and its role in enhancing socio-economic livelihoods in Elgeyo Marakwet County, Kenya. The study was carried out in four selected sub-counties that is, Keiyo North, Keiyo south, Marakwet West and Marakwet East with a total population of 454,480 and 99,861 households. Households who were members of groups, village committees, and co-operative societies were considered together with representatives from the religious organizations, NGOs and sub-country administration. The researcher focused on employment, family income, social support and community safety among households as indicators of socio-economic livelihoods within the selected sub counties.

### **1.5.2 Content scope**

The content scope of this study covered the literature on social capital and livelihood ranging from global level, regional, and local. The primary data collected on the topic are also included.

### **1.5.3 Methodological scope**

The study adopted mixed methodology comprising both qualitative and quantitative approaches. A purposive sampling technique was used to select the study area, questionnaire, observation and an interview schedule were used to collect data, qualitative and quantitative data analysis were utilized.

## **1.6 Limitation of the Study**

Due to limited financial resources and time, the study was limited to households in four sub counties in Keiyo North, Keiyo south, Marakwet East and Marakwet West in

Elgeyo Marakwet County. The households selected were also members of groups or committees and associations. A majority of the respondents', educational background was low and this created some difficulties in administering the questionnaire. To mitigate this shortcoming research assistants were recruited from within the specific sub counties of Elgeyo Marakwet and the wording of the questionnaires was made simple to help find answers to specific research questions.

Secondly, the study area was vast and heterogeneous. To mitigate this challenge, the researcher used research assistants, proportionately distributed the respondents as per population census of 2019 and chose the most appropriate sampling technique. The findings in the study were limited by the extent to which the respondents were honest, careful and without bias in responding to the survey questions. The generalizations made in the study were limited to the population in Elgeyo Marakwet County in the obtained database although a response rate of 90 per cent was above tolerable rates for the study. This helped lower the margin of error when generalizing the results socio-economic livelihood has many dimensions and multiple causality thus the combination of research method (mixed methods) to minimize errors.

### **1.7 Justification of the Study**

A range of social problems including crime, health, poverty and unemployment have been linked empirically to a community's endowment of social capital or lack thereof (Grootaert et al. 2004). A good concern for policy is about the construction of new social capital and decline of old social capital through changes in technology and demography. In justifying the need for social capital integration, it is important to underscore that social capital enhances interconnectivity of people-based approaches in development. This by extension would lead to active participation in solving inter-sectoral problem and their implementation by grass root organizations and



additionally through the support of other development stakeholders. By focusing on socio-economic livelihoods, the issues of enhanced income, reduced vulnerability to disease and poverty, improved food security and more sustainable use of natural resources will cause a transformation on people's development.

The study was conducted in Elgeyo Marakwet County (EMC) which is a rural county where the main economic activity is agriculture. Despite the national and county government initiatives to enhance agricultural production through subsidizing inputs, production has remained low due to inadequate rainfall, banditry, inadequate skills etc. According to the County Integrated Development Plan, CIDPII (2018 – 2022, poverty and illiteracy levels have remained high and growth rates have equally been low compared to the national growth rate.

The area of social capital is still new, complex and not yet well considered. This study attempts to tackle this difficulty and aims at producing a comprehensible documentation of the dynamics of social capital for reference by a range of stakeholders including researchers, scholars and policy makers principally interested in social capital on people's socio-economic livelihoods. It is accepted that the study will increase the understanding of social capital on people's livelihood in rural Kenya as well as add to the formulation of rural policy and socio-economic schedule and to the pains of fighting poverty. Individuals, households or groups in a community use social capital to produce concrete goods and essential services that are negotiable and potentially marketable.

### **1.8 Significance of the Study**

One of the weaknesses in Kenya's rural sector development approach has been its narrow policy focus. For example, over the past decades, the policy for rural

development has emphasized a ‘small farmer’-based agricultural process that ignored other important processes such as agricultural-industrialization, rural entrepreneurial communities, and social capital. The area of social capital is new ground that is complex and not yet well studied. This study attempts to address this challenge and aims at producing a clear documentation of the dynamics of social capital for reference by various stakeholders including researchers, scholars and policy makers particularly interested in rural development and rural livelihoods. The findings of the study are of critical relevance to both national and county governments, as well as development actors interested in getting a better understanding of the role played by social capital in enhancing social economic livelihood in Kenya.

In addition, the results of the study findings provide an essential information to policy makers and planners to identify and formulate effective strategies for enhancing socio economic livelihoods with emphasis on promoting relevant components of social capital. Similarly, to researchers, the findings of this study are useful in enriching the already existing body of literature on the role of social capital in enhancing socio-economic livelihoods.

Consequently, the community will also experience enhanced economic and social wellbeing if the recommendations are implemented by both county and national government and the community themselves.

Furthermore, the study acts as a bridge in literature gap on the study hence being a potential ground for future researchers who would wish to replicate the same study to different localities within and without the country.

Finally, using the findings of the study, Non-Governmental Organizations, environmental advocates will encounter additional evidence which can be used to lobby for the communities living under poor conditions.

### **1.9 Chapter Summary**

This chapter explored the concept of social capital integration on socio-economic livelihood in Elgeyo Marakwet County by providing the necessary information on this practice internationally, regionally and locally. It is evident from the background of the study that social capital integration is critical in fostering enhanced socio-economic livelihoods. Much more when the disaggregated groups are networked, knowledge is shared, resources are pooled together and technology is transferred among the development participants.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.0 Overview**

This chapter examines the relevant literature by other scholars on social capital, socio-economic livelihoods from global to local perspectives. The various sections of the literature review was informed by the specific objectives of the study. The chapter also provides a conceptual framework and theoretical framework that will guide the study.

#### **2.1 The Concept Social Capital**

The idea that social capital can guide economic activity dates as far back as 18<sup>th</sup> century during the period of Scottish enlightenment (Woolcock, 1998). Burke (1757) contended that markets could not function at all without prior existence of civilizing norms and moral principles. Hume (1777) speculated that an appropriate ‘moral sense’ would emerge of its own accord to guide markets. Adam Smith (1776) argued that while peoples’ pursuit of self-interest was tempered by an innate moral sense, there was need to regulate markets by the church and state (Woolcock, 1998). The first proponents of the modern concept of social capital are identified by Woolcock (1998) as being Hanifan (1920) and Jacobs (1961). Hanifan invoked the concept of social capital to explain importance of community participation in improving school performance. Jacobs researched on culture of urban communities based on the theory of social interaction.

In the last two decades, the concept of social capital has profoundly been popularized especially in the prominent studies of Bourdieu (1986), Coleman (1988, 1990) and Putnam (1993a, 1993b, 1995). Bourdieu (1998) defines social capital in terms of social networks and connections and posits that social capital provides potential

support and access to resources. Coleman (1988, 1990) contends that social capital is a resource in terms of social structure of families and communities and helps actors to achieve their objectives and interests. Putnam (1993a, 1993b, 1995) defines social capital as a key characteristic of communities where the theory of social capital is crucial for policies of grassroots participation, community development and empowerment. Durlauf (2002) argues that the definition of social capital has remained elusive despite immense amount of research on it.

The history of documented work related to social capital in Kenya is pretty recent. Since the year 2000, there has been growing interest amongst researchers and scholars in studies on social capital. Although the documentation of social capital in Kenya is only very recent, the concept underlying it can be traced to the pre-colonial era in the activities of the Mau Mau uprising in the 1950s (Evans, 2001) and the harambee philosophy of self-help movement since 1960s (Adeninto and Akimwale, 2008). The author contends that social capital refers broadly to community relations that affect personal interactions.

## **2.2 Determinants of Social Capital**

In defining its Sustainable Livelihoods Approach, the Department for International Development (DFID) of the United Kingdom stipulated that the primary factors for determining the level of livelihood are natural capital, human capital, physical capital, financial capital, and social capital (DFID 2019). Among these factors, although the first four notions of capital can be clearly defined, the notion of social capital remains ambiguous. Human and social capital and social arrangements are closely related and likely to be confused. The OECD report made a clear distinction between them: Human capital is embodied in individuals; social capital resides in social relations, while political, institutional and legal arrangements are rules and institutions in which

human and social capital work (OECD 2020). Hence, social capital has been, on frequent occasions, been vaguely understood to be the last resort to account for residuals of socioeconomic matters that cannot be clearly explained by the above-mentioned four types of capital. In other words, social capital can compensate for a lack of other types of capital (DFID 2019). With its versatile acceptance, the term social capital is widely adapted by researchers, policymakers and practitioners as a convenient concept in matters related to community development.

Social capital is an ever-expanding theme in the social sciences and has also become popular with policy makers in both developed and developing countries (World Bank 2011). Social capital has been proposed as a pathway to societal and individual health, wellbeing and understanding of relationships (Enfield & Nathaniel, 2013; World Bank, 2011). Additionally, a growing number of sociologists, anthropologists, political scientists, and economists have employed the concept to explain various economic and social outcomes (Enfield & Nathaniel, 2013). Nicholson & Hoyer, (2008) notes that the fundamental notion of social capital is to incorporate socio-cultural factors to explain social economic development outcomes. Historically, social capital can be traced a long way back to classical economists, such as Adam Smith and John Stuart Mill, and sociologists, such as Max Weber, who provided the cultural explanation to economic phenomena (Guiso *et al.*, 2006).

There are different definitions of social capital but the most famous, and most contested, is the one offered by Putnam (1993) who defines social capital as “features of social organization, such as trust, norms, and networks that can improve the efficiency of society by facilitating coordinated actions” (Akram & Routray, 2013). Homan (2011) defines social capital as “individual and community wealth derived

from active engagement of individuals with other members of the community and with what might be called ‘community life.’ The theory of social capital is particularly rooted on the notion of trusts, norms, and informal networks and it believes that ‘social relations are valuable resources’. According to Liu (2017), the whole notion of social capital is centered on social relationships and its major elements include social networks, civic engagement, norms of reciprocity, and generalised trust. He further opines that social capital is a complex multidimensional concept having different dimensions, types, and levels of measure. As Putnam and Homan’s definitions illustrate, there are different ways to apply the concept of social capital. These levels include micro, meso, and macro social capital (Akram & Routray, 2013). In addition, social capital can be measured within the individual, a small group such as a family unit or within an organization, and within a community such as a neighborhood or town. Social capital has three subcomponents: bonded, bridged, and linked social capital (Akram & Routray, 2013). Further, social capital is one of the five different types of capital (natural, physical, human, financial and social) that are needed for households to develop sustainable livelihood strategies. Coleman (1990) suggests that “social capital is defined by its function; it is not a single entity, but a variety of different entities having characteristics in common as they all consist of some aspects of a social structure and they facilitate certain actions of individuals who are within the structure.” Unlike physical capital human capital which refers to the properties of individuals, social capital refers to connections among individuals – social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them (OECD, 2001). Furthermore, Grootaert and Bastelaer (2002), define social capital as “institutions, relationships, attitudes and values that govern interactions among people and contribute to economic and social development.”

In another perspective, social capital has generally been perceived as a concept that straddles a range of disciplines. Therefore, it is argued that there is no single definition of social capital but that the many definitions available can be pooled together into the four broad subject areas of anthropology, sociology, economics, and political science as discussed in detail below:

From an anthropological point of view, the concept of social capital is embedded within the notion that humans are gregarious entities a natural instinct for associations (OECD, 2001). Humans are equipped with predispositions to learn how to: cooperate, discriminate the trustworthy from the treacherous; commit themselves to be trustworthy; earn good reputations; exchange goods and information; and divide labour (Ridley 1997). Fukuyama, (1999) stressed the biological basis for social order and the roots of social capital in human nature.

The sociological definition of social capital pronounces social norms and the sources of human motivation (OECD, 2001). The emphasis is on the features of social organization such as trust, norms of reciprocity, and networks of civic engagement (Putnam, 2000). The confident expectation that peoples and institutions will act in a consistent, honest and appropriate way is essential in ensuring that communities flourish. This is closely related to the political science literature which emphasizes the role of institutions, political and social norms in shaping human behavior (OECD, 2001). Recent work by the World Bank on the role of social capital in poverty reduction strategies and promotion of sustainable development has emphasised the role of institutions, social arrangements, trust and networks. The economic literature draws on the assumption that people will maximise their personal utility, deciding to interact with others and draw on social capital resources to conduct various types of



group activities (Glaeser, et al, 2002). In this regard, the emphasis is on the investment strategies of individuals in the face of alternative uses of time (OECD, 2001). Three basic forms of social capital have also been identified are: social bonds; bridging, and linkages (Woolcock, 1998).

In the face of the diversity of perceptions about of social capital, it appears that the definition of the concept remains at the whims of the analyst. In this study, the definition from the sociological literature is considered more appropriate to the concerns of urban sustainability assessment. Thus: social capital refers to the collective value of all social networks and the inclinations that arise from these networks to do things for each other, i.e. social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them (Putnam, 2000). One important term in the above definition that merits explicit pronouncement is collective value. In other words, the utility of social capital lies not in its own right but in the extent to which it adds value to the socio-spatial setting in which it is embedded. It should thus be recognized that social capital is not a lone-standing, isolated concept but that it has to be viewed within the context of its contribution to human progress. It is in this light that the following section considers the relevance of social capital in sustainable development in general and sustainability assessment in particular.

Over the years, social capital has been shown to act as an important bridge between academic disciplines in the development of economic theory (Woolcock & Naryan, 2000, Cordes *et al*, 2003, Yen, Barnes, & Wang, 2011). Furthermore, social capital has been cited as having an important role to play in government, regarding the investment of resources into poverty alleviation or income generation. With a clearer sense of livelihood assets such as social capital, policy-makers can identify the most

useful sorts of public investment for different people in different places (Bebbington, 1999). Currently, when considering socio-economic development alternatives, social capital has to be considered on how social capital can contribute, how it can be reengineered and how it should be considered in development initiatives to link state and society for optimal outcomes.

According to an article by Claridge (2018), social capital is an important resource that can be mobilized for purposive action or competitive gain. Social capital is the benefits derived from sociability. Social capital can be described most simply as the aspects of social context (the “social” bit) that have productive benefits (the “capital” bit). Social capital arises from the human capacity to consider others, to think and act generously and cooperatively. It relates to social relationships and social structures. It involves people knowing each other and having positive relationships based on trust, respect, kindness, and reciprocity. It involves supportive social structures that encourage prosocial actions and discourage exploitative behaviours.

Social capital exists at the level of the individual, the informal social group, the formal organization, the community, the ethnic group and even the nation. The basis of social capital is individual actors and their relationships, but also the social structures within which they are embedded. This means that an individual may have some control over their social capital, but they do not *own* their social capital *per se*. Many aspects of social capital relate to shared values, attitudes and norms that exist within social groups. Social capital is identifiable at any level of social grouping, from the individual level to the level of the nation, and it exists at any level where there is identification and belonging, i.e. a social grouping (Claridge, 2018).

Social capital determinants are key in pointing at reasons why some individuals and households get involved in particular types of social capital while others do not, that is, the levels of social capital associated with family characteristics. Family characteristics are distinguished as including geographic location; demographic characteristics (e.g., age, sex, marital status, household composition); and socio-economic characteristics (e.g., tenure, educational attainment, employment status, occupation, income).

Stone and Hughes (2003) argue that an individual's social capital may vary with an array of factors including age, gender, health; family circumstances; education, employment, home-ownership status; attitudes and values; and the characteristics of the area in which an individual resides.

Additionally, Rose (1998), distinguishes determinants of social capital according to individuals, households, and societies/communities/villages. What accounts for some individuals being involved in particular types of informal social networks while others are not, are factors including gender, education, age, and physical health. These factors have primary influences on economic activities and do affect an individual's capacity for productive activity. In a household, productive social capital varies with various factors including the number of economically active persons in the household; human capital (education and health) of household members; intergenerational capital (education of parents); duration of residence in current community; members away from home earning cash wages; ownership/access to land, water, and other resources. In the case of a community, the capacity of social capital (networks) to produce goods and services requires resources. Many households living in a community may collectively be deprived of resources useful for networking especially resources

linking informal networks with formal institutions such as an all-weather road to take goods to a market. It is normally assumed in public policy that spending on infrastructure and community services are good investments in reducing poverty.

Christoforou (2005), opines that social capital determinants includes the psychological and socio-economic characteristics of individuals such as personal income and education, family and social status, values and personal experiences, which determine the incentive of individuals to invest in social capital and several other social and demographic determinants like age, gender, marital status and number of children. He further argues that social capital determinants also include contextual or systemic factors at the level of community, such as overall level of development, quality and fairness of formal institutions, distribution of resources and society's polarization, and prior patterns of cooperation and trust. Additionally, Kaasa and Parts (2008) notes that community social capital is influenced by both micro-level determinants (e.g., income, education and health and macro-level determinants (e.g., income inequality and national cohesion).

According to Aldridge *et al* (2002), the main determinants of social capital include: history and culture; whether social structures are flat or hierarchical; the family; education; the built environment; residential mobility; economic inequalities and social class; the strength and characteristics of civil society; and patterns of individual consumption and personal values

Ashrafi *et.al* (2012), and Kaasa & Parts, (2008) studies on the multidimensional construct of social capital, adopted a range of indicators to represent the levels of community social capital. For example, interpersonal trust, general trust, institutional trust, reciprocity among neighbors and the sense of belonging. Halman and Luijkx

(2006) and Denny, (2003) found out that individuals with higher incomes and more education have higher levels of interpersonal trust. On the other hand, age, marital status, and religiosity are positively associated with both general and institutional trust according to Christoforou (2005) and Ashrafi *et.al* (2012). Education tends to increase the likelihood of reciprocity, and age and general health were found to be positively associated with trust and the sense of belonging to local communities as noted by Ashrafi *et.al* (2012). However, Kaasa and Parts (2008) and Halman and Luijkx (2006) argue that findings on the relationship between education, income, gender, and institutional trust are inconsistent. Structural social capital common adopted indicators include the number of organization memberships, social participation, volunteering, and civic participation are common adopted indicators (Kaasa and Parts, 2008, Alma *et al* (2012) and Principi, *et al* (2016).

Kaasa and Parts (2008) note that individuals who are older, male, and employed are likely to have more organization memberships, as opposed to those with higher income and education. Alma *et al* (2012), Marcus (2007) and Einolf, (2011) opines that ethnicity, marital status and health are the most important determinants of social participation. Principi, *et al* (2016) notes that education, income, and health are the most important determinants of volunteering in later life while higher income and education foster higher levels of civic participation (Kaasa and Parts, 2008). In addition, men tend to have significantly higher levels of civic participation than women (Christoforou, 2005).

Rose (1997) in her view, distinguishes determinants of social capital according to individuals, households, and societies/communities/villages. What accounts for some individuals being involved in particular types of informal social networks while others

are not, are factors including gender, education, age, and physical health. These factors have primary influences on economic activities and do affect an individual's capacity for productive activity. In a household, productive social capital varies with various factors including the number of economically active persons in the household; human capital (education and health) of household members; intergenerational capital (education of parents); duration of residence in current community; members away from home earning cash wages; ownership/access to land, water, and other resources. In the case of a community, the capacity of social capital (networks) to produce goods and services requires resources. Many households living in a community may collectively be deprived of resources useful for networking especially resources linking informal networks with formal institutions such as an all-weather road to take goods to a market. It is normally assumed in public policy that spending on infrastructure and community services are good investments in reducing poverty.

Stone and Huges (2002) use field surveys in Australia to examine levels of social capital associated with varying household circumstances including geographic location, demographic and socio-economic characteristics. They also assess the importance of social capital in shaping patterns of household engagement with the economy and community. The demographic variables considered include age, sex, legal marital status, relationship status and household composition. The socio-economic variables include tenure, educational attainment, employment status, occupation, and income.

A study by Ifeanyi-Obi & Matthews-Njoku (2014) revealed that the major socio-economic factors that affect livelihood choice of rural dwellers are age, number of years in school and monthly income. According Aguilera & Massey, (2003) the social

capital component is influenced by the length of residence in the area because of the increased opportunities and time available to maintain and increase social networks and relationships. The longer respondents have lived in the local city area, the more opportunities they have to access a greater number of people, acquire information through friends and expand their social circles.

Moss (2002) opines that gendered expectations of women for care provision and family support may increase their bonding social networks, while limiting their bridging networks. In contrast, a study from Northern Sweden found that women were more involved in bridging social networks when compared to men Eriksson et al., (2010). It has further been found that the kind of associations' women and men are involved in, differs. For instance, Lowndes (2000) found that men tend to be more active in sports and recreational associations, while women are more active in associations related to social services and health. In a similar vein, Son and Lin (2008) found out that civic action tends to be gendered, where women were more involved in expressive actions than the men.

Institutions in rural areas are formed as investment strategies that seek a regulated return to satisfy common needs and interests. These needs or interests could hardly be satisfied from individual efforts. Local institutions that are formed in rural territories, generally for productive purposes, in addition to generating profitability, employment, exchange of services, exchange of knowledge, ease of access to local resources and distribution of goods among their members, contribute to the governance of the territories.

A vision of governance for rural territories is proposed from the institutionalization of reciprocity relations, in this sense it is understood that "governance is being seen as a

process of economic coordination, capacity development, creation and strengthening of local institutions that have for the purpose of reducing transaction costs, from a neo- institutional economics and sociology point of view” (Torres Salcido; Chávez, 2008).

Local institutions contribute to the governance of territories and according to Zurbriggen, (2011), “governance is characterized by a network of institutions and individuals that collaborate together and united by a pact of mutual trust, they are organizations of power that form semi-autonomous and sometimes self-governed networks” (Zurbriggen, 2011).

Empowerment constitutes a premeditated social process, which aims to change power relations (Sen, 1997) by generating opportunities for one or more individuals. It is not based on a power granted by a higher authority, but rather a power acquired through self- management, which consists of enhancing the pre-existing strengths of a person or a group of people. Empowerment should not be considered as a neutral process, but as a process that seeks to gain control by substituting the external barriers that influence access to resources (Sen, 1997)

In rural areas, local institutions have more influence on the governance of the territories, mainly because they are often the only institutions present in them; contrary to cities, where political institutions are more present, due to the fact that the State administration tends to be centralized. Although there are some political institutions in rural territories, these generally manage very large territories and, in most cases, obey the territorial order of the States, without necessarily having a very broad knowledge of specific territories. While the local institutions that are generated



from associations between individuals in rural territories manage internal, decentralized and specific levels of action (Claridge, 2020).

Putnam's (1993) hypothesis on the relationship between social capital and good governance is grounded in the Tocquevillian notion of civic activism, emphasizing the twofold effects of civic associations: the internal effects on individual members and the external effects on the political system. Putnam argues that by participating in associations members adopt "habits of cooperation, solidarity and public-spiritedness" (pp. 89-90), and they gain skills that are important for a participatory democracy to function. Hence, civic associations can function like schools in democracy for the citizens. The external effects are in the institutional links that civic associations provide between their members and the political system and allow for flow of information and articulation of interests (p. 90). These twofold effects of participation are believed to produce more accountable and responsive public officials, as well as engaged citizens that have the capacity to influence the decision-making process and political outcomes. Furthermore, Putnam's notion of the relationship between social capital and good governance should be understood as a reinforcing and cumulative development, rather than a one-way mechanism. Putnam's (2000) empirical study on social capital in the US confirmed his theory on social capital and good governance. Other empirical studies confirming the positive relationship between social capital and the functioning and responsiveness of the political system include (Andrews, 2011; Paxton, 2002; Stolle, 2004).

With regard to government performance, the trust variable shows much stronger impact and more robust results than the participation variable. Moreover, there is still slim evidence on informal sociability and government performance (Andrews, 2012;

Nannestad, 2008). Rice's (2001) study shows that social capital values correlated more strongly with local government performance than social capital measured as social networks.

Through supporting the networking and sociability within and beyond communities, local governments can strengthen the structural form of social capital that brings about the cultural/cognitive aspects such as trust and shared norms. This can be done by providing financial and non-financial support to local associations of citizens, organizing community events, providing the "meeting infrastructure" (children playgrounds, parks with benches, sport facilities, etc.) and developing both formal and informal cooperation with other municipalities in the area Kusakabe (2012).

The cultural/cognitive aspects of social capital can also be strengthened directly by being transparent and encouraging citizens' participation in planning and decision-making processes. This means providing information about the activities of local government and other actors in the community in the form of a local newspaper, county/ federal state website etc., which can help building local identity as well, and by providing opportunities for people to express their ideas and views regarding their needs and expectations for their life in the municipality in the form of polls, public hearings among others (Van and Finsen, 2010).

Governmental organizations and welfare programs can connect low-income individuals to resources within the community, and that may help to foster relationships (Smith, 2016). Local government initiatives that are designed to enhance low-income families' social networks, such as those that focus on encouraging family stability, could be improved to better target social capital formation (Desmond & An,

2015). These programs could further emphasize the importance of connections within and outside of the family for obtaining economic resources

### **2.3 Components of Social Capital Integration**

Based on the preceding discussion, an explanation of each dimension of social capital is presented while reviewing previous studies on the subject. It is widely agreed that human capital cannot be measured directly, so that, for instance, education level as a typical proxy has been used for measurement. Likewise, social capital itself cannot be measured directly without using some proxy variables. In addition to that, judging from the fact that social capital encompasses a large array of concepts, there is need to specify proper proxy variable(s) in each dimension and collect appropriate and reliable data through intensive interview or questionnaire surveys, Although various dimensions of social capital have already been presented and a wide range of studies regarding the links between well-being and social capital have also been conducted, introducing all the dimensions of social capital is almost infeasible. Besides, an all-embracing discussion would be too complicated and would lead to a divergence from the core issues of this thesis. In this study dimensions related to community development are selected as highlighted hereunder:

(1) Structural, cognitive forms and relational which are divided based on whether social capital involves socio-economic institutions and networks or relates to individual states of mind;

(2) Macro (national), meso (regional and community), and micro (household or individual) levels, which are categorized based on the level of economic structure that social capital affects and lastly,

(3) Bonding, bridging, linking and bracing types, which are based on functions that social capital works inside one community or between several organizations and/or individuals in different communities (Narayan 2002, and Uphoff 2000).

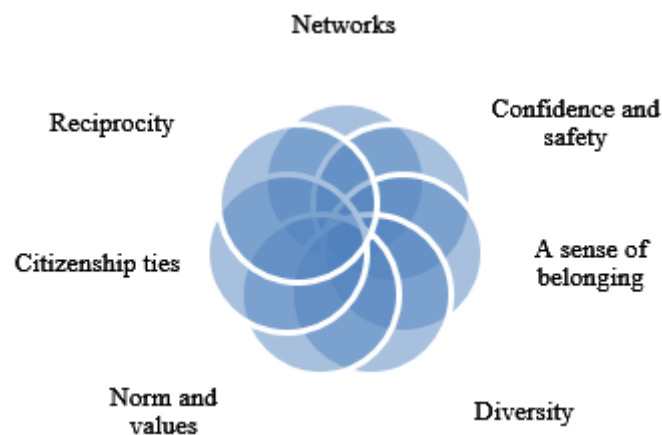
### **2.3.1 Structural Social Capital**

According to Uphoff (2000), social capital structure is derived from the various forms of social organisation in which people are embedded, particularly roles, rules, precedents, procedures as well as a wide variety of networks that contribute to cooperation and collective action. The content and structure of social capital are intertwined and strengthen each other. Social networks have positive externalities for the group members through shared norms and trust, while at the same time-shared trust, norms and values arise from informal forms of organisation based on social networks and associations (Durlauf and Fafchamps, 2004).

According to Davenport and Daellenbach (2011), structural social capital is the network of people who an individual knows and upon whom he/she can draw some benefits such as information and assistance. Further, Ansari, Munir and Gregg (2012), argues that structural social capital facilitates conditions of accessibility to various parties for exchanging and transferring knowledge, and further for increasing the exchange opportunity. It provides opportunities for people to gain access to relevant peers with desired sets of knowledge or expertise (Andrews, 2010). It makes it easier for people to engage in mutually beneficial collective action by lowering transaction costs and improving social learning (Uphoff and Wijayaratna, 2000). Additionally, Taylor (2000) notes that the important aspects of structural social capital are the number of times a person has, with whom and how strong the tie is. Therefore, structural social capital is normally studied using a network approach and it has been analyzed from different perspectives that include tie strength and centrality, network

stability and size (Lefebvre *et al.*, 2016). In summary structural social capital entails elements of social structure that create opportunities for the social realization of productive ends.

According to Mainwaring (2013), structural characteristics of social capital contain many different concepts. The social capital concepts are melted in a single pot as shown in the figure below. Social capital development.



**Figure 2.1: Structural Characteristics of Social Capital**

**Source: Mainwaring, 2013**

Structural, relational and scientific social capital dimensions provide a strong basis for basic knowledge creation activities such as information access, information sharing and composition of existing information and information generation due to their structural characteristics (Özdemir, 2008). Social capital, if it is thought to be with people as a whole, networks, trusts and norms, it is indigenous to life and indirectly spread to all areas of life. Networks are enhanced by the following values and conditions of which some are outlined below:

**i) Citizenship and sense of belonging**

A study by Yoon and Wang, (2011), proposes that organizational citizenship behaviors and social capital are influencing factors on knowledge-sharing in the

communities and their research model posits that the five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior — altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue — influence social capital facets which in turn, the facets of social capital — social interaction ties, trust, norm of reciprocity, identification and, shared goals — influence members' knowledge-sharing intentions and knowledge quality. Their findings showed that social interaction ties and identification of social capital have a strong impact on members' knowledge-sharing intentions and knowledge quality. Additionally, most of the organizational citizenship behavior dimensions have a significant impact on the facets of social capital.

In-group solidarity reduces the ability of group members to cooperate with outsiders, and often imposes negative externalities on the latter. For example, in the Chinese parts of East Asia and much of Latin America, social capital resides largely in families and a rather narrow circle of personal friends (Coleman, 1988).

## **ii) Diversity**

Robert Putnam awakened the subject in a 2007 paper entitled “*E Pluribus Unum: Diversity and Community in the Twenty-first Century.*” His main hypothesis was that ethnic diversity at the neighbourhood level, in the short term, leads to people ‘hunkering down,’ or being less social, trusting, and altruistic.

Fukuyama (1999), on the other hand, argues that ethnic diversity does not, with any certainty, erode social capital; rather, it has mixed effects that are contextual and dependent upon measurement methodologies and specific circumstances of historical as well as socio-economic factors and that social networks, and thus, social capital, similarly to physical and human capital, benefit both members of these networks, and bystanders (Putnam, 2000: 20; 2007: 137-138).

Shaeffer (2013), for example, finds in his study of 55 German cities that ethnic diversity does erode social capital. Stolle (2008) and Stolle & Harell (2012) also confirm the negative effects of diversity on white majority trust and friendship networks in neighbourhoods in the US and Canada, whereas Lancee & Dronkers (2008) reach a similar conclusion in their study of the Netherlands.

Cheong *et al.* (2007: 42) argue that ‘policy initiatives seem to be based on the belief that community cohesion can be built by imposing a ‘majority’ agenda on the ‘minority’ communities.’ They also recognised the fact that age affects perceptions, and it should, thus, be a priority to encourage older cohorts to engage in active contact with ethnic minorities, as the younger generation are already far more trusting.

### **iii) Trust**

Trust is the type of social capital embedded within relations with strangers, defined by the condition of impersonality or anonymity (Torche and Vanezuela, 2011).

### **iii) Norms**

All forms of traditional culture-social groups like tribes, clans, village associations, religious sects, etc.-are based on shared norms and use these norms to achieve cooperative ends.

### **iv) Reciprocity**

Reciprocity can be defined as the practice of exchanging things with others for mutual benefit, especially privileges granted by one country or organization to another. Reciprocity is the type of social capital embedded within personal relations, triply defined in the factual, social and temporal dimensions by co-presence, reciprocity and memory, respectively (Torche and Vanezuela, 2011).

Letki (2008: 106) suggests that 'neighbourhood social capital consists of two major components: attitudes towards fellow neighbours and interactions with them.' These components help to separate the cognitive and structural sides of social capital, making it more convenient to measure it using determinate variables, such as membership (and participation) in formal and informal organizations (associations, networks), social trust, and civic participation, among others.

### **2.3.2 Cognitive Social Capital**

Cognitive social capital is the shared values or paradigms that allow a common understanding of appropriate ways of acting. Thus, cognitive social capital provides a set of norms of acceptable behaviour (Anderson and Jack 2002). It is a dimension of social capital that relates resources providing shared representations, interpretations and systems of meaning among parties and it is also the cognitive schemes and systems of meaning as exhibited in common vocabulary and narratives (Davenport and Daellenbach 2011).

Cognitive social capital is the shared language and codes that provide the foundation for communication (Gooderham 2007). Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) had originally related cognitive social capital to shared language and shared narratives, but other authors have described it also through shared goals or vision and shared culture (Inkpen and Tsang, 2005; Tsai and Ghoshal, 1998). Cognitive social capital is often manifested in the use of specific language and codes. For example, certain words within an organisation may have different or no meaning outside the organisation (Ansari *et al.* 2012). Generally, cognitive social capital includes shared norms, values, attitudes, and beliefs, predisposes people towards mutually beneficial collective action. Another study by Sturtevant (2006), demonstrated that collective action can, in



turn, create new social capital, forging networks and mobilizing resources for further community development.

### **2.3.3 Relational Social Capital**

Gooderham (2007) notes that the relational social capital is a dimension of social capital that relates to the characteristics and qualities of personal relationships such as trust, obligations, respect and even friendship. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998), also suggest that the key aspects of the relational dimension of social capital are trust and trustworthiness, norms and sanctions, obligations and expectations, and identity and identification. The relational dimension of social capital refers to the nature and quality of the relationships that have developed through a history of interaction and plays out in behavioural attributes such as trustworthiness, shared group norms, obligations and identification (Davenport and Daellenbach, 2011 and Lefebvre *et al.* 2016)

Relational social capital is the affective part as it describes relationships in terms of interpersonal trust, existence of shared norms and identification with other individuals. The relational dimension deals with the nature or quality of networks or relationships (Cabrera and Cabrera 2005). The relational dimension encourages normative behaviour based on trust, reciprocity, obligations and expectations (Lee and Jones 2008). A core facet of relational social capital is associability and the willingness to subordinate individual goals to collective goals (Lazarova and Taylor 2009).

There is an overlap between cognitive and relational social capital and this can cause confusion for some people. For example, trust and trustworthiness are typically described as parts of the relational dimension. Trust can be an attribute of a

relationship, but trustworthiness remains an attribute of the actors involved (Anderson and Jack 2002) so it may be more appropriately conceptualised as cognitive social capital.

Generally, relational social capital is based on the characteristics of social relationships between individuals and is commonly described as including trust and trustworthiness.

#### **2.3.4 Network Perspective**

Adler & Kwon (2002), assumed that definitions of social capital can be divided by whether they:

- i. Focus on the relations an actor maintains with other actors (internal).
- ii. Focus on the structure of the relations among actors within a collectivity (external).
- iii. Focus on both types of linkages (both).

In literature, the external type of social capital is usually called “bridging” (describes more distant connections between people and is characterized by weaker but more cross-cutting ties, e.g. with business associates, acquaintances, friends of friends, and is good for “getting ahead” in life (Webb, 2008). The internal type of social capital is called “bonding” (describes closer connections between people and is characterized by strong bonds, e.g. among family members or close friends, and is good for “getting by” in life (Webb, 2008). This view focuses on collective actors’ internal characteristics (Adler and Kwon 2002) and it is about the link-ages between individuals or groups within the collectivity and it refers to socio-centric network analysis. The closure argument is that a network of strongly interconnected elements creates social capital. The structural whole argument is that social capital is created by

a network in which people can broker connections between otherwise disconnected segments (Burt 2001).

The third group of definitions is neutral according to this internal / external dimension since it has both elements. For example, the relations between an employee and colleagues within a firm are external to the employee but internal to the firm (Adler and Kwon 2002). Additionally, Pretty (2003) distinguished social capital into three dimensions i.e. bonding, bridging and linking. Pretty described bonding social capital as the relations between homogenous groups or communities which build social cohesion needed for everyday living. Bridging social capital refers to the structural relations and networks between groups and communities involving coordination or collaboration with other groups, external associations, mechanisms of social support or information sharing across communities and groups (Narayan and Pritchett, 1999). Linking social capital is the capacity of groups to gain access to resources, ideas and information from formal institutions beyond the community (Pretty, 2003).

Networks and memberships form one dimension of structural social capital. Regarding network, its size, internal diversity, and the extent of assistance in case of trouble are measured as standards. In their study on agricultural commodity traders in Madagascar, Fafchamps and Minten (2018) pointed out that social networks enabled traders to reduce transaction cost under a situation of imperfect information and then have higher margins. On the other hand, when analyzing membership, the numbers of groups and associations (e.g., religious groups, school clubs, academic or professional societies, labor unions, political organizations, and fraternal organizations), the frequency of joining group activities, the extent of involvement in groups (e.g., as leader, executive, influential member, ordinary member), and the membership diversity are well used.

In general, network and membership have positive effects on the well-being of community dwellers and then community development. For instance, using U.S. data aggregated at the state level, Kawachi et al. (2016) confirmed a striking inverse relationship between per capita membership in voluntary groups and all-causes mortality rates or self-rated health conditions, even after adjustment for income differences between states and individual-level factors.

An elaborate study in rural Tanzania by Narayan and Pritchett (2018) concluded that village level social capital, gauged by both qualitative and quantitative aspects of membership (and social trust), induced greater use of modern agricultural inputs and hence had, to some extent, a positive effect on household incomes. Although numerous studies of agricultural and development economics have investigated the effect of human capital (e.g., education) on agricultural inputs allocation, the adoption of new technologies and then productivity at farm level (Feder and Slade 2007, Huffman 2015, Pudasaini 2017, Rahm and Huffman 2017, Yang 2018), few such studies of social capital have been done, so much so that Narayan and Pritchett's (2018) study could be worth paying enough attention to. In terms of ethnicity, income, religion, and their like, there is debate as to which is more efficient and contributes to community development, whether a homogeneous or a heterogeneous membership.

Researchers who support heterogeneous groups point to various factors, including the possibility of sharing network and diversified information responsible for innovation and more rapid diffusion of new technology among members (Narayan and Pritchett 2018, Grootaert and Narayan 2011). Conversely, researchers who support homogeneous membership point to higher solidarity and consolidation between members (Kähkönen 2014). This means therefore that, there is no agreement regarding the merits or demerits of the homogeneity of group members.

#### **2.3.4.1 Bonding Social Capital**

Bonding social capital is a type of social capital that describes connections *within* a group or community characterised by high levels of similarity in demographic characteristics, attitudes, and available information and resources. Bonding social capital exists between ‘people like us’ who are ‘in it together’ and who typically have strong close relationships. Examples include family members, close friends, and neighbours (Claridge, 2018).

Bonding social capital is described as the strong relationships that develop between people of similar background and interests, usually include family and friends, provide material and emotional support, and are more inward-looking and protective. Bonding social capital refers to networks with a high density of relationships between members, where most, if not all, individuals belonging to the network are interconnected because they know each other and interact frequently with each other.

Bonding social capital is nurtured among people with similar ideologies or strong common interests. It describes the connections between and among individuals who are emotionally close, such as friends and family. Generally bonding type relationships occur among those who share similar socio-demographic characteristics such as race, religion, age, ethnicity, and class. This kind of connection is characterized by homophily: high level of similarity in available information, demography, and economic and social status (Javier *et al.*, 2014). It indicates strong family ties where social relationships are based on strong trust and reciprocity. Thus, according to Heffron, (2000) & Putnam (2000), most of the time, this type of connection is closed and exclusive in the sense that access to membership and benefit of membership are restricted to those individuals and households who have similarity.

This type of connection often entails exclusion of those households that are not similar (Schuller, 2001, Oorschot, Arts, & Gelissen, 2006). According to Hurlbert, Haines, & Beggs (2000), the strong connection often makes this type of social capital good for providing immediate social assistance in times of shocks mostly after the shocks have happened. This type of social capital is considered important in the creation of coping capacity of individuals and households against shocks and risks. Examples include religious-based groups, ethnic or race-based fraternal organizations, and wealthy country clubs (Putnam, 2000). It's easier for people in this group to connect and do things together for example go to school, attend church, join clubs or host parties together. But this is not the case today due to many factors since the young and middle-aged adults today are simply less likely to have friends over, attend church, or go to club meetings than were earlier generations. Psychologist Martin Seligman argues that more of us are feeling down because modern society encourages a belief in personal control and autonomy more than a commitment to duty and common enterprise. This transformation heightens our expectations about what we can achieve through choice and leave us unprepared to deal with life's inevitable failures. Where once we could fall back on social- families, churches, friends- these are no longer strong enough to cushion a fall (Putnam 2000).

On the other hand, there is a general claim that bonding social capital tends to have negative outcomes due to its tightly structured and exclusive nature, but it is also a very important source of social support. What is more important is the balance of bonding and bridging social capital. Neither is negative per se but can be negative depending on the balance and context. Networks with excessive levels of bonding tend to breed bias and racism, creating out groups and exclusion.

#### **2.3.4.2 Bridging Social Capital**

Bridging social capital is a type of social capital that describes connections that link people across a cleavage that typically divides society (such as race, or class, or religion). It is associations that 'bridge' *between* communities, groups, or organisations. Bridging social capital is different from bonding social capital which is within social groups and is characterised by dense networks with people feeling a sense on shared identity and belonging. The bonding/bridging distinction can be made in relation to a range of relationship and network characteristics. Bridging describe social relationships of exchange, often of associations between people with shared interests or goals but contrasting social identity (Pelling and High 2005).

Bridging social capital connects people that span social groups, such as race, tribes, different social groups and villages for mutual support activities. It serves as a bridge linking between different bonding social capitals and it enables households belonging to other groups to access extra resources, such as novel information, knowledge, and financial resources that might not be accessed through bonding connections (Hawkins & Maurer 2010). The information and knowledge traded between groups allows the community to benefit from a diversified social endowment accumulation and, therefore, encourages more social capital (Andriani, 2013). Thus, this type of social capital is considered important in the creation of adaptive resilience capacities, involving incremental adjustment in income and livelihood situation for better adaptation.

Bridging social capital describes networks of people and relationships that are inclusive with more open access. Examples include youth football programs, community theatre groups, or civic groups with open membership. Bridging capital is

“outward looking and encompasses people across diverse social cleavages,” while bonding capital consists of “inward looking networks that tend to reinforce exclusive identities and homogeneous groups” (Putnam 2000, p. 22). The associations or groups that bring people together can be formal or informal. Formal groups have some set rules and procedures governing how the organization operates. Examples include the Rotary Club, parent-teacher associations and community volunteer associations. Informal groups include a neighbourhood bridge club, the soccer team parents, or the group gathering at the local bar every Friday night (Putnam, 2000).

Pelling and High (2005), opine that bridging social capital is different from bonding social capital which is within social groups and is characterized by dense networks with people feeling a sense of shared identity and belonging. The bonding/bridging distinction can be made in relation to a range of relationship and network characteristics. Although friends are normally considered bonding social capital, friendships may also act as bridging relations, in that they may be between people of different relationships, they are voluntary, continuously leaving open the option of breaking up or changing one relation for another, without strong social sanctions (van Staveren and Knorringa, 2007). It has been suggested that urban communities tend to have strong bridging but weaker bonding capital, whereas rural communities more typically have strong bonding but weaker bridging capital (Woolcock, 2002).

Negative effects of bridging social capital, unlike bonding social capital that can result in exclusion and a range of negative outcomes, bridging social capital has few, if any, negative effects. Depending on your perspective, social capital can have negative outcomes, but this is typically not a characteristic of social capital and how it manifests. It can facilitate industrial strikes that may allow workers to receive improved conditions, but this generally represents a cost for their employers and



therefore potentially reduced profits. It may improve innovation but may also enable collusion, price fixing, or corruption. Creating bridging social capital is essentially the result of networking outside normal social groupings. There is opportunity to build bridging social capital any time someone interacts with strangers. This can happen when attending events, or joining associations such as interest or sporting groups, industry associations, action groups, or any other type of social grouping. Bridging social capital is fostered most by memberships in associations that are representative of the larger society. In this study, bridging capital includes those groups and networks that link different segments of the society for cooperative community activities, such as mutual aid associations, burial societies, and labor reciprocity networks at community level.

#### **2.3.4.3 Linking Social Capital**

According to Brown and Fox (1998), linking social capital represents connections between individuals and groups in different positions of financial and political power. It is considered as an essential mechanism for forging alliances with sympathetic individuals in the position of power and for leveraging resources from formal and informal institutions beyond the local community (Woolcock and Narayan, 2000). Scholars consider linking social capital very vital in the creation of transformative resilience capacity.

Linking social capital is a type of social capital that describes norms of respect and networks of trusting relationships between people who are interacting *across* explicit, formal or institutionalized *power or authority* gradients in society (Szreter and Woolcock, 2004). These relationships are described as ‘vertical’ and the key feature is differences in social position or power. An example could be relationships between a community-based organisation and government or other funders.

Linking social capital is the third type of social capital that extends the common bonding/bridging distinction that is popular in the network theory approach to social capital. Linking social capital may be viewed as an extension of bridging social capital involving networks and ties with individuals, groups or corporate actors represented in public agencies, schools, business interests, legal institutions and religious/political groups (Healy 2002)

Linking Social Capital is a type of social capital that describes norms of respect and networks of trusting relationships between people who are interacting across explicit, formal or institutionalized power or authority gradients in society (Szreter and Woolcock, 2004). These relationships are described as 'vertical' and the key feature is differences in social position or power. An example could be relationships between a community-based organization and government or other funders. Linking social capital is the third type of social capital that extends the common bonding/bridging distinction that is popular in the network theory approach to social capital. Linking social capital may be viewed as an extension of bridging social capital involving networks and ties with individuals, groups or corporate actors represented in public agencies, schools, business interests, legal institutions and religious/political groups (Healy, 2002). Linking social capital differs from bridging social capital because the power differences between partners are a conscious part of the relationship. While bridging social capital develops horizontal trust among unlike groups, linking social capital involves classic patron/client or mentor/mentee relationships (Schneider, 2006). Linking social capital refers to relations between individuals and groups in different social strata in a hierarchy where power, social status and wealth are accessed by different groups (Healy and Cote, 2001). As such, it is the extent to which individuals build relationships with institutions and individuals who have relative

power over them (e.g. to provide access to services, jobs or resources) (Woolcock, 2001; Szreter and Woolcock, 2004). Linking relationships also involve reciprocity. For example, funders expect effective, quality services for their grants and mentors hope that the people they work with will reflect well on them by doing well in their lives or providing the same assistance to others (Schneider 2006).

Linking social capital involves social relations with those in authority that can be used to access resources or power (Stone and Hughes 2002). Linking social capital has many indirect community benefits that are often omitted from in the literature such as connecting government officials with the people who provide knowledge and skills to perform their jobs (Jordan 2015).

Linking social capital is demonstrably central to well-being, especially in poor countries and communities, where too often bankers charge usurious interest rates, the police are corrupt, and teachers fail to show up for work. IT opens up economic opportunities to those belonging to less powerful or excluded groups (Jordan 2015).

There are several benefits of linking social capital and it involves social relations with those in authority that can be used to access resources or power (Stone and Hughes, 2002). Linking social capital has many indirect community benefits that are often omitted from literature such as connecting government officials with the people who provide knowledge and skills to perform their jobs (Jordan, 2015). Linking social capital is demonstrably central to wellbeing, especially in poor countries and communities, where too often bankers charge usurious interest rates, the police are corrupt, and teachers fail to show up for work. IT opens up economic opportunities to those belonging to less powerful or excluded groups (Jordan, 2015). It is important to have an appropriate balance of all types of social capital, not just linking with an

absence of the other types. Research has found that without linking types of social capital, bonding social capital alone may not be enough for community development to occur (Flora, 1998). Onyx *et al* (2007) identified that communities with higher levels of all forms of social capital are more able to mobilize in the face of adversity and less likely to have negative outcomes. Negative effects of linking social capital can emerge if there is an absence of other forms of control and accountability and it can also quickly become nepotistic or a mechanism for insider-trading and political favouritism (Grootaert *et al.*, 2003). Other authors have also found connections between high levels of linking social capital and nepotism, corruption and suppression (Szreter and Woolcock, 2004). This highlights the importance of the balance of different types of social capital and the highly context specific nature of social capital (Claridge, 2018).

This highlights the importance of the balance of different types of social capital and the highly context specific nature of social capital Linking social capital describes those relationships that are acting to bridge individuals across institutional boundaries and can be particularly important in community development (Flora & J. Flora, 2004; Jones & Woolcock, 2007; Narayan, 1999; Szreter & Woolcock, 2004). In this study, linking capital involves the role of informal groups and networks in linking local people to external resources.

In summary, most researchers tend to summarise the components of social capital into four broad categories:

- Networks, relationships and connections
- Trust

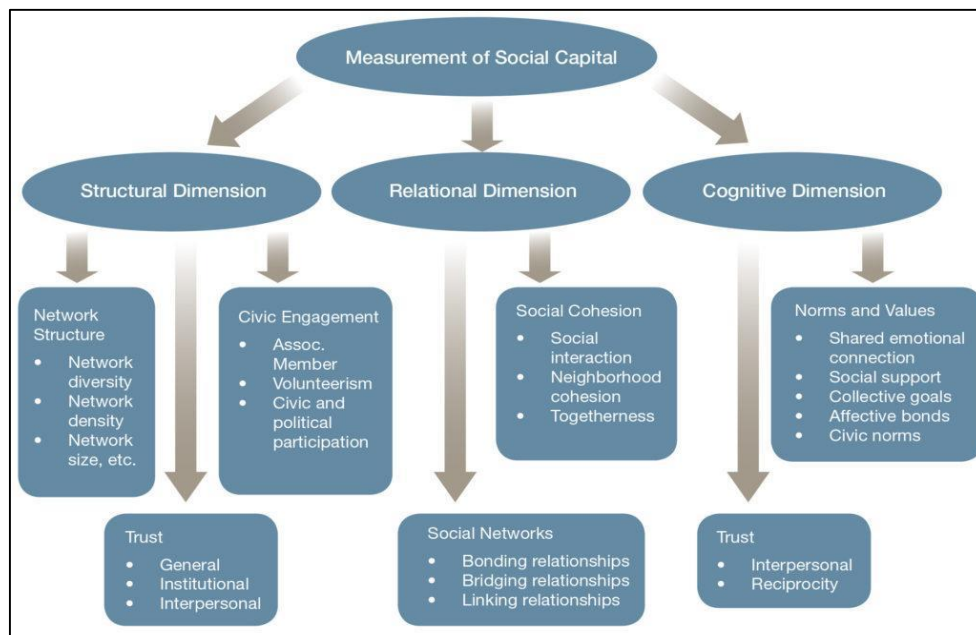
- Civic engagement and voluntary activities (including cooperation, political participation, social participation, associational memberships, community volunteerism, etc.)
- Civic norms, shared norms and values

The OECD concluded that there is convergence around a number of key dimensions:

- Political participation
- Community involvement
- Informal networks/sociability
- Trust, norms and sanctions

The important point here is that the instrument of measurement must be closely related to the theoretical understanding of social capital.

The figure below is an example prepared by the Network for Business Sustainability (nbs.net).



**Figure 2.2: Components of Social Capital**

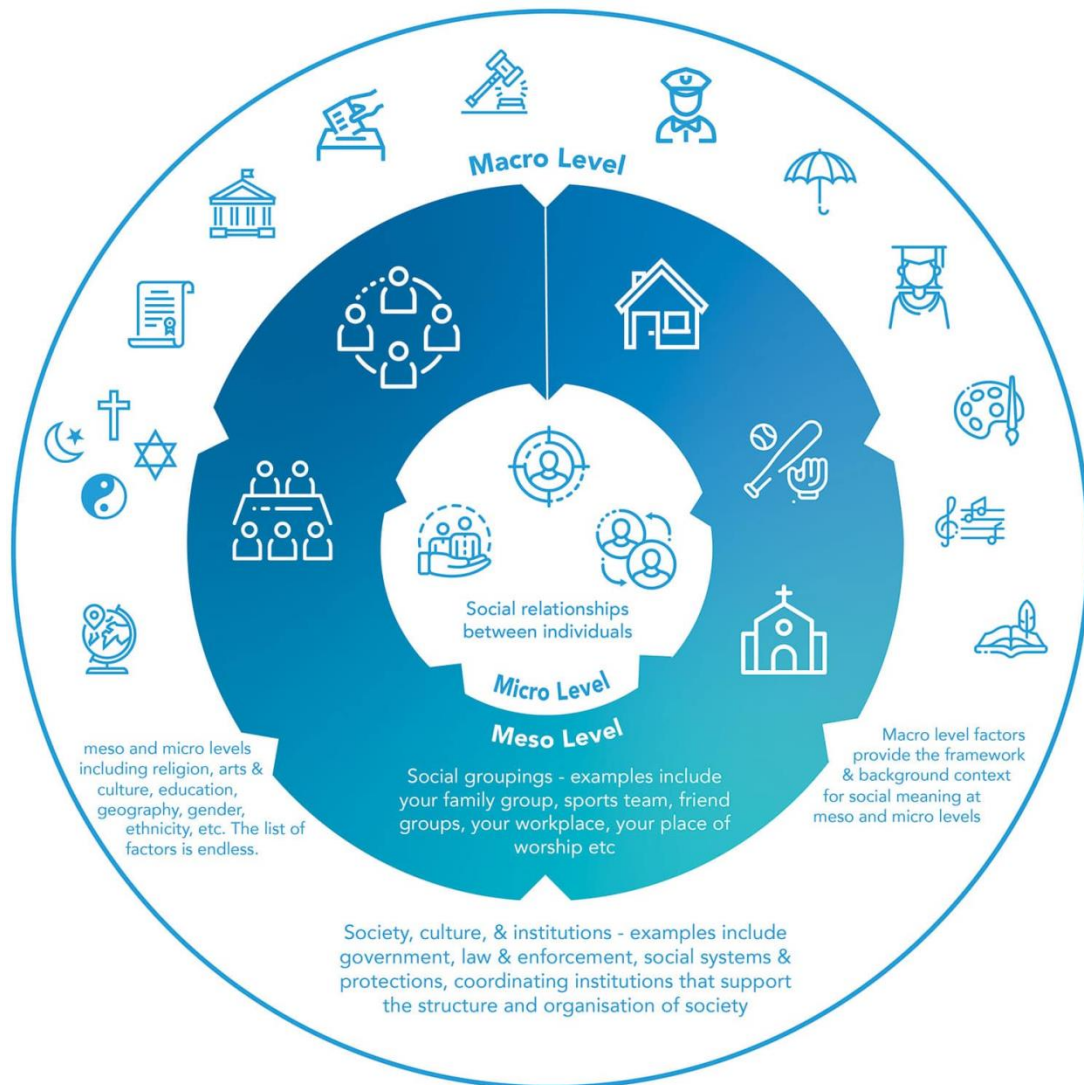
**Source: Claridge, 2017**

### 2.3.5 Levels of Social Capital

Taylor *et al.*, (2004) argues that the essence of social capital is the network of relationships, including family, friends, casual relationships and even contact with strangers, provide a rich resource in terms of knowledge, information and support in individual, organizational and public levels (Thus social capital can be analyzed in three different levels – micro (individuals), mezzo (organizations) and macro (state).

Generally, there are divergent views in the literature on different levels of social capital, some authors posit social capital at the individual level, some at the community level and others have a more dynamic view. For example, according to Bankston and Zhou (2002), social capital has been located at the level of the individual, the informal social group, the formal organization, the community, the ethnic group and even the nation. Kilby (2002) noted that social capital exists within levels as one feels belonging to family, community, profession and country. In the same vein, Adler and Kwon (2002) supported this stating that social capital's sources lie in the social structure within which the actor is located. In addition, Slangen *et al.* (2003) opines that social capital belongs to the group and can be used by the group or individuals within the group.

In literature, the general consensus is that social capital is identifiable from the individual level to the level of the nation, however it is clear that social capital is evident at any level where there is identification and belonging. The classification into micro (individual), meso (group) and macro (societal) is useful in analysis of social capital (Claridge, 2004).



**Figure 2.3 Illustration of the interaction of levels at which social capital exists**

**Source: Claridge, 2004**

### **2.3.5.1 Micro Level of Social Capital**

According to Yasunobu and Bhandari (2009) on the micro level the focus is on individuals and the relationships between individuals since social capital at this level tends to be conceptualized as the property of an individual and therefore as a private good. Further, they opine that the focus tends to be on the structural dimension and its analysis tends to make the distinction between bonding, bridging, and linking social capital.

Additionally, social capital at the individual level is conceptualized as accessible resources embedded in the social structure or social networks that will bring benefits to their owners (Lin, 2001b). It is the number and quality of social ties, and the resources those ties have access to. This implies that a high level of social capital is to have a good relationship with a lot of people who have access to valuable, and different, resources because social ties are more valuable if the other person has access to more resources, and if an individual's ties have access to different resources. The individual level is the preferred level of analysis for many economists since it suits the reductionist paradigm that dominates economics, and many other disciplines. The individual level of analysis has been criticized for the over simplification of the complex social environment.

#### **2.3.5.2 Meso Level of Social Capital**

Akram *et al* (2016) opines that at meso level social capital investigation tends to focus on a target social group as the context for analysis. This may be an organisation, a stakeholder group, or any other social grouping. The analysis may focus on internal social capital, external social capital, or both internal and external. Internal social capital resides in the relationships among the members of the group or organization whereas, external social capital exists in the shape of relationships with external actors that may be individuals or other social groups. The internal/external distinction can be a useful analytical tool for social capital at the group or organisational level (Zahra, 2010).

At the group or organisational level social capital is conceptualised more as a public good than a private good, with more emphasis on norms of trust and reciprocity,



Aldridge and Fitzpatrick (2002). The group, as a mechanism for collective action, creates shared experiences and a sense of belonging and togetherness in a common cause. Groups form rules and guidelines, and share norms and beliefs that strongly influence individual behaviour. Groups also tend to have a hierarchical structure, so emphasis tends to be placed on the role of leadership in creating or shaping group norms.

At the group level social capital is typically conceptualised as both an individual asset and a collective asset and therefore as both a private and public good. By focusing on a social grouping as the context for analysis it is possible to significantly reduce the complexity of the social environment by specifying the area of interest (Yasunobu and Bhandari, 2009).

### **2.3.5.3 Macro Level of Social Capital**

Social capital analysed at the community or societal level tends to be conceptualised as a public good that is the property of the collective rather than the individual. It is therefore a community level resource or ‘collectively-owned capital’ (Bourdieu, 1986). At this level social capital is understood to change slowly over time and be strongly rooted in history and culture. Macro level social capital theory tends to focus on trust, trustworthiness, civic norms, association membership, and voluntary activities.

Measurement at the societal level tends to be difficult due to the challenge of collecting data from a statistically significant proportion of the population. Studies typically use indexes that are “best fit” and often not rigorously related to the theory because the data was often not collected with the intent to investigate social capital.

This is because of the high cost of obtaining data from a significant proportion of the community.

From this discussion it can be concluded that social capital has both individual and collective components and is both a private and public good. It has characteristics of a private good because an individual can invest in their social capital, has some degree of ownership and control, and can derive benefits as exclusive private property (Alguezaui and Filieri, 2010). It is however also a public good since many aspects of social capital are beyond the control of individuals and affect and benefit larger groups of people, not just those who created it (Kostova and Roth 2003). There is however no consensus in the literature, especially from the early authors on social capital. For example, Coleman (1988) argued that social capital is a public good, while Fukuyama posited that it is in fact a private good (Fukuyama 2001, 2002). Fukuyama (2002) suggested that social capital is not a public good but a private good that produces extensive positive and negative externalities. This was supported by Dasgupta (1999, p. 325) who stated that 'social capital is a private good that is nonetheless pervaded by externalities, both positive and negative'. The goods produced by social capital can also occur at different levels of the social structure (Paxton 1999). It can be a private good or a public good depending on the level (Aldridge, Halpern, and Fitzpatrick 2002). Onyx and Bullen (2001) supported this, identifying that social capital appears to be both a private and a public good.

The different types of social capital are typically defined as structural social capital, cognitive social capital, and relational social capital. Another common categorization of social capital is the following types: bonding social capital, bridging social capital, and linking social capital. These dimensions are conceptual distinctions that are useful for analytic convenience but in practice social capital involves complex interrelations

between dimensions. In practice, the dimensions of social capital may be so intertwined that it is hard to dissect them. The dimensions are connected and mutually reinforcing.

In conclusion, therefore, the social capital components adopted in the study were advanced by Grootaert *et al.* (2003) at the World Bank that suggests the Integrated Questionnaire for the Measurement of Social Capital (SC-IQ). They provided an Integrated Questionnaire for the Measurement of Social Capital (SC-IQ) for those interested in generating quantitative data on various dimensions of social capital as part of larger household surveys. The SC-IQ focuses on measurement at the micro level, i.e. level of households and individuals. It does not collect data at the level of community unlike other instruments. All questions are addressed to individuals, in the context of a household survey, and the objective is to obtain information about the participation of household members in groups and associations, perceptions of trust and empowerment, household participation in collective action. In addition, the Integrated Questionnaire for the Measurement of Social Capital (SC-IQ) focus is on applications in developing countries. The tool aims to generate quantitative data on various dimensions of social capital as part of a larger household survey (such as the Living Standards Measurement Survey or a household income/expenditure survey). Specifically, six dimensions are considered: groups and networks; trust and solidarity; collective action and cooperation; information and communication; social cohesion and inclusion; empowerment and political action;

#### **(i) Groups and Networks**

This category considers the nature and extent of a household member's participation in various types of social organizations and informal networks, and the range of contributions that one gives and receives from them. It also considers the diversity of

a given group's membership, how its leadership is selected, and how one's involvement has changed over time. Social capital helps to disseminate information, reduces opportunistic behavior, and facilitates collective decision-making. At the level of households, the density of membership is measured by the average number of memberships of each household in existing organizations. World Bank, (2000). Analysis in several countries has suggested that internally diverse associations yield higher levels of benefits than others, although homogeneous associations make it easier to bring about collective action (Grootaert 1999, 2001).

Regarding the issue on networks, the SC-IQ provides three items of information: the size of the network, its internal diversity and the extent to which it would provide assistance in case of need. Since "network" is a difficult concept to define concretely in the context of a household survey, a pragmatic approach has been taken whereby a network is seen as a circle of "close friends" with whom one feels at ease with, can talk to about private matters, or call upon for help in times of need. The size of the network that one has, is then captured by the number of such close friends (World Bank, 2000).

## **(ii) Trust and Solidarity**

This category deals on trust towards neighbors, key service providers, like NGOs, the government, and strangers, and how these perceptions have changed over time. Trust is focused both on generalized trust (the extent to which one trusts people overall) and on the extent of trust in specific types of people. Trust is also viewed in the context of specific transactions, such as lending and borrowing (World Bank, 2002). Generalized trust is defined as an individual's evaluation of the trustworthiness of the average person, i.e. people in general (Glanville and Paxton 2007). Generalized trust is of

interest to research on social capital due to its hypothesized potential to enable people to connect with others unlike themselves, thereby granting access to resources embedded in different social spheres. Particularized trust, on the other hand, concerns trust in specific people. Particularized trust generally refers to trust in neighbors, which is assumed to indicate the resources and relationships available in the local community.

A study carried out on trust in Uganda, by Narayan and Cassidy (2001), found that from a series of questions on trust, three factors emerged which identified three different dimensions of trust: trust in agencies, trust in members of one's immediate environment and trust in the business community (Narayan and Cassidy 2001). In addition, trust, an aspect of cognitive social capital can increase citizen participation in groups and networks that help them identify common priorities and more effectively voice their demands. When people in the communities can clearly and articulately voice their demands, they can better monitor the improvement of government services, increasing accountability. According to Putnam (2000), building relationships and trust at different levels leads to increased citizen engagement and more responsive governance. Social capital flows from individual interaction to larger organizations and collective activities, ultimately enhancing the effectiveness of governments and institutions. At the local level, bonding social capital helps like-minded individuals act collectively and begin to develop a voice; bridging social capital amplifies citizen voice when several groups aggregate together; and linking social capital connects citizen voices with government officials and others who can influence decision-making.

According to Dudwick, *et al.* (2006) solidarity is the dimension of cognitive social capital that refers to the extent to which people feel they can rely on relatives, neighbors, colleagues, acquaintances, key service providers, and even strangers, either to assist them or (at least) do them no harm.

### **(iii) Collective Action and Cooperation**

This category explores whether and how household members have worked with others in their community on joint projects and/or in response to a crisis. It also considers the consequences of violating community expectations regarding participation. The usefulness of this indicator stems from the fact that in the vast majority of settings, collective action is possible only if a significant amount of social capital is available in the community. The major exception occurs in totalitarian societies where the government can force people to work together on infrastructure projects or other types of common activities. Thus, the validity of the collective action indicator as a measure of social capital needs to be evaluated against the political context of a society (World Bank, 2002).

Collective action is an important aspect of community life in many countries, although the purposes of the action may differ widely. In some countries, collective action consists primarily of community-organized activities for building and maintaining infrastructure and for providing related public services. In other countries, collective action is more politically oriented and used primarily to lobby elected officials to provide more services to the community. (Ostrom & Ahn, 2003).

Collective action problems can describe how a group of people can solve collective problems i.e. provide collective goods that they needed. Theories of collective action describe setting on a group of individuals, a common interest among them, and

potential conflict between the common interest and each individual's interest (Ostrom & Ahn, 2003). The role of collective action in a rural setting, for common pool resources (CPR), needs to be managed by a community hence it is more important in this context.

#### **(iv) Information and Communication**

Access to information is being increasingly recognized as central to helping poor communities have a stronger voice in matters affecting their well-being (World Bank 2002). This category of questions explores the ways and means by which poor households receive information regarding market conditions and public services, and the extent of their access to communications infrastructure.

It is a list of sources of information and means of communication. Analysis of this information is equally straightforward. This category involves an assessment of the relative importance of groups and networks as sources for important information compared to "impersonal" sources such as newspapers or television, because information on government activities and markets is directly relevant for the generation of income and/or for non-monetary aspects of wellbeing.

#### **(v) Social Cohesion and Inclusion**

"Communities" are not single entities, but rather are characterized by various forms of division and difference that can lead to conflict. It involves, inclusion, sociability, and conflict and violence. The section on inclusion ranges from general perceptions of social unity and togetherness of the community to specific experiences with exclusion. The "sociability" can take the form of meetings with people in public places, visits to other people's homes or visits from others into one's own home, and participation in community events such as sports or ceremonies. The presence of

conflict in a community or in a larger area is often an indicator of the lack of trust or the lack of appropriate structural social capital to resolve conflicts (World Bank, 2002).

#### **(vi) Empowerment and Political Action**

Individuals are “empowered” to the extent they have a measure of control over institutions and processes directly affecting their well-being (World Bank, 2002). Empowerment refers to the expansion of assets and capabilities of people to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control, and hold accountable institutions that affect their lives (World Bank 2002). Empowerment is brought about by a wide range of actions, such as making state institutions more responsive to poor people, removing social barriers, and building social opportunity. Empowerment is thus a broader concept than social capital, and political action is only one of many activities that can be undertaken to increase empowerment. (World Bank, 2000). Political action includes filing petitions, attending public meetings, meeting with politicians, participating in demonstrations and campaigns, and voting in elections.

In this study social capital was, therefore, interpreted as the social valuable resources that communities utilize to attain social economic livelihood.

#### **2.4 Effects of Social Capital Integration**

The effects of social capital integration on socio-economic livelihoods can be better understood in light of the principle governing it as espoused below;

First, it should be people centered: sustainable poverty elimination will be achieved only if external support focuses on what matters to people, understands the differences between groups of people and works with them in a way that fits in with their current livelihood strategies, social environment and ability to adapt. Secondly, it



should be responsive and participatory: poor people must be key actors in identifying and addressing livelihood priorities. Outsiders need processes that enable them to listen and respond to the poor. Thirdly, it must be multi-level: poverty elimination is an enormous challenge that will only be overcome by working at multiple levels, ensuring that local-level activity informs the development of policy and an effective enabling environment, and that higher-level policies and institutions support people to build upon their own strengths. Fourthly, it ought to be conducted in partnership: with both the public and the private sector. Fifth, it has to be sustainable: there are four key dimensions to sustainability - economic, institutional, social and environmental sustainability. All are important - a balance must be found between them. Finally, it has to be dynamic in nature: external support must recognize the dynamic nature of livelihood strategies, respond flexibly to changes in people's situation, and develop longer-term commitments. The following are the effects of social capital integration on livelihood;

#### **2.4.1 Social Economic Livelihoods**

The term “livelihood” refers to a way of living to sustain one’s life and provide basic needs (Khatun & Roy, 2012). The arrangement of activities that households choose to embark on to attain sustainable livelihoods is inspired by livelihood strategies (Ellis & Allison, 2004). The activities are differentiated on the basis of the situation of the activities: on-farm, non-farm or off-farm (OECD, 2011). In each location, diversification activities are differentiated according to the type of output, whether: agricultural produce (growing crops or raising livestock); continuance (processing of food or providing contracting services to other farmers); or involvement in other sectors by the household to acquire proceeds (OECD, 2011). According to Sisay (2010), households diversify because of the need to enhance their capabilities and

assets, realization of economies of scope, liquidity constraints and to stabilize income flows and consumption risk. Households seek to diversify their livelihood to help reduce risks, particularly those associated with seasonality of rain-fed agriculture and termination of mineral extraction (OECD, 2011). Livelihood diversification can also help the rural inhabitants avoid environmental and economic trends and seasonality shocks, and hence make them less vulnerable (UN and NEPAD-OECD, 2011). They also use it as a strategy to combine activities that add to the accumulation of wealth in the household (Khatun & Roy, 2012). Therefore, the economic wellbeing of a household is inextricably dependent upon the set of livelihood diversification activities that it adopts.

Bebbington (2007), opines that social capital is conceived as part of a system of social, economic and cultural structures which can only be understood in terms of the distribution of resources and power relationships. The argument is that socio-economic development and poverty reduction are about power, that is, who controls what resources and who has access to it and who does not (Molyneux, 2002). Additionally, politics shapes the lives of poor and marginalised people in the community in various ways and their interactions and experiences with formal and informal types of politics often exacerbate their vulnerability and diminish their sense of dignity (Hickey 2008). Examples of this include denying women access to farming land, or when specific groups are discriminated against. This is manifested when the poor struggle to organise or empower themselves, when actors in civil and political society fail to represent them, and when political elites fail to recognise those cast aside as deserving (Hickey 2008: 349). In support of this position, Hickey (2009), states that “politics closely shapes processes of both development and underdevelopment and the challenge of ensuring greater equity and social justice is

essentially a political one". Politics therefore underlies the success as well as the failure of development (Moore 2003 in Hickey, 2008).

Espinoza (2001) considers the following variables for the measurement of social capital: First is Associativity, which is a variable that has to do with the interest of people to participate in the actions of the group. The second one is Density, which establishes belonging or considering themselves part of the community. The third variable is Centrality that has to do with the coordination that is maintained between internal and external relations. The fourth one is Mediation, which is a variable that has to do with the processes of recognition of a member as part of an organization. Lastly, is Fractions which is the level of conflict that is present in the group is measured.

Dhesi (2000), notes that all forms of capital including physical, human, natural, financial and social capital are essential for development but none of them is sufficient to ensure socio-economic development. There is need therefore for a holistic approach. He further argues that social capital cannot achieve everything or perhaps anything, on its own. If no economic opportunities exist, social capital will not make much of a difference. However, according to Woolcock (2002), when social capital is combined with other capitals (natural, physical and human) these can become more efficient and social capital can create the opportunity for links with other groups, and with authorities to systematically address socioeconomic development concerns, including reducing poverty. Hence, when considering socio-economic development alternatives, social capital has to be considered in how social capital can contribute, how it can be increased and how it should be considered in development initiatives to link state and society for optimal outcomes (Dhesi, 2000).

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Further, “Livelihood capitals” refer to the vital resource bases of communities and different categories of households FAO (2005). There is some international scientific consensus that livelihood capital comprises five categories: human, natural, financial, physical and social capitals Ansoms and McKay (2010). Generally, livelihoods approaches focus on the material value of household “capitals” rather than cognitive and social use values (Van Dijk, 2011) and poverty is defined as a lack of “capitals” (a condition) rather than as an absence of “entitlements” (a relation) (Van Dijk, 2011). However, it is very important to recognize the contemporary livelihoods approach which defines livelihood as the combination of capabilities, resources, and activities required to sustain a living.

#### **2.4.1.1 Human Capital**

According to the Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) Human Capital represents the skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health that together enable people to pursue different livelihood strategies and achieve their livelihood objective Sayer and Campbell (2003). Human capital must be seen as a keystone within the SLA, for the reason that the other capitals are, at the least, partly based on the human capital as a basic requirement. Especially for rural, resource dependent people the assessment of this capital implicates difficulties, as for example indigenous knowledge is difficult to evaluate (Kollmair 2002).

#### **2.4.1.2 Social Capital**

Social Capital includes informal networks, membership of formalised groups and relationships of trust that facilitate co-operation” (Clark and Carney 2008, Sayer and Campbell 2003). The nature of social capital is often determined by the social class of the stakeholder, often influenced by gender, age and/ or caste. The inclusion of stakeholders into a network or group implicates the exclusion of others which can

result in an interference of development. The high local value of the social capital clearly derives of its capacity of compensating calamities or shortage of other capitals.

#### **2.4.1.3 Physical Capital**

Physical capital is a measure for the existence of physical requirements needed to support livelihood in a sense of infrastructure. The role of this asset can be seen in the context of opportunity costs, where an existing accessible infrastructure releases either labour or provides time as a resource, for example education Ellis (2000). It comprises the productive assets that a household possesses which include transport, shelter and buildings, water supply and sanitation, energy and communications and producer goods needed to support livelihoods. (Mankiw & Taylor, 2015).

#### **2.4.1.4 Natural Capital**

Natural capital describes especially for resource dependent communities the stock all livelihood activities are built on. This capital represents in particular for rural communities, with a high proportion for poor stakeholders, an essential value which in fact is prone to calamities. Not seldom these calamities are caused by natural processes e.g. floods, fires, seasonal storms, earthquakes. Natural capital can be accumulated from two different sources; one source is represented by available stock in the form of cash or equivalent available assets as livestock, the other source is characterised by the external inflow of money which originates from labour income, pensions, remittances or other types of financial liabilities. Within the five capitals, the financial capital enables people to adapt to different livelihood strategies. It sets the precondition for the creation or improvement of other capitals than financial capital. Complementing natural capital with human, physical, and social capital greatly increases its productive capacity (World Bank, 2012).

#### **2.4.1.5 Financial Capital**

It refers to the financial resources that people use to achieve their livelihood objectives. It includes flows as well as stocks and it can refer to consumption as well as production. Finance is an important livelihood building block, that is, the availability of cash or equivalent that enables people to adopt different livelihood strategies (UNDP, 2015). Savings are the preferred type of financial capital because they do not have liabilities attached and usually do not entail reliance on others. They can be held in several forms: cash, bank deposits or liquid assets such as livestock and jewellery. Financial resources can also be obtained through credit-providing institutions. The most common types of inflows are pensions, or other transfers from the state, payments for environmental services and remittances. To make a positive contribution to financial capital these inflows must be reliable. Hence, from the above discussions, financial capital is probably the most versatile livelihood asset (UNDP, 2015).

#### **2.4.2 Effects of Social Capital Integration on Social Economic Livelihoods**

The concept of social capital is of great importance for countries other than businesses. Although the economic, political and social dimension of development is handled separately, the fact that it is treated as a whole is very important in terms of the sustainability of development. The planning of development without adding a human, human relations, networks and norms to the account, is no different from planning to eat without material (Derya *et.al.* 2017).

Social capital is a resource that can be used for good or in a negative way; however, its image today is often seen in a positive manner and a theoretical and practical focus for social science (Adam & Roncevic, 2003 and Field, 2017). Through social capital



networks, individuals can access information to access services or goods in the society (Field, 2017).

Lohmann & Lohmann, (2005), argue that the use of social capital is considered beneficial because the concept focuses on a community's assets and may lead to the development of other forms of capital. He further notes that social capital is a form of assets-based development in which "community development practitioners and local citizens work together as partners in identifying available assets, connecting them in ways that multiply their power and effectiveness".

When a community lacks assets, Binswanger (2007) believes that social capital is the one capital that is most needed. In this same line of thinking, Alston (2002) writes that social capital is key to development and he states that the "enhancement of social capital, the building of trust, networks and enriched interactions at the community level are considered key to rural revitalization" Additionally, Homan (2011) opines that the development of social capital is that a "community rich in social capital will likely undertake efforts to develop other forms of capital that may be in short supply in the community". Boyd, Hayes, Wilson, & Bearsley-Smith (2008) further state that "two aspects of social capital – that is, sense of community and neighbourhood cohesion – are high in rural communities".

According to Smith (2016), social capital building relies on creating and strengthening relationships at the individual and community levels. At the individual level, families and friends play a role in building strong ties that connect individuals to opportunities while at the community level, neighborhoods help to bring people together through both formal and informal events, strengthening both bonding and bridging social capital. Community organizations, thus, play a key role in promoting

social capital by enhancing social networks. Organizations can help to foster positive relationships as a byproduct of the services they provide (Smith, 2016). This implies that if individuals are already involved with a community organization for other reasons, they will likely accrue social capital through their involvement. Organizations can also provide access to opportunities, such as providing participants information about job openings (Greenberg *et al.*, 2017). Local partnerships help to further enhance social networks through involvement in the local community and affiliated institutions. Studies by Liotta *et al.* (2018) and Imamura *et al.* (2016) found out that social capital have important effects on self-rated health (SRH), life satisfaction, depression, physical disease and even mortality among older adults.

Adam and Roncevic (2003) note that, through social capital, there has been a series of theoretical debates and empirical investigations which have stimulated reconsideration of the significance of human relations, networks, organizational forms for the quality of life and of developmental performance. Requena (2003) suggested that social capital brings together several important sociological concepts such as social support, integration and social cohesion. Rothstein (2003) who supported this view stated that the real strength of social capital theory is the combination of macro-sociological historical structures with micro-level causal mechanisms, a rare feature in the social sciences. Lyons (2000) opined that social capital is important in shaping regional development patterns.

According to Aldridge *et al.* (2002) and Halpern (2001), social capital is charged with a range of potential beneficial effects including: facilitation of higher levels of, and growth in, gross domestic product (GDP); facilitation of more efficient functioning of labor markets; lower levels of crime; and improvements in the effectiveness of institutions of government. Additionally, social capital is an important variable in

educational attainment, community governance, and economic problems (Aldridge *et al.*, 2002; Israel *et al.*, 2001 and Bowles and Gintis, 2002).

According to Woolcock (1998) and World Bank (1998), social capital is not always used for positive purposes: social relationships, networks and trust can act as a foundation for negative actions and exclusion or even oppression of particular social groups. Similarly, a society may be well-organised, with strong institutions and embedded reciprocal mechanisms, but be based on fear and power (think of feudal, hierarchical, racist societies).

Bonding social capital can have positive effects such as information sharing and enforcing common norms. Social capital also can have negative effects for example some groups bond and become inward such that they do not accept outsiders (Tonts, 2005; Walseth, 2008). Fields, 2008; Fukuyama, (1995) and Sciarrone, (2002) argue that this negative aspect of “bonding” social capital may encourage exclusivity within a group with examples including groups such as fraternities and the mafia. Bridging social capital can link individuals to groups or people outside of their networks “generating broader identities and reciprocity” as noted by Putnam, (2000). However, bridging might result in clique formation of dissatisfied individuals thereby undermining current organizational structures (Portes, 1998). Bourdeau noted the ability of networks to reinforce inequality where some members obtain a greater share of the “goods” than others (Bourdeau, 1986; Lee, Dunlap & Edwards, 2014).

According to Woolcock (1998) and World Bank (1998), social capital facilitates cooperation because people have the confidence to invest in collective activities, knowing that others will also do so. They gave the following summary on the benefits and adverse effects of the sustainability of natural resources.

The benefits conferred by social capital include:

- i. Risk management and social insurance (social capital – for example the ability to call down support from kin – can act as a buffer against the effects of shocks and adverse trends);
- ii. Better management of common and shared resources, through group action;
- iii. Reduced costs of conducting business, including lowering transactions costs and increasing the ability to exploit economies of scale;
- iv. Increased capacity to innovate (e.g. through membership of farmers' research groups which are well connected to research agencies) and to sustain activities beyond the life of projects;
- v. Improved access to information and services (including better overall links between external organisations and the poor, resulting in greater empowerment of the poor); and
- vi. Greater influence over policies and legislation.
- vii. Adverse effects of social capital upon the sustainability of natural resources
- viii. Does membership of certain groups allow over-extraction of natural resources (e.g. irrigation or drinking water, forest products) to the detriment of non-members and the resources themselves?
- ix. Do formal rules and norms trap some people within harmful social arrangements (e.g. tenancy/landlord? Relations that prevent tenants from investing in land improvement
- x. Do existing associations act as obstacles to the emergence of sustainable livelihoods (e.g. by encouraging conformity, perpetuating inequity, and allowing some individuals to coerce others)?

- xi. Maintenance of social capital is costly (time, labour, etc.) – who bears the main burden? Women often rely disproportionately on social capital to gain access to basic resources (e.g. through marriage or reliance on male kin) and often bear more of the responsibility for maintaining it.

Generally, social capital supports economic development, primarily by enabling transactions among individuals, households, and groups. Participation of individuals in social networks increases the availability of information and reduces their cost. An example of such information is information about the prices of certain products on the market, the emergence of new markets, financial resources, new jobs, the reliability of a particular dealer, etc. Participation in local networks and mutual trust allow certain social groups to make decisions and implement collective action.

Şavkar, (2011) alludes that when societies are examined in a sociological sense, the level of social capital of societies is positively and significantly related to the level of development of societies. He further asserts that social capital is seen as a society in which higher societies are safer, cleaner, healthier, and cultured, whereas societies with lower social capital levels have inverse characteristics with constant political, ethnic, religious and sectarian conflicts and that these scarce resources are wasted.

Ring, Peredo & Chrisman (2010) express their concern that social capital can be negative if it leads to excluding others, and Shortall (2008) states that the “social capital debate neglects considerations of power and social inequality” (p. 454). Unfortunately, this is not the only concern that is associated with the concept of social capital; Vermaak (2009) believes that there are “four negative consequences of social capital: exclusion of outsiders, excessive claims on group members, restrictions on

individual freedom and downward leveling norms”. Lastly, as studies have shown, social capital is difficult to measure (Vermaak, 2009, p. 401).

Potential downsides of social capital include: fostering behavior that worsens rather than improves economic performance; acting as a barrier to social inclusion and social mobility; dividing rather than uniting communities or societies; facilitating rather than reducing crime, education underachievement and health-damaging behaviour (Aldridge *et al.*, 2002). Social capital can become a constraint to individuals’ actions and choices. For example, there is a particularly high risk of negative social capital in urban poverty situations (Small, 2002)

The challenges of utilizing social capital to study the development of a community include a lack of empirical evidence that social capital will lead to increased development, confusion about the concept of social capital, potential negative impacts of building social capital and difficulty in measuring social capital (Deller & Deller, 2010).

It can be argued that the level of social capital can benefit a community in a multitude of ways, including a low rate of crime. However, Deller & Deller (2010) noted that “social capital is necessary but not sufficient to deter crime” which makes one wonder if social capital is all that influential in a community’s health (p. 269). Additionally, as observed by Bolton (2011), social capital has become a confusing concept because people mention their 300 friends on Facebook when referring to a high level of social capital. In the same way that individuals relate social capital with a number instead of relationships built on trust, groups within may focus on participation rather than relationship building in the development of social capital.

Although social capital has been cited as an asset to facilitating community development and uniting groups to further a cause, the concept has also been criticized for ignoring the differences between groups. Arneil (2006) writes that social capital gives power to some over others and that a lack in social capital stems from growing inequality among different groups and “the historical reality of exclusion, assimilation and eradication in the civic life of America”.

Anderson *et al.* (2002) opine that enhanced social capital can improve environmental outcomes through decreased costs of collective action, increase in knowledge and information flows, increased cooperation, less resource degradation and depletion, more investment in common lands and water systems, improved monitoring and enforcement.

## **2.5 Theoretical Framework /Conceptual Framework**

This study adopted a social capital theory as propounded by Coleman (1998) which was later enlarged by Putnam (2000). For Coleman, social capital is a resource that can be used by economic actors to enable productivity. It refers to multiple features of social organization: (1) trust and obligations, (2) information channels and (3) norms and effective sanctions. These three dimensions affect a society’s efficiency by encouraging coordination and cooperation among individuals or social groups and each are as explained below;

The trust and obligations aspect of social capital is based on the trustworthiness of the social environment when making agreements. The confidence that other people “share your fundamental values” (Uslaner, 2002, p. 2) creates bonds between people, facilitating cooperation and efficiency. Societal structures also play an important role in shaping trust. General trust in the quality of the political, legal and institutional

environment influences individual outcomes as well as social group interactions (North, 1990), thus increasing a society's overall effectiveness (Paxton, 1999; Paldam, 2001).

Information channels, such as meeting colleagues, friends or family, "constitute a form of social capital that provides information that facilitates action" (Coleman, 1988, p. S104). A frequent resort to interpersonal networks increases the speed of the diffusion of information and serves as an important knowledge resource for individuals. Furthermore, interaction tends to generate trust and cooperation.

Finally, norms and effective sanctions depict the third key form of social capital. A society with solid norms and transparent and effective sanctions reduces the incentives for criminal action. Individuals who do not feel afraid but feel safe in the surroundings they live in develop stronger ties within their community. Effective norms can "facilitate exchanges, lower transaction costs, reduce the cost of information, permit trade in the absence of contracts, encourage responsible citizenship and the collective management of resources" (Woolcock and Narayan, 2000, p.16).

Letter on, Putnam (2000) has enlarged Coleman's social capital theory by focusing on the positive added value of interpersonal networks. He evaluated the effect of both formal (political, civic or work-related) and informal (interaction with family and friends) associational engagement. Putnam posits that tighter and larger personal networks bring about significant benefits to society. If individuals are members of more than one social network, their frequency of interaction increases. Parallel and overlapping interactions produce beneficial effects by reducing opportunism and strengthening cooperation. Solidarity, "public-spiritedness as well as a sense of shared



responsibility for collective endeavours” (Putnam, 1993, p. 90) enhances trust. Thus, according to Putnam, a strong network of associations, no matter which form, creates positive externalities fostering trust, stability, governmental efficiency and economic growth.

Putnam’s view is, however, not shared by Olson, who tends to consider social associations (e.g., Labour/trade unions, professional organizations, lobby groups or political parties) as special interest groups, which are not necessarily beneficial to societies. As a consequence of their rent-seeking character, social associations may cause negative externalities imposing social losses on the rest of society. In Olson’s view, associations do not seek to increase the size of the cake, but simply endeavour to receive a “larger slice of the social pie” (Olson, 1982, p. 43) for their members at the expense of society as a whole. Eventually, interest groups’ actions are likely to trigger redistribution mechanisms which transfer wealth from non-members to members causing efficiency losses, reductions in output and in the overall rate of innovation (Olson, 1982; Keefer and Knack, 1997; Knack, 2003). Olson-type interest groups tend to remain exclusive by limiting membership and excluding new entrants in order to maximize the individual member’s profit. Conflicts of interest between social groups weaken the stability of the economy and limit economic growth, generating costs for the rest of society (Olson, 1982).

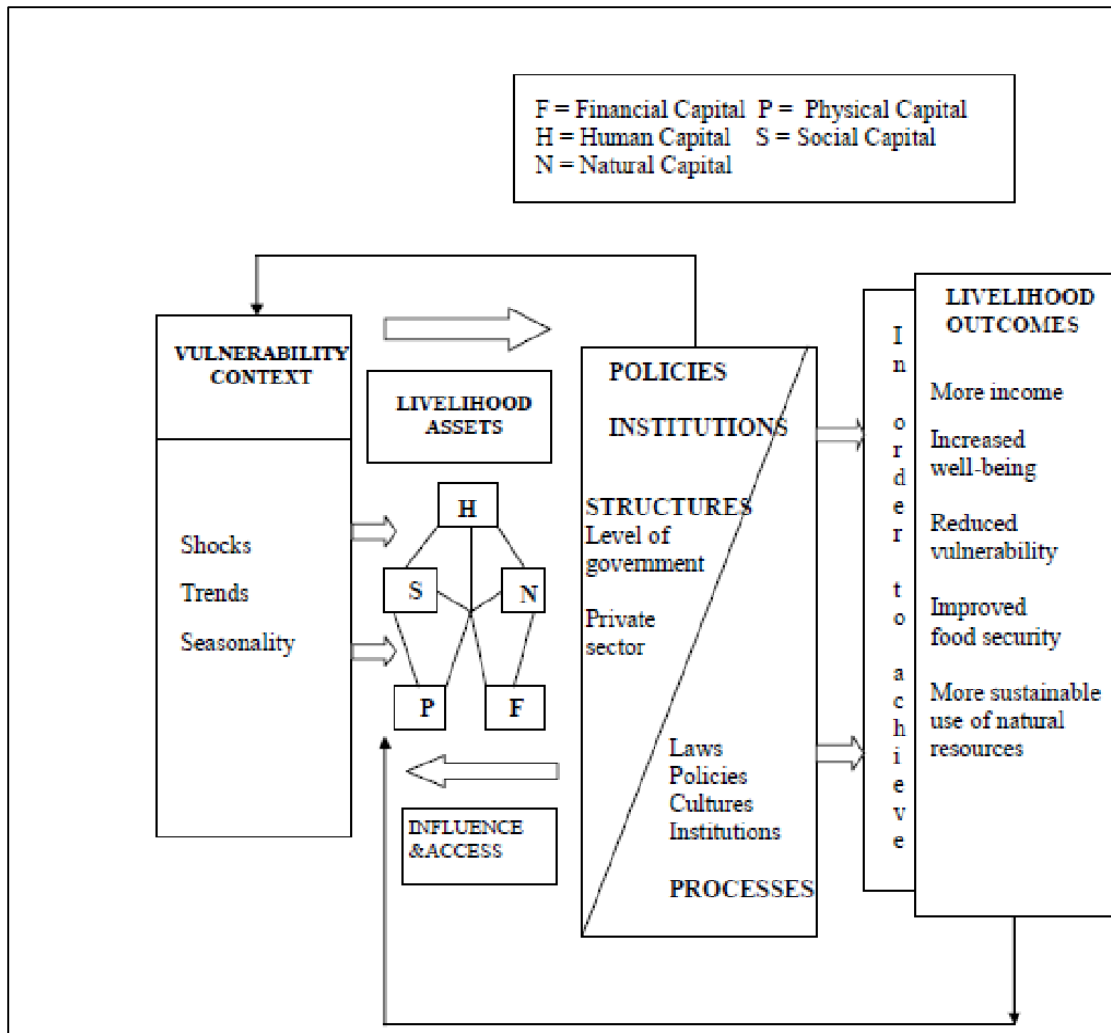
In this study, social capital theory used a combination of above three dimensions proposed by Coleman: trust; information channels; norms and sanctions. In trust dimension, the study adopted Paxton (1999) a two-dimensional proposed trust as category, namely trust in society as a whole and trust in institutions. The author further subdivides information channels into Putnam-type informal, as well as formal associational activity yielding positive externalities (informally meeting with friends,

relatives, colleagues, but also participating in associations such as churches, voluntary work) and potentially negative externality creating Olson-type associations and special interest groups, such as political parties, professional organizations or trade unions.

### **2.5.1 Sustainable Livelihood Framework**

The framework adopted in this study is the Sustainable Livelihood Framework by the Department for International Development (DFID, 1999). This framework is useful for understanding how underlying constraints affect livelihoods and access to livelihood resources as well as understanding the roles and dynamics of institutions in providing an enabling environment for sustainable livelihoods. The concept of ‘sustainable livelihoods’ was first introduced by the Brundtland Commission on Environment and Development and then further expanded by The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development in 1992 (Krantz, 2001). Since then, a number of international agencies have adapted different models/approaches based on the concept (GLOPP, 2008).

For the purpose of this study, the DFID’s Sustainable Livelihood Framework was adapted, modified and used as the conceptual framework that underpins the study. The framework as illustrated in Figure 2.4 is in five parts namely the Vulnerability Context, Livelihood Assets, Organisations and Institutions, Livelihood Strategies, and Livelihood Outcomes.



**Figure 2.4: Sustainable Livelihood Framework**

**Source: DFID, 2009**

F = Financial Capital P = Physical Capital

H = Human Capital S = Social Capital

N = Natural Capital

Livelihoods (Natarajan, et'al, 2022), as a term, an approach or framework, and as an epistemology, continues to be very broadly used and practised in a manner quite close to its original formulation. It remains highly popular, if popularity is measured in terms of use. As Scoones (2015:10) writes, it “seems livelihoods approaches are now applied to literally everything”. Yet arguably, its approach and focus on village

life and individual capabilities render it somewhat dated in capturing the shifts that have occurred in rural livelihoods over recent years.

The approach is full of principles – it claims, for instance, to be participatory, holistic, people-centred, localist, and empowering – but there is little focus among proponents on the theoretical principles that underpin these methods and approaches. Drawn from Sen's (1999) Human Capabilities approach, this theoretical underpinning situates the locus of analysis within the household, and beyond this, the individual. Structural determinants of poverty are under-addressed, both in mapping livelihoods and concurrently in devising development programmes.

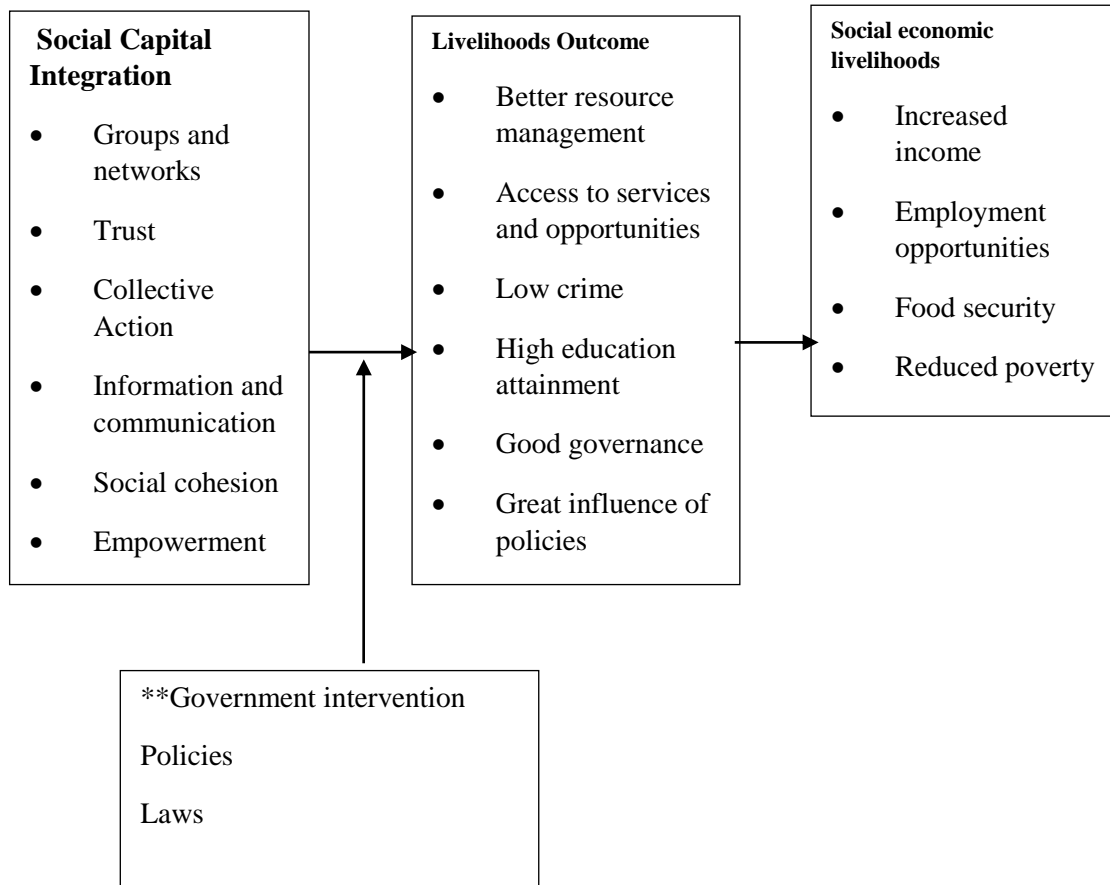
As globalisation has captured and integrated villages more closely into global markets, and countries in the global South have rapidly shifted towards industrial and services sector-led growth, processes of labour migration, remittances, and small-scale commercial agriculture progressively characterise rural life (Borras, 2009). Sustainable Livelihoods (SL) is closely associated with Robert Chambers. The foundational publication was a 1992 working paper that he co-authored with Gordan Conway: "Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: Practical Concepts for the 21st Century", published by the Institute of Development Studies.

In their working paper, Chambers and Conway write (1992: 5, Scoones, 1998: 5) that a "livelihood in its simplest sense is a means of gaining a living". "A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living: a living is sustainable which can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation".

## **2.6 Conceptual Framework**

The term conceptual framework has been defined differently by different scholars in research. For instance, Ravitch and Rigan (2016) defines it as a guide and a ballast to the research functioning as an integrating ecosystem that helps a researcher to intentionally bring all aspects of a study together through a process that explores their connections, disjuncture, overlaps, tensions, and the contexts shaping research setting and the study of a phenomenon in that setting. While Maxwell (2005) defines it as a system of concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs and theories that supports and informs research. Miles & Huberman, (1994) defines it as a visual or written product, one that explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied – the key factors, concepts, or variables – and the presumed relationships among them.

In line with the above definitions, the later by Miles and Huberman (1994) seem to be clear on the explanation which the study adopts as it is shown below;



**Figure 2.5: Conceptual Framework**

**Source (Researcher, 2020)**

The framework can be applied at a range of different scales, individual, household, household cluster, extended kin grouping, village, region or even nation, with sustainable livelihood outcomes assessed at different levels (Scoones, 1998). The household has the social capital livelihood resources apart from the human capital, natural capital and financial capital as depicted in Figure 2.5. The households in the study area are confronted with vulnerable situations and low opportunities such as macro-economic conditions, climate, trade terms and demography (Scoones, 1998) and diseases and absolute poverty which have led to unemployment, low productivity and low incomes. With these conditions, they draw on from different components of social capital which include groups and networks, trust and solidarity, collective actions and cooperation, information and communication, social cohesion and

inclusion, and empowerment and political action. This will further develop a range of livelihood activities while influenced by government intervention to achieve desired outcomes like better management of shared resources, access to information and services, access to opportunities, efficient labour market, effectiveness of government institutions, low level of crime, high education attainment, good governance and greater influence of policies. The outcomes continue to influence the livelihood resources that households are embedded with which will eventually lead to socio economic livelihoods. Socio economic livelihood outcomes include benefits of being involved in one of the groups or activities which in the long run are expected to be increased income, food security, reduced poverty in the area and improvement of well-being.

## **2.7 Literature Review Gap**

Despite the ever-increasing studies in the area of the social capital impact on economic livelihood, they are mainly concentrated in regional and international arenas and therefore this study sought to try and fill this gap by centering in on a rural setup in Kenya.

## **2.8 Chapter Summary**

This chapter sought to provide a detailed analysis of the relevant available literature on the main concepts on the impact of social capital on socio-economic livelihood and it is evident that social capital should play a greater role in trying to alleviate poverty especially in rural areas. It also highlights the gaps present in previous studies and how this study will seek to fill them.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Overview**

This chapter presents the philosophical orientation and methodology approach that guided the study. It also presents research design, study area, target population, sample size and sampling design, data collection instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis and presentation techniques and ethical considerations. It seeks to justify the relevance and validity of the research processes that guided and supported the study.

#### **3.2 The Study Area**

Elgeyo Marakwet County, whose Headquarters is Iten, is inhabited by two major communities, Keiyo and Marakwet, minority community of Sengwer and other small communities. All the communities occupy unique locations defined by the distinct ecological zones in the county, i.e. the Highland, the Escarpment and the Valley. The county is home to world's greatest athletes, which has led to the county being branded 'County of Champions'. The high-altitude topography and sports training grounds, compounded with ideal climatic conditions, favor training of athletes eventually contributing to excellence in athletics, both locally and internationally. Agriculture is the backbone of the county's economy with more than 80% of the population engaging in farming and related activities. The County is also known for its unique tourism niches which include a national Game reserve, athletics, paragliding and the people's rich culture among other tourism activities that boost the County's revenue. Elgeyo Marakwet County covers a total area of 3029.6 km<sup>2</sup> which constitutes 0.4 percent of Kenya's total area. It extends from latitude 0° 20' to 1° 30' to the North and longitude 35° 0' to 35° 45' to the East. It borders West Pokot County to the



North, Baringo County to the East, Trans Nzoia County to the Northwest and Uasin Gishu County to the West. The county has an elongated shape and is wedged in between the Uasin Gishu Plateau to the West and the Kerio River to the East. The Kerio River has its source in the southern highlands of the county and drains into Lake Turkana (Elgeyo Marakwet County Development Plan, 2018-2022).

### **3.2.1 Population Density and Settlements**

According to 2019 census, the County's total population stood at 454,480 persons; of this 227,317 are females, 227,151 males and 12 intersex persons. There are 99,861 households in the county with an average size of 4.5 persons per household with a density population of 150 persons per square km. The County's economic growth rate is 2.9 percent which is slightly lower than the National growth rate of 3.1 percent. The population is made up of a number of Kenyan communities and it is mainly occupied by Keiyo, Sengwer also called Cherangany. The Marakwet are a sub-tribe of the larger ethnic grouping of the Kalenjin (Nzau, 2020). Majority of the residents reside in the rural areas therefore a large percentage of the county population is in rural (Elgeyo Marakwet Integrated Development Plan 2018-2020).

### **3.2.2 Climatic conditions**

According to CIDP (2018), Temperatures range from a minimum of 14 °C to a maximum of 24 °C. The long rains start in early March and continue up to the end of June while the short rains start in mid-September and end in November. The dry spell is usually experienced from the end of December to mid-March. The average annual rainfall in the county ranges from 700mm in the semi-arid Kerio valley to 1700 mm on the Keiyo and Marakwet highlands (Cherangany Hills). The County thus shows a trend of decreasing rainfall from west to east. In altitude, the Highland

plateau rises from an altitude of 2700 meters above sea level on the Metkei Ridges in the South to 3350 metres above sea level on the Cherangany Hills to the North.

The county is divided into three topographic zones namely: The Highlands, Kerio Valley and The Escarpment: all of them separated by the conspicuous Elgeyo Escarpment. (CIDP, 2018-2020). The Highlands constitutes 49 percent of the county's area and is densely populated due to its endowment with fertile soils and reliable rainfall. The Escarpment and the Kerio Valley make up 11percent and 40 percent respectively. There is a marked variation in amount of rainfall in the three zones; The Highlands receive between 1200mm and 1500mm per annum while The Escarpment and the Kerio Valley receives rainfall ranging between 1000mm to 1400mm per annum.

### **3.2.3 Socio- Economic Factors**

Elgeyo Marakwet County is endowed with a scenic topography. The Kerio River binds the county on the eastern side. From its alluvial plain the topography gradually rises towards the west. The Elgeyo Escarpment stands out distinctly and causes elevation differences of up to 1,500 m. In the northern and southern part of the county the topography is rugged, giving way to more subdued relief differences going westwards. The underlying geology mainly consists of gneisses from the Basement System.

Elgeyo Marakwet County is a rural county that majorly relies on agriculture as the main economic activity. Although farming has been supported by the government over the years, poverty indices have remained high, with 47 percent living below the poverty line. Similarly, the literacy levels stand at 47.4 percent while the unemployment rate is at 50 percent (County Integrated Development plan CIDPII,

2018 – 2022). Consequently, the economic growth rate of 2.9 percent in the county has remained below the national growth rate of 3.1 percent. Furthermore, the HDI is 0.52 which is less than the national HDI of 0.53. These indicators point to some potential that needs to be explored so as to ensure improved growth and socio-economic livelihoods and ultimately the realization of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

The land generally has rather steep slopes and this type of topography has made transport networks very difficult to establish and this factor alone has created a drawback in provision of development facilities in the affected regions. The topography of this region has influenced the type and scale of economic activities in the region just as in other areas. Farming productivity is high due to high soil productivity and less capital injection towards soil conservation activities.

Economic activity in the county is characterized by mixed farming, which consists mainly of livestock and subsistence farming. Other activities include small business, tourism and fluorspar mining in Kerio Valley. Elgeyo Marakwet County depends on industries like agriculture, sports, and tourism. The county is notable for its long-standing tradition of producing top athletes who have represented Kenya in many international athletics events. Oil prospecting by Tullow Oil Company is currently ongoing in Kerio Valley and Kenya Fluorspar Company located in Kimwarer in the southern part of Kerio Valley.

The major crops in the area are maize, wheat, Irish potatoes and beans and they vary according to ecological zones. Potato and maize are the most important food crops in the area. (Elgeyo Marakwet County Integrated Development Plan 2013 – 2017, August 2013). Despite its huge resource potential in agriculture, tourism and mining, conflicts continue to thrive in Elgeyo Marakwet particularly along its border with

Turkana, poverty levels remain high and high unemployment levels are persistent (County integrated Development plan CIDPII, 2018 – 2022). This study sought to determine whether integration of social capital is likely to enhance socio-economic livelihoods.

### **3.3 Philosophical Paradigm**

Philosophical paradigm are the lens through which a researcher views the world and examines the methodological components of their research to make a decision on the methods to use for data collection and analysis. The world view informs the type of research design employed. This orientation may be shaped by such factors as the researcher's area of discipline, experiences of the scholar and beliefs. The approach combines deductive and inductive thinking, as the researcher mixes both qualitative and quantitative data (Cresswell & Clark, 2007). Pragmatism is pluralistic and oriented towards what works and practice Lincoln and Guba (1985), hold a common view that a paradigm is an interpretive framework that is guided by a set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied. Creswell (2003).

This study adopted the pragmatic philosophical paradigm which requires the use of a quantitative and a qualitative method to find solution to the problem which was social capital integration and its role in enhancing socio economic livelihood in Elgeyo Marakwet County.

### **3.4 Research Design**

Research design can be considered as the structure of research it is the “Glue” that holds all of the elements in research together, in brief it is a plan of the proposed research work.

Research design is defined by different social scientists in different terms; some of the definitions are as: according to Jahoda, Deutch & Cook (1965) “A research design is the arrangement of conditions for the collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy and procedure”. Research design is the plan, structure and strategy and investigation conceived so as to obtain ensured search question and control variance (Ram, 2010). Zikmund (1998), defines it as a master plan specifying the methods and procedures used for collecting and analyzing the data to yield the needed information. From the above, it can be concluded that research design stresses the systematic methodology in collection of the right data for interpretation with economy and procedure.

The study adopted the concurrent triangulation of descriptive and inferential studies design. This design was found appropriate since it uses both quantitative and qualitative data to more accurately define the relationship among variables under study. Creswell & Plano (2011) assert that concurrent triangulation design allows cross validation and collaboration of findings, provides well validated and substantial findings compared to other designs and that data collection takes less time.

### **3.5 Target Population**

The target population is defined as all the members of a real or hypothetical set of people, events or objects to which a researcher wishes to generate a research study (Borg & Gall, 1989). The target population in the study was 454,480 comprising of 99,861 households who belong to associations, social networks and informal networks in the four sub counties in Elgeyo Marakwet County. The choice of the study population was to ensure that the demographic dynamics of the county are catered for and that it is representative of the total population in the County. In addition, representatives from the Ministry of Agriculture, religious organizations, Non-

Government organizations, women groups, credit groups, and neighborhood committees Sub County Administrators were also targeted purposively. This is because they were familiar with all activities taking place within the county and could provide appropriate answers regarding the research questions (Creswell, 2014). The four sub-counties from which the target population were drawn include Keiyo North, Keiyo South, Marakwet West and Marakwet East. The population and number of households in each of the four sub-counties are represented in table 3.1.

**Table 3.1: Target Population and Households in the Four Sub-Counties**

<b>Sub County</b>	<b>Population</b>	<b>Number of Households</b>
Keiyo North	99,176	21,947
Keiyo South	120,750	27,029
Marakwet East	97,041	21,362
Marakwet West	137,513	29,523
<b>Total</b>	<b>454,480</b>	<b>99,861</b>

*Source: Kenya Population and Housing Census (2019) and Researcher, 2020*

### **3.6 Sampling Technique and Sample Size**

Sampling is a process or technique of choosing a sub-group from a population to participate in the study; it is the process of selecting a number of individuals for a study in such a way that the individuals selected represent the large group from which they were selected (Ogula, 2005).

#### **3.6.1 Sample Size**

The sample size for this study was determined based on Robert V. Krejcie and Daryle W. Morgan's table (1970) that is, table 3.2. The choice of this table in determining the sample size was due to the very large size of the target population (Saunders, et al., 2005).

**Table 3.2: Robert V. Krejcie and Daryle W. Morgan's Table (1970)**

<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	100000	384

Note.—*N* is population size. *S* is sample size.

Source: Krejcie & Morgan, 1970

According to the Kenya Population and Housing Census (2019), the total population in the four Sub counties was 454,480. Based on the above table (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970), one uses the total population (*N*) to determine the corresponding sample size (*S*) that is already predetermined. Since the population is above 75,000 and less than 1000,000, a sample size of 384 was drawn from the population of 99,861 and was proportionately divided in the four sub counties as shown in table 3.3 below.

**Table 3.3: Sample Size**

<b>Sub County</b>	<b>Population</b>	<b>Sample Size</b>
Keiyo North	98,683	82
Keiyo South	120,643	102
Marakwet East	96,897	84
Marakwet West	137,180	116
<b>Total Sample Size</b>	<b>454,480</b>	<b>384</b>

**Source: Kenya Population and Housing Census (2019) and Researcher (2020).**

### **3.6.2 Sampling Techniques and Procedures**

The study employed probability and non-probability sampling procedures. Stratified random sampling technique was used to select the sub-counties from which household heads were randomly picked one at a time until the threshold sample size was achieved. Consequently, purposive sampling technique was used to select sub-county administrators, representatives of the Ministry of Agriculture, religious groups and NGOs. Sampling helped the researcher to cut on cost, allowed for conducting of better interview, extensive investigation and processing of the data. Stratified random sampling method was adopted was because it increases sample's statistical efficiency, it ensures that sub groups are proportionally represented hence avoiding bias; it accounts for some sub group characteristics and ensures each member of the population under study has an equal chance of being selected (Cooper & Schindler, 2008 and Creswell, 2014). Since the number of chief sub-county administrators is small, all were selected to participate in this study. The study also utilized purposive sampling method to select key informants such as sub-county administrators, representatives of the Ministry of Agriculture, religious groups and NGOs because they were believed to be resourceful by virtue of possessing information crucial to the achievement of the study objectives.



### **3.7 Methods of Data Collection**

The research instruments for this study were a structured questionnaire and interview guide. The researcher used direct interaction with respondents on one to one basis. The instruments are described and justified in the following subsections.

#### **3.7.1 Structured Questionnaire**

Questionnaires were the main instrument for administering the research questions to the household heads. Closed ended questionnaires were used to collect information from 384 households. Questionnaires were administered to the sampled household heads in the four sub-counties of Keiyo North, Keiyo South, Marakwet East and Marakwet West. The questionnaire was useful in gathering data from household heads on components of social capital integration, determinants of social capital integration and respondents' socio economic livelihoods. The questionnaires were administered by the researcher to the respondents in their private settings. The questionnaires were used in the study because they are simple and relatively inexpensive to administer (Cooper and Schindler, 2008).

#### **3.7.2 Interview Guide**

The study employed key informant interviews to collect in-depth data on issues concerning the specific objectives of the study. This method involved a face-to-face interface between the researcher and the informants using open-ended interview questions. The key informants, who were purposively selected, were individuals with in-depth knowledge and understanding of the subject matter under investigation. These were sub-county chief administrators, leaders of religious organizations and non-Government organizations and 4 sub county administrators. The reason for use of interviews is that they are easy to administer since the questions are prepared in advance. They also allow a great deal of information to be gathered in a short period

of time. Interviews also eliminate many sources of bias common to other instruments like observations. In addition, interviews help seek clarification through probing (Creswell, 2013). The questions asked were treated as confidential between the researcher and the respondents.

### **3.7.3 Observation**

The researcher also employed direct observation techniques of data collection. Direct observation involves a situation where the researcher's presence in a geographical space under investigation is maintained for scientific purpose. Observation method was used throughout the data collection process to verify information collected using the other methods aforementioned. Observation enables the researcher to describe existing situations using the five senses providing a real picture of the situation under study, hence providing in-depth and reliable information about a study. Furthermore, the method provides insights into underlying information related to behavior and attitude.

In conclusion, Participant observation, in particular, is helpful to allow you to understand the participants world by actively engaging in activities in which participants typically are involved. Observations may be used to triangulate data, that is, to verify the findings derived from one source of data with those from another source or another method of collecting data. For example, you may use observation to verify what you learned from participants in interviews, help to learn what is important to the participants, help to determine how much time is spent on various activities, verify nonverbal expression of feelings, and determine who interacts with whom (Schmuck, 1997).

### **3.8 Validity and Reliability of the Instruments**

The outcome of the research must be reliable, to ensure this, any instruments used must give the same result. So, test and retest was done and repeated twice to a group of people in Elgeyo Marakwet County. This repetition is important because it allows the results to be generalized and become trustworthy.

#### **3.8.1 Validity**

The need to test the content and construct validity of the research instruments is inevitable (Cohen, et al., 1998). This served to ascertain how well an instrument measures what the researcher intends to measure. Content validity deals with questionnaire items, hence focusing on the key variables to be measured Cohen *et al*, (1998) stresses that experts of research should identify the validity and the reliability of research instruments. The research instruments were given to supervisors and a pool of experienced researchers in order to evaluate the exactness and adequacy. Their suggestions and clarifications were used to make improvements on the instruments' representation and provide adequacy of the content to be investigated.

#### **3.8.2 Reliability**

Reliability of a measure refers to consistency (Koul, 1993, Bryman and Cramer, 1997). The concept of reliability has two aspects to it; internal and external reliability. Internal reliability is the ability of a scale to measure a single idea and whether it is internally consistent; its reliability can be computed using SPSS for windows programmes. External reliability refers to consistency of measure overtime.

To ensure reliability of the research instruments, the researcher conducted a pilot study which involved administering the same questionnaires to households at Uasin Gishu County. The aim was to establish the relevance of the instruments of collecting

data, identify any problem that might occur at the actual time of data collection and check whether the questions are understandable to respondents. The content of the instrument was based on the objectives and research questions of the study. As noted by Hair, Anderson, Babin, Tatham and Black (2010), a Cronbach's alpha reliability estimates of 0.70 or higher indicates that the measurement scale used is reliable. If the reliability is not high enough to be accepted, the scales will be revised by deleting some items. In the present study, reliability analysis was established by comparing results of repeated measurements from the households. From the retests, Cronbach's alpha was computed.

Cronbach (1951) provided a measure of the internal consistency of a test or scale; it is expressed as a number between 0 and 1.

$$\alpha = \frac{K}{K - 1} \left( 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^K \sigma^2_{Y_i}}{\sigma^2_X} \right) \dots\dots\dots (3.0)$$

Where;

$K$  is the number of items in the scale

$\sigma^2_X$  is the variance of the observed total test scores,

$\sigma^2_{Y_i}$  is the variance of component  $i$  for the current sample of persons

The higher the score, the more reliable the generated scale is. A reliability coefficient of 0.82 was obtained which indicated that the research instruments were reliable. Consequently, a pilot study was conducted in UasinGishu County which has the same attributes as Elgeyo Marakwet County. From the responses, the researcher was able to identify areas in the instrument that needed adjustment before actual data collection.

### 3.9 Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics was employed in his study. The technique involves transformation of raw data into a form that would be easy to understand (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010). Therefore, it provided insights of the characteristics and of the samples. This study used descriptive statistics which described and compared variables numerically such as frequency distributions, mean and standard deviations. Further, it used measures of variability to see how spread out the scores of each variable was and other measures of variability such as standard deviation (Samuelson, 2010). Before capturing data electronically, the questionnaire responses were visually checked to ensure that the responses were plausible. Thereafter, the responses were captured as coded responses and checked again to ensure the response codes were corresponding to the code limits for each variable. The analysis was done using SPSS version 20 which was considered appropriate because it provided several transformations and manipulation of the data set. Normality was confirmed by examining the distribution of the variables, their skewness and Kurtosis values using histograms.

Further, the study used cross tabulations because cross tabulation offers a simple method of grouping variables, which minimizes the potential for confusion or error by providing clear results. The use of cross tabulation makes it easier to interpret data and enables the researcher to gain better and deeper insights of the relationship between the variables. Quantitative data was presented using frequency tables, pie charts and graphs.

The analysis of the qualitative data (words or text or images) followed the path of aggregating the words or images into categories of information and presenting the diversity of ideas gathered during data collection in themes.

Finally, quantitative and qualitative data sets were integrated to provide sets of coherent wholes.

### **3.10 Ethical Considerations**

Ethics has been defined as acknowledging and respecting the rights of others. This definition, related to the current research, suggests that “ethics is directly related to access and acceptance, as well as anonymity and confidentiality” (Cohen, et al., 2008). Therefore, it is imperative for anyone involved in research to be conscious of the ethical issues that pertain to it. The researcher observed the ethical issues which are supposed to be followed in scientific research. In this work, the rights and welfare of the participant involved in the research was respected. Ethics in research is about the application of ethical standards in the planning, data collection, analyses, dissemination and use of results in research. The researcher considered the potential benefits of the study against the cost to the participants’ dignity, anxiety, embarrassment, and loss of trust in social relations, loss of autonomy, self-determination and lowered self-esteem was factored in.

The study was undertaken bearing in mind all the ethical concerns and attempts to uphold them. Permission to carry out research was sought from relevant authorities like obtaining a clearance letter from Moi University authorizing the researcher to proceed for fieldwork, research permit from NACOSTI for permission to participate in fieldwork activity, the respondents were assured of their rights, anonymity and confidentiality. They were reminded not to write their names on the questionnaire and each respondent was treated in isolation to guard against any external influence.

Informed consent was sought from all respondents and the intent to use responses and findings were communicated in advance. On the same note, a formal letter of

introduction with the researcher's details and intent was obtained before commencing data collection. This was presented to the intended participant in the research to validate the research's identity and intention. None of the intended respondents from the target population was forced to participate in the study because they were made to understand that their right to answer or not would be respected.

The study protected the confidential information and did not share it other than for academic purposes. Confidentiality therefore was guaranteed by protecting the identities of the respondents and the information shared by the respondent (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Plagiarism is the use of someone else's exact words without quotation marks and appropriate credit, or to use the unique ideas of someone else without acknowledgement. The study empirically acknowledges other people's work through APA referencing style and thus avoids plagiarism.

The study also avoided bias in data analysis and interpretation through objectivity as an ethical issue. When reporting the findings, the researcher did not interpret the data in a biased way, nor omit or change the research findings. The study employed integrity for consistency, carefulness where careless errors and negligence was avoided.

### **3.11 Chapter Summary**

This chapter presents the process that was involved in carrying out this study on the social capital integration and its role on socio economic livelihoods in Elgeyo Marakwet County, Kenya. The key areas discussed include the study area, research philosophy, research design, research approach, target population, sample procedure and sample size, data collection instruments, validity and reliability of data instruments, methods of data presentation and analysis and ethical considerations of

the study. This chapter sought to justify the relevance and validity of the processes that guided and supported the research.



## CHAPTER FOUR

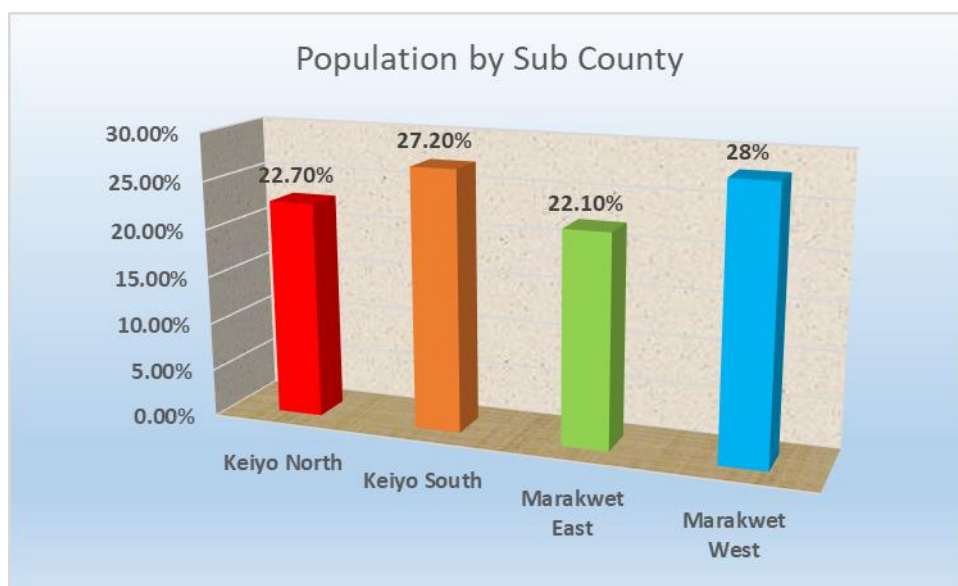
### DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

#### 4.1 Overview

This chapter entails data presentation, analysis, and interpretation based on the research objectives. The chapter is distributed into three major sections according to the objective of the study. These include determinants of social capital, components of social capital and effect of social capital on people's livelihood. The section begins with a presentation of demographic profile of the subjects that provides the underlying characteristics of the respondents which are important in contextualizing the issue of social capital integration and its role in socio- economic livelihoods.

#### 4.2 The Response Rate

The response rate in research is a significant concern in a study because it ensures the questionnaires collected are valid for data analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2010). In this study, a total number of 384 questionnaires were proportionately distributed into the four sub counties in Elgeyo Marakwet County.



**Figure 4.1: Response Rate by Sub County**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

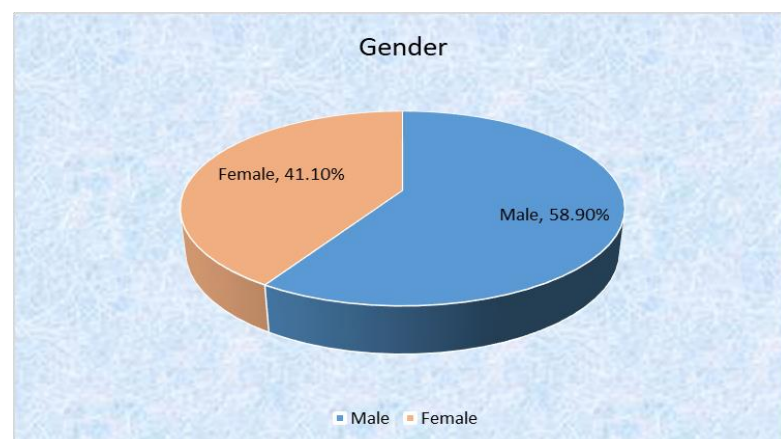
In this study, out of the 384 questionnaires administered, 369 were retrieved, 353 (92%) were found to be useful for further analysis. 16 questionnaires were excluded from the analysis due to incompleteness. Figure 4.1 shows the response rate per Sub County in the study area. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2009), a response rate of at least 30% is acceptable for surveys. Oso and Onen (2005) further opine that the whole point of conducting a survey is to obtain useful, reliable and valid data in a manner that makes it possible to analyze and draw conclusions. The response rate in this study was therefore appropriate to enable the researcher proceed with analysis and interpretation of the data.

### 4.3 Demographic Profile of Household Heads

Demographic profile of the respondents provided significant information. The section focuses on the demographic profile of the study participants. In line with this, the gender, age, educational levels, marital status, household size and duration of residence in the sub county were analysed.

#### 4.3.1 Gender of the Household Heads

The study considered the gender of participants and their role in integrating social capital initiatives on re- engineering people's socio economic livelihoods.



**Figure 4.2: Gender**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

Figure 4.2 shows that, majority of household heads were men (58.8%) as compared to women (41.1%). This implies that with regard to socio-economic livelihoods, men are at the fore front to ensure that their families are adequately provided for, they are less vulnerable to diseases and have adequate security. Consequently, to enable them undertake this mandate, they would go out of their way to join integrated units so as acquire more resources. This finding is in line with Kaasa and Parts (2008) who reported that individuals who are older, male and are unemployed were likely to have more organization memberships as opposed to those with higher incomes and education.

Further, the study conducted a crosstab analysis to establish the role of gender on social capital. The constructs analyzed included trust in the community, trust of the government, participation in the community projects, involvement in community activities, high level distance, joint petitions, women groups, community organization, credit groups and religious groups. Table 4.1 presents the findings.

**Table 4.1 Gender and Social Capital Integration**

Variable Constructs	Value	Pearson Chi-Square	
		Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Gender * Majority can be trusted	6.215a	4	0.184
Gender * Trust of government	1.920a	4	0.75
Gender * Participation in community projects	2.069a	2	0.355
Gender * Eager involvement	15.999a	4	0.003
Gender * High level of distance	1.114a	4	0.892
Gender * Joint Petitions	5.748a	4	0.219
Gender * Community org	.232a	1	0.63
Gender * Credit Group	7.643a	1	0.004
Gender * Religious Group	.034a	1	0.853

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The Pearson chi-square values for the various variable constructs indicated that gender was not a significant determinant of social capital integration in the

community. In particular, gender did not determine the trust of the majority in the community  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 6.215, p = 0.184$ ). This implies that gender did not affect trust levels among residents living in this community. On the contrary, according to Moss (2002) gendered expectations of women for care provision and family support may increase their trust in the community.

The results further indicate that gender did not determine trust of government  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 1.920, p = 0.75$ ). This finding indicates that gender did not influence individual household trust in the county government to act on their behalf. Furthermore, when individuals are provided with desired services which enhance their socio-economic livelihoods, both male and female citizens will develop trust in the existing leadership. This concurs with Son and Lin (2008) who argue that trust in institutions is not associated with gender.

In addition, participation in community projects by the citizens was not determined by gender,  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 2.069, p = 0.355$ ). This implies that individual participation in community's development projects was not influenced by gender. This could be due to the fact that people are more concerned about their socio-economic livelihoods hence both male and female gender are likely to participate in community projects because of incentives associated with them. However, Kaasa (2008) opines that women and men tend to participate in different types of community projects.

The results however showed that gender is a significant determinant of eagerness in involvement in community activities,  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 15.999, p = 0.003$ ). This indicates that gender influenced individual eagerness to get involved in actions for well-being of the broader social or local community. On the other hand, gender was not a determinant in high levels of distance  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 1.114, p = 0.892$ ). The results imply

that a high level of distance in interpersonal relations within the social community is not determined by gender. Additionally, gender is not a determinant for joint petitions,  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 5.748, p=0.219$ . This implies that gender did not influence the get together to jointly petition Government or political leaders for something benefiting the community.

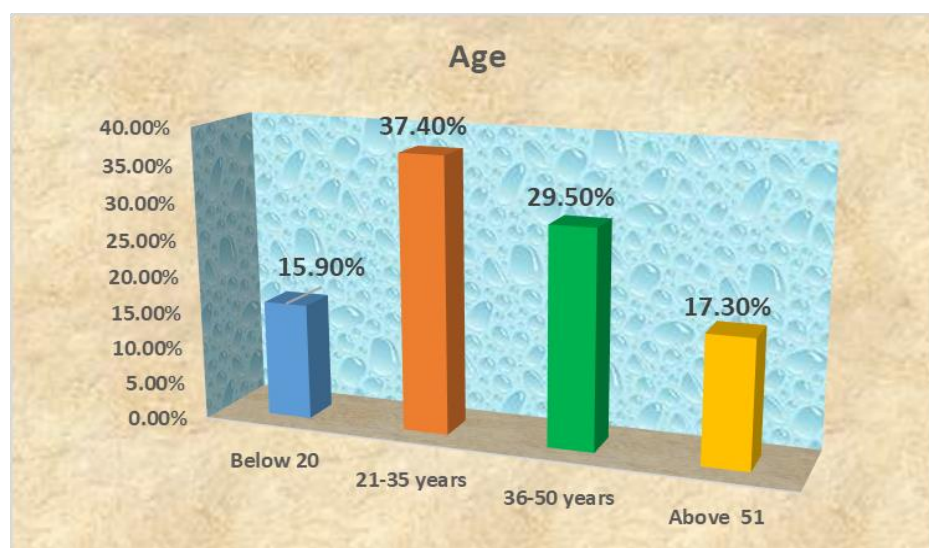
Further, the results indicate that gender did not determine membership to community organizations,  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = .232, p=0.63$ . This could be attributed to the fact that both genders are concerned about their socio-economic livelihoods hence would freely engage in activities that cater for such. On the contrary, according to Lowndes (2000) the kind of association women and men are involved in differs. He argues that men tend to be more active in sports and recreational associations, while women are more active in associations related to social services and health. Son and Lin (2000) further opine that civic action is gendered, where women are more involved in expressive actions.

The results in table 4.1 also show that gender was a determinant of membership to a credit group  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 7.643, p=0.004$ . This implies men or women will prefer credit groups which provide for their socio-economic livelihood goals. For instance, for men credit groups that could help them construct homes or pay school fees will be preferred influences membership to the credit group. On the contrary, women would prefer credit groups that enable them to buy household items. The interview with the County Commissioner also revealed that in most cases, support initiatives from various institutions in the county target women and youths' groups. This has encouraged many women to join the credit groups to meet the minimum requirements to access loans.

Lastly, the results indicate that gender did not determine membership to religious group  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = .034, p=0.853$ . This implies either male or female household heads join religious groups for spiritual or moral growth and these needs are not based on gender. In addition, the interview with the county commissioner revealed that the members of the community both men and women meet freely in churches and mosques to pray and to encourage one another, to get and share information which empowers them spiritually. Consequently, membership to a religion provides avenues for social support like guiding and counselling for families and emotional support during bereavement and loss of their loved one, during weddings, child dedications, baptisms among others. They are also able to get financial support in times when they need assistance, for instance, education expenses, medical expenses, wedding and funeral preparations etc.

#### 4.3.2 Age of the Respondents

The age of the respondents plays a significant role in determining the integration and adoption of new concepts and ideas of social capital initiatives and technologies. The findings are represented in figure 4.3.



**Figure 4.3 Age of Respondents**

Source: Field Survey, 2021

The results in figure 4.3 indicate that, of the respondents, 15.9% were below 20 years, 37.4% were between 21-35 years, 29.5% were between 36-59 years and 17.3% were above 51 years. This implies that the majority of the household heads belong to the productive age category. Consequently, the youthful population easily embrace and can quickly adapt to emerging ideas and new strategies.

The study further conducted a crosstab analysis to establish the role of age on social capital. The constructs analyzed included trust in the community, trust of the government, participation in the community projects, involvement in community activities, high level distance, joint petitions, women groups, neighbor committees, community organization, credit groups and religious groups.

**Table 4.2 Age and Social Capital**

Variable Constructs	Value	Pearson Chi-Square	
		Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Age * Majority can be trusted	9.456a	12	0.664
Age * Trust of government	18.576a	12	0.099
Age * Participation in community projects	11.166a	6	0.083
Age * Eager involvement	8.342a	12	0.758
Age * High level of distance	14.894a	12	0.247
Age * Joint Petitions	35.940a	12	0.000
Age * Women Group	26.350a	3	0.000
Age * Community org	7.898a	3	0.004
Age * Credit Group	.878a	3	0.001
Age * Religious Group	5.416a	3	0.144

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The Pearson chi-square values for the various variable constructs indicated that age was not a significant determinant in social capital integration in the community. In particular, age did not determine the trust among majority in the community  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 9.456, p=0.664$ ). The result implies that age did not affect how an individual trusts other local residents living in this community. According to Halman and Luijkx, (2006) and Christoforou (2005), age, marital status, and religiosity are positively

associated with both general and institutional trust and social capital. Ashrafi, *et. al* .(2012) also opines that age and general health are positively associated with trust and the sense of belonging to local communities. Accordingly, those who are mature are more trusted than young individuals. However, young people are more united and natural trust each other in their integrated units.

The results further indicate that age did not determine trust in government  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 18.576, p=0.099$ ). The results indicate that age did not determine an individual's trust in the county government to act on their behalf.

Further, participation in community projects by the citizens was not determined by age  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 211.166, p=0.083$ ). The implication is that irrespective of their age, each household head could participate in socio-integration initiatives simply because it enhanced their socio-economic livelihoods by exposing them to new networks, new technology or access to a pool of resources.

The results also showed that age was not significant in determining eagerness to participate in community activities,  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 8.342, p=0.758$ ). In this regard, whether an individual is young or old they would easily engage in social integration initiatives for well-being of the broader community. Similarly, the findings show that age is not a determinant of distance in interpersonal relations,  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 14.894, p=0.247$ ). The implication is that irrespective of their ages individuals interact because of mutual understanding and social capital drawn from such interactions which positively impact their socio-economic livelihoods. This finding concurs with Binswanger (2007) who notes that the networks formed and trust build are essential for rural revitalization.



On the contrary, age was a determinant for joint petitions,  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 35.940$ ,  $p=0.000$ ). This implies that age influences the coming together of individual members of the community to jointly petition government or political leaders for the welfare. The interview with the county commissioner and county director of education revealed that there were about 500,000 youths who graduate from various tertiary institutions yearly and are still unemployed. Most of these youths jointly petition the government on issues affecting them and the entire community.

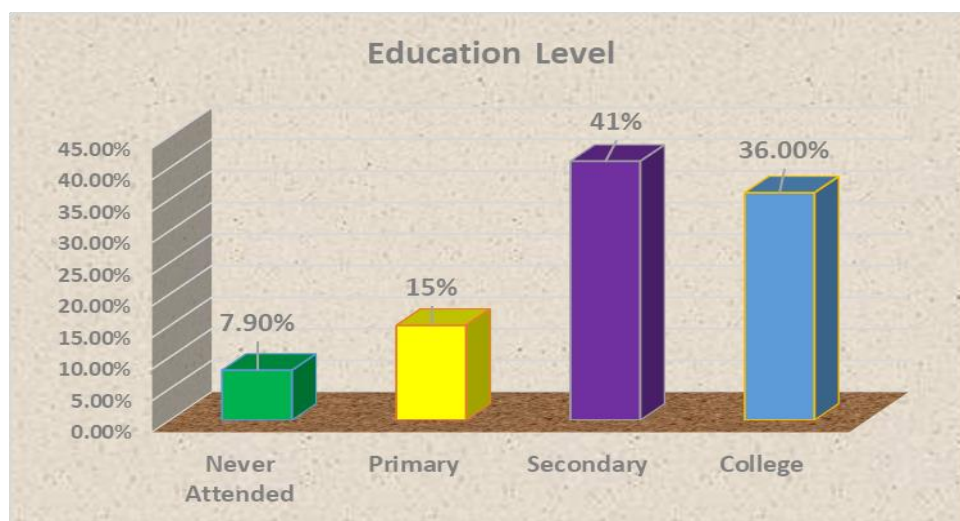
Age was also a determinant of membership to women group  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 26.350$ ,  $p=0.000$ ). Further, the results indicate that age was a determinant to membership to community organization,  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 7.898$ ,  $p=0.004$ ). These findings imply that individuals who understand the benefits of being members of groups would easily join irrespective of their age. The informant interview revealed that older women engaged in small businesses are joining women groups to be able to access information and loans. This implies that membership to these groups give them an opportunity to learn from each other and to access loans to grow their business. This concurs with Kaasa (2008) who pointed out that individuals who are older, male, and employed are likely to have more organization memberships than those who have higher income and education.

The results show that age was a determinant on membership to the credit group  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 7.643$ ,  $p=0.001$ ). One of the possible explanation is the fact that membership to a credit group is guided by other factors such as registration and contribution.

Lastly, the results indicate that age did not determine membership to religious group ( $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 5.416, p = 0.144$ ). This implies could be based on the fact that there is freedom of worship and all age groups are able to attend to their religious needs.

### 4.3.3 Education Level of the Participants

The study further sought to determine the education levels of the respondents so as to get insight into the respondent's knowledge on the social capital integration initiatives. Educated individuals are considered to make informed choices regarding participation in social capital integration activities in the community.



**Figure 4.4: Education Level**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The results in Figure 4.4 show that majority of the respondents were literate. 15 percent of the respondents had primary education, 41 percent had secondary education and 36 percent were college graduates. This implies that majority of the respondents were in a position to get information about the role of social integration on socio-economic livelihoods in Elgeyo Marakwet County. Based on such knowledge they would either join or fail to join integrated groups. In the same vein, interviews with the county education officer explained that high enrollment rate in primary and

secondary schools can be attributed to the introduction of free primary education in 2003 and subsequent subsidization of secondary and college education from the year 2008 by the Government of Kenya. The county education officer further revealed that after the introduction of the Basic Education Act 2013 which unveiled free primary and secondary education enable those children from poor backgrounds to access education and to improve their lives. Education tends to increase the likelihood of reciprocity and is positively associated with trust and the sense of belonging to local communities as noted by Ashrafi *et al.* (2012).

The study further conducted a crosstab analysis to establish the role of education on social capital integration. The constructs analyzed included, participation in the community projects, involvement in community activities, joint petitions, neighbor committees, credit groups and religious groups

**Table 4.3 Education and Social Capital**

Variable Constructs	Value	Df	Pearson Chi-Square
			Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Education * Neighbour Committees	10.450a	3	0.015
Education * Credit Group	4.737a	3	0.192
Education * Religious Group	11.984a	3	0.007
Education * Participation in community projects	9.636a	6	0.141
Education * Eager involvement	34.444a	12	0.001
Education * Joint Petitions	28.235a	12	0.004

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The Pearson chi-square values for the various variable constructs indicated that education did not play a significant determinant in social capital in the community. In particular, education did not determine membership to neighbour committees  $\chi^2$  (384, 4) =10.450, p=0.015). This implies that whether one was educated or not it did not influence their membership to neighbor committees.

The results show that education was not a determinant on membership to credit group  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 4.737, p = 0.192$ ). This implies that education did not influence membership to the credit group. One of the possible explanations is the fact that membership to a credit group is guided by other factors like the information that one gets in the community concerning the requirements and benefits from such groups.

The findings also indicate that education did not determine membership to religious groups  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 11.984, p = 0.007$ ). The implication is that the community members have the freedom of worship regardless of their education status.

Further participation in community projects by the citizens was not determined by education  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 9.636, p = 0.141$ ). Christoforou, (2005), argues that older women and men, and those with different economic status and educational background, tend to participate in different types of communities. Angba *et al.* (2009) argues there significant relationship exists between educational level and the attitude of youths towards community development projects.

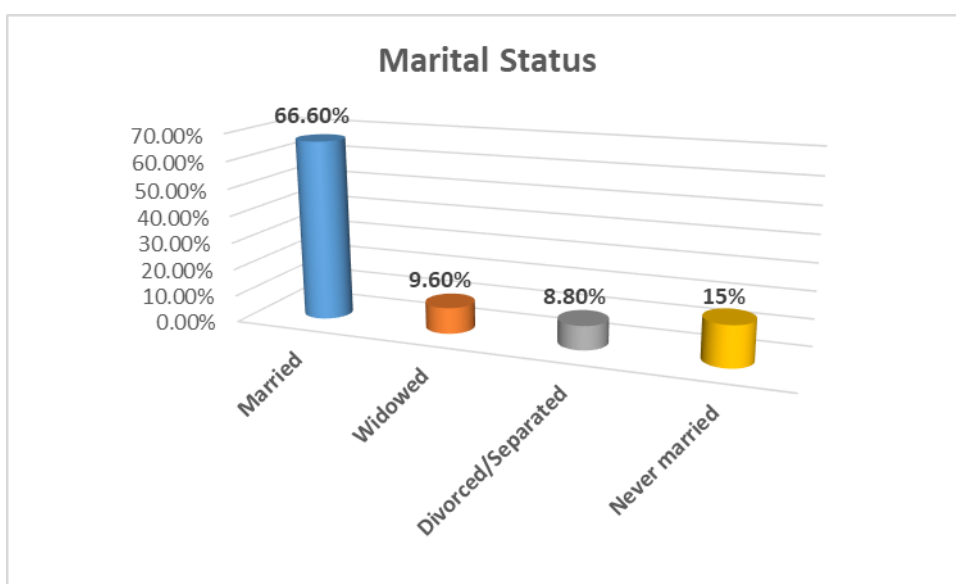
The results also showed that education play a significant role in eagerness involvement to community activities  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 34.444, p = 0.001$ ). The implication of the findings is that education influences individual eagerness to get involved in actions for well-being of the broader social or local community. Halman and Luijckx, (2006) argue that education systems also help people to be more open-minded and develop knowledge and skills for basic social interactions and these factors increase individuals' eagerness to participate and contribute to change in the community.

Lastly, the results indicate that education is a determinant for joint petitions  $\chi^2 (384, 4) = 28.235, p = 0.004$ ). This implies that education influences the get together to jointly petition government or political leaders for something benefiting the

community. The further imply that the educated use their knowledge and skills to petition leaders on issues affecting the community and look for solutions on how to counter them.

#### 4.3.4 Marital Status

Marital status in any society can determine the household level of resource endowment and can influence the participation of both genders in social capital integration initiatives.



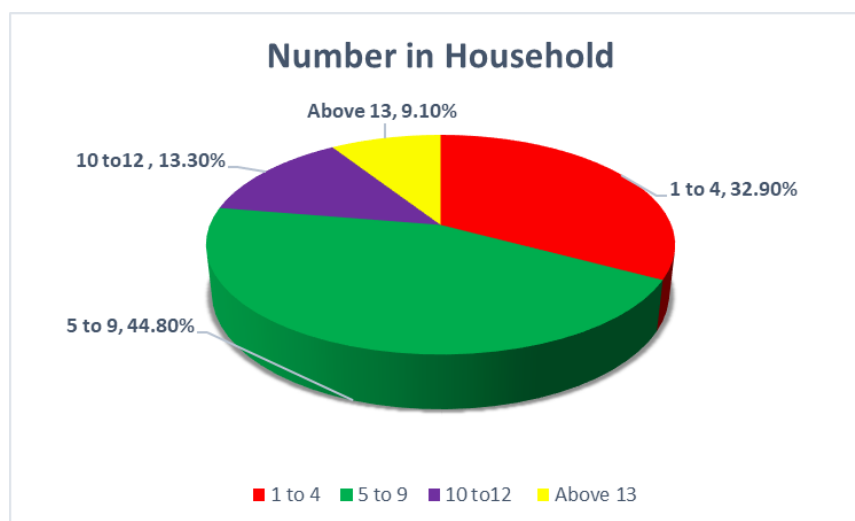
**Figure 4.5 Marital Status**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The study findings indicate that 235 (66.6%) respondents were married, 34 (9.6%) widowed, 31 (8.8%) divorced / separated and 53(15%) were never married. Accordingly, majority of the household heads were married, implying that there is a high possibility of joint decision making on social capital integration and the effects on social economic livelihoods. In addition, the interview with the county commissioner revealed that marriages in the community cause harmony and unity among people. It improves cognitive, emotional and physical wellbeing for children, better mental and physical health for adults.

### 4.3.5 Number of People in the Household

Size of household is a key determinant of dependency level in the society.



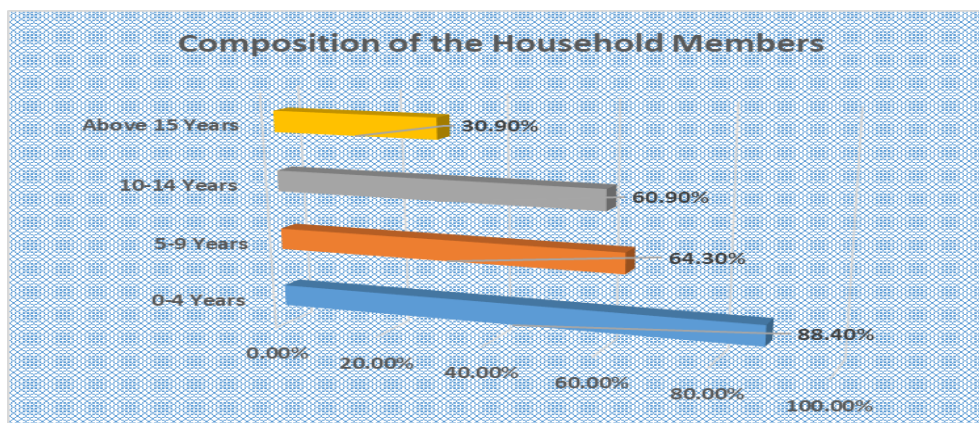
**Figure 4.6: Number in Household**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The findings indicated the following number of household members: 1 to 4 116 (32.9%); 158 (44.8%), 47(13.3%) and above 13 members 32 (9.1%). Most of the household size was composed of more than five household members implying a high dependency level. Adebayo (2012) argues that large family size has a significant relationship with a much greater risk of poverty and food insecurity.

### 4.3.6 Composition of Members in the Household

This is an important demographic component to ascertain the number of dependents in each household.



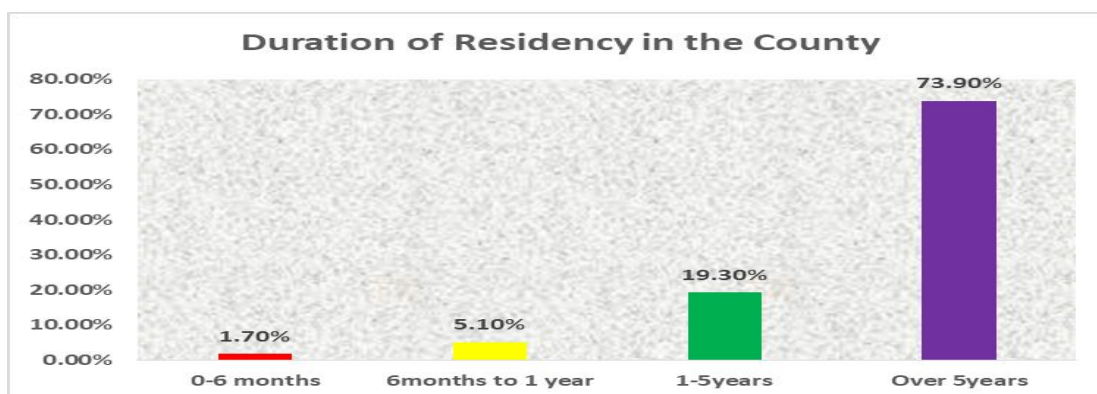
**Figure 4.7: Composition of Members in the Household**

Source: Field Survey, 2021

The results clearly outline that most households have very young members under the age of five (88.4%), meaning that they are young families and also there is a high dependency rate on the household heads which can eventually lead to financial constraints and poor nutrition.

#### 4.3.7 Length of Stay in the sub county

Social capital of participants in a community is influenced by the length of stay. It is generally observed that individuals who live in a particular area for a long period have closer friendship, links and networks. This social capital gives a solid foundation for individuals to corporately adapt to programs such as the social capital initiatives (Babaei, *et al*, 2012).



**Figure 4.8: Duration of Residence in the County**

Source: Field Survey, 2021

The duration of residence in the county varied from 1 to over 5 years with the majority of the respondents having been residents for more than 5 years. The relatively longer period of stay by majority of the participants gives an indication that they were aware of the socio-economic livelihood benefits of social capital integration initiatives in the community. In addition, the longer respondents have lived in the local area, the more the number of people they have interacted with and acquired information through friends and expanded their social circles. According to Aguilera and Massey, (2003), the social capital component is influenced by the length of residence in the area because of the increased opportunities and time available to maintain and increase social networks and relationships.

#### **4.4 Determinants of Social Capital Integration**

The first objective of this study was to examine determinants of social capital integration in Elgeyo Marakwet County. These determinants are key in pointing out the reasons why some individuals and households do not while others get involved in associations, social networks and informal networks where social capital rests. The study found out and categorized these factors into demographic characteristics, socio economic characteristics and contextual/ systemic factors in the community.

##### **4.4.1 Demographic Determinants of Social Capital Integration.**

Demographic determinants of social capital considered in the study include gender, age, marital status and household composition and size. The factors account for why some individuals are involved in particular types of informal social networks while others are not.



#### **4.4.1.1 Gender as a Determinant of Social Capital Integration**

Based on the results in table 4.1 gender had no significant effect on social capital integration Elgeyo Marakwet County. In particular on trust in the community, trust of the government, participation in the community projects, high level distance, joint petitions, women groups, community organization, and religious groups did not depend on the age of the participant. However, gender determined ones eagerness to get involved in community activities and to be a member a credit group. This finding agrees with Eriksson et al. (2010) who observed that women were more involved in bridging social networks compared to men.

#### **4.4.1.2 Age as a Determinant of Social Capital Integration**

The results in Table 4.2 showed that age was not a significant determinant of social capital integration. Using the constructs analyzed which included trust in the community, trust of the government, participation in the community projects, involvement in community activities, high level distance, membership in neighbour committees and religious groups. However, it was a determinant of joint petitions, women groups, community organization and credit groups. Majority of participants between the ages of 21 to 35 were engaged in joint petitions, women groups, credit groups and community organizations. This shows that individuals who are the same age tend to share common interests and are more likely to work together as compared to those in different age groups.

#### **4.4.1.3 Marital Status as a Determinant of Social Capital Integration**

Results in Figure 4.5 indicate that the majority of the respondents were married. This influences social capital integration because marriages come with huge responsibilities. These compel individuals to network in order to acquire more knowledge, benefit from technological transfer and to have an opportunity to pool

resources. This would ultimately ensure that they create and enjoy more income hence improved food security and increased well-being. As a result, there exists harmony and unity among people which improves cognitive, emotional and physical wellbeing for children as well as better mental and physical health for adults. These results concur with Alma, et al. (2012) and Einolf (2011) who opine that marital status is one of the most important determinants of social participation.

#### **4.4.1.4 Household Composition as a Determinant of Social Capital Integration**

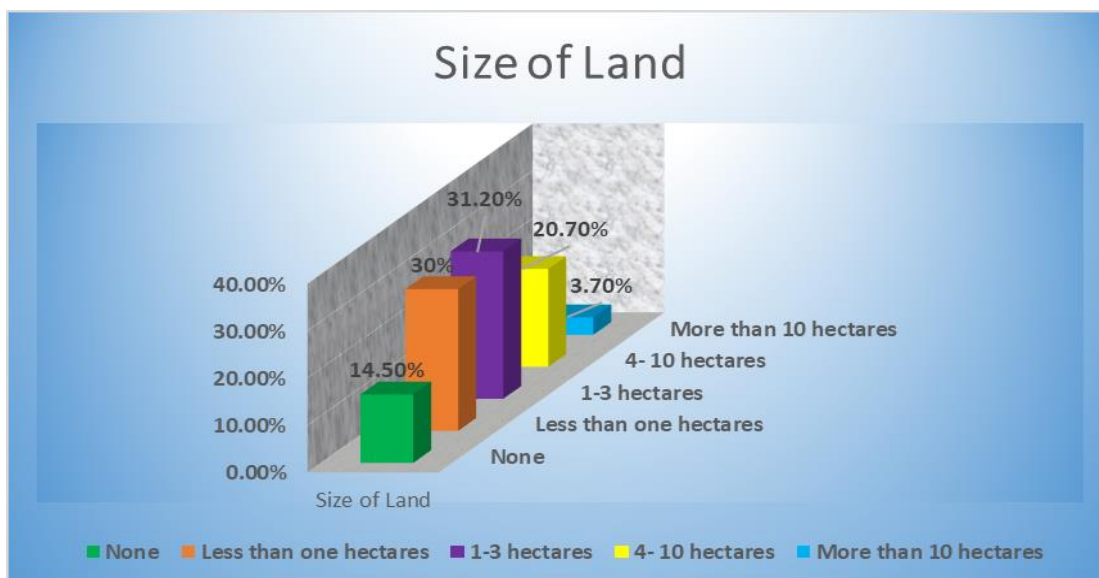
Results in Figure 4.6 and 4.7 indicate that most of the household size consist of more than five household members and most households have very young members under the age of five. This influences social capital integration because large size families particularly in the rural areas have a greater risk of poverty and food insecurity. In addition, the existence of the majority young members in a family indicates a high dependency rate on the household heads. As pointed out in Rose (1998), in a household, productive social capital varies with various factors including the number of economically active persons in the household.

#### **4.4.2 Social Economic Characteristics**

Social economic characteristics factors have primary influences on economic activities. In the study such factors include land tenure (size of land), educational attainment, occupation, income and duration of residence in the current sub county

##### **4.4.2.1 Size of Land**

The researcher further sought to determine the effect of land size on social capital integration among residents in Elgeyo Marakwet County. This is because land size determines the level of agricultural productivity and the scope of interaction with the rest of the society. The results of are shown in figure 4.9.



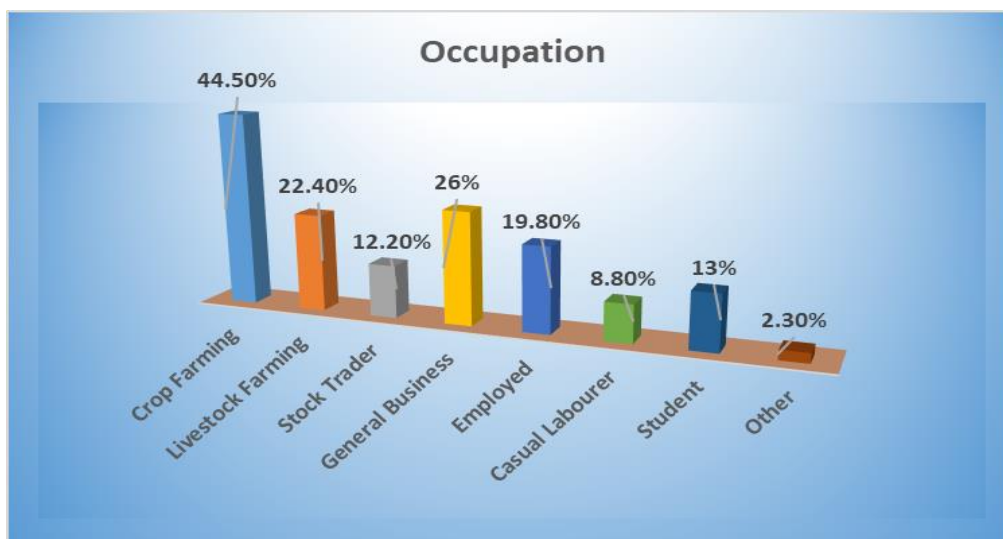
**Figure 4.9: Size of Land in Hectares**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The findings in figure 4.9 indicate that 5(14.5%) of the households do not own land, 106(30%) had less than one hectare of land, 110(31.2%) had 1-3 hectares, 73(20.7%) had 4-10 hectares and 13(3.7%) had more 10 than hectares. This implies that most households own less than 3 hectares of land. This should motivate individuals to look for alternative means of generating resources for enhanced socio-economic livelihoods. When one has ownership of land, they tend to work harder and smarter on it so that it can enable them to get the very best out of it unlike when working on other peoples land. According to the World Bank, (2015), ownership of land encourages more utilization of the resource for local and foreign investment.

#### **4.4.2.2 Occupation of the Households Heads**

The occupation of a household head determines their income level. In the rural areas, income is derived from many sources which include earning from general business, livestock farming, formal employment, casual jobs, and stock trading among others. Most of the household heads were involved in different activities as shown in Figure 4.10.



**Figure 4.10: Occupation and Source of Income**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

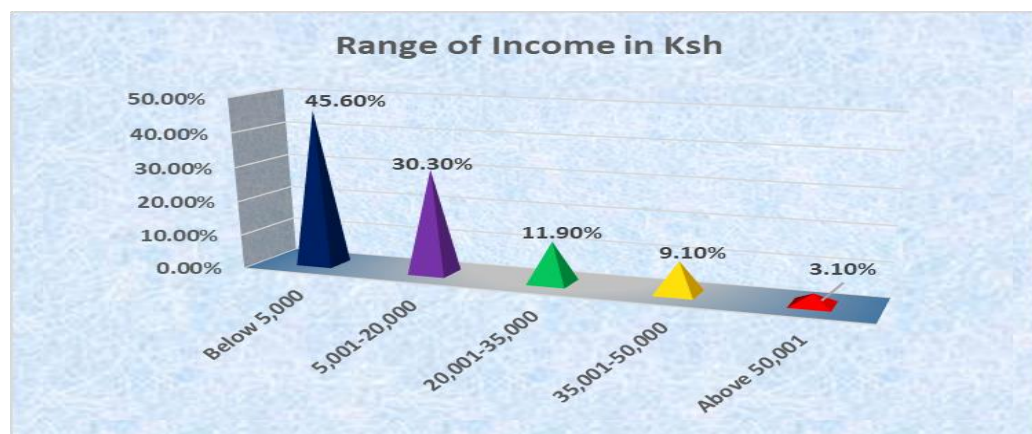
The results show that 157(44.5%) practiced crop farming, 79(22.4%) livestock farming, 43(12.2%) stock traders, 92(26%) general business, 70(19.8%) employed, 31(8.8%) casual labourers, 46(13%) students and 8(2.3%) are engaged in other activities. This is a clear indication that the majority of the residents were crop farmers. In the same vein, responses from the interviews revealed that main occupation was agriculture with majority individuals engaging in crop farming. A respondent said; *“our county is a good place where crop farming and livestock rearing never disappoint. Even though we have some challenging terrains, whenever we plant in time and experience good rains we are sure of good outputs from the farms”*.

According to Sisay (2010), households diversify because of the need to enhance their capabilities and assets, realization of economies of scope, liquidity constraints and to stabilize income flows and consumption risk. They also use it as a strategy to combine activities that add to the accumulation of wealth in the household (Khatun & Roy, 2012). Livelihood diversification can also help the rural inhabitants avoid

environmental and economic trends and seasonality shocks, and hence make them less vulnerable (UN and NEPAD-OECD, 2011).

#### 4.4.2.3 Range of Income

The range of household income has an implication on the potential of a household to invest in social capital integration activities through joining various groups.



**Figure 4.11: Range of Income**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The findings in figure indicate that 161(45.6%) income is below 5,000, 107(30.3%) range between 5,001 -20,000, 42(11.9%) range between 20,001 -35,000, 32(9.1%) 35,001-50,000 and 11(3.1%) above 50,001. This means that the majority are low income earners. This implies that they may not have the capacity to participate in social integration programmes which require pooling of resources. McDonald, (2011) argued that low-income earners may not have access to the social networks with high-influence contacts and in return, their networks might not lead to finding stable employment. In addition, empirical evidence shows that higher levels of income and education coincide with a strong probability for group membership and interpersonal trust from the part of the individual (Denny 2003, Paldam 2000). According to Seefeldt (2016) many low-income individuals work in flexible jobs, such as through

the sharing economy, self-employment, or during off-hours, which often create social isolation from which it may be difficult to build a strong social network.

#### **4.4.2.4 Education Attainment**

The results in table 4.3 established that education was not a determinant of social capital integration. From the constructs analyzed which included membership of neighbor committee, credit, and religious groups. Consequently, education is not a criteria for committee, group or religious membership. However, it was a determinant on joint petitions and eagerness in involvement. Consequently, from the interviews, one of the respondents intimated that, *“as the levels of education of many young people rise, we would probably see our social capital improve greatly”*. This could be attributed to the fact that educated individuals are more informed about their rights and are knowledgeable on the benefits of being involved in socially integrated communities. This finding is contrary to Njoku (2014) who opined that the number of years in school is a major socio-economic factor which affects the choice of livelihood among rural dwellers. In the same vein, Principi, et al (2016) observed that education is one of the most important determinants of social participation and that it fosters higher levels of civic participation.

#### **4.4.2.5 Duration of Residence**

Results in figure 4.8 show that duration of residence was a determinant of social capital since the majority had stayed in the different sub county for a period more than five years, this is because the component more one stays in a particular area increases opportunities and time available to maintain and increase social networks and relationships.

#### 4.4.2.6 Contextual /Systemic Determinants of Social Capital

Social capital determinants also include contextual or systemic factors at the level of community, such as overall level of development, quality and fairness of formal institutions, distribution of resources and society's polarization, and prior patterns of cooperation and trust.

The results indicate there is no high level of development in the community (Mean = 2.23, SD =1.18, Skewness =-0.23, Kurtosis =-0.72). However, an interview with the county commissioner revealed that there has been a lot of positive development after the introduction of county government. According to Şavkar (2011) the level of social capital of societies is positively and significantly related to the level of development of societies. He further asserts that social capital is seen as a society in which higher societies are safer, cleaner, healthier, and cultured, whereas societies with lower social capital levels have inverse characteristics with constant political, ethnic, religious and sectarian conflicts and that these scarce resources are wasted.

**Table 4.4 Systematic Determinants of Social Capital**

<b>Systematic Determinants</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Skewness</b>	<b>Kurtosis</b>
There is high level of development in my community	2.2266	1.17969	-0.228	-0.723
There exist quality and fairness in formal institutions in the community	2.1756	1.17153	-0.292	-0.811
There is fair distribution of resource in the community	2.3892	1.38112	0.305	-1.226

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

Likewise the results indicate that there exist no quality and fairness in formal institutions in the community. This was shown by the result of (Mean = 2.18, SD =1.17, Skewness =-0.30, Kurtosis=-0.811). The sub county director of education

revealed that there are many institutions in the community which are engaged in different activities.

Further, the results show that there is no fair distribution of resources in the community (Mean = 2.39, SD =1.38, Skewness =-0.30, Kurtosis =-1.23). Generally, resources in the community are always scarce and the needs are unlimited. Anderson *et al.* (2002) opine that enhanced social capital can improve environmental outcomes through decreased costs of collective action, fair distribution of resources, increase in knowledge and information flows, increased cooperation, less resource degradation and depletion, more investment in common lands and water systems, improved monitoring and enforcement.

#### **4.4.2.7 Role of Government in Social Capital**

The study also sought to examine the role of government in social capital. Governmental organizations and welfare programs can connect individuals to resources within the community, and that may help to foster relationships (Smith, 2016).



**Table 4.5 Role of Government in Social Capital**

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
The government is encouraging mutual cooperation in the groups that exist in the community	1.1713	0.63406	4.534	22.143
The groups in the community are keeping contacts with the government and non-governmental organization representatives	1.4428	0.85220	2.454	5.035
The county government and institutions provides financial and non-financial support to the groups	4.3180	1.02357	-1.546	2.026
The government organizes community events and provides meeting structure for the citizens	1.4157	0.76807	2.444	7.234
The county government encourages citizen participation in the planning and decision making process.	1.3015	0.67633	2.417	7.112
Through existing initiatives and policies the government plays a role in social capital formation welfare programs	1.4563	0.82733	2.470	5.885

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

This section provides the study findings for the role of government in social capital. The findings indicate that the government is not encouraging mutual cooperation in the groups that exist in the community. This is attested by the results (Mean =1.17, SD =0.63, Skewness =4.53, Kurtosis =22.1). This implies that the county government is not training the groups that exist in the community.

Similarly, groups in the community are not keeping contacts with the government and non-governmental organization representatives as shown by the results (Mean=1.44, SD =0.85, Skewness=2.4, Kurtosis =5.03) Smith, (2016) Governmental organizations and welfare programs can connect low-income individuals to resources within the community, and that may help to foster relationships when there is close relationship between the government and the local community.

Further, the results indicate that the county government and institutions provide financial and non-financial support to the groups (Mean=4.32, SD, 1.02, Skewness=-1.54, Kurtosis=2.03). The Key informant interview revealed that through extension services, training and capacity building the community gets financial and non-financial support through their unions and cooperatives. Kusakabe, (2012) suggested that through supporting the networking and sociability within and beyond communities. The government can provide financial and non-financial support to local groups of its citizens.

In addition, the findings indicate that the government does not organize community events and provides meeting structure for the citizens in the region (Mean=1.41, SD =0.77, Skewness =2.44, Kurtosis =7.23). According to Kusakabe, (2012) local governments can strengthen structural form of social capital that brings about the cultural/cognitive aspects such as trust and shared norms through organizing community events, providing the “meeting infrastructure” (children playgrounds, parks with benches, sport facilities, etc).

The results also show that the county government does not encourage citizen participation in the planning and decision making process (Mean =1.46, SD =0.67, Skewness =2.41, Kurtosis =7.11). This affects the support that the community gives to the implementation of community projects. According to Van and Finsen (2010) the cultural aspects of social capital can also be strengthened directly by being transparent and encouraging citizens’ participation in planning and decision-making processes. Through providing information about the activities of local government and other actors in the community in the form of a local newspaper, county/ federal state website etc., which can help building local identity as well, and by providing opportunities for people to express their ideas and views regarding their needs and

expectations for their life in the municipality in the form of polls, public hearings among others

The finding also indicates that through existing initiatives and policies the government does not play a role in social capital formation welfare programs (Mean =1.45, SD = 0.83, Skewness =2.50, Kurtosis =5.88). These results contradict those of Desmond & An, (2015) who opine that local government initiatives and welfare programs enhance low-income families' social networks, through encouraging family stability which leads to improved social capital formation.

Similarly, among the respondents interviewed, outstanding responses on the assessment of the level of development in Elgeyo Marakwet County indicated that the establishment of county governments had resulted to significant improvements in the levels of development. One of the respondents posed; *“the coming of county governments is a big change in our development since it has opened up Elgeyo Marakwet County for more opportunities. Although we are still under traditional development models, the openness of counties through the inter-county forums is a likely changer in development”*.

Varda, (2010) took a network perspective, and her research examined the community-level social capital outcomes of a government-led intervention which were operationalized as social networks, social capital is measured as an increase to the strength of weak ties and reduction in redundancy among exchange relationships. Her findings suggested that state–society synergy has the potential to increase bridging social capital in communities. In addition, communities with higher levels of cohesion and connectivity pre-intervention results in greater increases to social capital, and

although trust plays a crucial role in development of social capital, the influence organizations are perceived to have does not.

#### 4.5 Components of Social Capital Integration

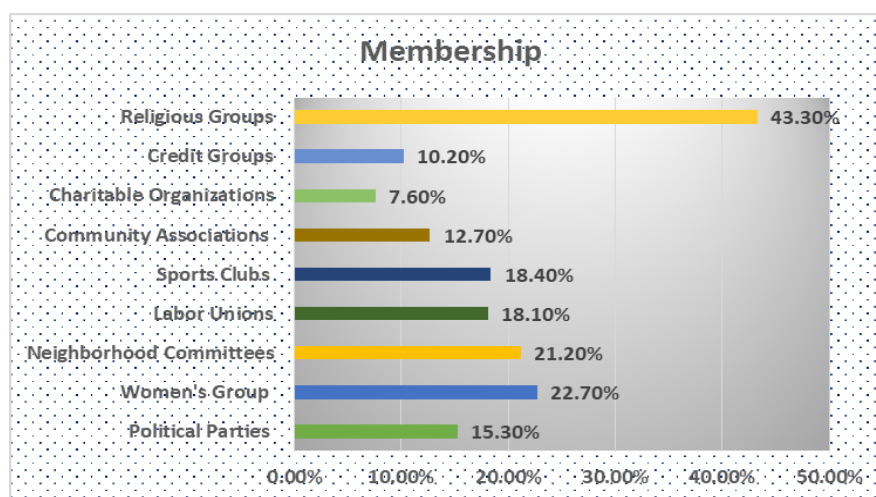
The second objective was to assess components of the social capital process. Social capital components in this study were observed through groups and networks, trust and solidarity, collective actions and cooperation, information and communication, social cohesion and inclusion, and empowerment and political action.

##### 4.5.1 Groups and Network Memberships

This section entails assessing the nature and extent of a household member's participation in various types of social organizations and informal networks, and the range of contributions that one gives and receives from them. It considers the diversity of a given group's membership and how an individual's involvement has changed over time.

##### 4.5.1.1 Membership in Organisations

The study sought to establish the membership of the household heads in existing organizations in the community.



**Figure 4.12: Membership in Organization**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The findings indicate that the household heads are members in various groups. Majority (43.3%) are members of religious groups, followed by women groups at 22.7% and neighbouring committees at 21.2%. In addition, the least ranked groups include community associations 21.2% and community associations 12.2%. This shows that religion plays a significant role in forming organisations and most of the household heads join these religious groups due to the trust in the groups. This concurs with Parts (2009), who opines that religiosity might influence social capital, mostly increasing informal networks, social norms and institutional trust but lowering general trust (which is replaced with trust in God).

Women groups also have a high number of members because women, in their nature, always look out for opportunities to uplift their families through forming groups that will enable them to supplement their needs. They may be in the form of self-help groups, merry-go-round, savings groups and also a way to empower each other through forums and education on various matters.

#### **4.5.1.2 Composition of Members in the Group**

The study sought to establish the composition of members in the groups in terms of age, gender, religion and clan/ tribe.

**Table 4.6: Composition of Members in the Group**

Composition of Members in the Group		
Age	109	30.9%
Gender	103	29.2%
Religion	166	47%
Clan/Tribe	113	32%

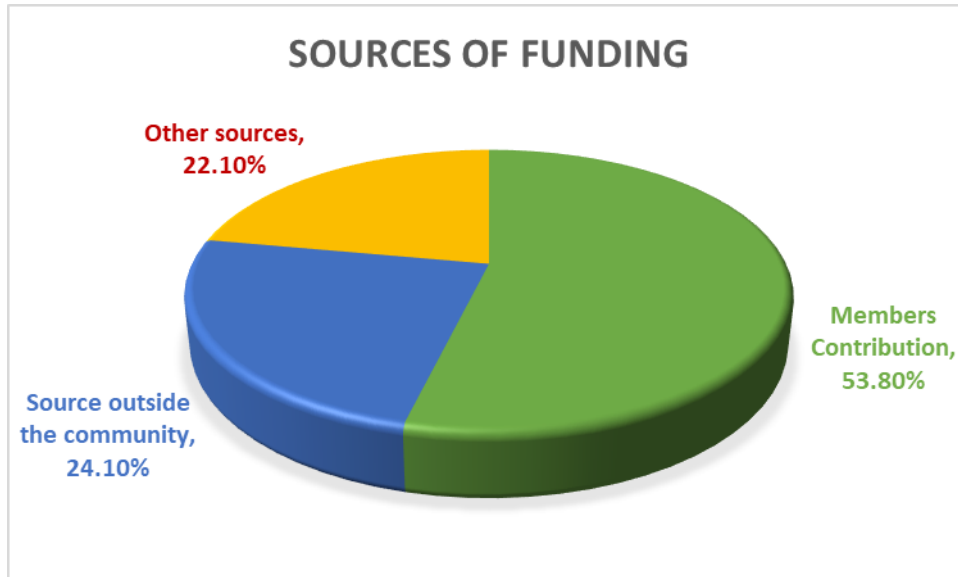
**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The results indicate that 166 (47%) belonged to the same religion, 113(32%) were from the same clan or tribe, 103 (29.3%) of the same gender and 109 (30.9%) were of

the same age. Therefore, the membership in groups is influenced by other factors and mostly religion and tribe.

#### 4.5.1.3 Source of Funding for the Groups

Groups obtain their funding from different sources



**Figure 4.13: Source of Funding for the Groups**

**Source: Field Survey, 202**

The findings indicate that the main source of fundings for the groups is from contribution by the members (53.8%). Other funds come from outside the community at 24.1% mostly from donors, NGO's, the government among others. Funding can also be obtained from other sources (22.1%) and may include money generating activities within the organisation such as loaning to members at an interest and to non-members at a higher interest, engaging in businesses or joint projects that will bring in some form of income.

#### 4.5.1.4 Participation in Community Activities

The study sought to establish how frequently members had participated in activities organised by the formal groups in the past twelve months.



**Figure 4.14 Participation in Community Activities**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The results in Figure 4.14 above, show that 43.3 % of the households heads participated in activities organised by the groups more than twice per week, 34.8% had participated one to three times per month and 21.8% never participated in community activities. This implies that these groups help in ensuring that the members are in touch with activities in their own communities and can be able to steer development within their neighbourhoods.

#### 4.5.1.5 Benefits of Joining Groups

Generally, there are several benefits associated with joining groups.



**Figure 4.15 Benefits of Joining Groups**

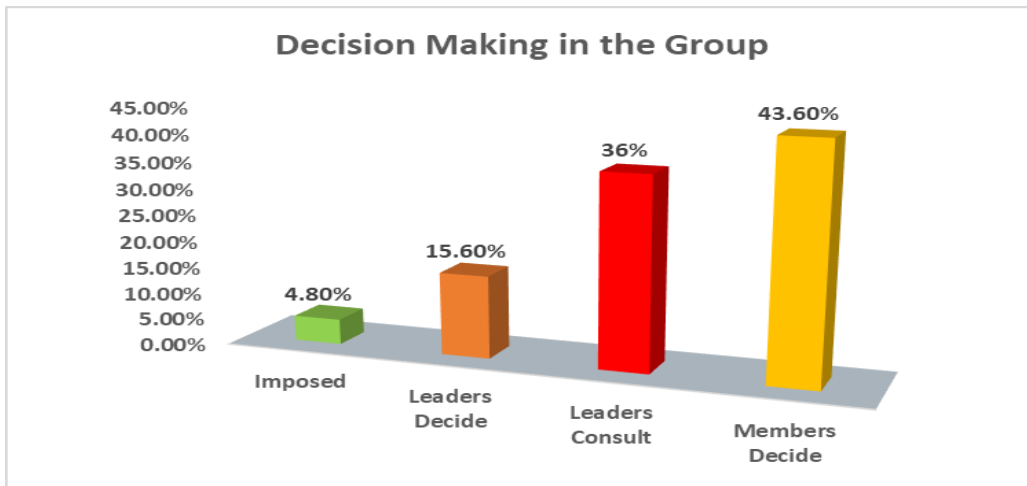
**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The study found out that the various benefits for joining groups include spiritual/social status/ self-esteem at 44.8%, improving household livelihoods/access to services at 41.1%, for recreation purposes at 26.9%, community benefits at 19.5%, for insurance in times of emergency at 8.5% and for other benefits at 2.5%. These findings are in agreement with the findings on the type of organizations most preferred by members where most members join religious organizations and also join groups so that they can uplift their economic status and supplement the household income.



#### 4.5.1.6 Decision Making in the Group

For the smooth running of organizations, decision making is a crucial aspect.



**Figure 4.16 Decision Making in the Group**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The study findings show that group members make decisions after discussing and deciding together at 43.6%, leaders consults members then decides at 36%, leaders decides and informs members at 15% and decisions imposed from outside at 4.8%. This implies that there is participatory decision making in most of the groups.

#### 4.5.1.7 Group Collaboration



**Figure 4.17: Group Collaboration**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The study found out that 83% of the groups had collaborated with the other local residents to deal with common issues or problems (road repair, water problems, insecurity) in the past one year. The key informant interviews revealed that most communities in the county utilize support networks or groups to mitigate their problems through group networks through group collaboration with other groups for the betterment of their communities.

#### 4.5.2 Trust and Solidarity

This category seeks to establish the level of trust towards neighbors, key service providers, and strangers, and how these perceptions have changed over time. Evans (1996) stated that trust in government can foster government efficacy by increasing cooperative values linking citizens to public agencies. This is because the combination of strong public institutions and organized communities is a powerful tool for development.

**Table 4.7: Level of Trust**

<b>Trust and Solidarity</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Skewness</b>	<b>Kurtosis</b>
The majority of local residents living in this community can be trusted	3.5864	1.08661	-0.551	-0.136
Local residents care about both their benefits and others' interests and are always willing to help neighbor's	3.7479	1.13137	-0.747	-0.123
Local community is a big family and I consider myself as a member of the big family"	3.6969	1.25744	-0.714	-0.473
I trust the county government to act in my best interest?	2.3592	1.28864	0.088	-1.131
I or my family members frequently contacts the county government for any community projects	2.4941	1.37444	0.201	-1.234
I always participate in the community's development projects	3.5391	1.35359	-0.441	-1.031
If a community project does not directly benefit me but has benefits for many others in the village/neighborhood, I always contribute time and money to the project?	3.6994	1.38445	-0.452	-0.994

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The study found out the majority of local residents living in this community can be trusted. This was deduced by the results shown by a (Mean=3.59, SD=1.09, Skewness = -0.55, Kurtosis=-0.14)

Further the results indicates that local residents care about both their benefits and others' interests and are always willing to help neighbor's (Mean=3.75, SD=1.13, Skewness=-0.75, Kurtosis=-0.12)

Likewise the findings show that the household heads agreed that local community is a big family and they consider themselves as members of the big family" (Mean=3.70, SD=1.26, Skewness=-0.71, Kurtosis=-0.47)

On the contrary the community does not trust the county government to act in their best interest (Mean=2.35, SD=1.29, Skewness=0.09, Kurtosis=-1.13). The results concur with those of Hooghe and Stolle (2003) state that in the case of trust in government, it seems evident that citizens, who experience this lack of impartiality, will not develop trust in those government institutions that discriminate against them. Additionally, Stolle and Hooghe (2005) argued that "governments can realize their capacity to generate trust only if citizens consider the state itself to be trustworthy.

The results also indicates that the household heads or their family members do not frequently contact the county government for any community projects (Mean=2.49, SD=1.37, Skewness=0.20, Kurtosis=-1.23).

The results show that the households heads always participate in the community's development projects (Mean=3.54, SD=1.35, Skewness=-0.44, Kurtosis=-1.03)

The findings also show that the household heads always contribute time and money to the community projects even if it does not directly benefit them but has benefits for

many others in the village/neighborhood (Mean=3.6994, SD=1.38445, Skewness=-0.452, Kurtosis=-0.994)

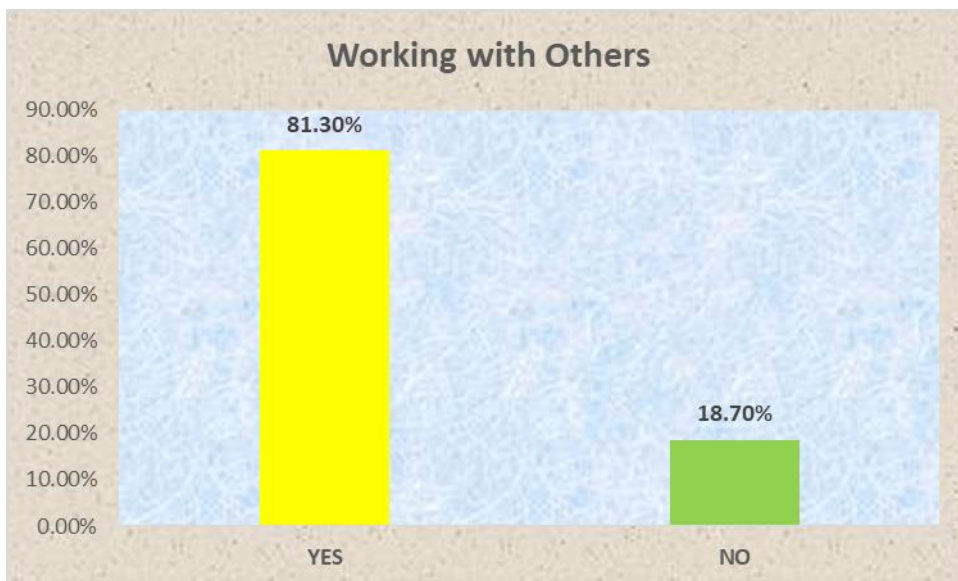
Speaking on the components of social-capital integration, a Ward Administrator posed that “*with the advancement of telephone network transfer across villages of Elgeyo Marakwet County, knowledge transfer has become active among young entrepreneurs. Again, he observed that there are several meetings conducted weekly by a number of network groups to exchange knowledge for self enhancement*”. This implies that social capital integration was characterized by intensive networking which enabled exchange of knowledge and ideas which are critical for entrepreneurship development. This is in concurrence with the observation by Parisi, et al. (2002) that collective action is an essential quality for a community to be engaged in a feasible and sustainable community development

#### **4.5.3 Collective Action and Cooperation**

This category explores whether and how household members have worked with others in their community on joint projects and/or in response to a crisis. It also considers the consequences of violating community expectations regarding participation. Requena (2003) suggested that social capital brings together several important sociological concepts such as social support, integration and social cohesion. Collective action is an essential quality for a community to be engaged in a feasible and sustainable community development (Parisi *et al.*, 2002)

#### 4.5.3.1 Working with Others

The study sought to find out whether household heads had worked with others to benefit the community in the past twelve months.



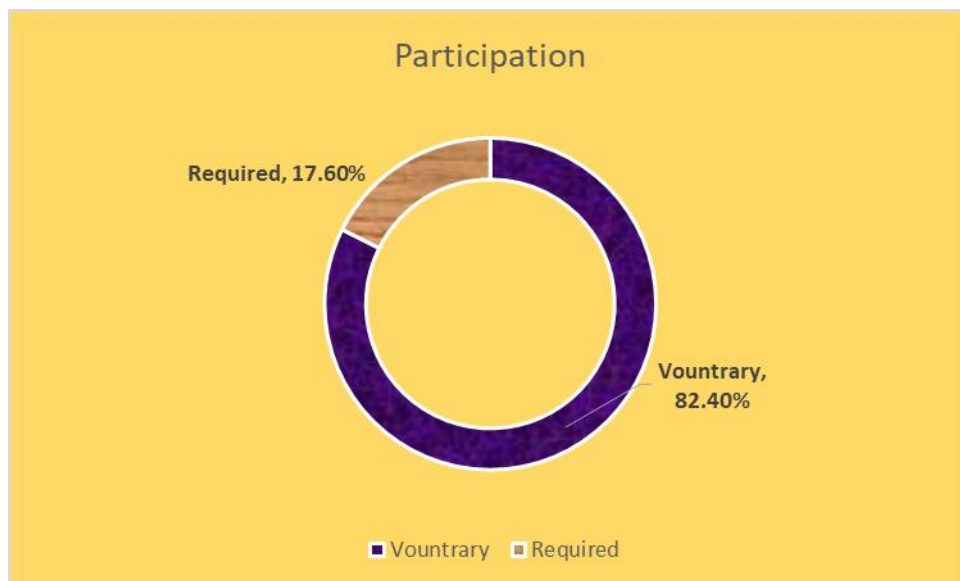
**Figure 4.18: Working with others**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The results indicate that the majority (81.3%) of household heads had worked with others to do something to benefit the community in the past 12 months. The results imply that there is clear participation by household heads in community activities which agree with Woolcock (1998) and World Bank (1998) that social capital facilitates cooperation because people have the confidence to invest in collective activities, knowing that others will also do so.

### 4.5.3.2 Participation

For those who affirmed that they had worked with others, the study sought to establish whether their participation was voluntary or required.



**Figure 4.19 Participation in Groups**

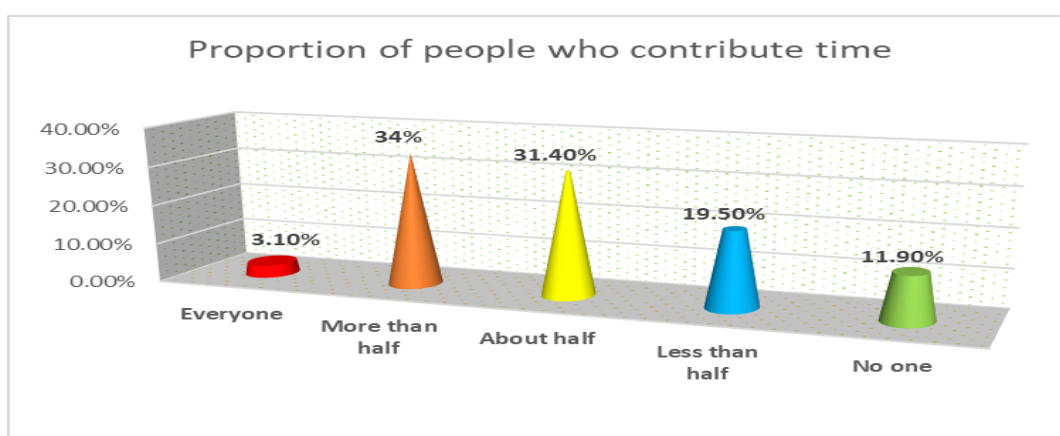
**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The findings show that 82.4% indicated that their participation was voluntary while 17.6% said it was required of them to participate and this implies that most members in this community are concerned about the welfare of their community. Notably, a Sub-County Administrator said; *“network trusts and solidarity are increasing among groups due to registered associations being the joining web among many upcoming groups, it is also interesting to see collective action and co-operation thriving than in yester years”*. Miković, et’al.( 2020) observed that with other organizations delivering projects, ID NGOs seem to be failing many stakeholders due to poor delivery of results. These failures were attributed to lack, and mismanagement, of social links and knowledge resources have been identified as the biggest challenges of ID NGOs in reaching vulnerable beneficiary populations. This means that with network trusts,

solidarity and strong joining webs among integrated groups, more development is likely to be achieved.

#### 4.5.3.3 Proportion of People who contribute time towards development goals

Community contribution in terms of time and money is an important factor in achievement of common development goals. Ryan *et al.* (2005) found that community attachment is positively related to voluntary participation in community activities and events.



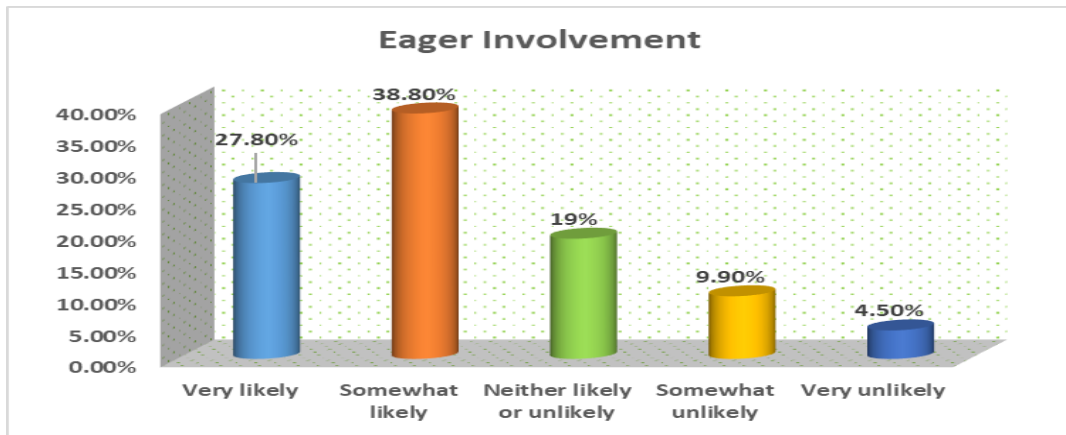
**Figure 4.20: Proportion of people who contribute time towards development goals**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The proportion of people in the community who contribute their time or money towards common development goals, such as repairing roads, 3.1% said everyone, 34% more than half, 31.4% about half, 19.5% less than half and 11.9% No one. This shows that more than half of the population sacrifice their time and money in the achievement of development goals since it will in turn benefit them and their families.

#### 4.5.3.4 Degree of Involvement

Involvement in development of social or local community was analysed and the findings were as shown below.



**Figure 4.21 Involvement of Members in Community Action**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

On the degree of involvement the findings indicate that 27.8% eagerly get involved in actions for the well-being of the broader social or local community, 38.8% somewhat likely, 19% Neither likely nor unlikely, 9.9% somewhat unlikely and 4.5% very unlikely. Therefore, members of the community were highly likely to involve themselves in community action and this confirms thoughts by Şavkar, (2011) who alluded that when societies are examined in a sociological sense, the level of social capital of societies is positively and significantly related to the level of development of societies.

#### 4.5.4 Information Technology

Access to information is being increasingly recognized as central to helping the communities have a stronger voice in matters affecting their well-being. This category explores the ways and means by which households receive information regarding market conditions and public services, and the extent of their access to communications infrastructure.



**Table 4.8: Source of Information Technology**

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Relative / Friends	4.2606	0.92322	-1.281	1.429
Local Market	3.6856	1.12827	-0.659	-0.285
TV/Radio	3.728	1.24532	-0.742	-0.36
Daily Newspaper	2.6176	1.29177	0.422	-0.905
Group/ Association	3.5728	1.23452	-0.114	-0.997
Internet	2.4589	1.31388	0.536	-0.867
Political Associations	2.8102	1.3487	0.112	-1.234
Community Leaders	3.5581	1.258	-0.584	-0.69
NGOs	2.6346	1.29669	0.326	-0.946
Government Institutions	3.4776	1.25544	-0.294	-0.907

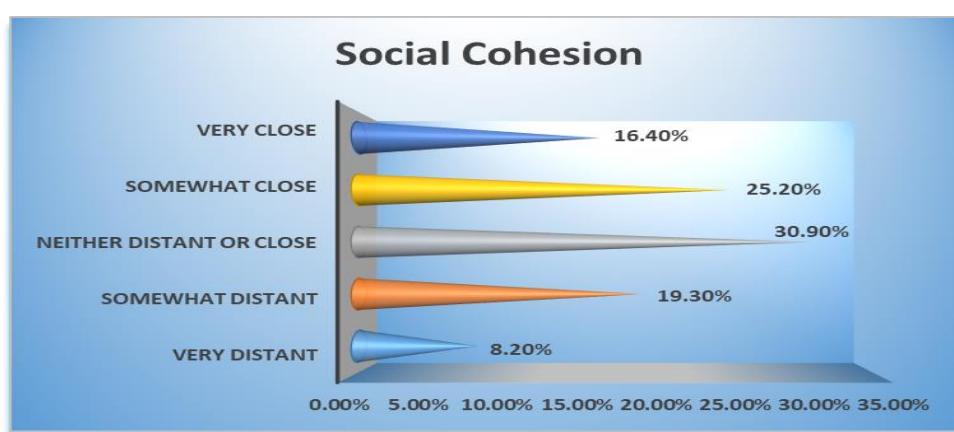
**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The findings indicate that the household heads receive their information from relatives/friends, the local market, Tv/Radio, Group associations, Community Leaders and from Government Institutions since their mean ratings were above 3.5. On the contrary, the respondents indicated that they did not receive important information from Daily newspaper, the internet, political associations and NGOs probably due to the costs involved or accessibility (newspaper and internet) and the lack of active roles by NGOs and political associations. This implies that they have invested in social capital for instance, friends and relatives, groups, community leaders among others to rely on source of information. This is in line with what Greenberg *et al* (2017) identify that organizations not only act as a source of information for members, they can also provide access to opportunities, such as providing participants information about job openings, politics, life skills among others. Therefore, through social capital networks, individuals can access information to access services or goods in the society (Field, 2017).

#### 4.5.5 Social Cohesion and Inclusion

Communities are characterized by various forms of division and difference that can lead to conflict. This category seeks to identify the nature and extent of these differences, the mechanisms by which they are managed, and which groups are excluded from key public services. Everyday forms of social interaction are also considered.

##### 4.5.5.1 Feeling of Togetherness



**Figure 4.22: Social Cohesion**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The respondents were asked to describe the strength of their feeling of togetherness in the community and majority indicated that they were neither close nor distant in closeness. This can mean that they are simply acquaintances since most are generally in the same community, sharing the same resources and dealing with the same challenges.

##### 4.5.5.2 Difference in Characteristics

The study sought to establish the differences in characteristics between people living in the same village or neighbourhood.

**Table 4.9: Difference in Characteristics**

Difference in Characteristics	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Characteristics in Education	4.2465	0.90384	-1.226	1.648
Characteristics In land holding	4.2181	2.42747	9.374	111.393
Characteristics in wealth	4.102	3.33044	12.008	171.042
Characteristics in political party affiliation	3.3031	2.5409	11.681	187.299
Characteristics in religious beliefs	3.2436	1.41727	-0.269	-1.209

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The results show that there are differences in characteristics between people living in the same village/neighbourhood in terms of education, land holding and wealth creation as indicated by their means of above 3.5. The results also showed that there are no differences in political party affiliation and on religious beliefs.

#### 4.5.5.3 Level of Distance in Interpersonal Relations

**Table 4.10: Level of Distance**

Level of distance	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
High level of distance	3.4563	1.19436	-0.37	-0.788
Material Value	3.5609	1.23277	-0.461	-0.799
Distance in interpersonal Level	3.3853	1.25635	-0.309	-0.961

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The respondents were asked to identify the level of distance in interpersonal relations within the social community they live in and the results were, (Mean = 3.46, SD = 1.19, Skewness = -0.37, Kurtosis = -0.79), this is a clear indication that there is a high level of distance in these relations.

On the importance of material values over the ethical and moral values in the community, the respondents agreed that the material values are becoming more important than ethical and moral values and this was shown by (Mean = 3.56, SD = 1.23, Skewness = -0.46, Kurtosis = -0.8)

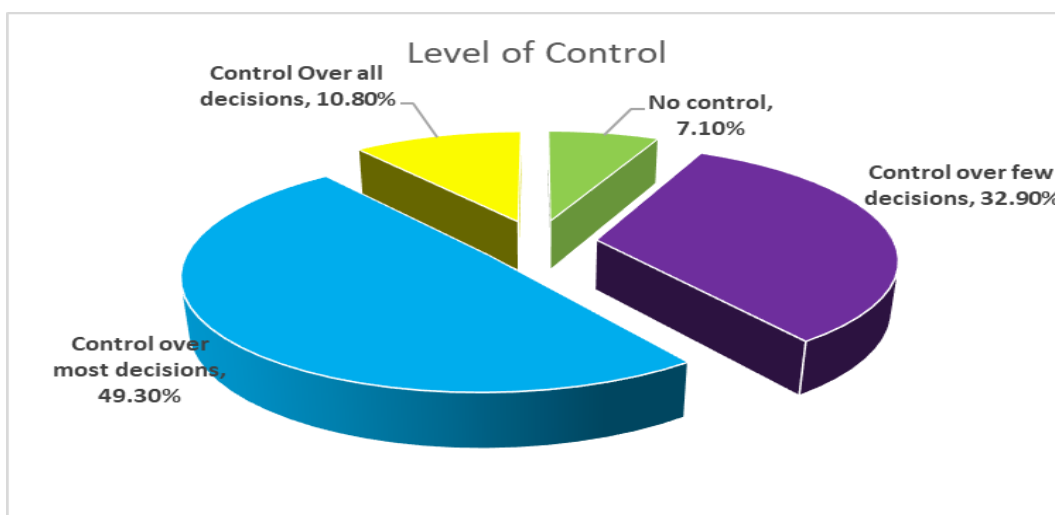
Finally, they were asked to identify whether distance in interpersonal relations is significantly higher among members of different ethnic groups than among members of the same ethnic community and the results (Mean = 3.39, SD = 1.26, Skewness = -0.31, Kurtosis = -0.96) show that they neither agree nor disagreed with the statement.

#### 4.5.6 Empowerment and Political Action

Individuals in the community should be empowered to have a measure of control over institutions and processes directly affecting their well-being (World Bank, 2002). This section explores household members' level of control, capacity to influence County government or political leaders for broader political and development outcomes.

##### 4.5.6.1 Level of Control

The study sought to find out how much control the community had making decisions that affect their daily activities and the results were presented in the pie chart below.

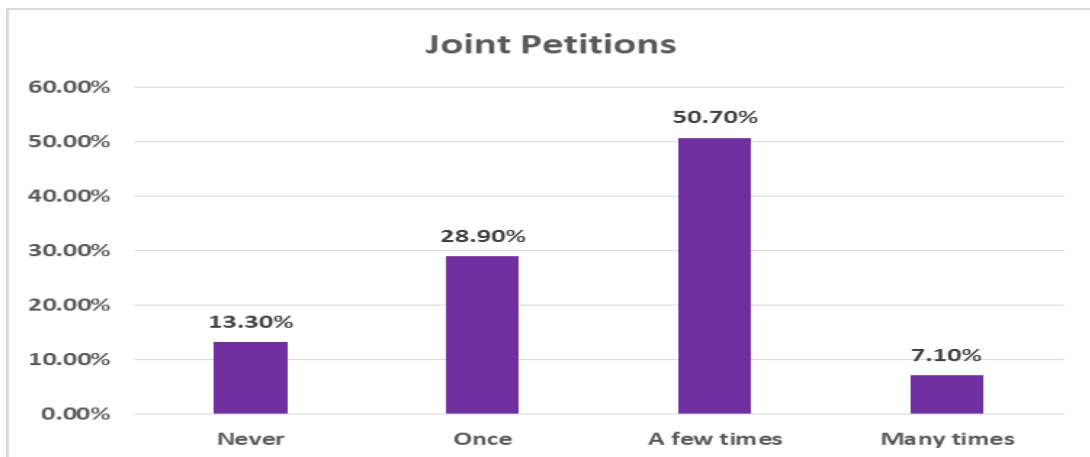


**Figure 4.23: Level of Control**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The findings show that the community had a high level of control (49%) over most decisions made. This clearly implies that they are empowered gives them a sense of ownership for any decisions made affecting their daily activities.

#### 4.5.6.2 Joint Petitions



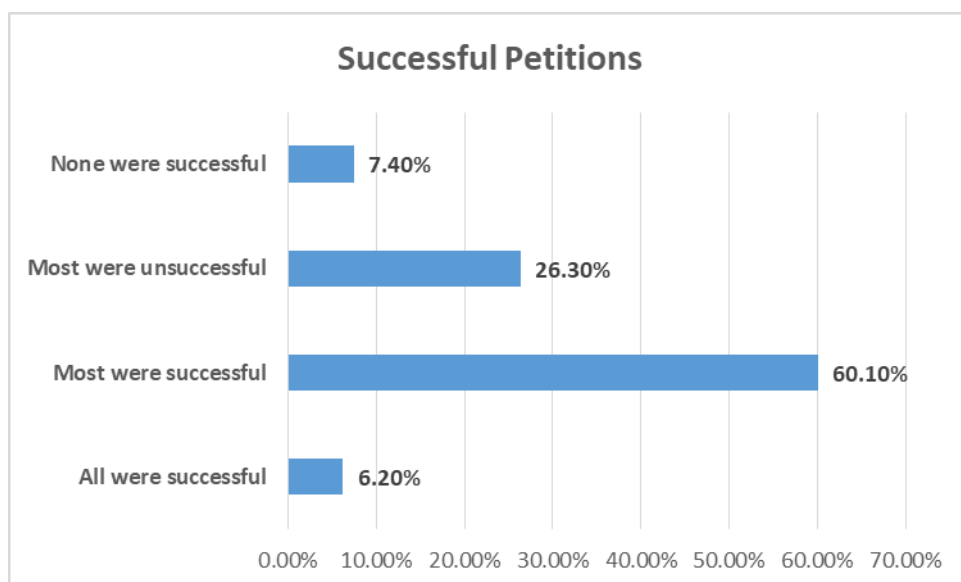
**Figure 4.24 Joint Petitions**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

On how often the residents in the community got together, in the past 12 months, to jointly petition Government or political leaders for something benefiting the community, the results indicate that more than half of the community members got together a few times to jointly petition the government and political leaders.

#### 4.5.6.3 Successful Petitions

The study sought to establish whether the joint petitions were successful or not.



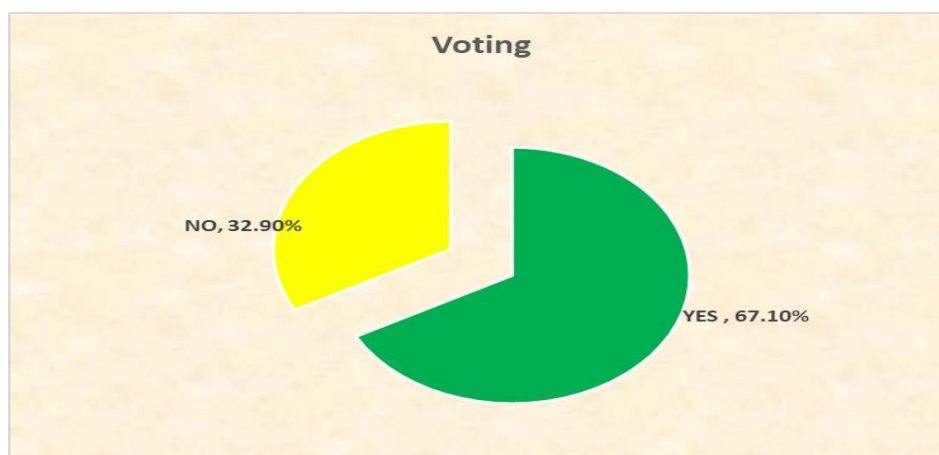
**Figure 4.25: Successful Petitions**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The findings indicated that most of the joint petitions were successful (60.1%). This implies that through social capital, the community had a greater chance of influencing policy implementation.

#### 4.5.6.4 Voting

The study sought to find out whether the individuals participated in voting in the last general election.



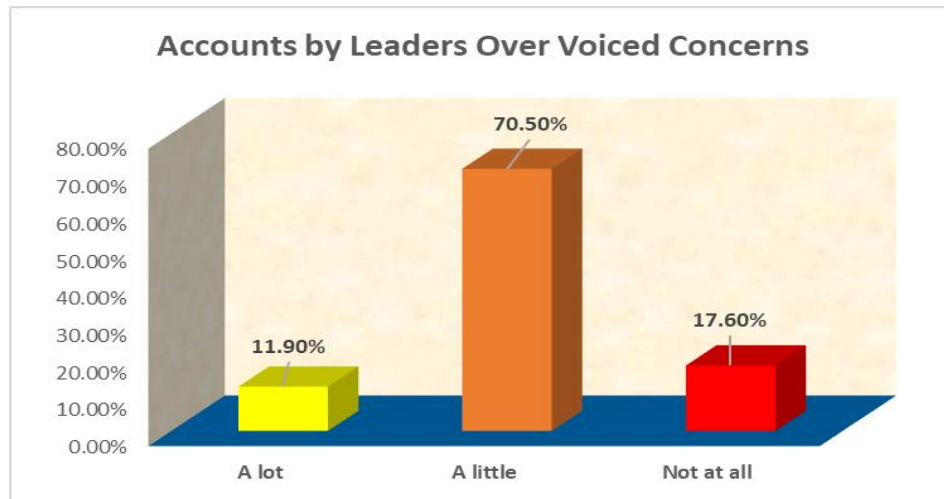
**Figure 4.26: Voting**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The results as presented in the pie-chart above indicate that the majority (67%) voted in the last General Election. This shows that they had a voice in choosing the leaders that represented them.

#### 4.5.6.5 Accounts by Leaders

The research sought to find out the extent to which the local Government/leaders take into account concerns voiced by the individuals when they make decisions affecting the community.



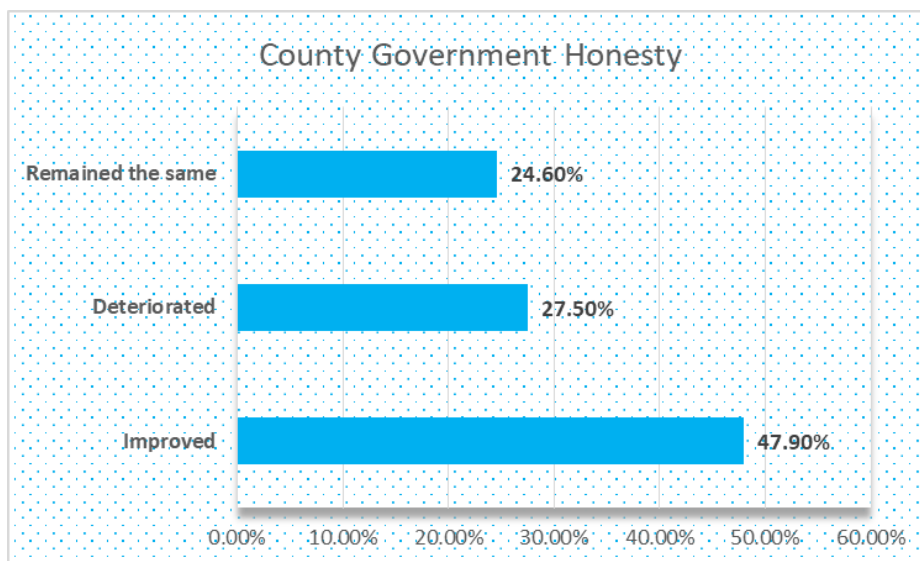
**Figure 4.27 Accounts by Leaders**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The results show that the local government and leaders take a little concern (70.5%) over concerns voiced by individuals in the community. This implies that the community feels that their concerns are mostly disregarded in decision making. Hickey (2008), points out that politics shapes the lives of poor and marginalised people in the community in various ways and their interactions and experiences with formal and informal types of politics often exacerbate their vulnerability and diminish their sense of dignity.

#### 4.5.6.6 County Government Honesty

Lastly, the research sought to find out whether the honesty of the county government had improved, deteriorated or remained the same.



**Figure 4.28 County Government Honesty**

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The findings, as represented in Figure 4.28 above, show that County Government Honesty had improved (47%). This in turn implies that the community acknowledged that the County Government delivers on most of the projects that they propose and initiate. Rice's (2001) research indicated that towns high in social capital tend to be towns where citizens rate their government as more responsive and effective, compared to towns lower in social capital. He also found a significant positive relationship between social capital "values" (trust, political equality, and civic engagement) and government responsiveness and effectiveness.

Therefore, under this objective, components of social capital, the study concludes that social capital helps to disseminate information, reduces opportunistic behavior, and facilitates collective decision-making. The effectiveness with which structural social capital, in the form of the associations and networks, fulfills this role depends upon



many aspects of these groups, reflecting their structure, their membership, and the way they function. According to Grootaert (1999, 2001), he suggested that internally diverse associations yield higher levels of benefits than others, although homogeneous associations make it easier to bring about collective action which is possible only if a significant amount of social capital is available in the community. He further argues that collective action consists primarily of community-organized activities for building and maintaining infrastructure and for providing related public services and may be more politically oriented and used primarily to lobby elected officials to provide more services to the community.

#### **4.6 Effects of Social Capital Integration of Socio-Economic Livelihoods.**

The third objective was to evaluate the effect of social capital on people's livelihood and therefore, the use of social capital is considered beneficial because this concept focuses on a community's assets and may lead to the development of other forms of capital.

**Table 4.11: Effects of Social Capital on Social Economic Livelihoods.**

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Risk management and social insurance	3.5779	1.11052	-0.561	-0.244
Better Management of shared resources	3.5411	1.18664	-0.488	-0.676
Reduced cost of conducting business	2.2521	1.24152	-0.094	-0.997
Increased Capacity to innovate	3.5465	1.28093	-0.111	-1.107
Improved access to information	3.4079	1.16197	-0.327	-0.637
Influence over policies	2.7989	1.35546	0.08	-1.19
Membership over extraction of resources	3.532	1.25287	-0.342	-0.846
Formal rules and norms	3.1105	1.2139	-0.127	-0.944
Do existing acts as obstacles	3.068	1.26622	-0.027	-0.998
Maintenance of social capital	3.3144	1.31436	-0.332	-0.982

**Source: Field Survey, 2021**

The findings show that Risk management and social insurance had (Mean =3.58, SD =1.11, Skewness =-0.56, Kurtosis =-0.24). This indicates that social capital for

example the ability to call down support from kin can act as a buffer against the effects of shocks and adverse trends.

The findings further show that on management of resources (Mean=3.54, SD=1.19, Skewness=-0.49, Kurtosis=-0.68). This implies that there is better management of common and shared resources, through group action.

Further, on cost of conducting business (Mean=2.25, SD=1.24, Skewness=-0.94, Kurtosis=-0.99), there is no reduced costs of conducting business through lowering transaction costs or in increasing the ability to exploit economies of scale. Stańczyk, (2007) opines that high levels of trust in a society may also translate into economic benefits through decreased transaction costs. In addition, according to Isham, (2002) one of the most striking arguments in favor of common resource management lies in that social capital guarantees social cohesion and improves trust among members of the community, so it helps to reduce transaction costs (Isham, 2002).

On increased capacity to innovate (Mean=3.55, SD=1.28, Skewness=-0.11, Kurtosis =-1.11). The findings imply that through membership of farmers' research groups which are well connected to research agencies, there is increased capacity to innovate and to sustain activities beyond the life of projects.

Similarly, the results also indicate that the (Mean =3.51,SD =1.16,Skewness =-0.33, Kurtosis =-0.64) which shows that there is improved access to information and services in the community which can be attributed to better overall links between external organisations and the poor which further results in greater empowerment of the communities. Organizations can help to foster positive relationships as a byproduct of the services they provide (Smith, 2016). In other words, if individuals are already involved with a community organization for other reasons, they will likely

accrue social capital through their involvement. Organizations can also provide access to opportunities, such as providing participants information about job openings (Greenberg et al., 2017). Local partnerships help to further enhance social networks through involvement in the local community and affiliated institutions.

Consequently, the findings on influence of policies and legislation, (Mean =2.80, SD =1.36, Skewness =-0.08, Kurtosis =-1.19). These results show that the community does not have any influence on policy making and legislation.

On membership over extraction of resources, (Mean =3.53, SD =1.25, Skewness =-0.34, Kurtosis =-0.85), the results indicate that membership of certain groups allow over-extraction of natural resources to the detriment of non-members and the resources themselves.

The results regarding formal rules and regulations, (Mean =3.11, SD =1.21, Skewness =-0.13, Kurtosis =-0.94), indicate that formal rules and norms do not trap people within harmful social arrangements.

Regarding the relationship between existing associations and emergence of sustainable livelihoods (Mean =3.07, SD =1.27, Skewness =-0.03, Kurtosis =-0.99), the findings clearly show that the associations do not act as obstacles to the emergence of sustainable livelihoods.

Lastly, the results on maintenance of social capital (Mean =3.31, SD =1.31, Skewness =-0.33, Kurtosis =-0.98), indicate that social capital maintenance is a costly activity in terms of labour intensity and time consumption.

From the interviews conducted, a majority of the respondents pointed out that social capital integration had both positive and negative effects on socio-economic

livelihoods in Elgeyo Marakwet County. Out of the total aggregates, 70 percent narrowed down on the following positive effects;

- i. Source of social insurance,
- ii. Cushioning one another in social development,
- iii. Incubation of enhanced socio-economic livelihoods, and
- iv. Improved harmony despite socio-political persuasions.

The remaining 30 percent however, considered that mixed positive and negative effects emerged from social capital integration initiatives. Some negative effects included misuse of pooled resources, failure to repay loans leading to disassociation and loss of trust.

#### **4.7 Chapter Summary**

This chapter entailed data presentation, analysis, and interpretations as based on the research objectives. The research findings were represented using tables, figures and diagrams. The study showed that social capital integration was instrumental in enhancing socio- collective action and cooperation as they work with others to ensure social cohesion and inclusion economic livelihoods. This was attained through creation of networks which enabled pooling of resources to support development activities. Furthermore, the collective action and cooperation as they work with others ensured social cohesion and inclusion. Consequently, social capital integration provided pathways for technological and knowledge transfer. As a result, members of groups or committees were able to be cushioned from extreme life conditions.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Overview

In this thesis, chapter one dwelt on the preliminary matters pertaining the research including expounding on the core ideas through a background, stating the problem, outlining the objectives and research questions, justifications and significance of the study, and identifying possible limitations to the study. In chapter two, the relevant literature to this research were duly reviewed on the basis of objectives, themes, contents, and following a geographic model of presentation. In addition, the working theory as theoretical framework was discussed and concepts were highlighted in a conceptual framework. The thesis further carried out a presentation and discussion of the findings and subsequently analysis of the results in relations to the existing body of thoughts. This chapter therefore gives these summary, conclusions and make recommendations on the foregoing.

#### 5.2 Summary of the Study

##### 5.2.1 Overall Summary of the Study

The study sought to examine social capital integration and its role in enhancing socio-economic livelihoods in Elgeyo Marakwet County, Kenya. It came clear that the role of social capital integration is crucial in social cohesion, sharing knowledge and technology and pooling resources towards increased and efficient productivity and much to Elgeyo Marakwet County as in other environments. The specific objectives which guided this study included; examining determinants of social capital in Elgeyo Marakwet County, finding out components of social capital integration in Elgeyo Marakwet County, and evaluating the effect of social capital integration on people's socio-economic livelihood in Elgeyo Marakwet County.

The study was carried out in four selected sub- counties in EMC; Keiyo North, Keiyo south, Marakwet West and Marakwet East. The researcher focused on employment, family income, social support and community safety among households as indicators of socio-economic livelihoods. In justifying the need for social capital integration, this study underscored that social capital enhances interconnectivity of people centred approaches in attaining desired socio - economic livelihoods. The results of the study findings provide an essential information to policy makers and planners, academia, the community in charting appropriate strategies for general wellbeing of EMC.

Key literature and findings point that; a growing number of academicians and policy makers have employed the concept of social capital integration to explain various economic and social outcomes. As highlighted by Nicholson & Hoyer, they aver that the fundamental notion of social capital is to incorporate socio-cultural factors to explain social economic development outcomes. Furthermore, the study suggests that the key aspects of the relational dimension of social capital are trust and trustworthiness, norms and sanctions, obligations and expectations, and identity and identification. Again, social capital integration enhances the capacity of groups to access resources, ideas and information. Observation from interviews conducted revealed a majority of the respondents pointing out that social capital integration had both positive and negative effects on socio-economic livelihoods in Elgeyo Marakwet County where positive effects outweighed the negative effects.

The study employed a mixed method approach. By mixing the dataset, this study provides a better understanding of socio-capital integration and its role in enhancing socio- economic livelihoods in EMC. Elgeyo Marakwet County covers a total area of 3029.6 km<sup>2</sup> which constitutes 0.4 percent of Kenya's total area. Agriculture is the backbone of the County's economy and major source of livelihoods to the population.

The study adopted the concurrent triangulation of descriptive and inferential studies. The target population comprised households who belong to associations, social networks and informal networks in the four sub counties in Elgeyo Marakwet County. A sample size of 384 was drawn from the bigger population and was proportionately divided in the four sub counties for data findings. In addition, representative samples was obtained purposively from selected groups.

The research instruments for this study were a structured questionnaire and interview guide. The analysis was done using SPSS version 20 which was considered appropriate. Similarly, cross tabulations used because it offers a simple method of grouping variables, which minimizes the potential for confusion or error by providing clear results. Finally, the researcher observed the ethical issues which are supposed to be followed in scientific research.

## **5.2.2 Summary of Findings**

### **5.2.2.1 On Determinants of Social Capital in Elgeyo Marakwet County**

The findings of the study are summarized on the basis of the research objectives. First, it became clear that most households own less than 3 hectares of land. This should motivate individuals to look for alternative means of generating resources for enhanced socio-economic livelihoods. When one has ownership of land, they tend to work harder and smarter on it so that it can enable them to get the very best out of it unlike when working on other peoples land.

From a cross section of respondents it was observed that the main economic activity in the County is crop farming and livestock rearing. Similarly, it was observed that the majority of the residents of EMC are low income earners. There is optimism that as the levels of education of many young people rise, they would see social capital

improve greatly. This in essence indicates that levels of education are low and could contribute to negative social capital integration.

Generally, resources in the community were noted to be scarce amidst unlimited needs. A scholar as already discussed opined that enhanced social capital can improve environmental outcomes through decreased costs of collective action, fair distribution of resources, increase in knowledge and information flows, increased cooperation, less resource degradation and depletion, more investment in common lands and water systems, improved monitoring and enforcement. This points to the fact that the coming of county governments is has resulted in opening up of Elgeyo Marakwet County for more opportunities towards development.

There were government-led interventions in social capital integration initiatives through provision of extension services, training and capacity building as well as financial and non-financial support to unions and cooperatives. This helped strengthen weak ties and reduction in redundancy among associations. However, groups in the community were not keeping contacts with the government and non-governmental organization representatives for close monitoring of their activities.

In addition, it was observed that the establishment of county governments had resulted to significant improvements in the levels of development. The coming of county governments is a big change in our development since it has opened up Elgeyo Marakwet County for more opportunities. Although we are still under traditional development models, the openness of counties through the inter-county forums is a likely changer in development.



### **5.2.2.2 On Components of Social Capital Integration in Elgeyo Marakwet County**

Secondly, it was observed that the residents of EMC are members of various groups. Majority are members of religious groups, followed by women groups and neighbouring committees. Social capital integration components in this study were reminiscence in group networks where members collaborated to deal with common issues including road repair, digging boreholes and ensuring community security. Members could also team up in making joint petitions on matters that affected the community.

Similarly, trust and solidarity came out to be key component of social capital integration. Among women groups, the basis of extending loans to members was trust. Communities in the County utilized support networks or groups to mitigate their problems through group networks by collaboration with other groups for the betterment of their communities.

Finally, cooperation, sharing of information and technology were particularly evident among the youthful population. Network trusts and solidarity are increasing among groups due to registered associations being the joining web among many upcoming groups. Collective action and co-operation were equally notable among individuals particularly the young families. As a scholar has already observed, failure to deliver projects is attributed to mismanagement, lack of social links and knowledge resources.

This means that with network trusts, solidarity and strong joining webs among integrated groups, more development is likely to be achieved.

### **5.2.2.3 Influence of social capital integration on Socio-Economic Livelihoods in Elgeyo Marakwet County**

**Thirdly**, the study found out that through group action, there was better management of common and shared resources. Women who belonged to groups had to ensure that the required contributions were always promptly done. Similarly, individuals already involved with a community organization had access to opportunities, such as providing participants information about job openings which would be sources of income.

Additionally, the findings intimate that individuals, particularly farmers who were members of groups got connected to research agencies that provided increased capacity to innovate and to sustain their productive activities. In the same vein, residents who partnered in businesses witnessed reduced costs of conducting business through lowering transaction costs and increasing the ability to exploit economies of scale. Stańczyk, (2007) opines that high levels of trust in a society may also translate into economic benefits through decreased transaction costs.

Finally, a majority of the respondents pointed out that social capital integration had both positive and negative effects on socio-economic livelihoods in Elgeyo Marakwet County. Out of the total aggregates, the following positive effects were noted;

- i. Source of social insurance,
- ii. Cushioning one another in social development,
- iii. Incubation of enhanced socio-economic livelihoods, and
- iv. Improved harmony despite socio-political persuasions.

Some negative effects included misuse of pooled resources, failure to repay loans leading to disassociation and loss of trust.

### 5.3 Conclusion

From the study findings, the following conclusions emerge:

- i. Social capital integration enhances socio-economic livelihoods from benefits to members from whom majority are experiencing inertia thus renewed vigor in joining groups.
- ii. Some key determinants of social capital integration from the study leads to a conclusion that; the meagre the size of land ownership had a correlation to enhancing social capital integration, the meager the resources among households indicated a higher preference to social integration initiatives, and the existence of county governments due to Constitution of Kenya (CoK) 2010 has a great potential to social integration and by extension improved socio-economic livelihoods. On the other hand, other determinants including age, marital status, gender, etc had specific roles in social capital integration.
- iii. Evidence from the study, components of social capital integration included; group memberships, cooperation and collaboration, networking, mutual support, communication and technology transfer, trust and solidarity, and collective actions.
- iv. The study points notable effects of social capital integration on socio-economic livelihoods in EMC to be; access to information, better management and sharing of common resources, social insurance, and unity.

Social capital involves interactions between households' members or individuals and the social system, social networks, political parties' as well local or international based associations and it is agreed that social capital is the measure of interactions, affiliations, and feelings of trust among community members which in turn lead to cooperation and collective action.

Social capital determinants include the psychological and socio-economic characteristics of individuals such as personal income and education, family and social status, values and personal experiences, which determine the incentive of individuals to invest in social capital and several other social and demographic determinants like age, gender, marital status and number of children.

It can be concluded that households place a great importance on social capital as they see it as a key component in improving their socioeconomic backgrounds. They do this by joining groups and networks that enable them to get timely information on current issues, help in advocating political issues and driving key development initiatives in their community.

#### **5.4 Contribution of Knowledge**

The relevance of the present research to the body of knowledge is that social capital integration has benefited the community by enhancing socio-economic livelihoods. This is evident in majority of them vigorously joining groups which are instrumental in granting social insurance, technological transfers, and improved knowledge on how to conduct main economic activities. This ultimately is leading to quality life.

#### **5.5 Recommendations**

The study therefore came up with the following recommendations.

- i. National and the County government should intensify the implementation of policies that support the operations of groups and subsequently giving them force through legal frameworks.
- ii. There is need of stakeholder involvement in strengthening social capital integration in EMC for enhancement of socio-economic livelihoods.

- iii. Public awareness within the community should be conducted and more efforts should be geared towards promoting a culture on group formation in order to improve socio-economic livelihoods.
- iv. In specific reference to her role, the government should provide incentives to local groups in the community, organize community events, provide requisite infrastructure (water resources, neighbour security committees famously known as *nyumba kumi initiatives*, roads, etc.) and developing both formal and informal cooperation with the community in order to strengthen networks and sociability in the community.

### **5.6 Suggestions for Further Study**

- (a) There is a need to undertake a study on the role of the social capital as a pathway to achievement of Sustainable Development Goals.
- (b) A study should be conducted on the role county government on building of social capital in the community.
- (c) A study should be carried out on the social capital and management of natural resources.
- (d) A study should be conducted in other counties in Kenya to compare the findings with the present study.

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## APPENDICES

**Appendix I: Household Questionnaire for Social Capital on Socio Economic Livelihoods in Elgeyo Marakwet County.**

**Please answer these questions to the best of your knowledge. Please put a tick [√] where appropriate. Do not include your name anywhere in the questionnaire**

A	DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION		
1.	Gender	1. Male	[ ]
		2. Female	[ ]
2.	Age	1. Below 20	[ ]
		2. 21-35	[ ]
		3. 36- 50	[ ]
		4. Above 51	[ ]
3.	Education level	1. Never Attended	[ ]
		2. Primary	[ ]
		3. Secondary	[ ]
		4. College	[ ]
4.	What is your marital status	1. Married	[ ]
		2. Widowed	[ ]
		3. Divorced/Separated	[ ]

		4. Never married	[ ]	
5.	Number of people in the household	1. 1 - 4	[ ]	
		2. 5-9	[ ]	
		3. 10-12	[ ]	
		4. Above 13	[ ]	
6.	Composition of your household (Fill in numbers)	<b>Age</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Male</b>
		0 -4 Years		
		5 – 9 Years		
		10 – 14 Yrs		
		≥15 Years		
7.	Length of stay in the County	1. 0-6 months	[ ]	
		2. 6 months - 1 year	[ ]	
		3. 1-5 years	[ ]	
		4. Over 5 years	[ ]	
<b>B</b>	<b>DETERMINANTS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL</b>			
8.	Size of land owned by the household	1. None	[ ]	
		2. Less than one hectare	[ ]	
		3. 1-3 hectares	[ ]	
		4. 4-10 hectares	[ ]	
		5. More than 10 hectares	[ ]	
9.	Occupation of the Household head	i. Crop farming	[ ]	
		ii. Livestock farming	[ ]	

		iii. Stock trader [ ]					
		iv. General business [ ]					
		v. Employed [ ]					
		vi. Casual labourer [ ]					
		vii. Student [ ]					
		viii. Other [ ]					
		ix. None [ ]					
10	Range of Income per month	1. Below 5000 [ ]					
		2. 5,001-20,000 [ ]					
		3. 20,001-35,000 [ ]					
		4. 35,001-50,000 [ ]					
		5. Above 50,001 [ ]					
<p><b>Specify your level of agreement on systematic determinants of social capital at community level. Strongly Agree (5), Somewhat Agree (4), Neutral (3), Somewhat Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1)</b></p>							
			5	4	3	2	1
11	There is a high level of development in my community.						
12	There exists quality and fairness in formal institutions in the community.						
13	There is fair distribution of resources in the county.						
<b>C</b>	<b>COMPONENTS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL INTEGRATION</b>						
	<b>GROUPS AND NETWORKS</b>						
14	Are you member of any of the following Organizations(Tick all that apply)	1. Political parties [ ]					
		2. Women's group [ ]					
		3. Neighborhood committees [ ]					
		4. Labor [ ]					
		5. Sports clubs [ ]					
		6. Community associations [ ]					

		7. Charitable organizations [ ]		
		8. Credit groups [ ]		
		9. Religious groups [ ]		
15	Composition of group Membership ( <i>Researcher to collate</i> )	Age		
		Gender		
		Religion		
		Clan / Tribe		
16	Sources of funding for the group?	1. Member contribution [ ]		
		2. Source outside the community [ ]		
		3. Other sources [ ]		
17	In the past 12 months, how frequently have you participated in activities organized by the above formal organizations on average?	1. Never participate [ ]		
		2. More than twice per week [ ]		
		3. One to three times per month [ ]		
18	Benefits of joining groups	1.To improve my household livelihoods/Access to services [ ]		
		2. Recreation /Enjoyment [ ]		
		3.An insurance in times of emergence [ ]		
		4. Spiritual/social status/self-esteem[ ]		
		5. Community benefit [ ]		
		6. Other (specify [ ]		

19	Decision Making in the group	1. Imposed from outside [ ] 2. Leader decides and informs members [ ] 3. Leader consults members then decides [ ] 4. Members discuss and decide together [ ]
20	Did you collaborate (as a group) with other local residents to cope with a common issue or problem in the past year?	1. YES [ ] 2. NO [ ]
<b>NETWORK PERSPECTIVES A: TRUST AND SOLIDARITY</b>		
<i>Specify your level of agreement on trust among the community members and external institutions. Strongly Agree (5), Somewhat Agree (4), Neutral (3), Somewhat Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1)</i>		
		5    4    3    2    1
21	The majority of local residents living in this community can be trusted	
22	Local residents care about both their benefits and others' interests and are always willing to help neighbor's	
23	Local community is a big family and I consider myself as a member of the big family"	
24	I trust the county government to act in my best interest?	
25	I or my family members frequently contacts the county government for any community projects	
26	I always participate in the community's development projects	
27	If a community project does not directly benefit me but has benefits for many others in the	

	village/neighborhood, I always contribute time and money to the project?					
	<b>NETWORK PERSPECTIVES B: COLLECTIVE ACTION AND COOPERATION</b>					
28	In the past 12 months, have you worked with others to do something for the benefit of the community?	1. YES			[ ]	
		2. NO			[ ]	
29	Was the participation voluntary or required?	1. Voluntary			[ ]	
		2. Required			[ ]	
30	What proportion of people in this community contributes time or money toward common development goals, such as repairing a road?	1. Everyone			[ ]	
		2. More than half			[ ]	
		3. About half			[ ]	
		4. Less than half			[ ]	
		5. No One			[ ]	
31	People eagerly get involved in actions for well-being of the broader social or local community	1. Very likely			[ ]	
		2. Somewhat likely			[ ]	
		3. Neither likely nor unlikely			[ ]	
		4. Somewhat unlikely			[ ]	
		5. Very unlikely			[ ]	

<b>NETWORK PERSPECTIVES C: INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY</b>						
<b>[IT]</b>						
<b>Specify your level of agreement on how the community members receives important information from the following sources Strongly Agree (5), Somewhat Agree (4), Neutral (3), Somewhat Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1)</b>						
		<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>
32	Relatives, friends and neighbors, .					
33	Local Market .					
34	Television and Radio					
35	Daily Newspaper .					
36	Groups or associations, .					
37	Internet .					
38	Political associations .					
39	Community leaders, .					
40	NGOs .					
41	Government institutions .					
<b>NETWORK PERSPECTIVES D: SOCIAL COHESION AND INCLUSION(SI)</b>						
42	How strong is the feeling . of togetherness or closeness in your community?	1. Very distant			[ ]	
		2. Somewhat distant			[ ]	
		3. Neither distant nor close			[ ]	
		4. Somewhat close			[ ]	
		5. Very close			[ ]	

<b>Specify your level of agreement on differences in characteristics between people living in the same village/neighborhood such as differences. Strongly Agree (5), Somewhat Agree (4), Neutral (3), Somewhat Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1)</b>						
		<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>
	There is differences in characteristics between people living in the same village/neighborhood such as differences in					
43	Education					
44	Land holding					
45	Wealth and material possessions					
46	Political party affiliation					
47	Religious beliefs					
<b>Specify your level of agreement on the Level of distance in interpersonal relations in your community. Strongly Agree (5), Somewhat Agree (4), Neutral (3), Somewhat Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1)</b>						
	<b>Level of distance in interpersonal relations</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>
48	There is a high level of distance in interpersonal relations within the social community I live in					
49	Material values are becoming more important than the ethical and moral values in the community I live in.					
50	Distance in interpersonal relations is significantly higher among members of different ethnic groups than among members of the same ethnic community.					



<b>NETWORK PERSPECTIVES E: EMPOWERMENT AND POLITICAL ACTION (EPA)</b>		
51	How much control do you think you have in making decisions that affect your daily activities?	1. No control [ ] 2. Control over very few decisions [ ] 3. Control over most decisions [ ] 4. Control over all decisions [ ]
52	In the past 12 months how often did residents in the community get together to jointly petition Government or political leaders for something benefiting the community?	1. Never [ ] 2. Once [ ] 3. A few times [ ] 4. More than 5 Times [ ]
53	Were any of these petitions successful?	1. All were successful [ ] 2. Most were successful [ ] 3. Most were unsuccessful [ ] 4. None were successful [ ]
54	A lot of people find it difficult to get out and vote. Did you vote in the last general election?	1. YES [ ] 2. NO [ ]
55	To what extent do local Government/leaders take into account concerns voiced by you and people like you when they make decisions that affect you?	1. A lot [ ] 2. A little [ ] 3. Not at all [ ]
56	In general, compared to 5 years ago, has the honesty of county government	1. Improved [ ] 2. Deteriorated [ ]

	improved, deteriorated or remained the same?	3. Remained the same	[ ]					
<b>EFFECTS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL INTEGRATION ON SOCIO - ECONOMIC LIVELIHOODS.</b>								
Using the following scale, please tick the one that best describes your opinion: <b>Strongly Agree (5), Somewhat Agree (4), Neutral (3), Somewhat Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1)</b>								
			<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	
57	Risk management and social insurance (social capital – for example the ability to call down support from kin – can act as a buffer against the effects of shocks and adverse trends)							
58	There is better management of common and shared resources, through group action;							
59	There is reduced costs of conducting business, including lowering transactions costs and increasing the ability to exploit economies of scale							
60	There is increased capacity to innovate (e.g. through membership of farmers' research groups which are well connected to research agencies) and to sustain activities beyond the life of projects							
61	There is improved access to information and services (including better overall links between external organisations and the poor, resulting in greater empowerment of the poor)							
62	There is greater influence over policies and legislation.							
63	Membership of certain groups allow over-extraction of natural resources (e.g. irrigation or drinking water, forest products) to the detriment of non-members and the resources themselves							

64	Formal rules and norms trap some people within harmful social arrangements (e.g. tenancy-landlord relations that prevent tenants from investing in land improvement)?					
65	Do existing associations act as obstacles to the emergence of sustainable livelihoods (e.g. by encouraging conformity, perpetuating inequity, and allowing some individuals to coerce others)					
66	Maintenance of social capital is costly (time, labour, etc.)					

### DETERMINANTS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL: ROLE OF GOVERNMENT

<b>ROLE OF GOVERNMENT IN SOCIAL CAPITAL</b>						
Using the following scale, please tick the one that best describes your opinion: <b>Strongly Agree (5), Somewhat Agree (4), Neutral (3), Somewhat Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1)</b>						
		1	2	3	4	5
A.	The government is encouraging mutual cooperation in the groups that exist in the community					
B	The groups in the community are keeping contacts with the government and non-governmental organization representatives					
C.	The county government and institutions provides financial and non-financial support to the groups					






D.	The government organizes community events and provides meeting structure for the citizens					
E.	The county government encourages citizen participation in the planning and decision making process.					
F.	Through existing initiatives and policies the government plays a role in social capital formation welfare programs					
G.	The government is encouraging mutual cooperation in the groups that exist in the community					

## **Appendix II: Interview Schedule**

This interview guide is prepared to gather information from selected cadres of respondents (Sub-County Administrators, Religious Leaders, and NGO Leaders) by the researcher.

1. a) In general, what is the major occupation of the households in Elgeyo Marakwet County (EMC)?
  - b) In your view,
    - i. What is your assessment of the level of development in Elgeyo Marakwet County (EMC)?
    - ii. Are the resources equitably distributed to enhance social capital in Elgeyo Marakwet County (EMC)?
2. What comprises social capital integration in Elgeyo Marakwet County (EMC)?
  - a) Among Existing groups and networks?
  - b) In terms of Network trust and solidarity?
  - c) With regard to Collective Action and Co-operation?
  - d) In relation to Network and Information and Technology?
  - e) With regard to Network Social Cohesion and Inclusion?
  - f) On Network Empowerment and Political Action?
3. What are the effects of social capital integration on socio-economic livelihoods in Elgeyo Marakwet County (EMC)?

## Appendix III: Research Authorisation Letter

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<b>RESEARCH LICENSE</b>	
	
<b>This is to Certify that Fr. CHARLES KIBET KEMBOI of Moi University, has been licensed to conduct research in Elgeyo-Marakwet on the topic: INTEGRATING SOCIAL CAPITAL INITIATIVES ON RE ENGINEERING PEOPLES SOCIAL ECONOMIC LIVELIHOOD AMONG COMMUNITIES IN NANDI COUNTY for the period ending : 15/July/2021.</b>	
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**PUB.CC.24/2 VOL.III/20**

**23<sup>rd</sup> November, 2020**

Ref.....

Date.....

**TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN**

**RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION**

**MR. CHARLES KIBET KEMBOI**

This is to confirm that the above named has been authorized to carry out a research on "*Integrating social capital initiatives on re-engineering peoples social economic livelihood among communities in Elgeyo Marakwet county.*" for a period ending 15<sup>th</sup> July, 2021

Please accord him the necessary assistance.

  
COUNTY COMMISSIONER  
ELGEYO MARAKWET COUNTY

Dr. Ahmed Omar Ahmed  
County Commissioner,  
ELGEYO MARAKWET.

c.c. All Deputy County Commissioners  
Elgeyo Marakwet.

AOA/sjk





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Charles Kibet Kemboi  
Moi University  
P. O. Box 3900  
ELDORET, KENYA

**RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION- FR. CHARLES KIBET KEMBOI**

Following the authorization by the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) to carry out research in **Elgeyo Marakwet County** Vide Authority letter **Ref. No. NACOSTI/P/ 20/5234** dated **15<sup>th</sup> July, 2020** you are hereby formally granted authority by this office to proceed with your study on *“Integrating Social Capital Initiatives on Re engineering Peoples Social Economic Livelihood among Communities in Elgeyo Marakwet County for a period ending 15<sup>th</sup> July, 2021.*

You are further required to report to the Sub-County Directors of Education –Elgeyo Marakwet County.

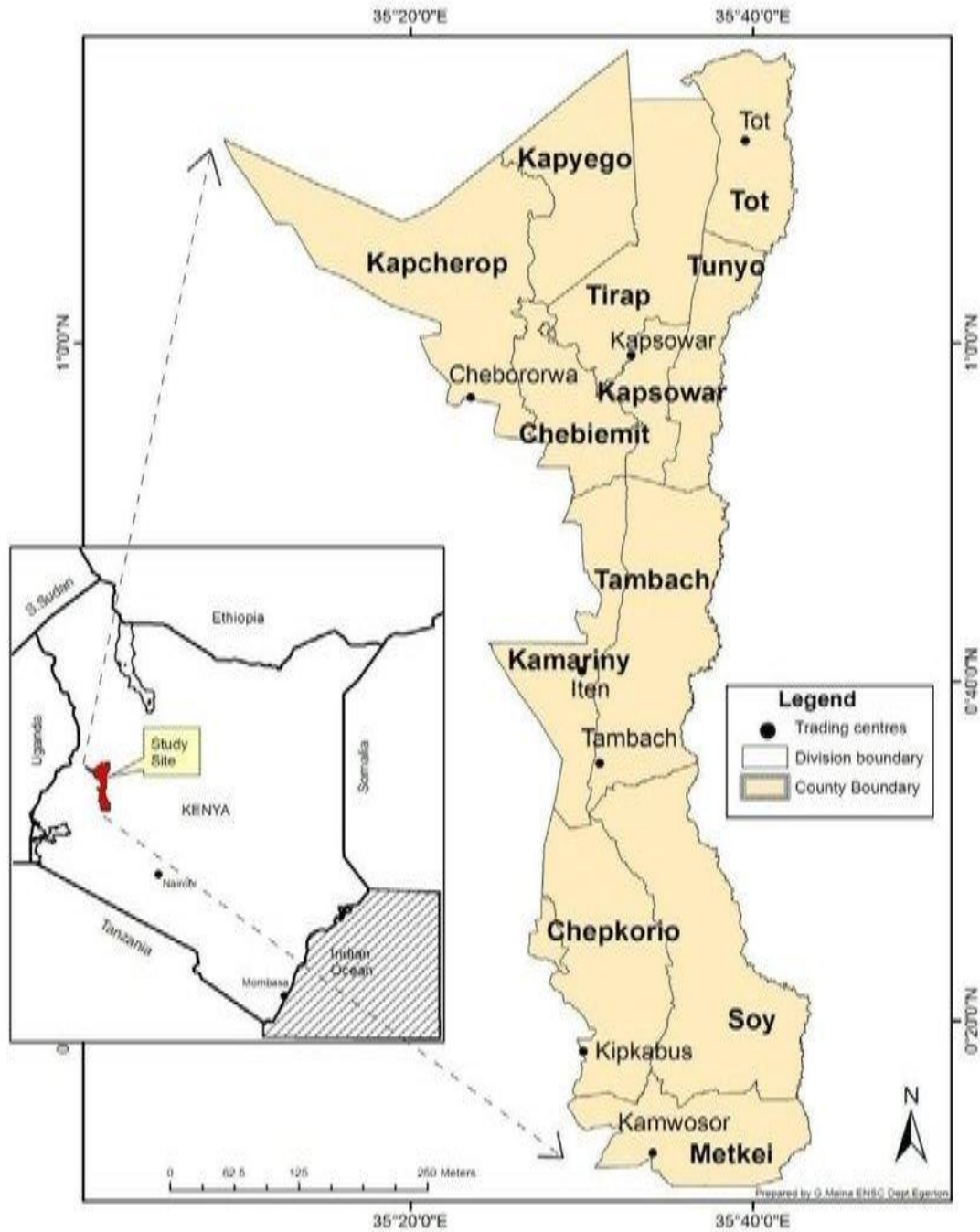
Okwemba O.V  
For: County Director of Education  
**ELGEYO MARAKWET**



**Copy to:**

1. The Director General/CEO -NACOSTI
2. The Sub-County Directors of Education- **Elgeyo Marakwet County**

Appendix IV: Map of Elgeyo Marakwet County



Prepared by G. Meina ENSO Dept. Egerton