

**EFFECTS OF GLOBALIZATION AND COMPETITIVENESS ON
DRESSMAKERS' FASHION DESIGNS IN ELDORET TOWN, KENYA**

ONKOBA MOUREEN KERUBO

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF BUSINESS
MANAGEMENT IN THE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT
SCIENCES, UNIVERSITY OF ELDORET, KENYA**

NOVEMBER, 2016

DECLARATION

Declaration by the Candidate

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for any academic award in any institution; and shall not be reproduced in part or full or in any format without prior written permission from the author and /or University of Eldoret.

Onkoba Moureen Kerubo Sign_____ Date_____

Reg. No. SBMS/PGMBM/008/12

Declaration by the Supervisors

This thesis has been submitted with our approval as University supervisors.

Sign_____ Date_____

Dr. Bernard K. Nassiuma

Department of Entrepreneurship Development,

Moi University.

Sign_____ Date_____

Dr. Paul Okelo Odwori

School of Economics,

University of Eldoret.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my late father Mr. Onkoba, my dear mum Mrs. Onkoba, my sisters; Gladys, Damaris, Phanice, Eliza and my brother David. Lastly to the University of Eldoret.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to create an understanding on the influence of globalization on the dressmakers' competitiveness in the fashion industry in Eldoret town, Kenya. The specific objectives were; to examine the relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences in fashion designs, to assess the relationship between the global economic environment and growth in consumer patterns in fashion designs, to determine the relationship between the global political legal forces and access to new fashion designs and to examine the global technological development and diversity in fashion designs. The study was based on the Porter's Diamond Model of International trade. The study adopted a correlation research design and the target population was dressmakers generated from the EMC (Eldoret Municipal Council) business register, 2013. Stratification and random sampling strategies were used to select 68 respondents for the study. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires. Data collected was analyzed using inferential statistics that is correlation and regression analysis. The findings were presented in graphs and tables. The results indicate that there exists a fairly strong and positive relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences ($r = 0.672$; $p < 0.05$). A positive relationship was established between global economic environment and consumer growth in fashion design patterns ($r = 0.503$; $p < 0.05$). The result on the regression analysis on the relationship between global political legal forces and access to new fashion designs shows a weak positive relationship. However, a correlation on global political legal forces and access to new fashion designs gave a significant relationship ($r = 0.316$; $p < 0.05$). It was also established that there is a fairly strong positive relationship between global technological and equipment development and the diversity of fashion designs produced by the dressmakers ($r = 0.597$; $p < 0.05$). The study concludes that the liberal trade in the global world has led to a fierce competition from the cheap second hand items from Europe, USA and China and this has greatly affected the growth of the dressmakers. The study has made a contribution on the effects of globalization on the local dressmakers. The study recommends for the dressmakers; a strong dressmakers' alliance be formed to articulate their demands to the government, adopt superior marketing strategies and upgrade their skills by attending vocational training. To the Kenyan government, the researcher recommends credit services to the dressmakers to help them grow and also adjust trade agreements on importation such that only what is essential is brought into the Kenyan market.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABES.....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
ABBREVIATIONS	xi
OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS	xii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	xiii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.0 Overview.....	1
1.1 Background to the Study.....	1
1.2 Problem Statement.....	5
1.3 Research Objectives.....	5
1.4 Research Questions.....	6
1.5 Significance of the Study.....	6
1.6 Scope of the Study/ Delimitations	7
1.7 Assumptions.....	8
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	9
2.0 Overview.....	9
2.1 Review of Theories	9
2.1.1 Cultural Imperialism Theory	9
2.1.2 Mercantilism theory of international trade	10
2.1.4 Porter’s diamond model.....	12
2.2 Criticisms of Theories.....	20
2.2.1 Cultural Imperialism Theory	20
2.2.2 Mercantilism Theory.....	20
2.2.3 The Ricardo Model	21
2.2.4 Porter’s Diamond Model	21
2.3. Concept of Competitiveness on Fashion Designs.....	22
2.4 Concept of Globalization	23

2.5 The link between Globalization and Dressmakers' Competitiveness on Fashion Designs.....	25
2.5.1 Characteristics of the Respondents	25
2.5.2 The relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences in fashion designs	26
2.5.3 The relationship between the global economic environment and the growth in consumer patterns of fashion designs	27
2.5.4 The relationship between the global political legal forces and access to new fashion designs.....	30
2.5.5 The relationship between the global technological and equipment development and diversity in fashion designs.....	32
2.6 Conceptual Framework.....	33
2.7 Chapter Summary and Research Gap	34
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	36
3.0 Overview.....	36
3.1 The Study Area	36
3.2 Research Design	36
3.2.1 Research Philosophy.....	36
3.2.2 Design	37
3.3 Target Population.....	37
3.4 Sampling, Sampling Frame and Sample Size Determination.....	38
3.4.1 Sampling Procedures	38
3.4.2 The sampling frame	38
3.4.2 Sample Size Determination	39
3.5 Data Collection Instruments	40
3.6 Validity and Reliability.....	40
3.6.1 Pilot Test.....	41
3.6.2 Validity	41
3.6.3 Reliability.....	41
3.7 Data Processing and Data Analysis	42
3.7.1 Data Processing.....	42
3.7.2 Data Analysis	43
3.8 Ethical Considerations	44

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS	45
4.0 Overview.....	45
4.1 Demographic Characteristics	45
4.1.1 Gender.....	45
4.1.2 Age.....	46
4.1.4 Experience in Fashion Industry	47
4.1.5 Business Category of the Dressmaking Enterprises	48
4.1.6 Sources of Finance.....	48
4.1.7 Enterprise Category in the Fashion Industry	49
4.2 Relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences in fashion designs.....	50
4.2.1 Marketing Strategy	50
4.2.2 Source of Fashion Ideas	51
4.3 Relationship between the global economic environment and the growth in consumer patterns of fashion designs.....	53
4.3.2 Business Growth Strategy.....	54
4.3.3 Factors which influence the fashion designs	55
4.3.4 Economic challenges	56
4.4 Relationship between global political legal forces and access to new fashion designs	58
4.5 The relationship between the global technological and equipment development and diversity of the fashion designs	61
4.5.2 Sources of fabrics used by the enterprise.....	62
CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY AND DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS.....	64
5.1 Summary of the Findings.....	64
5.1.1 Relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences in fashion designs.....	64
5.1.2 Relationship between global economic environment and the growth in consumer patterns of fashion designs.....	64
5.1.3 Relationship between global political legal forces and access to new fashion designs	65
5.1.4 The relationship between the global technological and equipment development and diversity of the fashion designs.....	65
5.2 Discussions of the Findings	65

5.2.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents	65
5.2.2 Relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences in fashion designs.....	67
5.2.3 Relationship between global political and legal forces and access to new fashion designs	69
5.2.4 The global technological equipment development and diversity of the fashion designs	70
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	72
6.0 Introduction.....	72
6.1 Conclusions.....	72
6.2 Limitations	73
6.3 Recommendations.....	73
6.3.1 Recommendations to the Dressmakers	73
6.3.2 Recommendations to the Kenyan Government	74
6.3.3 Recommendation for Further Research	74
REFERENCES.....	75
APPENDICES	80
Appendix i Questionnaires for Dressmakers	80
APPENDIX ii Research Permit	89

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Sampling Frame of the study	41
Table 3.2 Sample size of the study.....	42
Table 4.1 Gender of the respondents.....	48
Table 4.2 Age categories of the respondents.....	48
Table 4.3 Education levels of the respondents.....	49
Table 4.4 Experience of the respondents in the fashion industry.....	50
Table 4.5 Business categories of the enterprises	50
Table 4.6 Sources of finances for the enterprises	51
Table 4.7 Category of the enterprise.....	52
Table 4.8 The relationship between the global promotion and sales activities and consumer preferences.....	55
Table 4.9 The relationship between the global economic environment and growth in consumer patterns.....	60
Table 4.10 Goodness of fit.....	62
Table 4.11 Pseudo R square.....	62
Table 4.12 The relationship between the global technological equipment development and diversity of designs.....	65

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1	Porter's Diamond model.....	20
Figure 2.2	Conceptual framework.....	35
Figure 4.1	Marketing strategy.....	53
Figure 4.2	Sources of fashion ideas.....	54
Figure 4.3	Textile items produced.....	56
Figure 4.4	Business growth strategies.....	57
Figure 4.5	Factors influencing designs produced.....	58
Figure 4.6	Economic challenges.....	59
Figure 4.7	Political forces and access to fashion designs.....	61
Figure 4.8	Types of machines used.....	63
Figure 4.9	Sources of fabric	64

ABBREVIATIONS

AGOA	Africa Growth Opportunities Act
EAC	East Africa Community
EMC	Eldoret Municipal Council
EPZ	Export Processing Zones
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
HELB	Higher Education Loans Board
KICOMI	Kisumu Cotton Millers
LDC	Less Developed Countries
MNCs	Multi National Corporations
RIVATEX	Rift Valley Textiles
SSC	Sub- Saharan Countries
SPSS	Statistical Product and Service Solutions
UN	United Nations
UNPAC	United Nations Platform for Action Committee
WTO	World Trade Organization
NACOSTI	National Council for Science and Technology

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Globalization:

Globalization is used as a handy form to describe the spread of communication production and connection technologies throughout the world. In most cases, the term globalization is used a confusing manner with respect to the efforts of IMF, world bank and the institutions to create a free global market for goods and services (IMF, 2000). Globalization refers to the process of intensification of economic, political and social cultural interactions across international boundaries. It deals with the increasing breakdown of the trade barriers and the increasing integration of the world markets (Fafowora, 1998). In this study it refers to the process of international integration arising from the interchange of world views in trade activities, products, ideas and other aspects of cultural resources.

A fashion design: Refers to a style that is popularly accepted for a period of time and worn by many people at that particular time.

A dressmaker: Refers to a person who makes custom clothing for women such as dresses, blouses and evening gowns.

Mitumba: Refers to second hand imported used clothing items from Europe, Asia and America.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am thankful to the Higher Education Loans Board (HELB) for the award of a partial scholarship given which enabled me to undertake the programme. The management of the University of Eldoret, School of Business and Management Sciences for offering me a chance to pursue the Master of philosophy in Business Management programme. Finally, I am also thankful to my cherished friends for their moral support and encouragement and dear class mates for their constructive contributions, criticism and continued support in the development and success of this study. Lastly, I thank my son Ryan for being patient as I undertook this study. May the good Lord bless you abundantly.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This chapter provides an introduction to the study. It presents the background to the research problem, the problem statement, research objectives and questions, significance of the study, scope, and assumptions.

1.1 Background to the Study

Globalization is a phenomenon that has swept across the globe over the recent years (Elie, 2010). It has been hastened by the factors such as World Trade Organization (WTO) through an increase in the number of regional economic trading blocs such as the East African Community (EAC), liberalized trade markets and rapid technological changes (Elie, 2010). WTO has had profound effects on international trade activities such as elimination of trade barriers and tariffs and assimilation of cultures across the globe through interaction in the common markets (Nicokid, 2007).

Kenya's participation in the global trade has enabled traders to import clothing and apparel items at lower costs than ever before (Apunda, 2002), this has generated intense competition in the fashion design industry enabling the local dressmakers to create a considerable change in the consumption patterns of the clothing items (Uche, 2007). Local consumers favor foreign dressmakers' designs (Nyawira, 2009), and this is because they seem to be more responsive to consumer's tastes and preferences through provision of a wide range of designs in the fashion market. This suggests that every entrepreneur in the clothing industry must be alert to the changes taking place in their

commercial environment and therefore craft strategies that could ensure their survival in their respective businesses (Nyawira, 2009).

Globalization has distributed the institutional features of modernity across all cultures (Tomlinson, 2003). In addition, it has created an open market and free trade amongst countries making global fashion designs more accessible to the global consumers. In Kenya for instance, the retail fashion industry has however not exploited these developments to meet the local consumer demands in terms of styles and preferences (Nyawira, 2009). The global apparel market being a consumer driven industry has therefore witnessed a shift of local designers collaborating with global designers resulting in the spread of fashion design ideas across the globe. This has in essence facilitated the rapid developments in the fashion industry such as modern equipment in the retail fashion industry to capitalize on global fashion designs and apparel market as stated by Tomlinson (2003).

The global promotion sales activities such as fashion images in magazines, music, video films, internet and television, speed the way in which fashion ideas spread around the world. Hence, they create a “global style” across borders and cultures (Kaiser, 1999). The “global style” is a phenomenon that has steadily increased in the recent years, hence vastly impacted on consumers of the dressmakers fashion designs in Kenya. The increased variety of styles in designs within geographic locations has created a homogenizing effect representing a global paradox (Kaiser, 1999).

Fashion designs have constantly moved, changed and have been reinvented, re-interpreted by designers, resulting in greater expectations from consumers all over the world owing to gained access to the newest trends and styles in the fashion world as a

result of globalization (Kaiser, 1999). Globalization of fashion designs has evidently grown tremendously in the last decade, and this is attributed to the ease and accessibility to the latest fashion trends by consumers all over the world through the different promotion avenues (Chrouk, 2012).

The growing popularity of global fashion designs amongst women and the influence they have on them could be attributed to the global phenomena and in the real sense has created competitiveness among the local dressmakers. The fashion apparel industry has significantly evolved particularly over the last twenty years (Djelic & Ainamo, 1999). More global fashion designers have come out in the fashion scene and sought to popularize themselves amongst the world consumers. These designers come from different countries and express different cultures and aesthetic feel in their choice of clothing and thus appeal to a wider audience in the retail women fashion design industry in Kenya and the rest of the world (Chrouk, 2012).

International cultural awareness through globalization has led to an increased number of fads in the Kenyan market (Apunda, 2002). In the 1990s, the luxury consumer market widened and matured with a fashion consumption that followed a global outlook inspired by factors such as globalization, information technology, digital media and fashion magazines (Uche, 2007). The global culture has offered new vistas for identities and pleasures that re-define new fantasies, role models and novel cultural experiences (Benyon, 2000). The changes in fashion designs on post globalization has therefore paved way for the changes of traditional identities and people becoming subjects of the evolving new identities from the global culture. In Kenya for instance, interaction with international cultures through media has led to production of matrixes that display hybrid identities. Changes in fashion consumption have resulted in the erosion of the

traditional identity with respect to looks that are opposed to the fundamental choices, commitments and actions (Benyon, 2000).

The developments of the garment industry in the phase of liberalization have lagged far much behind in the Sub Saharan Countries (SSA) in comparison with Asia and Latin America (Fukunishi, 2012). With a few exceptions African apparel products do not have a significant share in the world export markets, and even in local markets. They almost vanished due to massive imports including second hand products after trade liberalization in the 1990s (Fukunishi, 2012). A study conducted by Fukunishi (2009) revealed that Kenyan firms both non exporters and exporters were unproductive as Bangladeshi firms as representative of Asian firms on average, their wages are higher more than twofold. Due to high labor intensity this pushes up the production costs substantially, so that the average unit cost of Kenyan firms is twice the Bangladesh average. The study concluded that high wages and cheap imports were the main causes of the shrinkage of the Kenyan garment industry in the local and export market after liberalization (Fukunishi, 2009).

Through liberalization of Kenyan market, importation of textiles especially the second hand clothing (mitumba) and other textile raw materials and accessories has been evidenced (Nyang'or, 1994). This led to the closure of most local textile industries such as Kisumu Cotton Millers (KICOMI), Rift Valley Textiles (RIVATEX) and Allied Industries Limited early 1990s. This is because traders/local industries of locally processed apparel do not meet ever changing consumer demands in terms of styles and preferences according to Nyang'or (1994). Kenya's participation in the global trade as a result of liberalization has been evidently felt by clothing consumers since the year, 1993 and many clothing traders have since been able to import goods at relatively lower

costs than ever before (Apunda, 2002). And since it is argued out that the local designers have not been able to meet the local consumers' demands in terms of styles and preferences (Nyawira, 2009), it is against this background that the study sought to find out the influence of globalization on local dressmakers.

1.2 Problem Statement

Dressmakers' main goal is to meet their customer's needs and preferences in terms of styles and the latest fashion trends/designs. Customers' desires and needs are easily achieved on the advent of diversity and the accessibility of the global fashion designs. The benefits of globalization have thus resulted in high levels of dressmakers' competitive rivalry in the global women fashion design industry. This has been facilitated by among other factors liberalized trade regimes in the textile industry, veracious competitive rivalry among firms, closing down of the support textile industries in Kenya which produces cheaper apparel products, increased demand owing to change in consumer preferences and tastes, accessibility to factor conditions and chance events. The question arising is what is the impact of globalization on the local dressmakers?

1.3 Research Objectives

The main objective of this study was to create an understanding of the influence of globalization on the dressmakers' competitiveness in the fashion designs in Eldoret town.

The specific objectives were to:

- i. Examine the relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences in fashion designs.
- ii. Assess the relationship between the global economic environment and the growth in consumer patterns of fashion designs.
- iii. Determine the relationship between the global political legal forces and access to new fashions designs.
- iv. Examine the relationship between the global technological and equipment development and diversity in fashion designs.

1.4 Research Questions

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study benefits the dressmakers as the owners of the enterprises, they make strategic decisions and from the findings of this study their decisions can be based on the study's findings and recommendations, as the study brought to light various competitive strategies that dressmakers could employ without compromising on the quality of their products. The dressmakers still find the study findings relevant as the study has examined the challenges faced by dressmakers due to globalization and from this, recommendations have been given on how they can position themselves to craft strategies to ensure their survival in the fashion industry.

The findings of this study are of importance to the Kenyan government. This is because the government makes trade policies with regard to regional and international trade. Therefore, government policy makers will find the results of the study relevant during policy making as the study has outlined the effects of Kenyan trade policies to the local

fashion industry and given possible suggestions on how the government can conduct international trade in textile items without negatively impacting on the local dressmakers. The study has brought in a new way of thinking on how the government can integrate economic programs towards the growth of local dressmakers' enterprises.

The study will also benefit researchers in the different academic fields. This is because the study has contributed to a growing body of knowledge on the influence of globalization in the Kenyan fashion industry. And from the findings of this study conclusions and recommendations have been outlined, which may be of importance to the interested researchers in the fashion industry and areas for further research have also been outlined.

The Kenyan consumers' who utilize the dressmakers' products also benefit from this study. This is because the study has enlightened the local dressmakers on what the local consumers' needs and preferences are and therefore, their needs will be met through the study. They are still likely to benefit as the government may work towards promotion of local textiles firms, which in turn produces cheaper fabrics from which local dressmakers make their items on hence cheaper clothing items for the local women/consumers.

1.6 Scope of the Study/ Delimitations

The study was conducted in Eldoret town, Uasin Gishu County. The respondents in the study were dressmakers in Eldoret town. The study was conducted between June 2015 to August 2015. The study sought to find out the influence globalization has had on the women fashion design industry in Eldoret town, Kenya. The respondents were drawn from the Eldoret Municipal Council (EMC) business register 2013.

1.7 Assumptions

It was assumed that the respondents in the study were to cooperate by providing adequate and reliable information by giving relevant and honest answers to questions on the questionnaires. Another assumption was that these dressmakers are trained professionals in the fashion industry and are all registered in the Eldoret Municipal Council (EMC) 2013 register. It was also assumed that the register obtained from the Eldoret Municipal Council was reliable and contained all the registered dressmakers in the town.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Overview

This chapter presents the review of theories, criticism of theories, concept of competitiveness, concept of globalization, the link between globalization and dressmakers competitiveness on fashion designs, conceptual framework and the chapter summary and research gap.

2.1 Review of Theories

This study considered the cultural imperialism theory, mercantilism theory of international trade, Ricardo model and Porters Diamond model. Different concepts were used in the study from the four theories reviewed.

2.1.1 Cultural Imperialism Theory

The cultural imperialism theory suggests that the global economic system is dominated by advanced countries while third world countries remain at the lower levels of the system with little control over their economic and political development (Tomlinson, 1993). Multinational or transnational corporations are key actors in this system and produce goods, control markets, and disseminate products, using similar techniques whereas LDCs (Less Developed Countries) accept the influence passively (Barker, 1989).

The theory refers to the imposition upon other countries of a particular nation's beliefs, values, knowledge, behavioral norms, and style of life (Salwen, 1991). Cultural imperialism is defined as a kind of cultural domination by powerful nations over weaker

nations as argued by Marx (1977), and it is viewed as purposeful and intentional. This is because it corresponds to the political interests of the United States and other powerful capitalist societies like United Kingdom outdoing Communism. Cultural globalization requires an organizational infrastructure to become deeply rooted in another country's culture either consciously or unconsciously (Said, 1985). One form of globalization on this theory occurs as a result of the activities of multinational corporations (MNCs) and conglomerates based in advanced countries.

2.1.2 Mercantilism theory of international trade

Mercantilism is an economic doctrine that government control of foreign trade is of paramount importance for ensuring the military security of the country. In particular, it demands a positive balance of trade. Mercantilism dominated Western European economic policy and discourse from the 16th to late-18th centuries (Anderson, 2008). Mercantilist domestic policy was more fragmented than its trade policy. The early modern era was one of letters patent and government-imposed monopolies; some mercantilists supported these, but others acknowledged the corruption and inefficiency of such systems. Many mercantilists also realized that the inevitable results of quotas and price ceilings were black markets. Mercantilists widely agreed upon the need for economic oppression of the working population; the laborers and farmers. Extra money, free time, or education for the "lower classes" was seen to inevitably lead to vices and laziness in the society leading to harm on the economy (Hebert, 1975).

High tariffs, especially on manufactured goods, were an almost universal feature of mercantilist policy. Other policies included, building a network of overseas colonies, forbidding colonies to trade with other nations, monopolizing markets with staple ports, banning the export of gold and silver, even for payments, forbidding trade to be carried

in foreign ships, export subsidies, promoting manufacturing with research or direct subsidies, limiting wages, maximizing the use of domestic resources, restricting domestic consumption with non-tariff barriers to trade (Hebert, 1997).

Mercantilists believed that if countries wanted to become rich and powerful, they must export more and restrict imports to the minimum (Salvatore, 2002). Such a policy would result in an inflow of gold and silver that would make the country wealthy. Because they viewed trade as a zero sum game, they advocated strict government control and preached economic nationalism (Salvatore, 2002).

2.1.3 Ricardo Model

The Ricardo model is the simplest trade model that can be used to answer the question of how advanced economies may benefit from increasing trade with low cost emerging market economies (Jones and Ruffin, 2005). First, it is important to note that large differences in wage rates between advanced and emerging market economies largely reflect differences in labor productivity. Secondly, the wages and productivities are national averages. This leads to a considerable variation in productivity across the various sectors/industries of the economies. These differences in countries give rise to international trade and its associated benefits. In its simplest form, the Ricardo model assumes two countries, two goods and only one factor of production (usually labor), which is immobile (Jones and Ruffin, 2005).

The main concept of Ricardo's model is comparative advantage, the principle of comparative advantage is just a matter of relative efficiency and it states that all countries can gain if each tends to specialize in the production of goods that they are relatively more efficient at producing (Anderson, 2006). Even if one country has higher

productivity in all sectors vis-à-vis another country – that is, the country has an absolute advantage in producing everything – it can be shown that the two countries can trade to their mutual advantage. The high productivity country specializes in producing goods where its advantage is relatively greater and the less productive country does not specialize in producing goods where its production disadvantage is relatively smaller. Each economy should specialize in the sector in which it has comparative advantage.

Ricardo's theory of comparative advantage is based on the labor theory of value (Salvatore, 2002). This implies that labor is the only production factor and that it is used in fixed proportions in the production of all products. The theory also assumes that labor is homogeneous. These unrealistic assumptions led to the incorporation of opportunity cost into the explanation of the theory of comparative advantage. If the Ricardian theory of comparative advantage is redefined in terms of opportunity cost, then a country will have a comparative advantage in the production of goods and services if such goods and services can be produced at a lower opportunity cost. This implies that a country will have a comparative cost advantage in the production of those goods and services that can be produced at a lower opportunity cost than in other countries that are likely to incur more expenses (Salvatore, 2002).

2.1.4 Porter's diamond model

The Porter's diamond model developed by Porter (1986) suggests that successful international industries tend to be located within particular cities and regions in the world. He further argues that geographical concentrations are vital for firms to efficiently draw on each other's resources and capabilities and to benefit from a shared culture and learning experience, supply capabilities and local infrastructure. Industries located in geographical concentrations create industrial clusters of interconnected

businesses, suppliers, and associated institutions in a particular field. Clusters lead to increase in productivity, higher innovation rates and leads to new business developments (Porter, 1990). Porter (1990) argued that productivity is the main factor for international competitiveness and that the standard of living of a country's population can be improved as a direct result of increases in productivity factors.

According to Porter (1990), a nation's success in a particular industry is driven by four interrelated determinants of competitive advantage. These four determinants include: factor conditions; demand conditions; related supporting industries; and firm strategy, structure, and rivalry. These four interrelated factors constitute a firm's global competitiveness in a given industry and "form a unitary whole so that weaknesses in one part of the system can undermine the whole" (O'Shaughnessy, 1996). The theory also suggests that the government should act as a catalyst or challenger for companies to aspire to higher levels of competitive performance.

Porter's Diamond model of competitive advantage of nations consists of four main attributes that shape the national environment in which local, connected firms compete:

a) Factor conditions; The nation's relative position is vital in industrial production since factors such as skilled labor or infrastructure, are important determinants of a nations' competitiveness. These factors can be country specific or industry specific factors that enhance production. These conditions are human resources, physical resources, knowledge resources, capital resources and infrastructure (Porter, 1990) and specialized resources are often specific for an industry and important for its competitiveness since they can be created to compensate for the firm's factor disadvantages. Factor conditions are further subdivided into basic and advanced factors that can be either general or specialized. Basic/generalized factors such as location, unskilled labor, raw materials, climatic conditions and water resources are inherited and

require little or no new investment to be utilized in the production process. They are factors that are passively inherited in a country. While advanced factors are created and upgraded through reinvestment and innovation to specialized factors, which according to Porter (1990b) form the basis for the sustainable competitive advantage of a country and are created through education institutions. These are factors such as highly educated personnel (skilled human resource personnel, creative designers).

Porter (1990) further suggests that a nation's competitive advantage cannot be driven by just basic or generalized factors because such factors are unsophisticated and often fleeting. Rather, advanced or specialized factors are needed to facilitate competitive advantage of a nation over its rivals. Sledge (2005) empirically reported that advanced factor conditions in the domestic market positively influenced a firm's global competitiveness. Porter (1990) argued that the standard for what accounts for advanced or specialized factors develops continuously as the state of knowledge, science, and practice progresses day in day out.

b) Demand conditions; The nature of home demand for an industry's products and services requires considering both the quantity and quality of the demand for an industry to be successful (Porter, 1990). This demand makes the industry to become more innovative to satisfy the local demand as the local demand pressures the industry to become more innovative and create more advanced products than those of competitors before venturing to external global markets. Thus, the more demanding the home market is, the better the national competitive advantage.

Porter (1990b), however, focuses more on demand differences than on similarities to explain the international competitiveness of countries. According to Porter (1990), it is not only the size of the home demand that matters, but also the sophistication of home country buyers. It is the composition of home demand that shapes how firms perceive,

interpret and respond to buyers' needs. This forces home country firms to continually innovate and upgrade their competitive positions to meet the high standards in terms of product quality, features and service demands. More specifically, Porter (1990a, 1998a) regards the essential conditions of demand as: a home demand that anticipates and leads to international demand, industry segments with a significant share of home demand, and sophisticated demanding buyers.

The demand conditions, as explained by Porter (1990), do influence the underlying resource differences between countries and a country's relative location advantages. The nature of the differences in resources, driven by demand conditions, could be productivity differences, differences in the scale of production (Siggel, 2006). In this respect, Porter's demand conditions enhance our general understanding of location differences and the advantages these differences have on international trade activities. This is especially to countries having certain resources and taking the advantage, compared to those that do not have the resources but have others which the others do not have in return (Siggel, 2006).

Sakakibara and Porter (2000) further argue that unusual demand in the home market might be generated through social norms, distribution channels and national passions for instance the Italians are passionate about high quality, fashionable apparel products, and this may help a nation to secure a competitive position.

c) Related and supporting industries; The presence or absence in the nation of internationally competitive supplier and related industries is a key factor. These industries provide cost-effective inputs, but they also participate in the upgrading process, thus stimulating other companies in the chain to innovate. Porter (1997a, 1998b, 1998c, 2000) claims that specialization which arises from the competitive

advantages leads to the sticky (not easily moveable) location advantages that are the true sources of sustainable competitive advantage of countries. There are basically three reasons why specialization takes place and thus location matters, resource-driven specialization and economies of scale at the firm level. A further explanation is the existence of external economies as a result of local clustering (Krugman, 1986).

Teece (1996) suggest that the introduction of related and support industry clusters as a separate determinant of national competitive advantage has been viewed as one of the most important contributions of Porter's Diamond Theory. According to Porter (1998c, 2000), it is the external economies of related and support industry clusters, such as networks of specialized input providers, institutions and the spill-over effects of local rivalry, that become the true source of competitive advantage (Porter 2000, 2003). The cluster represents an environment in which learning, innovation and operating productivity can flourish. He believes that it is these kinds of localized clusters that are a prominent feature of virtually any advanced economy, but are lacking in developing countries, which limits productivity growth in those economies (Porter, 2000).

The underlying assumption is that highly competitive related and supporting industries will drive the focal industry to be more competitive through innovation, upgrading, information flow, and shared technology development (Porter, 1998). As such, these benefits create advantages in downstream industries. The relationships among these clusters of industries are critical to the success of a given industry within a nation because "they drive learning, innovation and competitiveness, and are considered to produce the maximum synergies when all requisite institutions necessary to drive learning, innovation, and competitiveness and economic agents are connected" (Rasiah, 2009). As such, for instance in the case of an apparel industry it is likely to sustain its competitiveness with the support of an advanced textile industry in the country as well

as educational institutions and related research organizations and consulting firms working together towards a common goal.

d) Firm strategy and rivalry; These are national conditions that determine how companies are created, organized and managed, as well as the nature and extent of domestic rivalry (Porter, 1990). Furthermore, domestic rivalry creates pressure to launch new products, to improve quality, to reduce costs and to invest in new and more advanced technologies. The main emphasis here is that the strategies and structures of firms depend heavily on the national environment and that there are systematic differences in the business sectors in different countries that determine the way in which firms compete in each country and ultimately their competitive advantage.

Porter (1990a) identifies rivalry as the most critical driver of competitive advantage of a country's firms as the domestic rivalry forces firms to be cost competitive, to improve quality and to be innovative. According to Porter (1990a), it is firms that ultimately compete internationally, but also the international competitiveness of a country that shapes the international competitive advantage of firms (Porter, 1990a).

Sledge (2005) described strategy as "the types of actions firms utilize to achieve both long-range and short-range goals" and structure as the industry composition, which is the "degree to which an industry is concentrated or dispersed, competitive or monopolistic, or global or domestic". Strategic growth should be associated with higher competitiveness since the ability to pursue growth domestically or internationally would be an indicator of the health of the business (Sledge, 2005). Porter (1990) contends that a nation's success in industries tends to rely on favorable management practices and organizational modes suited to the industries' sources of competitive advantage. He further stated that domestic rivalry is a major motivation for firms to be innovative and

hence succeed internationally. Rivalry is an indicator of an underlying competing firm's structure and strategy. Companies in proximity to each other tend to create competitive pressure, motivating each other to actively search for internationally competitive products and practices (Sakakibara and Porter, 2000).

Porter stated two additional variables that indirectly influence the diamond:

Government

Porter (1990) states that a government can influence each of the above four determinants of competitiveness. Clearly government can influence the supply conditions of key production factors, demand conditions in the home market, and competition between firms. Government interventions can occur at local, regional, national or super national level. A government has a major role to serve as a catalyst and challenger and thus encourage companies to move to higher levels of competitive performance (Porter, 1990). A government can positively or negatively influence each determinant that contributes to a nation's competitive advantage. For instance, a government may help to improve the quality of advanced factors (i.e. skilled laborers such as designers, merchandisers) via educational training and seminars and improve the quality of infrastructure necessary to support the growth of an industry.

Porter (1990) further argues that a government can also push global and local demands for goods through various activities such as developing free trade zones with other nations and promoting a national campaign to encourage consumption of local brands. For related and supporting industries, a government may want to bring together the enterprises (e.g. suppliers, distributors, research institutions) that serve the industry. Lastly, a government may stimulate domestic rivalries by limiting direct cooperation and enforcing anti-trust laws. It can also emphasize globalization in the areas of firm

structure and rivalry by alleviating entry barriers against foreign companies (Moon *et al.*, 1998) which in turn may require that a firm revisit its strategy. However, a government's intervention related to industry policy may also have negative consequences, which can discourage a nation's competitiveness (Porter, 1990; Rasiah, 2009).

Chance events

Chance refers to unpredictable technological discontinuities, political uncertainties and other chance events. These are occurrences that are out of control for a firm at a particular time. Disruptive developments out of a firm's control and governments that allow in new players who exploit opportunities arising from a reshaped industry structure. These developments are important because they create discontinuities in which some gain a competitive positions where else some lose.

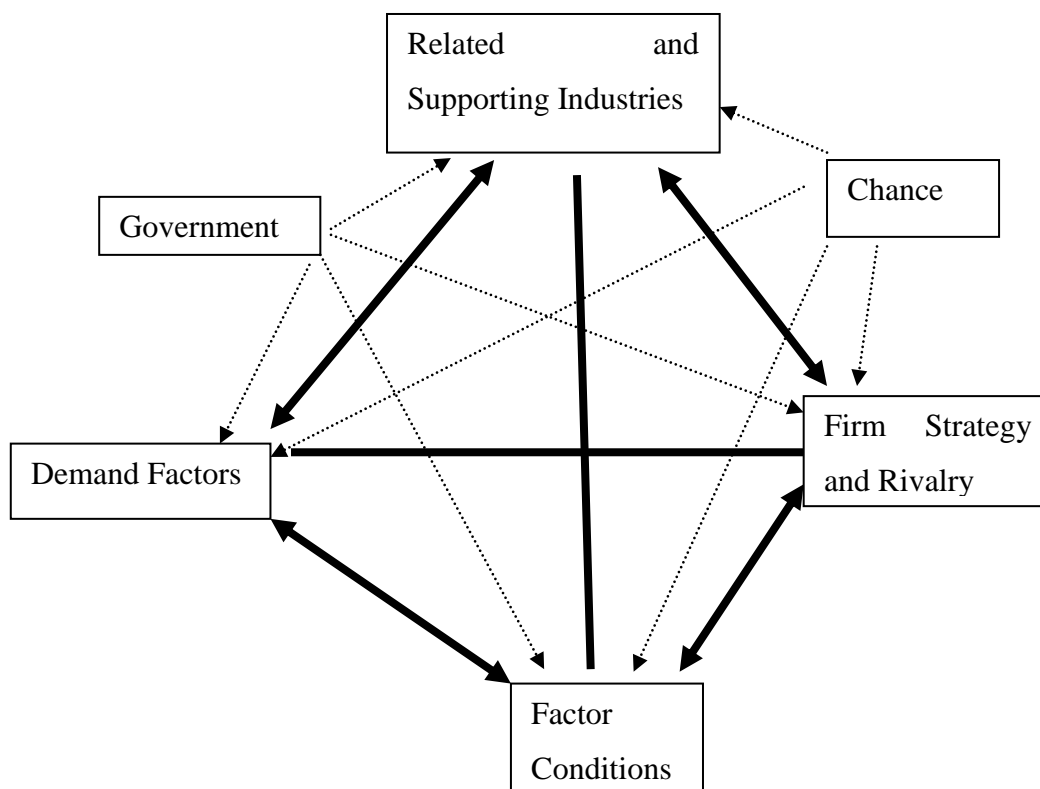


Figure 2.1 Porter's Diamond Model

Source: Porter, (1986). Competition in global industries

2.2 Criticisms of Theories

The criticisms of the different theories reviewed in this proposal were; cultural imperialism theory, the mercantilism theory, the Ricardo model and the Porter's Diamond model.

2.2.1 Cultural Imperialism Theory

Imperialism which can be seen as the imposition of power from rich to poor, from powerful to weak, implies a degree of political control by powerful countries that no longer exists. "The idea of imperialism contains the notion of a purposeful project: the intended spread of a social system from one center of power across the globe." Further it is contrasted with the concept of 'globalization' which suggests "interconnection and interdependency of all global areas happening in a far less purposeful way." In spite of its weaknesses, cultural imperialism remains a useful perspective because it can be used to analyze the extent, to which some national forces have more impact on global culture than others, and therefore are shaping and reshaping cultural values, identities, and perceptions.

2.2.2 Mercantilism Theory

Mercantilism ideas forgot that the wealth of the world is not fixed, but is created by human labor (represented embryonically by Locke's labor theory of value). Mercantilists failed to understand the notions of absolute advantage and comparative advantage and the benefits of trade. It is also impossible for all nations to become rich simultaneously by following mercantilism because the export of one nation is another nation's import and instead stated that all nations would gain simultaneously if they practiced free trade and specialized in accordance with their absolute advantage. It is also stated that the wealth of nations depends upon the goods and services available to

their citizens, rather than their gold reserves. While there are possible gains from trade with absolute advantage, the gains may not be mutually beneficial as comparative advantage focuses on the range of possible mutually beneficial exchanges.

2.2.3 The Ricardo Model

The Ricardo model is criticized because rises in productivity due to technical change abroad may represent a benefit for both countries, but it can also benefit only one country while making the other worse off by reducing the potential gains from trade. Another shortcoming of this model is that it's only based on two countries producing only a commodity each, this is impossible in international trade because it is between many countries with many products. The model also focuses mainly on the supply of goods in explaining international trade taking for granted the demand forces. The model assumes that there is free trade in all world markets which is not a reality in the world today. The reality is that the world witnesses a lot of tariff and non tariff barriers in the international trade. Poor and developing countries find it difficult to enjoy the comparative advantage in the production of labor intensive commodities due to the protectionist policies followed by developed countries.

2.2.4 Porter's Diamond Model

The diamond model by Michael Porters does not consider external factors such as advanced technology, world economy, and world market among others that influence a firm's performance in a home country. Porter also lays a great emphasis on domestic market rather than both foreign international markets and domestic ones; to enable a firm face competition and therefore get the competencies that are essential for success both at home and in foreign markets. Because this model was developed based on ten

developed countries, it is therefore effective only on developed economies and the question arises what of the developing ones. Porter's model was majorly on banks, manufacturers and management consultancy firms; therefore its relevance is questioned on craft industries. A major problem with Porter's diamond model is the narrow definition he applied to the FDIs (foreign direct investments). He only defines outward FDI as being valuable in creating a competitive advantage and that inward FDI is not entirely healthy, this is not the case in most instances. The model majorly focused on the internal demand differences towards international competitiveness and did not factor in the similarities of international demand.

2.3. Concept of Competitiveness on Fashion Designs.

The term competitiveness is more ambiguous as it has found a wide range of interpretations. Dollar and Wolff (1993) interprets competitiveness on a microeconomic concept. In their view an economy is deemed to be competitive if it harbors a large number of internationally competitive enterprises and industries. This means that it must perform strongly in exports so as to counter the imports. They propose to measure competitiveness in terms of productivity, both labor and total factor productivity. Similar approaches were proposed by Hatsopoulos, Krugman & Summers (1998) and by Markusen (1992).

Microeconomic concepts and indicators of competitiveness have a more solid theoretical base because they focus on the essential characteristics of producers in competition for markets share and profits or the ability to export. This ability can be measured by the size or increase of market share for instance export performance (Madeng, 1999). Hickman (1992) referred price competitiveness as the most pervasive

concept, but he majorly focused on the labor cost criterion. This is because labor costs equals the product of the wage rate labor productivity and the exchange rate (in international comparisons) one may debate whether this makes it a more than one dimensional indicator.

A two dimensional concept is the indicator proposed by Hatsopoulos et al (1998), which postulates that competitiveness of economies translates into trade balance with rising standard or real income. The authors argue that export success can always be achieved at the cost of diminished real income, which is then not a reflection of competitiveness. Only if export success occurs with a constant level of welfare can an economy be said to be competitive (Hatsopolous et al, 1998).

2.4 Concept of Globalization

Globalization refers to the process of intensification of economic, political and social cultural interactions across international boundaries. It deals with the increasing breakdown of the trade barriers and the increasing integration of the world markets (Fafowora, 1998). Globalization seeks to remove all national barriers to the free movement of international capital and the process is accelerated by and facilitated by supersonic transformation of information technology (Fafowora, 1998). A very critical feature of globalization is that it enhances the volume of international trade and investments, which is a reflection of the global pattern of specialization in production (UN, 1993).

Globalization is also about international division of labor which might be broadly categorized by the skill intensity of production, with intensive manufacturing. This asymmetry has had several and devastating effects on African countries since they are

primarily to the production of raw materials for the industries in developed economies, who eventually produce goods and dump them in developing countries as a result of liberalization (UN, 1993).

Globalization is used as a handy form to describe the spread of communication production and connection technologies throughout the world. In most cases, the term globalization is used a confusing manner with respect to the efforts of IMF, world bank and the institutions to create a free global market for goods and services (IMF, 2000). Globalization in terms of connectivity across the entire world increased economic and cultural life throughout the centuries (Thomas, 2001). The communication and the exchange rate, the complexity and the size of the networks involved, the volume of trade, the interaction and the risk give a strange force to the label 'globalization' and with the increase of economic interconnection, the political changes have deepened the poorer/peripheral countries becoming more dependent on the central economies such as U.S., where capital and technical expertise tend to be blocked. There is also a shift of power, far away from nation states (IMF, 2000).

Globalization involves spreading of ideas, practices and technologies, and it is little more than internationalization and universalization. It is not simply the modernization or westernization and certainly it is much more than trade liberalization (David, 1999). Globalization has five vectors that act on human society, vectors that influence the development of human society. The vectors through which globalization interacts with society, both locally, regionally and internationally are the economic vector, the military vector, the political vector, the religious the cultural vectors (Sandu, 2009).

2.5 The link between Globalization and Dressmakers' Competitiveness on Fashion Designs

This is presented on the basis of the various characteristics of the respondents, the relationship between global promotion and sales activities and consumer preferences, the relationship between the global economic environment and growth in consumer patterns of fashion designs, the relationship between the global political and legal forces and access to new fashion designs and the relationship between the global technological development and diversity in fashion designs.

2.5.1 Characteristics of the Respondents

The respondents in this study were the dressmakers in Eldoret town registered by the EMC 2013 register and have their enterprises in the town central business district (CBD) and outside the town. They are characterized by limited business skills, lack of technological expertise, they lack access to funding, lack adequate information on demand and supply for products and this undermines their ability to plan, the enterprises requires less expensive infrastructure to flourish and to concentrate in open spaces. They do not have formal links between academia and business limiting the scope of academic institutions to collaborate in upgrading their skills (National Baseline Survey, 1999).

A past study (Nassiuma, 2002) revealed that most of the entrepreneurs in Eldoret town were above the age of 35 years (78.8%) while 21.2% were below 34 years. Nassiuma (2002) asserts that most of these entrepreneurs had only attained the primary level of education (51%) and mainly participated in the trading sector (45%) as it is the easiest to venture and manage. It was also found out that 60% of the entrepreneurs were male

while 40% were female. Most female engaged in the service sector like hair dressing while majority of male were in the trading sector (Nassiuma, 2002).

2.5.2 The relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences in fashion designs

Globally, sales promotions are offered to consumers as an integral part of the marketing mix for many consumer products (Teunter, 2002). Sales promotions are offered as a short term strategy to push up the sales by inducing trial and evoking product usage from the customers. Research shows that, advertising when synchronized with sales promotion and other marketing tools like direct marketing, public relations and personal selling can have an integrated and amplified effect (Dommermuth, 1984).

A study conducted on Jossy Designers (Nyawira, 2009) found out that, designers are strategically responding to the influence of globalization by adopting technology such as the internet to obtain information on current trends in the industry and to market their products. The study also found out that designers in the country are also taking advantage of the easier transportation of people to obtain fabric from around the continent. It also recommended that fashion designers in Kenya should fully computerize their processes and make more use of incoming technology to improve efficiency and quality of service to their customers (Nyawira, 2009).

According to a study conducted by Imo, Mugenda and Mburugu (2012) some of the strategies cited by most traders in solving their problems, retaining and attracting more of new customers in Nairobi city include improving the quality of garments they provided to their clients by ironing them before displaying and this helped in attracting more customers to their shops, hence customer retention. Some traders introduced

unique items different from those of their competitors since customers often looked for new and different clothing items. Other traders visited offices within the Central Business District (CBD) or used friends to look for customers as a way of promoting their goods. Lowering profits so as to make the prices of their merchandise affordable to a wide range of customers while others kept contact with their old customers in order to call them incases where new merchandise was secured, are some of the strategies these traders in the city centre used for their survival and marketing (Imo *et. al.* 2012).

The Ipsos Synovate study according to Njoki (2013), it was found out that whereas most Kenyans seemed fashion savvy, only a few knew of local designers and their products. This suggests that marketing done by the local designers and their products needs to be enhanced in order to alert the local consumers of the existence of their products and hence promote Kenyan design industry effectively.

2.5.3 The relationship between the global economic environment and the growth in consumer patterns of fashion designs

Forces in the broad environment can have a tremendous impact on a firm and its task environment (Porter, 2004); however, individual firms typically have only a marginal ability to influence these forces. Economic forces can have a profound influence on organizational behavior and performance. Economic growth, interest rates, the availability of credit, inflation rates, foreign exchange rates, and foreign trade balances are among the most critical economic factors. Economic growth can also have a large impact on consumer demand for products and services. Consequently, organizations should consider forecasts of economic growth in determining when to make critical resource allocation decisions such as plant expansions.

The textile industry in Kenya has greatly changed and grown due to globalization (United Nations, 2003). For instance, India is currently lobbying East African nations, particularly Kenya, to form partnerships under African Growth and Opportunities Act (AGOA). This means that India would provide manufacturers in Kenya with the raw materials and other needed machineries for textile production whereas the Kenyan people will provide cheap labor in the factories/industries set up by the Indians (United Nations, 2003). The dressmakers will benefit from the development of the local industry as they shall acquire fabric made locally which is considerably cheaper compared to imported fabrics whose costs are higher because of added costs for instance shipping costs (United Nations, 2003).

According to Ikiara and Ndirangu (2003), the enactment of AGOA in Sub-Saharan Countries (SSC) was attached to benefits such as the country attracted Foreign Direct Investments (FDI). This was achieved particularly through the Export Processing Zones (EPZ) program to manufacture apparel for the export market to the US. The export program led to the rise of employment levels from about 16,000 jobs in 2001 to over 37,000 in 2004. These were direct jobs; more jobs were created in other areas such as cotton fields, ginneries, suppliers of seeds and other inputs and other textile raw materials suppliers (Ikiara and Ndirangu, 2003).

The effects of globalization can be analyzed from three perspectives; social, economic and political. The social effects include increased standards of living achieved when less developed countries Kenya included access to foreign aid which develops infrastructure including roads, health care, education, and social services, and hence the standard of living in the country increases. Another social effect associated with globalization is the impact it has on culture. This has been experienced on different

lifestyle areas such as dressing styles adopted, change of food consumed, language spoken and entertainment areas.

The economic effects include the advantage of financial benefits to developing countries from developed nation's direct investments, increased access to the global markets without trade barriers and tariffs which has led to global competition leading to developments of new technologies and hence new products and services. Unemployment in LDCs has been associated with globalization because of the increased use of advanced machineries that embrace latest technology.

The unfavorable business environment characterized by heavy government regulations, weak trade agreement, lack of security as well as limited access to capital have hindered the growth of the dressmakers enterprises (Ikiara and Ndirangu, 2003). For instance weak trade agreements have led to the importation of sub standard goods and counterfeit goods into the domestic market making it unfavorable for the local designers to compete with the imports. Another environmental challenge faced by the garment producers is the lack of financial support from the government which could enhance their growth.

A number of hidden costs are associated with overseas sourcing (Hines, 2001) and they include travelling and subsistence costs of buyers, increased time taken by managers especially during pre-acquisition, during acquisition and post acquisition, limited access to international shipping and the cost of late delivery of merchandise increases production costs and limits the speed to the market. In addition to these, international sourcing has been associated with transportation delays, additional costs are incurred in the local environment such as poor infrastructure and inadequate services such as water,

low quality labor force, unreliable electricity have led to production of low quality goods which cannot compete in the liberalized markets (Lui and McGoldrick, 1996).

2.5.4 The relationship between the global political legal forces and access to new fashion designs

Political forces, both at home and abroad, are significant determinants of organizational success (Porter, 2004). Governments provide and enforce the rules by which organizations operate. Even in the United States, which is considered a “free” market economy, no organization is allowed the privilege of total autonomy from government regulations. Governments can encourage new business formation through tax incentives and subsidies; they can restructure organizations (Porter, 2004).

The textile and garment industries are among the most globalized of all industries (Ethel, 2008). Clothing is produced in nearly every country in the world, often for sale elsewhere, and together the garment and textile industries make up the largest source of industrial employment in the world (Kowaluk, 1998). In the last hundred years clothing production has moved quickly from our own homes, to places hundreds and even thousands of kilometers away (Peck, 1999). This is because the world and regional markets have undergone trade regulations that enhance the spread of textile products from one place to another.

On the political perspective, globalization has led to opening of borders (The Nation, 2004), and therefore enhancing the free movement of people from one region/country to another. It has also led to the elimination of all trade barriers, customs, import taxes and duties leading to an easy flow of goods from one country to another. It has as well led to the world having a common currency that is accepted on all world liberalized markets.

Trade agreements owing to globalization have perceptibly altered the manufacturing landscape in terms of the production of textiles, apparel, and the growth of the clothing export sector in Kenya (The Nation, 2004). The increasing volume of used clothes (mitumba) entering Kenya throughout the 1990s corresponded with the closure of the majority of local clothing and textile factories creating products for local consumption in the sub-Saharan African countries, which had legalized imports. Industries like Kisumu Cotton Millers (KICOMI) and Heritage Woolen Mills were closed in Kenya for instance early 1990s (Adec, 1998; Barasa, 2001). This is because the cheap imports are manufactured in countries in South East Asia which enjoy economies of scale since textile production in these countries is in massive forms. They are therefore able to produce garments at much lower prices than garment producers in Kenya and since they access the Kenyan market they are sold at cheaper prices compared to the locally made dressmakers' products (Ikiara and Ndungu, 2003).

The textile industry has been affected by the surge in imports of both new and second hand clothes in the 1980's (Nyongesa, 2005), exposing local entrepreneurs to competition that has made it difficult for them to respond to competitive disequilibria (Wambugu, 2002). In the early 1990s, due to several factors including mismanagement, lack of investment, and the availability of second hand clothing in the local market, the textile industry in Kenya collapsed (Mangieri, 2006). Firms in Kenya have also been exposed to a stiff competition in both the domestic and export markets from well established producers in China and India due to the global liberal trade. Much as the local apparel manufacturing industry began to grow rapidly due to the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) from 2000, following the completion of the Multi-fibre Arrangement (MFA) in 2005, Kenya has experienced a volatile atmosphere of factory

closures, urgent policy prescriptions, and calls for the reconstruction of the domestic textile production and consumption (Mangieri, 2006).

2.5.5 The relationship between the global technological and equipment development and diversity in fashion designs

Technological change creates new products, services, and, in some cases, entire new industries (Porter, 2004). Technology can also change the way society behaves and what society expects. The Internet, hand-held computers, direct satellite systems, and cellular telephones are technological innovations that have experienced extraordinary growth in recent years, leaving formerly well-established industries stunned, creating whole new industries and influencing the way many people approach work and leisure.

The global market also offers incredible variety of styles and textiles and the beauty of cloth and design connects us to women all over the world (Mattila *et. al.*, 2002). In 2004 for instance developing countries accounted for nearly 75% of all clothing exports (The Financial times, 2004), and recently with the removal of trade quotas, companies have a greater opportunity to take advantage of cheaper goods from low-cost overseas manufacturers with high technology equipments. Globalization has distributed the institutional features of modernity across all cultures (Tomlinson, 2003) and has created an open market and free trade amongst countries making fashion more readily available in the world.

Africa's level of technological advancement and investment in capital has been relatively low and slow as compared to developed nations for instance China (Vlok, 2006). Consequently, the clothing and textile industry has a high cost of labor, low productivity, slow turnaround time, a weak value chain and it cannot keep up with

trends. Over the years, the industry has not been able to adjust sufficiently to challenges of greater import competition due to trade liberalization and rising competitiveness from China and other western countries that enjoy the use of superior technology equipments (Vlok, 2006).

2.6 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study is presented in Figure 2.2. It constitutes the independent variable; globalization and dependent variable; competitiveness of the dressmakers' fashion designs. The independent variable in this study globalization influences the dependent variable the competitiveness of the dressmakers' designs.

Globalization in this case is characterized by promotion and sales, the commercial environment, political and legal forces and technology and equipment. Where else the competitiveness of the fashion designs by dressmakers is characterized by consumer preferences, growth in consumption patterns, access to new products and services and the diversity of the fashion designs.

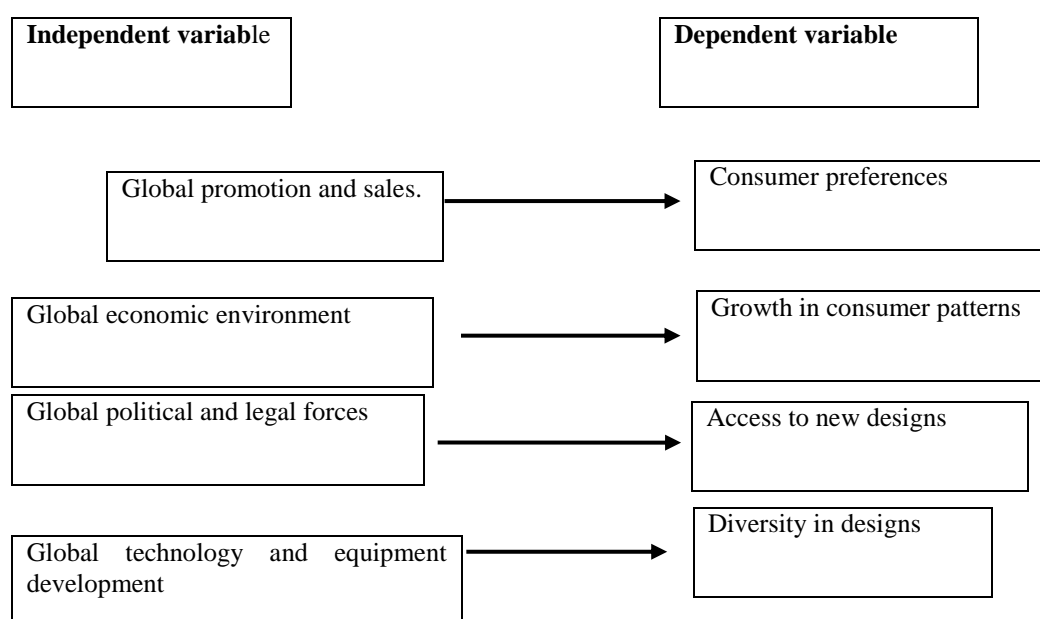


Figure 2.2 : Conceptual framework

Source; Author (2016)

2.7 Chapter Summary and Research Gap

This chapter covered the theoretical framework of the study followed by the empirical evidence. The international trade theories suggest that the domestic environment is very critical for industry competitiveness. In addition, industries that take advantage of their local and regional resources easily benefit from each others' experiences, infrastructure and culture. The theories are inadequate in explaining the various levels of competition experienced by countries in international trade. The developed economies derive greater benefits from international trade owing to the latest and expensive technology in production of goods they employ. However, on the other hand developing economies may not be in a position to acquire the expensive machineries that utilizes technology hence production of inferior goods which experience a stiff competition in the international markets.

Dressmakers in Kenya have come up with survival mechanisms such as adoption of technology, to ensure that what they produce meets the needs and preferences of the local and international consumers. The textile industry has also grown due to globalization experiencing both positive and negative effects and as a result, dressmakers have faced a number of challenges key amongst them being the importation of cheaper secondhand clothing items into the local market which are of elaborate designs and of good quality in comparison to the locally produced apparel. A number of studies undertaken on the textile industry sector such as Nyawira, (2009) on the strategic responses adopted by the designers to the face of globalization and Imo *et.al.*, (2012) on the business performance of the local textile traders in Nairobi. However, none of the studies conducted earlier on the textile industry provides a clear

picture of how globalization has affected the dressmakers' competitiveness in the fashion industry in Kenya.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview

This chapter presents the research methodology relevant to this study. It commences with the study area, research design used, the target population and sample, sampling frame and size, the data collection instruments used, and ends with the validity and reliability, data analysis methods used in the study and ethical considerations.

3.1 The Study Area

The study was conducted in Eldoret a town in the North Rift region of Kenya and the administrative centre of Uasin Gishu County of Rift Valley Province. According to Kenya 1999 National Population Census, the population of Uasin Gishu District was 622,705 (Kenya Bureau of Statistics, 1999). The town is estimated to have a population of over two hundred thousand being women and children. The town has been rated as the fastest growing, as well as the 5th largest town in Kenya after Nairobi, Mombasa, Kisumu and Nakuru (Wikipedia, 2009). This is the reason why the researcher settled on conducting the study in the town as it is cosmopolitan and rapidly growing.

3.2 Research Design

3.2.1 Research Philosophy

This study adopted the positivistic school of thought, a position which is justified by the rationale to acquire knowledge of how globalization has influenced the dressmakers' competitiveness. Positivism is founded on the belief that the study of human behavior should be done in the same way as studies conducted in the natural sciences by seeking

the facts or causes of social phenomena according to Hussey and Hussey (1997). Under this paradigm, theoretical models can be developed that are generalizable to explain cause-and-effect relationships (Saunders et al., 2007). It represented an inquiry which gathered information from a selected sample through a questionnaire, a technique recommended by Kotler (2000) when undertaking to learn about people's knowledge, beliefs and preferences, and to assess the view of the general population in a study.

3.2.2 Design

This study employed correlation research design. The design helped in testing the statistical relationship between globalization and dressmakers' competitiveness in the fashion designs produced in the globalized market. Both the dependent variable competitiveness of the dressmakers' fashion designs and the independent variable globalization were measured on ordinal scale. The independent variable globalization variables were measured by the global promotion and sales activities, global economic environment, global political and legal environment, and the global technology and equipment development. The dependent variable competitiveness of the dressmakers' fashion designs were analyzed based on; consumer preferences, growth in consumer patterns of fashion designs, access to the new fashion designs, and diversity of the fashion designs. The dependent variables were measured on nominal, ordinal scale and ratio as appropriate.

3.3 Target Population

The target population was the dressmakers in Eldoret town who are registered by the Eldoret Municipal Council 2013. The Uasin Gishu County businesses register (2013) indicated the total numbers of dressmakers in Eldoret town to be 419.

3.4 Sampling, Sampling Frame and Sample Size Determination

3.4.1 Sampling Procedures

The researcher employed probability sampling strategy as all the members in the population were entitled to an equal chance of being selected. Probability sampling enabled the researcher make generalizations about the entire dressmakers in Eldoret town. In addition, stratified sampling was employed to select the study units from the population. Stratified sampling enabled the researcher to spread the sample selected for measurement more evenly across the entire population according to the size of their businesses. Therefore, in this case, stratified sampling enabled the researcher to collect data from all classes of dress makers in Eldoret town. Simple random sampling was used to select the study units within the different strata of dressmakers.

3.4.2 The sampling frame

The sampling frame of this study is presented on Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: The sampling frame of the study

Size of Business	No.
Large trader, shop, retail shop or personal services	6
Medium trader, shop or retail services	51
Small trader shop or retail services	327
Other wholesaler-retail traders, stores shops and services	35
Total	419

(Source; Eldoret County Council, 2013)

3.4.2 Sample Size Determination

The sample size was determined using the coefficient of variation formula developed by Nassiuma (2000), the coefficient of variation should be less than 30%. The coefficient of variation is a more stable measure of variation.

$$n = \frac{NC^2}{C^2 + (N-1)e^2}$$

Where; n- Sample size C- Coefficient of variation

N- Population e- Tolerance level

In this case the coefficient of variation used in this study is 9% and the tolerance level is 0.01. This gives a sample size of 68 respondents from the population of 419. The sample size as calculated using the formula above is represented on Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Sample Size of the study

Size of Business	Total No.	Sample size
Large trader, shop, retail shop or personal services	6	1
Medium trader, shop or retail services	51	8
Small trader shop or retail services	327	53
Other wholesaler-retail traders, stores shops and services	35	6
Total	419	68

Source EMC(2013)

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

This study used questionnaires containing both open and closed ended questions to obtain primary data from the study units. The questionnaires were administered to the dressmakers directly by the researcher.

3.6 Validity and Reliability

The researcher used the test-retest method to test the stability and reliability of the research instrument. This ensured that information collected is accurate and consistent

by administering the same test twice to a group of dressmakers in Nakuru County. The scores from time one and two were then correlated in order to evaluate the stability over time.

3.6.1 Pilot Test

Since the questionnaire was the heart of the study operation, a pilot test brought to light the weaknesses of the questionnaire that had initially been drafted and improvements were made. The pilot test was also used to rework the data analysis strategies since it gave the researcher insight into how long it would take to administer the research instruments. The pilot study highlighted unexpected challenges that would have come in the way of the smooth conduct of the research, and generally gave a picture of the actual expected process when the main study was undertaken.

3.6.2 Validity

Validity refers to the appropriateness, meaningfulness and usefulness of the specific inferences and actions based on test scores (Gable & Wolf, 1993). The questionnaire was pre-tested with a sample of respondents in Nakuru County in order to establish whether the questions measured the expected theorized variables in the Conceptual Framework. Respondents were asked to comment on the clarity and length of time it took to complete one questionnaire. The questionnaire was then adjusted on the basis of findings of the pilot test and the final version was developed thereafter for use in the study.

3.6.3 Reliability

Reliability is the degree of consistence between multiple measurements of variables and it helps to determine the extent to which the measurement is random error free and produces the same results on repeated trials (Gable & Wolf, 1993). The results from the pilot study were tested using Cronbach's Alpha reliability test. Both tests provided results

above 0.8. In Cronbach's test, any result greater than 0.7 on testing of an instrument renders it reliable. Gliem (2003) indicate that a Cronbach's Alpha value of ≥ 0.70 is generally taken to mean that the instrument is reliable and indicate that a value of 0.60 can be seen as the lower limit, and since the results indicated a value greater than 0.7 the questionnaire was considered to be reliable for use.

Pilot study test results

First pilot study

Grand Mean 3.7714

Reliability Coefficients 15 items

Alpha = .8330 Standardized item alpha = .9265

Second pilot study

Grand Mean 3.2222

Reliability Coefficients 15 items

Alpha = .8011 Standardized item alpha = .8916

3.7 Data Processing and Data Analysis

3.7.1 Data Processing

The preliminary data processing entailed editing, coding, data entry and tabulation procedures. Data editing ensured that data at the record level was correct. This aided in detecting errors in data through checks of the individual questionnaires. The reason for

editing at this level was to determine the accuracy, consistency of the data, coherence and correct the individual data records. Coding entailed assigning numerals to categorize the data for efficient data analysis. Data entry was done for further processing and finally simple data tabulation was carried out for easier analysis. Data was then classified as per the research objectives for analysis.

3.7.2 Data Analysis

This was done as per the research objectives of the study. The data collected was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 19.0). The data was analyzed using inferential statistics as per each objective.

Objective 1: To examine the relationship between global promotion and sales activities and consumer preferences. This was analyzed by using the spearman rank correlation technique because it aimed to assess the strength of the relationship between the promotion and sales strategies and consumer preferences. The data was presented on tables to show the relationship.

Objective 2: To assess the relationship between the global economic environment and growth in the consumer patterns of fashion designs. This was analyzed by using the spearman rank correlation technique to assess the strength of the relationship between the economic environment and consumer patterns. The data was presented on tables.

Objective 3: To determine the relationship between the global political and legal forces and access to the new fashion designs. This was analyzed using ordinal regression data analysis technique. The data was presented on tables and charts.

Objective 4: To examine the global technological and equipment development and the diversity of fashion designs was analyzed using the spearman rank correlation technique as it aimed to assess the strength of the relationship between the changes in technology and the diversity of the designs they produce. The data was presented on tables and graphs.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

The data collected was only used for research purposes. The consent of the respondents was sought before data collection commenced by the researcher having an introduction and a brief description of the purpose of the research. During the administration of questionnaires the individual dressmakers were assured that the data collected by the researcher will be treated with the highest degree of confidentiality and anonymity. The methods used to carry out this research were not deceptive to the respondents, but was as honest as possible. The researcher ensured this by explaining the purpose of the research to respondents as well as obtaining their approval from the owners of the enterprises. Finally the researcher obtained a research permit from National Council of Science and Technology (NACOSTI)

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.0 Overview

This chapter presents the results of the demographic characteristics of the respondents, the relationship between global promotion and sales activities and consumer preferences, relationship between global economic environment and growth of consumer patterns on dressmakers, the relationship between global political and legal forces and access to the new fashion designs and the global technological and equipment development and the diversity of fashion designs.

Response Rate

The researcher's sample population for the study was 68 respondents. Out of the 68 questionnaires issued 65 were filled which represent 95.58% response rate.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics

The major characteristics examined in the study were gender, age, education level, professional skills, business experience, business category, source of financing and business type.

4.1.1 Gender

The results in Table 4.1, shows that more female respondents participated in the study representing (42, 64.6%) while (23, 35.4%) representing the male respondents.

Table 4.1 Gender of the Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	23	35.4
Female	42	64.6
Total	65	100

Source: Field Data (2015)

4.1.2 Age

Results in Table 4.2 below show that the majority of the respondents were aged between 31 to 40 years (50.8%), while 20 to 30 years (24.6%) and above 41 years were 24.6%.

Table 4.2 Age Categories of the Respondents

Age group	Frequency	Percentage
20-30 yrs	16	24.6
31-40 yrs	33	50.8
Above 41 yrs	16	24.6
Total	65	100

Source: Field Data (2015)

4.1.3 Education Level

The results in Table 4.3 indicate that the majority (46.15%, 30) of the respondents had secondary education. A significant percentage primary education (27.7%, 17) while (18.46%, 12) respondents had gone through college education and those with university education were (23.1%, 6).

Table 4.3 Education Levels of the Respondents

Education Level	Frequency	Percentage
Primary	17	26.15
Secondary	30	46.15
College	12	18.46
University	6	9.23
Total	65	100

Source: Field data (2015)

4.1.4 Experience in Fashion Industry

The results in Table 4.4 indicate that (64.6%, 42) of the respondents had experience in the fashion industry in a period between 5 to 8 years. However, the percentage dropped to (26.2%, 17) at 0 to 4 years and (9.2%, 6) above 9 years. This could be interpreted that most respondents had a good experience in the fashion industry.

Table 4.4 Experience of the Respondents in the Fashion Industry

Experience	Frequency	Percentage
------------	-----------	------------

0-4yrs	17	26.2
5-8	42	64.6
Over 9yrs	6	9.2
Total	65	100

Source: Field data (2015)

4.1.5 Business Category of the Dressmaking Enterprises

Table 4.5 indicate that (33, 50.8%) small traders shops, while (16, 24.6%) are medium traders shops, kiosks were (11, 16.9%) and (5, 7.7%) large traders shop .

Table 4.5 Business Categories of the Enterprises

Business category	Frequency	Percentage
Large trader shop	5	7.7
Medium trader shop	16	24.6
Small trader shop	33	50.8
Kiosk	11	16.9
Total	65	100

Source: Field data (2015)

4.1.6 Sources of Finance

The results presented on Table 4.6 reveal that (38, 58.5%) of the respondents depend on own savings and loans, while those that depend on loans were (11, 16.9%), further more

(11, 16.9%) depend on own savings, family support & loans ,while the remaining (5, 7.7%) depend on own savings and family support. This clearly indicate that most dressmakers in the area depend mainly on own savings and loans to remain in business.

Table 4.6 Sources of Finances for the Enterprises

Source of Finance	Frequency	Percentage
Own accumulated savings	11	16.9
Own savings and family support	5	7.7
Own savings and loans	38	58.5
Own savings, family support and loans	11	16.9
Total	65	100

Source: Field data (2015)

4.1.7 Enterprise Category in the Fashion Industry

The results in Table 4.7 indicate that (38, 58.5%) of the respondents have a partnership type of business, while (20, 30.76%) are sole proprietors, where else (6, 9.2%) are in a joint partnership and only (1, 1.5%) of the respondents are in a corporation.

Table 4.7 Category of the Enterprise

Business category	Frequency	Percentage
Sole proprietorship	20	30.76
Partnership	38	58.46
Joint partnership	6	9.2
Corporation	1	1.5
Total	65	100

Source: Field data (2015)

4.2 Relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences in fashion designs.

4.2.1 Marketing Strategy

The results in Figure 4.1 show the marketing strategies employed by male respondents. Majority of the male respondents used displays (10, 43.48%), online advertising (5, 21.73%), word of mouth (3, 13.04%), personal selling (3, 13.04%) and mass media (2, 8.70%). Female respondents who use displays (17, 40.48%), online advertising (9, 21.43), word of mouth eleven (11, 26.19%), personal selling (2, 4.76%), mass media (1, 2.38%) and use of customers (2, 4.76%).

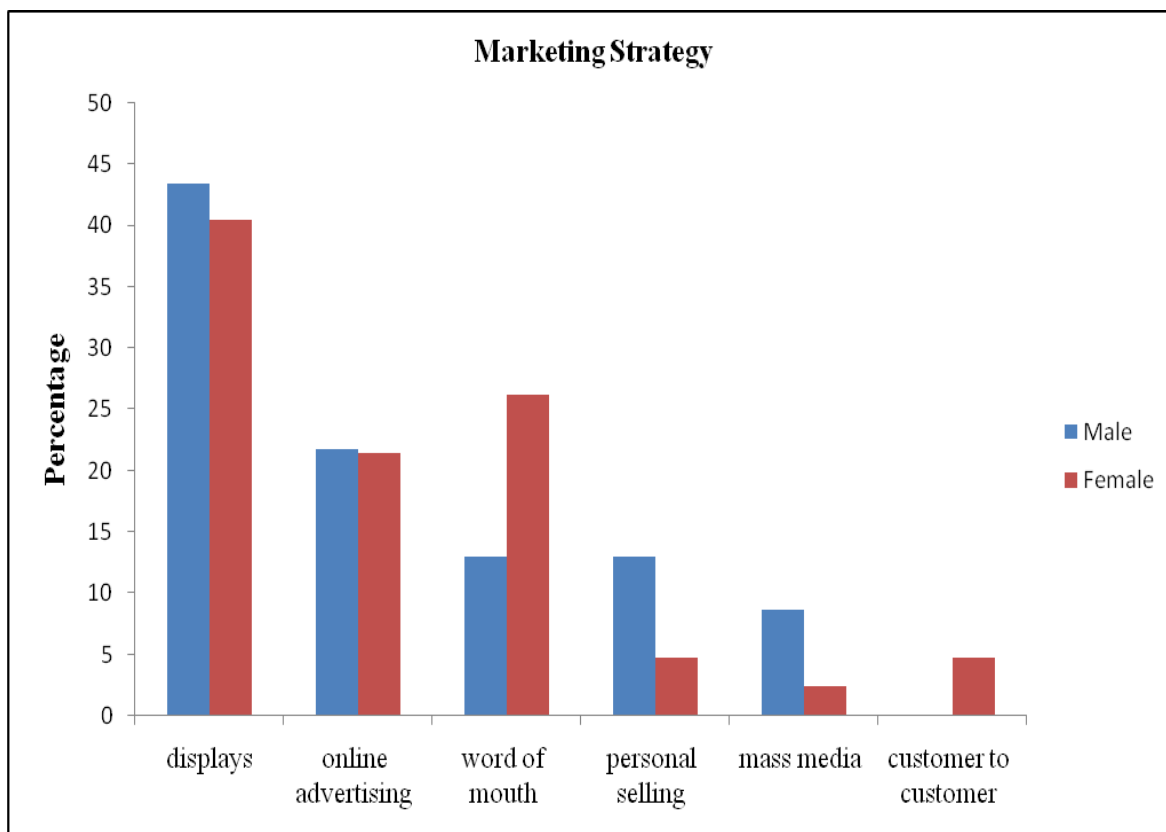


Figure 4.1 Marketing Strategy

Source (field data 2015)

4.2.2 Source of Fashion Ideas

The results in Figure 4.2 reveal that majority of the male respondents used innovation (7, 30.43%), internet (3, 13.04%), customers (7, 31.53%), friends and families (1, 4.35%), fashion media (4, 17.39%) and copying from others (1, 4.35%). Whereas female respondents who used innovation (14, 33.33%), internet (7, 16.67%), fashion media (7, 16.67%), customers (9, 21.43%), friends and family (4, 9.52%) and copying from others (1, 2.38%).

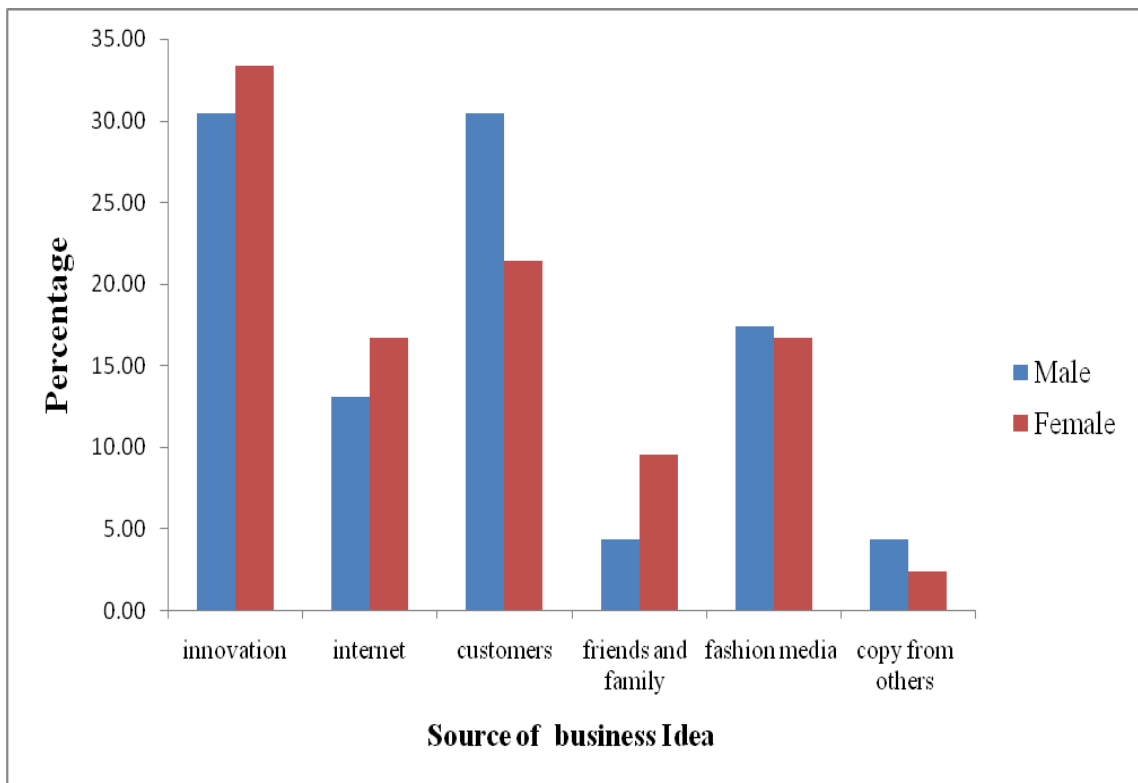


Figure 4.2 Sources of Fashion Ideas

Source (field data 2015).

To measure the strength of the relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences, the spearman rank correlation technique was used to assess the strength of the relationship between the promotion sales activities and consumer preferences.

Table 4.8 The relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences

		Consumer preferences
Spearman's rho	Global promotion and sales activities	.672*
	Correlation Coefficient	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.031
	N	65

Source (field data 2015). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results of the correlation analysis indicated that there exists a fairly strong and positive relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences ($r = 0.672$; $p < 0.05$).

4.3 Relationship between the global economic environment and the growth in consumer patterns of fashion designs

4.3.1 Textile and fashion type

The results in Figure 4.4 reveal that male respondents, custom made garments suits (4, 17.39%), custom made suits and tie & die garment (7, 30.43%), tie & die and printed garments (2, 26.09%), custom made suits and printed garments (6, 8.33%) and others (4, 17.39%). Female respondents who make custom made garments suits (7, 16.67%), custom made suits and tie & die garment (16, 38.10%), tie & die and printed garments (9, 21.43%), custom made suits and printed garments (9, 21.43%), and others (1, 2.38%).

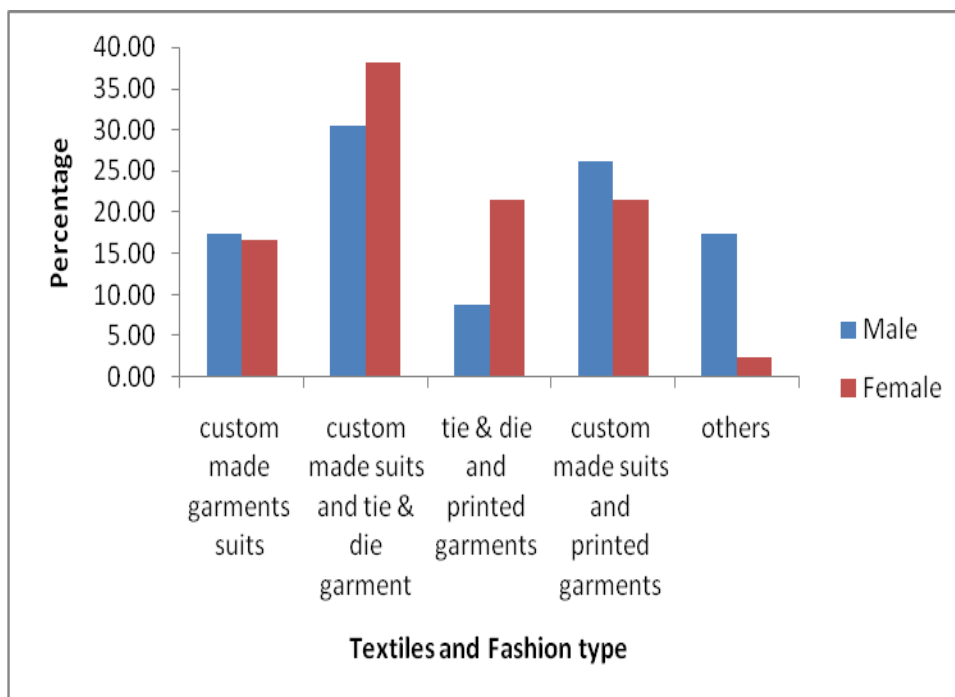


Figure 4.3 Textile Items Produced

Source (field data 2015).

4.3.2 Business Growth Strategy

The results in Figure 4.5 reveal that the majority of male respondents used innovative strategies (8, 34.78%), product differentiation (6, 26.09%), diversification (5, 21.74%), acquisition (1, 4.35%), intergrative strategy (1, 4.35%), market focus (1, 4.35%) and cost leadership (1, 4.35%). Female respondents innovation (18, 42.86%), product differentiation (11, 26.19%), acquisition (3, 7.14%), diversification (7, 16.67%), intergrative strategy (1, 2.38%), cost leadership (1, 2.38%) and market focus (1, 2.38%).

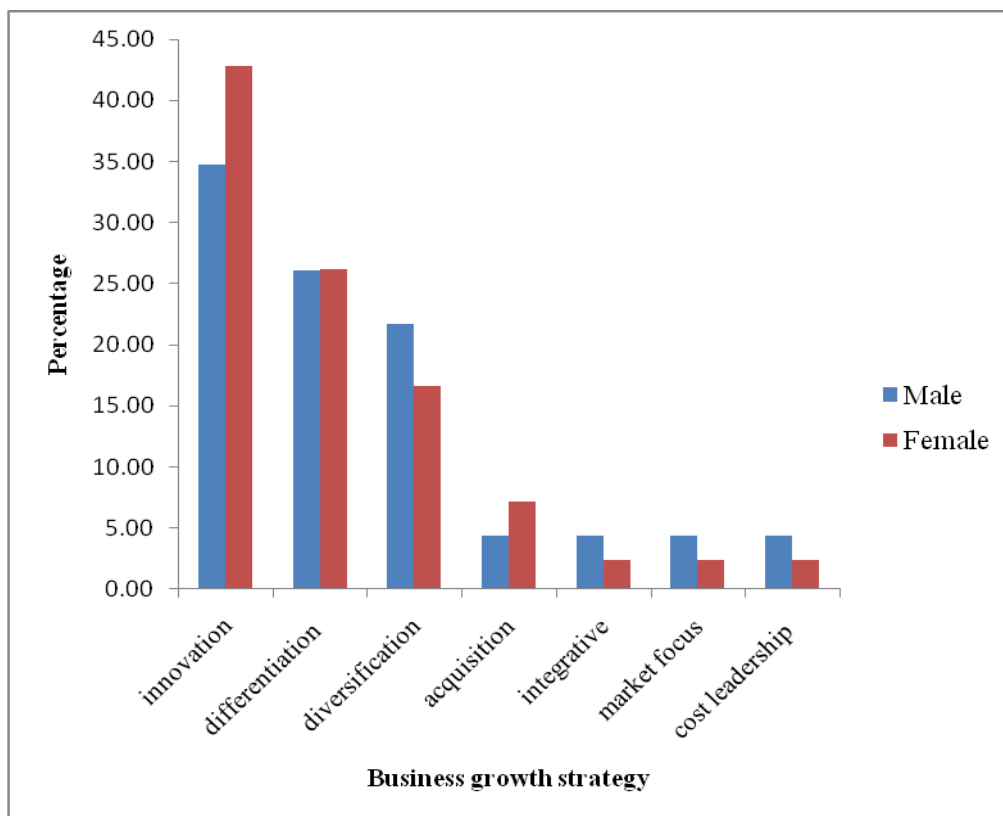


Figure 4.4 Business Growth Strategies

Source (field data 2015).

4.3.3 Factors which influence the fashion designs

The results in Figure 4.6 reveal that the factors influencing the designs produced by male respondents are changes in consumer taste & preference (9, 39.13%), cultural revolution & diversity (13, 56.52%), personal income of clients (1, 4.35%). While for the female respondents in terms of changes in consumer tastes & preference(7, 16.67%), cultural revolution & diversity (20, 47.62%), level of exposure (5, 11.90%) and personal income of clients ten (10) being (23.81%). This could be interpreted by the researcher that majority of the respondents are influenced by cultural revolution & the diversity of the fashion designs.

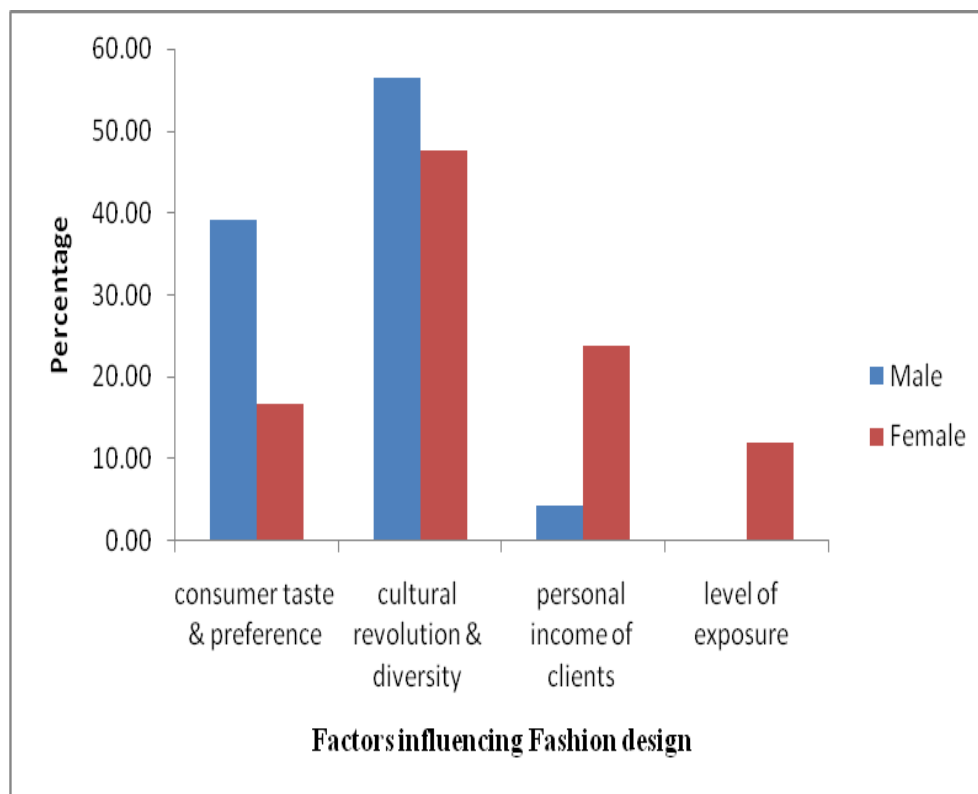


Figure 4.5 Factors Influencing Designs Produced

Source (field data 2015).

4.3.4 Economic challenges

The results in Figure 4.7 reveal that the economic challenges faced by the dressmakers enterprises are for the male respondents; lack of finances (4, 17.39%), lack of market for products (2, 8.70%), a high rate of rent (3, 13.04%), limited market (2, 8.70%), source of raw materials(2, 8.70%), high taxes (1, 4.35% and competition from cheap imports (9, 39.13%). Female respondents in terms of lack of finance (11, 26.19%), high income tax (4, 9.52%), lack of market for products (5, 11.90%), high rate of rent (1, 2.38%), limited market (3, 7.14%), sources of raw materials (3, 7.14%) and competition from cheap imports fifteen (15) being (35.71%).

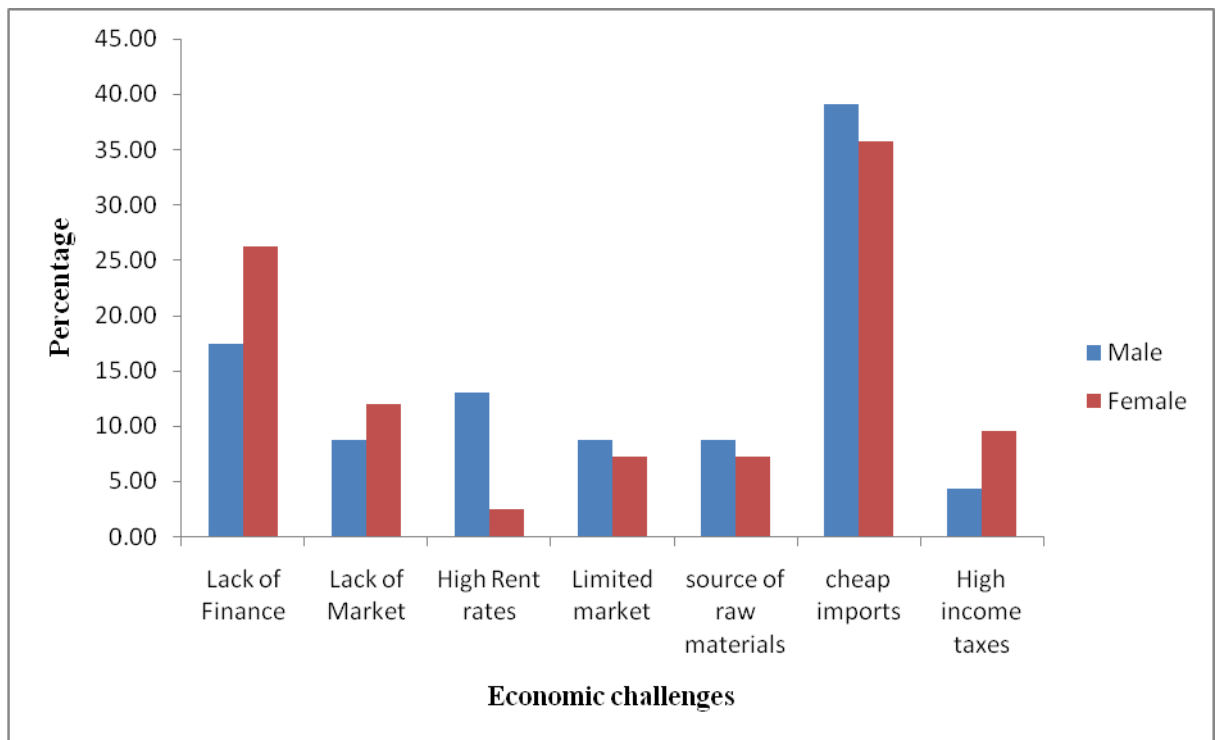


Figure 4.6 Economic Challenges

Source (field data 2015).

Spearman's rank correlation was used to assess the relationship between the global economic environment and growth in the consumer patterns on fashion designs.

Table 4.9 The relationship between the global economic environment and growth in consumer patterns.

			Growth of consumer patterns
Spearman's rho	Global environment	economic Correlation Coefficient	.503*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.038
		N	65

Source (*field data 2015*). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results of the correlation analysis indicated that there exists a positive relationship between global economic environment and growth in consumer patterns on fashion designs $r = 0.503$; $p < 0.05$). This indicates that the global economic environment has had significant influence on the growth of consumer patterns in fashion designs.

4.4 Relationship between global political legal forces and access to new fashion designs

The results on the political and legal forces reveals that the major political challenges facing dressmakers are for the male respondents; liberalization of world markets (7, 30.43%), taxation (5, 21.74%), importation of fabrics (6, 26.09%), labor laws (2, 8.70%), state of security in the country (1, 4.35%) and state of world economy (2, 8.70%). While the female respondents in terms of taxation (7, 16.67%), imports of fabrics (9, 21.43%), labor laws (5, 11.90%), state of security in the country (1, 2.38%), liberation of world markets (16, 38.10%) and state of world economy (4, 9.52%).

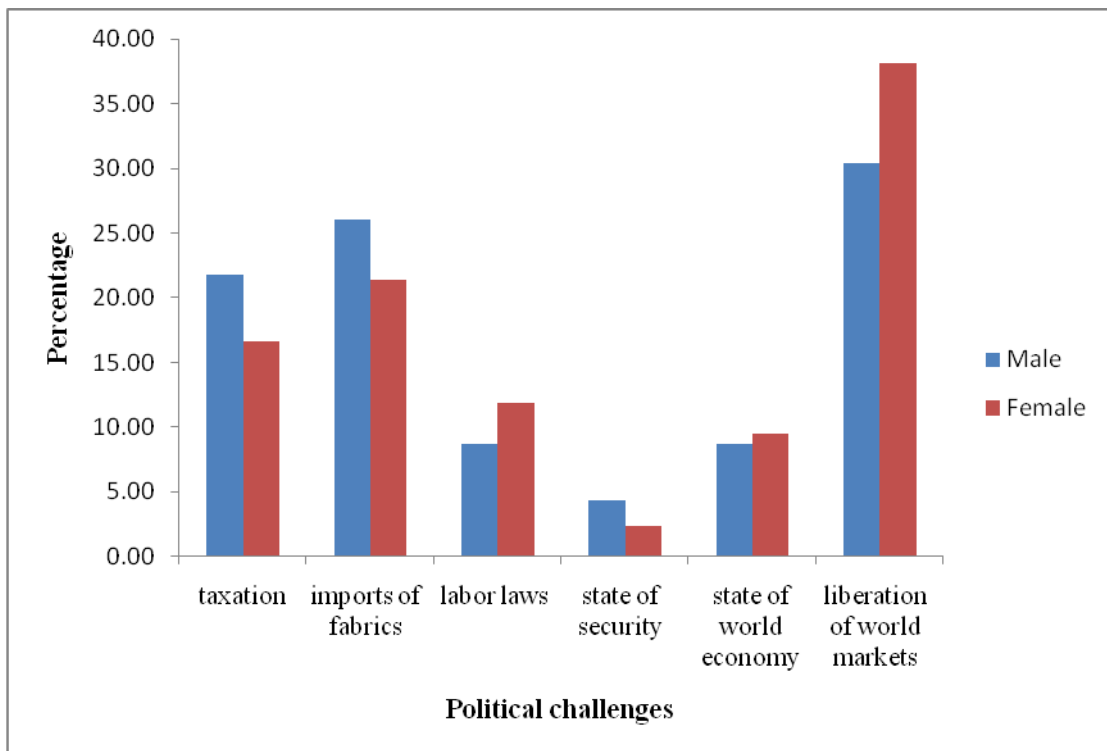


Figure 4.7 Political Forces and Access to Fashion Designs

Source (field data 2015)

Regression analysis was used to determine the relationship between the global political and legal forces and access to the new fashion designs. This was achieved using ordinal regression analysis. The results for goodness of fit statistics and Pseudo R-square are indicated in the tables 4.10 and 4.11 below.

Table 4.10 Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-square	df	sig
Pearson	.435	2	.804
Deviance	.403	2	.817

Source (field data 2015)

Table 4.11 Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.050
Nagekerke	.610
McFadden	.030

Source (field data 2015)

The results indicate very low Pseudo R square values very weak positive relationship between global political and legal forces and new fashion designs. However, correlation for the two variables gives a significant relationship at 0.05 significance level at ($r=0.061$; $p<0.05$).

4.5 The relationship between the global technological and equipment development and diversity of the fashion designs

4.5.1 Type of equipment used in the business

The results in Figure 4.9 reveals that majority of the male respondents used domestic hand sewing machines (10, 43.48%), industrial sewing machines (3, 13.04%), industrial & domestic sewing machines (4, 17.39%) and domestic electrical and hand sewing machine (6, 26.09%). While for the female respondents majority also used domestic hand sewing machine only (19, 45.24%), industrial sewing machines (6, 14.29%), industrial and domestic sewing machines (8,19.05%), domestic electrical and hand sewing machine (9, 21.43%).

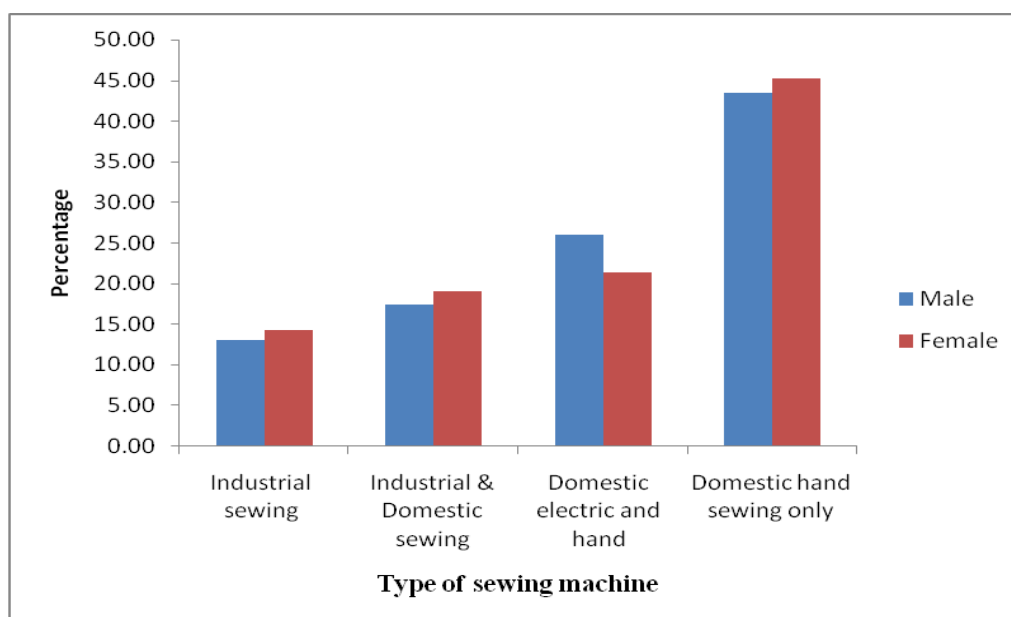


Figure 4.8 Types of Machines used

Source (field data 2015).

4.5.2 Sources of fabrics used by the enterprise

The results in Figure 4.10 reveals that male respondents majority of them used imported fabrics (16, 69.57%) and from the local manufactures (7, 30.43%). While for the female respondents majority used imported fabrics from foreign manufacturers (29, 69.05%) and local manufacturers' fabrics (13, 30.95%). This could be interpreted by the researcher that majority of the respondents use imported fabrics for production of their garments.

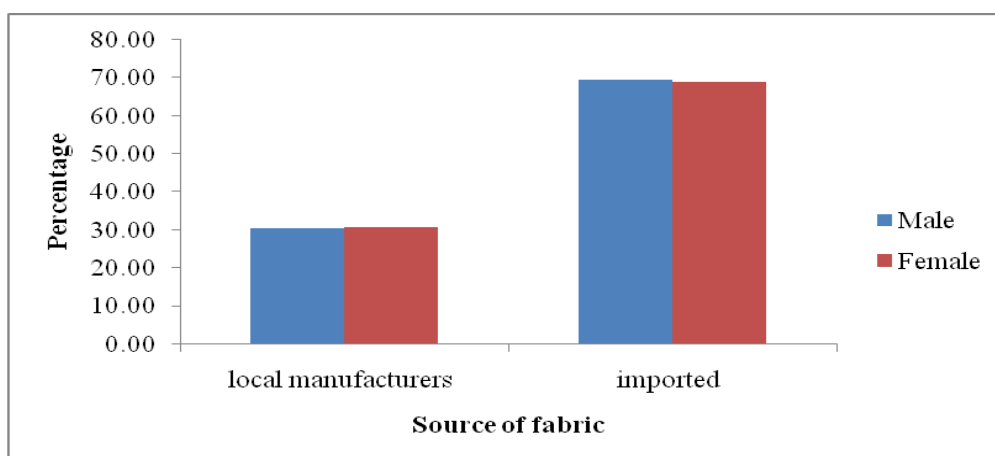


Figure 4.9 Sources of Fabrics

Source (field data 2015).

The spearman rank correlation technique was used to establish the relationship between the global technological equipment development and the diversity of fashion designs.

The results are tabulated in table 4.12.

Table 4.12 The relationship between the global technological equipment development and diversity of designs

			Diversity of fashion designs
Spearman's rho	Global change	Technological Correlation Coefficient	.297*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.014
		N	65

Source (field data 2015) *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

From the correlation analysis, it can be established that there is a fairly weak positive relationship between global technological and equipment development on the diversity of fashion designs ($r = 0.297$; $p < 0.05$).

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS

5.1 Summary of the Findings

The summary of findings in this study have been presented on the basis of the relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences in fashion designs, the relationship between the global economic environment and the growth in consumer patterns of fashion designs, the relationship between global political legal forces and access to new fashion designs and the relationship between the global technological and equipment development and diversity of fashion designs.

5.1.1 Relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences in fashion designs

The results of the correlation analysis indicated that there exists a fairly strong and positive relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences ($r = 0.672$; $p < 0.05$). This implies that the dressmakers employ some modern methods of marketing their products in the global scene such as online advertising and mass media.

5.1.2 Relationship between global economic environment and the growth in consumer patterns of fashion designs

The results of the correlation analysis indicated that there exists a positive relationship between global economic environment and growth of consumer patterns on fashion designs ($r = 0.503$; $p < 0.05$). This indicates that the global economic environment factors that are cheap imports and lack of financing have significant influence on the growth of consumer patterns on dressmakers' fashion designs.

5.1.3 Relationship between global political legal forces and access to new fashion designs

The regression test shows a weak positive relationship between global political and legal forces and access to the new fashion designs. However, correlation for the two variables gives a significant relationship at 0.05 significance level at ($r = .316$; $p < 0.05$). This implies that political forces such as liberalization of the world markets and reduced taxation enhances the access to the new fashion trends in the global and regional markets.

5.1.4 The relationship between the global technological and equipment development and diversity of the fashion designs

From the correlation analysis, it was established that there is a fairly weak positive relationship between global technological equipment development on the diversity of fashion designs produced ($r = 0.297$; $p < 0.05$). This implies that the dressmakers do not employ the use of advanced machines that employ latest technology which could enable dressmakers to produce diverse styles.

5.2 Discussions of the Findings

5.2.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Results showed that more females 42 (64.6%) are engaged in the dressmaking business whereas the male were only 23 (35.4%). Most of the dressmakers 33 (50.8%) were aged between 31 to 40 years and had acquired apprentice skills with most of them having an experience of 5-8 years in the dressmaking industry.

Further, results revealed that those with the highest education qualifications 6 (9.23%) constitute the least number in the fashion business with the majority of the respondents 30 (46.15%) having the lowest qualification. This shows that, the graduates who have been trained to acquire in-depth skills from the region's tertiary institutions do not find setting up their own business with the knowledge and skills acquired attractive. It must be argued that, the quality of the fashion items produced will not be of good quality as majority of dressmakers within the study area use their apprentice skills acquired (receive training from other dressmakers).

This concurs with the assertion made by Zwane and Edmond (2002) that the use of unskilled labor compromises the quality standards in the production of garments. This is because the apprentices lack the requisite skills and knowledge to come out with the good garment construction details and specifications like even seam widths, neat edge finishing and neatening techniques, effective use of elements and principles of design and others which tertiary institutions offer to improve the aesthetic quality and durability of the fashion products, hence the rejection of the most exports of locally made fashion goods in the global markets.

Most 38 (58.46) of the dressmakers enterprises were categorized as partnerships and 33 (50.8%) were small traders shop, and most of them 38 (58.5%) relied on loans and own savings as sources of financing their enterprises. Partnerships justify why savings and loans form a larger portion 38 (58.5%) of business finance since operating a partnership allows the enterperneurs to pool their individual resources and enhance their ability to attract loans from banks and microfinance institutions.

5.2.2 Relationship between global promotion sales activities and consumer preferences in fashion designs

Results revealed that global promotion sales activities had greater influence on marketing the dressmakers' designs in the global scene. The strategies mostly employed by dressmakers; displays and online advertising enabled them to increase their sales in the globalized markets as this enabled international and local consumers informed of the designs. This concurs with Kaiser (1999) that fashion designs images in the magazines, music and video films, internet and television speed the way in which fashion ideas spread around the world. Nyawira (2009) further argues that the retail dressmaking industry in Kenya must be alert to all the changes taking place in the global commercial dressmaking industry in order to craft strategies to ensure their survival in the liberalized markets as the industry majorly relies on displaying as their marketing strategy.

This also concurs with Dickens (1999) that the fashion industry has not been exempted from the globalization process as the dressmaking business has become a global economy through the marketing strategies employed by dressmakers' making them known all over the world. This goes hand in hand with Jarnow and Dickerson (1997) who asserts that the globalization process is having a tremendous effect on fashion design industry because where and how fashion is produced and marketed has changed over time.

This findings also differ from what Njoki (2013) asserts that only few Kenyans knew about fashion designers and their products. She concludes that the marketing strategies employed by these designers and the products they produce need to be enhanced in

order to alert the local consumers of the existence of their products and hence promote the Kenyan design industry effectively (Njoki, 2013).

5.2.3 Relationship between global economic environment and growth of consumer patterns on fashion design

The results indicate that the global economic environment had significant influence on the growth of consumer patterns on fashion designs. This is because of the trade developments between countries enabling the fashion business to flourish within borders favoring the Kenyan fashion industry easily import fabrics from overseas countries which are cheap and of higher quality. Similar sentiments were found out by (Nicokid, 2010 and Elie, 2010), that the regional and international trade agreements such as EAC, WTO and AGOA have enabled third world countries to import cheap fabrics and textile products from developed countries, make and export fashion products to the developed economies. Third world countries benefit from the use and availability of cheap labor in the production processes (Jones, 1998).

Competition from cheap imports was found to be a great challenge to the dressmakers (45%). This is because of the importation of cheap second hand clothing items from the developed nations whose quality and styles appeal to most consumers. This concurs with sentiments from (Apunda, 2002) that Kenya's participation in the global trade has enabled traders to import clothing and apparel items at the lowest costs ever this has led to an intense competition in the fashion design industry as the imported designs seems to be appealing to the local consumers. Further, it contradicts what (Hines, 2001) states that overseas sourcing is associated with a number of hidden costs such as traveling and subsistence costs of buyers, increased time taken by managers especially during pre-acquisition and post acquisition, limited access to international shipping and the costs of

late deliveries of merchandise increases the production costs and hinders the speed to the markets.

The unfavorable business environment in Kenya characterized by a limited market scope, lack of adequate financing, heavy government regulations and high income taxes posed major threats to the dressmakers. This was what Ndirangu and Ikiara (2003) found out. Innovation was found out to be the major business growth strategy employed by most dressmakers (45%). This concurs with Nyawira 2009, who advises that dressmakers should be alert to the changes taking place in the global fashion markets and therefore craft strategies such as innovation, diversification and strategic alliances to counter the effects of globalization (Nyawira, 2009).

5.2.3 Relationship between global political and legal forces and access to new fashion designs

Results indicated that the political forces such as opening of the Kenyan borders, liberalization of the Kenyan market and Kenyan government entry into regional and world trade blocs posed major challenges to the local dressmakers. This is because it has enabled the entry of new and used clothing and textile goods from the western nations which are cheap and of high quality and hence they are appealing to the local consumers because they are of diverse styles too.

These results concurs with the Daily Nation (2004) that trade agreements owing to globalization have perceptibly altered the manufacturing landscape in terms of production of textiles, apparel and the growth of the textile sector in Kenya. These agreements have enhanced the free movements of people from one region/country to another. It has also led to the elimination of trade barriers, customs, import taxes and

duties leading to an easy flow of goods and services from one country to another (Nation, 2004). The increased volume of used clothing items entering Kenya through the legalization of imports has led to the closure of local textiles firms that produced cheap fabric for local consumption (Adec, 1998; Barasa, 2001). This concurs with (Porter, 2004) that political force both at home and abroad are significant determinants for any organization to flourish and succeed.

Further, Apunda (2002) found out that cheap imports from overseas countries are manufactured in countries South East Asia which enjoy economies of scale since textile production in these countries is in massive forms. They are therefore able to produce garments at much lower prices than garment producers in Kenya and since they access the Kenyan market through liberalization they are sold at cheaper prices compared to the locally made dressmakers products (Ikiara and Ndirangu, 2003).

Nyongesa (2005) also had similar sentiments that the Kenyan textile industry has been greatly affected by the surge in imports of both new and second hand clothes in the 1980's and this has since affected the local dressmaking entrepreneurs' exposing them to stiff competition that has made it difficult for them to respond to the competitive disequilibria (Wambugu, 2002).

5.2.4 The global technological equipment development and diversity of the fashion designs

From the study findings the majority (45%) of the dressmakers use domestic hand sewing machines. This is not a good scenario in the face of the local fashion industry that aims at producing to meet the international standards in terms of design and construction of high quality and well finished fashion products in order to compete

fairly with the offshore counterparts. This concurs with (Vlok, 2006) that developing nation's level of technology advancement and investment in capital has been relatively slow and low as compared to developed nations for instance China republic. The textile industry has not been able to adjust fully to challenges of greater import competition due to trade liberalization and arising from China and other western countries that enjoy the use of superior technological equipments (Vlok, 2006).

The study findings also contradicts Porter (2004) who asserts that technological changes create new products, services and in some cases entire new industries. Technology can also change the way the society behaves and what society expects. Therefore local dressmakers who have not exploited the latest technology in their enterprises are not in a position to produce to the enlightened market.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Introduction

This chapter addresses conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the study.

6.1 Conclusions

- i. Global promotion and sales activities such as displays and online marketing has enabled the dressmakers to increase the volume of their sales in the global scene as this enables both local and international consumers informed of the latest fashion designs.
- ii. The trade developments between countries such as, trade organizations for instance EAC, WTO have enabled local dressmakers import fabrics and other textile materials from overseas countries a clear indication that the economic environment has enabled consumers to advance on their fashion designs patterns due to interaction through cross borders trading activities.
- iii. The political forces and trade agreements between the Kenyan government and other regions have posed major changes to the growth of the local dressmakers as this has enabled for instance the entry of cheap second hand clothing items that unfairly compete in the local market as they are more appealing, of diverse designs and of greater quality than those produced. The local dressmakers mostly use the domestic hand sewing machines and this is not a good scenario in the fashion industry that aims to produce for the advanced markets with products from countries employing the latest technologies in the fashion industry.

6.2 Limitations

Response to the study questionnaires was a major limitation since some dressmakers were not willing to participate in the study claiming to be very busy however the researcher always contacted them consistent in contacting them and ensured reminders were sent to them to fill the questionnaire

6.3 Recommendations

6.3.1 Recommendations to the Dressmakers

- i. The study recommends that the dressmakers should form a strong alliance in order to stand and gather effective force to put their grievances forward to parliament and other stake holders who formulate and implement policies to address the importation of fashion goods that compete unfairly with the local dress makers' products.
- ii. Adoption of more superior marketing strategies should be adopted. This should include a complete market research to be made to acquire information about sizes and structures of the fashion market, current trends, consumer preferences, competitors, advertising effectiveness, pricing and information on how to easily penetrate through the fashion market successfully.
- iii. Dressmakers should also take vocational training classes and practice as key elements to perfect performance and productivity. Training will assist them to improve their skills and this can be done by organizing themselves into groups and inviting fashion experts from tertiary institutions and more experienced fashion designers to assist them upgrade their skills and competencies in product

quality development and innovations that will make them experts in their field in order to gain international market recognition.

6.3.2 Recommendations to the Kenyan Government

- i. The study further recommends the need for the Kenyan government to realize the importance of making loans and credit facilities available to the dressmakers who operate in the small scale sector to enable them acquire current and efficient tools, equipment and other necessary gadgets to help them improve their skills and proficiency, the quality of their products and expansion of their businesses.
- ii) It is also recommended that the government should adjust the terms and conditions of the various trade agreements they are involved in. For instance an adjustment on what is imported into the country is very crucial to save the textile industry. For instance only textile goods that are not easily produced and are needed in the country should be imported to save the local textile and clothing industry. This means some restrictions on the textile imports should be enforced.

6.3.3 Recommendation for Further Research

- i. A study should be conducted on strategic responses by dressmakers to the phase of the extended AGOA and MFA agreements.
- ii. Another area for further research is to find out the measures that can be taken by the Kenyan government to promote the growth of the local dressmakers and their products.

REFERENCES

- Apunda, E. Amondi. (2002). *Psychological and Socio-economic Factors Influencing Clothing Consumption by Employed Women in a Liberalized Market: A case of Nairobi City, Kenya*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Kenyatta University, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Barasa, L. (2001). Textiles Firm Closes Down: Tally of Fallen Companies Grows. Daily Nation, p. 3.Col. 1
- Barker, M. (1989). *Comics: Ideology, Power and Critics*, Manchester University Press, Manchester.
- Beatrice I., Olive M. and Keren M. (2012). "Business Performance of Local Apparel Traders in Nairobi's Competitive Liberalized Market", *Journal of Emerging Trends in Economics and Management Sciences (JETEMS)* 3 (1): 85-91.
- Beatrice E. and Rael C. (2012). "Lessons from Thriving Second-Hand Clothing Businesses for Kenya's Fashion Industry", *Journal of Emerging Trends in Economics and Management Sciences (JETEMS)* 3 (1): 32-37.
- Benyon J. and Dunkerley D. (2000). *Globalization: The Reader*: Routledge, New York.
- Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS), International Centre for Economic Growth (ICEG) and K- Rep Holdings Ltd., 1999. National Micro and small Enterprise Baseline Survey, CBS, ICEG and K- Rep, Nairobi.
- David, Held (1999). *Global Transformations* Cambridge: Political Press. ISBN 9780745614984138.
- Djelic, M. L., & Ainamo, A. (1999). *The Co evolution of New Organizational Forms in the Fashion Industry: A Historical and Comparative Study of France, Italy, and the United States*. (p. 622).
- Dollar, D., N.E.Wolff (1993). *Competitiveness, Convergence and International Specialization*. The MIT Press
- Dommermuth, William.P. (1984). *Promotion: Analysis, Strategy, Creativity*. Kent Pub Co.
- Eldoret Municipal Council, (2013) Business Register.
- Elie Mousalem, (2010), "The Impact of Globalization on the International Terms of Trade", *Journal of Global Fashion Marketing*. 182-188.
- Fafowora, O. O. (1998). "Management Imperatives of Globalization", *Management in Nigeria: Journal of Nigerian Institute of Management* vol. 34, Nos 2-4April-December, pp. 5-9

- Frankfort –Nachmias & Leone Guererro, (2006). *Social Statistics for a Diverse Society*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.
- Fukunishi, Takahiro, (2012). *The Kenyan Garment Industry; Is it Able to Receive in the Economic Boom? Dynamics of the Garment Industry in the Low Income Countries: Experience of Asia and Africa (Interim Report)*. Chousakenkyu Houkokusho, IDE-JETRO, 2012.
- Fukunishi, Takahiro (2009). “Has Low Productivity Constrained the Competitiveness of African Firms? A comparison of Kenya and Bangladeshi Garment Firms,” *Developing Economies*, vol.47.No.3 pp307-339
- Gable, R.K. & Wolf, M. (1993), *Instrument development in the affective domain (2nd Edition)*. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston/Dordrecht/London
- Gliem, J.A. & Gliem, R.R. (2003), *Calculating, Interpreting, and Reporting Cronbach's's Alpha Reliability Coefficient for Likert-Type Scales*. Paper presented at the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH, October 8-10, 2003.
- GOK, Central Bureau of Statistics. (1999). *Economic Survey*, Nairobi.
- Hatsopoulos, G., P. Krugman. L. Summers, (1998), *U.S. Competitiveness: Beyond the Trade Deficit*, *Science*, 241, 299-301.
- Henry, G. T. (1995) *Graphing Data: Techniques for Display and Analysis*, Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.
- Hickman, B. G., (1992), “International Productivity and Competitiveness an Overview”, in Hickman ed., *International Productivity and competitiveness*, Oxford University Press (New York).
- Hussey, J. & Hussey, R. (1997), *Business Research Method*, McMillan Press Ltd.
- International Monetary Fund. (2000). ‘Globalization: Threats or opportunity’. 12th April, 2000:IMF Publications.
- Jarnow, J. and Dickerson. K. G. (1997). *Inside the fashion Business*, (6th Edition), Prentice Hall., U.S.A.
- Jones and Ruffin (2005) detail the conditions for the different outcomes, when analysing the international transfer of technology in a Ricardian model.
- Jones, L. (1998). *Fashion Victims, Together We Can Clean Up The Clothes Trade*. CA-FOD, UK.
- Kaiser, S. (1999). *Identity, Post modernity, and the Global Apparel Marketplace*. New York: Fairchild

- Kowaluk Russel.(1998) "Stability Prevails in the Garment Industry". Statistics Canada. Catalogue No. 34-252-XIE, 1998.
- Kotler, P. (2000), Marketing Management. New Jersey, Prentice Hall, Inc
- Krugman, P.R. (1986). 'Competitiveness: Does it matter?', Fortune, 129(5): 109–115.
- Madeng O.J.(1999). "International Competitiveness and Specialization" CEPAL Review, No. 45. December, 39-52
- Mangieri, T. (2006), African Cloth, Export Production, and Second hand Clothing in Kenya, Unpublished Paper, Department of Geography University of North Carolina Chapel Hill, Saunders Hall, Chapel Hill, NC 27599 USA
- Mark S., Philip L. and Adrian T., (2003), Research Methods for Business Students (3rd ed.) England, Prentice Hall.
- Markusen, James R., (1992), Productivity, Competitiveness, Trade Performance and Real Income: The Nexus Among Four Concepts. Minister of Supply Services, Canada.
- Marx, K., (1977). Selected Writings, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Moses M. Ikiara & Lydia K. Ndirangu of KIPPRA (Jan 2003), developing a Revival Strategy for Kenya's Cotton-Textile Industry: A Value Chain Approach.
- Nassiuma B. K., (2002), *Micro Finance Interventions: The Trade Development Joint Loan Board Scheme in Kenya*.
- Nicokid, (2007). Impacts of Globalization; International Economics Global and Ethic Markets. Retrieved from studymode.com on 23/06/2015
- Njoki, C. (2013, July 12), Fashion trends in Kenya: The long and short of it. *Daily Nation*, p.2 DN2
- Nyang'or, E. A. (1994). *Factors Influencing Consumer's Selection of Imported over Local Clothing among Working Women in Nairobi, Kenya*.
- Nyawira C. I. (2009). *Strategic Responses by Fashion Designers in Kenya to the Influence of Globalization: Case of Jossy Designers*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. University of Nairobi.
- O'Shaughnessy, N.J. (1996), "Michael Porter's competitive advantage revisited", *Management Decision*, Vol. 34 No.6, pp.12-20.
- Porter, M.E. (1980). Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analyzing Industries and Competitors. New York: Free Press.

- Porter, M.E. (1986). Competition in global industries: A conceptual framework. In M.E. Porter (Ed.), *Competition in global industries*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Porter, M.E. (1990a). *The Competitive Advantage of Nations*. New York: Free Press, MacMillan.
- Porter, M.E. (1990b). 'Why nations triumph', *Fortune*, 12 March: 94.
- Porter, M.E. 1997b. 'Location, knowledge creation and competitiveness', In Monisha, D. (ed.), *Proceedings of Academy of Management Symposium on Knowledge Capitalism: Competitiveness Re-evaluated*. Boston, MA.
- Porter, M.E. (1998a). *Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance*, with a new introduction. New York: Free Press.
- Porter, M.E. 1998c. *The Competitive Advantage of Nations*. New York: Free Press, MacMillan.
- Porter, M.E. (1999). 'Michael Porter on competition', *Antitrust Bulletin*, 44(4): 841–880.
- Porter, M.E. (2000). 'Location, competition, and economic development: local clusters in a global economy', *Economic Development Quarterly*, 14(1): 15–35.
- Porter, M.E. (2003). 'The economic performance of regions', *Regional Studies*, 37: 549–578.
- Porter, M.E. (2004). 'Building the microeconomic foundations of prosperity: findings from the business competitiveness index', In Sala-i-Martin, X. (ed.), *The Global Competitiveness Report 2003–2004*. Oxford University Press: New York.
- Rasiah, R. (2009), "Garment manufacturing in Cambodia and Laos", *Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy*, Vol. 14 No.2, pp.150-61.
- Said, E., (1985). *Orientalism: Western Concepts of the Orient*, Harmondsworth, Penguin.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2007), *Research Methods for Business Students* (4th ed.). Harlow: Prentice Hall Financial Times
- Sakakibara, M., Porter, M.E. (2000), "Competing at home to win abroad: evidence from Japanese industry", *Review of Economics and Statistics*, Vol. 53 No.2, pp.310-22.
- Sledge, S. (2005), "Does Porter's diamond hold in the global automotive industry?", *Advances in Competitive Research*, Vol. 13 No.1, pp.22-32.

- Salwen, M. B. (1991) 'Cultural imperialism: a media effects approach', *Critical Studies in Mass Communication*, 8: 29-38.
- Salvatore, D. (2002). *International Economics*, 3rd edition. New York: Macmillan.
- Sandu, Cuturela (2009). "Dimensiunea Culturala a Globalizarii", Congress A.R.A., Sibiu, Romania 140.
- Siggel, E. (2006). 'International competitiveness and comparative advantage: a survey and a proposal for measurement', *Journal of Industrial Trade and competition*, 6: 63–66
- Sledge, S. (2005), "Does Porter's diamond hold in the global automotive industry?", *Advances in Competitive Research*, Vol. 13 No.1, pp.22-32.
- Teece, D.J. (1996). 'Firm organization, industrial structure, and technological innovation', *Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization*, 31(2): 193.
- Teunter. (2002). "Analysis of Sales Promotion Effects on Household Purchase Behavior" ERIM Ph.D. Series Research in Management. Erasmus University Rotterdam
- Thomas, Larson. (2001). *The Race to the Top: The Real Story of Globalization* Washington, D.C.: Cato institute.p.9.ISBN 978-1930865150.
- Tomlinson, J., (1993). *Cultural Imperialism: A Critical Introduction*, Pinter, London.
- Tomlinson, J. (2003). *Globalization and Cultural Identity*. (p. 273). Retrieved from <http://www.polity.co.uk/global/pdf/gtreader2etomlinson.pdf>
- Uche, O. (2007), *Luxury Fashion Branding: Trends, Tactics and Techniques*. Palgrave Macmillan. New York.
- United Nation, 1993. *World Investment Report*, New York; UNCTC
- United Nations, (2003) *International Trade Statistics Yearbook*. Vol. 2: Trade by Country (United Nations, New York).
- Vlok, E., 2006. "The textile and clothing industry in South Africa" in Jauch, H. and Traub-Merz, (eds). *The future of the textile and clothing industry in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung, Bonn, <http://library.fes.de>.
- Zwane, P., Richarda, L. and Edmond, M. (2002), "Apparel Production in Swaziland: The Need for Industrial Education" *Journal for Clothing and Textile Research*, 20 (4): 256-281.

APPENDICES

Appendix i Questionnaires for Dressmakers

CBD

OUTSIDE

Title of the study “Globalization and Dressmakers Competitiveness in the Women Fashion Designs in Eldoret Town, Kenya”

Study undertaken by Onkoba Moureen Kerubo. She is a student at the University of Eldoret undertaking a Masters program in the School of Business and Management Sciences. This study is a partial fulfillment for the award of the degree. Your contribution towards the success of this study will be highly appreciated and your views will be used for research purposes only.

Instructions to respondents

- a) Please take time to fill this questionnaire with appropriate responses in the spaces provided. Use a tick (✓) or a (X) for your answer in the spaces provided.
- b) Where you feel more than one answer is correct, please tick against the appropriate boxes.
- c) DO NOT indicate your name anywhere in this questionnaire.

Section A: Background information of the enterprise

1. What is your gender?

a) Male ()

b) Female ()

2. In which year were you born? _____

3. What is your highest education level? (*Tick as appropriate*)

- a) Primary
- b) Secondary
- c) College
- d) University

4. Which professional skills do you possess?

- a) Apprenticeship/certificate
- b) Diploma level
- c) Higher diploma
- d) Degree

Any other (specify) _____

4. What is your business experience in dressmaking designs?

5. What is the business category of your dressmaking enterprise?

- a) Large trader shop
- b) Medium trader shop
- c) Small trader shop
- d) Kiosk

6. Who finances your enterprise? (*tick as appropriate*)

Source	Start up	Now	Future
Own accumulated savings			
Own accumulated and family support			
Own savings and loans			
Own savings, family support and loans			

Boots strapping			
Any other (specify)			

7. From which of the following business categories does your enterprise belong?

- a) Sole proprietorship ()
- b) Partnership ()
- c) Joint partnership ()
- d) Corporation ()

Section B: Relationship between global promotion and sales activities and consumer preferences.

1. How do you market you products? (Rank the following marketing strategies used by your business. Use 1-10 and 1 represents the strategy that you regularly use and as it gets to 10 strategies that are rarely used)

Strategy	Rank
On-line advertising	
Displays	
Exhibitions and trade fares	
Fashion shows	
Word of mouth	
Personal selling	
Mass media	
Other customers	
Any other, specify please.	

-------	--

2. What is the main source of your idea on fashion designs? Please rank each of the factors indicated below starting with the most important as 1 next important 2 till the end of the list.

Source	Rank
Internet such as websites	
Fashion media like magazines, television etc.	
From customers	
Copy from others	
Own innovations and creativity	
Friends and family	
Any other specify please. _____	

3. Identify five items that differentiate your business from your global competitors?

- a) _____
- b) _____
- c) _____
- d) _____
- e) _____

Section C: Relationship between Global Economic Environment and growth of consumer patterns on fashion designs.

1. What type of textiles and fashion goods do you produce? *Tick more than one product.*

- Custom made garment suits only. ()
- Custom made suits and tie and dye garments . ()
- Tie and dye and printed garments. ()
- Custom made suits and printed garments. ()

Any other (specify) _____

2. Rank the following strategies in order of preference as used in your business.
(Use 1-10 and 1 represents the strategy that your business use most as the rank gets to 5 strategies that you rarely use).

Growth Strategy	Rank
Innovation	
Product differentiation	
Acquisition	
Going global	
Diversification	
Integrative strategy	
Intensive growth	
Market focus	
Cost leadership	

3. Rank the following key factors which influence the designs you come up with starting with the most important as 1 next important 2 till the end of the list.

Influence of designs	Rank
Changes in consumer tastes and preferences	

Cultural revolution and diversity	
The level of exposure you have undergone	
Personal income of the client	
Status of the client in the society	

4. Rank the following economic challenges listed below in order of severity to your business. Start with the most severe as 1 the next 2 till the end of the list.

Economic challenges	Rank
Lack of finances and credit to acquire modern machinery	
Low levels and irregular income	
High income taxes, high utility bills and rent	
Lack of markets to your products	
Competition from cheap imports “mitumba”	
The number of people that work on your enterprise	
Taxation	
High rates of rent	
Lack of managerial skills	
Limited market/scope/coverage	
Competition from other enterprises	
Electricity and infrastructure	
Sources of raw materials	
Harassments from the municipal council	
Lack of modern knowledge and skills in the use of clothing construction techniques such as seam finishing.	

Section D. Relationship between global political and legal forces and access to new fashion designs

1. Rank the challenges listed in order of importance with respect to the effect on your business. Start with the most severe challenge as 1 next severe as 2 till the end of the list.

Political Challenges	Rank
Political and legal forces such as taxation	
Opening of Kenyan borders for imports such as fabrics and second hand clothing	
Liberalization of the world markets	
Labor laws	
State of security in the country	
Business Unions/organizations	
Economic forces like licensing	
Kenyan government entry into trade blocs like EAC	
The state of the world economy	

Section E. The global technological and equipment development and diversity of fashion designs.

2. Which type of equipment do you use in your business?
- Industrial sewing machines ()
 - Industrial and domestic sewing electrical machines ()

• Domestic electrical and hand sewing machines

• Domestic hand sewing machines only

Any other (specify) _____

3. Where do you source the fabrics for use in your enterprise?

• From local manufacturers

• Imported

4. a) List five measures you should put in place to be competitive.

b) What measures should the government put in place to improve your business?

Any other comment please not included in the questionnaire?

APPENDIX ii RESEARCH PERMIT

**NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,
TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION**

Telephone: +254-20-2213471,
2241349, 310571, 2219420
Fax: +254-20-318245, 318249
Email: secretary@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying please quote

9th Floor, Utalii House
Uhuru Highway
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref: No.

Date:

7th October, 2015

NACOSTI/P/15/0895/7843

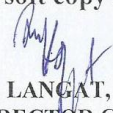
Onkoba Moureen Kerubo
University of Eldoret
P.O. Box 1125-30100
ELDORET.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on *“Globalization and competitiveness on the growth of women fashion designs in Eldoret Town, Kenya”* I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Uasin Gishu County** for a period ending **1st October, 2016.**

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Uasin Gishu County** before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.


DR. S. K. LANGAT, OGW
FOR: DIRECTOR GENERAL/CEO

Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Uasin Gishu County.

The County Director of Education
Uasin Gishu County.

