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Editorial

Nkumba Business Journal consider business from a multidisciplinary perspective. Volume 18 carries articles on a variety of topics in categories of business, higher education management, public policy, social development and religion.

Business. Article by Sserwambala and Mwirutubi explored the relationship between financial intermediaries and financial institutions in Uganda. They concluded that this relationship is very important. The research by Rukanyangira, Mawa and Mande confirmed that quality of products contributed significantly to the competitiveness of a firm, especially in a manufacturing sector in Uganda. The theme of decentralisation public policy was analysed by Muzoora. In the paper by Nandala, it is pointed out that pricing works of art was still weak in Uganda.

Education Management. Mande's paper on corporate governance and sustainability of universities in Anglican Church of Uganda urged the concerned parties to consider adopting the consortium approach. A better pricing model is proposed for adoption by Ugandan fine and commercial artists. The photography pedagogy was analysed by Nsamba and Yiga. Joyce Bukirwa, in her paper, highlights the concept of formative assessment at universities in Uganda. The paper urges universities to improve assessment for purposes of learning. In the paper by Serunjogi and Mande the contribution of management development to quality in primary education was analysed. It was concluded that such programmes were good but needed to be improved upon.

Social Development. In the area of social development Mande argued for the adoption of a communitarian servership ethic in the control of HIV/AIDs especially among the youth. In the same broad area, Kato and colleagues explored the influence of overcrowding on change of

sexual behaviour among inmates in Uganda. This study recommended allowance of conjugal space to inmates if they are keep the sexual behaviour that is accepted by their communities. In Kateete, Yiga and Schawelka the importance of the image of Virgin Mary for a local Christian community was described in meticulous details.

I invite all those interested in researched analysis to read the papers contained herein.

Wilson Muyinda Mande
Editor

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FINANCIAL INTERMEDIATION AND FINANCIAL INCLUSION IN UGANDA

Lawrence Sserwambala and Richard Mwirumubi,

Abstract

The study analyzed the relationship between financial intermediation and financial inclusion in two Ugandan town councils, namely, Wakiso and Kiboga Town Councils. The study was necessitated by increasing efforts of financial intermediation by various actors although the number of people who are excluded in the usage of financial services has reduced.

*Mixed methods were used in conducting this study that was guided by the theories of financial intermediation. In order to make sense of the expectations and perceptions of the participants, both research questions and hypotheses were used, which provided a platform to understand the meaning that people attach to the experiences gained in relation to the advanced theories of financial inclusion. With a targeted population of 9,880 potential respondents, a sample size of 384 was computed using purposive and simple random sampling. The results from the hypothesis test sought to determine whether there is a relationship between financial intermediation and financial inclusion which showed that, there is a significant and positive relationship between the financial intermediation and the Financial Inclusion ($r = .381^{**}$, $p < .01$). These results show that the greater the capacity of the institution to deliver financial services, the greater the number of persons that will be served by the financial services of the institution and hence, higher levels of inclusion. If a financial institution opens up more branches in an area that was not previously served, the possibility of bank customers that have not prior been served by financial intermediaries to access these financial services will greatly increase. Furthermore, the increase in the volume of the services that are offered in an area would mean that the people who have access to the financial services have a greater level of satisfaction of the financial services, hence supporting hypothesis (H_1) which states that there is a positive significant relationship between financial intermediation and financial inclusion.*

Introduction

This study focused on the relationship between financial intermediation and financial inclusion in Uganda with Kiboga Town Council in Kiboga District, and Wakiso Town Council in Wakiso district as case studies. These

two areas of study were chosen to help cast a picture into how financial intermediation can impact on financial inclusion. Besides, the two areas share a common characteristic namely, the high levels of mobility which greatly affects the confidence that is pivotal in the continued usage of financial services. The two areas have equally a high volume of usage of informal financial services compared to the formal ones. It is for this purpose that the study was limited to formal financial intermediaries that are regulated by the Bank of Uganda. Those financial institutions that fall under Tiers I-III include Commercial Banks, Credit Institutions and Micro-Finance Deposit-Taking Institutions. Non-financial intermediaries are regulated by their Apex Organizations such as Insurance Firms among others.

Uganda has witnessed a rapid and significant growth in financial services development characterized by increased growth in the number of financial intermediaries over time. The services have moved closer to people with more access points available and with the advance of technology, challenges associated with distances to service points have been minimally low. This has been attributed to structural and individual challenges. The World Bank, (2013) notes that some groups are more financially excluded than others: Women, rural poor, and other remote or hard-to-reach populations, as well as informal micro and small firms are most affected. For example, the gender gap in developing countries is estimated at 9 percentage points: 59% of men reported having an account in 2014, compared to 50% of women, World Bank, (2011). Various studies conducted in Uganda point to a fact that there are bottlenecks experienced by people seeking commercial services especially the women's access to loans from financial banks (Karuhanga-Beraho 2002; Namunyoro 2000; Synder 2000). Kakuru (2008), while studying small and micro enterprises in Uganda also found out that there are many systematic cultural, social and legal impediments that give an advantage to men to access higher level credit than women yet Synder (2000) found that women are more faithful in paying back their loans compared to men. This phenomenon may largely be attributed to cultural values inculcated in men and women through socialization.

Lack of self esteem and shyness have been found to be problems women encounter in mixed gender negotiations and have been perceived by both men and women as key stumbling blocks during the negotiation process

(Kibanja and Munene 2009). The money lenders have exploited this scenario by reaching out to the many people that are not able to access financial inclusion services by not only seeking to extend credit to them but also taking advantage of their ignorance with promises of opening accounts for them. In many other instances, the majority of these people are restricted to group lending as it has remained the only alternative to structural challenges to accessing financial services.

Statement of the Problem.

The Financial Intermediation sector in Uganda as a country has been liberalized and is characterized by many financial institutions from the Local to the National levels with an intention of reaching out to so many people so that the socio-economic well being of these targeted people is improved through their inclusion. However, the usage of financial services in the country is still low. While 54% of Ugandans are served, an overwhelming 46% of Ugandans do not have access to either formal bank or non-bank formal services with the majority of these in the upcountry (Finscope, 2013). Financial access is still very low in rural areas at 35% compared to 48% in the urban areas whereby the percentage of the population able to access only 20% of Tier 1 of commercial banks, Tier 2 of credit Institutions and Tier 3 of Microfinance Deposit Taking Institutions (Finscope, 2013). This therefore means that, 28% of the population uses informal means to access finances such as money lenders, Rotating Savings and Credit Associations, Village Savings and Lending Associations, investment clubs, and other welfare funds while 52% is totally excluded. The latter is characterized by saving in secret places, shops, or friends as well as borrowing from family friends. This therefore suggests that more than 12 million adults in rural areas do not have access to financial services, (BOU 2013).

The trend analyses of financial institution size and depth of these financial institutions points to an upward trend meaning that there has been more investment in ensuring that services are moved closer to people in the areas of study. An even more depth in-look into the ease to access financial services similarly shows that over the period of five years, both Wakiso and Kiboga Town Councils experienced a 4 percent reduction in the ease of access to financial services from 44% in 2009 to 40% in 2013 for Wakiso and 34% in 2009 to 33.7% in 2013 for Kiboga town council. This situation is even

worsened by the fact that usage of financial services in Wakiso Town Council equally reduced by 3 percent from 38% in 2009 to 35% in 2013 while Kiboga town council recorded a 4 percent reduction in the same aspect from 29% in 2009 to 25% in 2013.

Table 1: Trend analysis of the problem

Attribute	2009		2010		2011		2012		2013		
Independent variable (Numbers)											
Area of study	WK	KB	WK	KB	WK	KB	WK	KB	WK	KB	
Financial Institution size (Nos)	8	2	10	2	14	5	14	5	19	8	
Financial depth (Private credit: GDP)	22	5	19	5	25	10	31	12	39	11	
Dependent variable (%)											
Area of study	WK	KB	WK	KB	WK	KB	WK	KB	WK	KB	
Ease to access financial services	44	34	46.5	35	45	33	42	33	40	33.7	
Financial services usage	38	29	44.4	29	37	32	35.8	30	35	25	

Key: WK = Wakiso : KB = Kiboga

Source: Kiboga and Wakiso Town councils excerpts, 2012

Given the nature of the communities where the above trend is observed, there is a high level of inter-dependence on each other for information, financial advice and guidance regarding potential investment opportunities meaning that the people in these communities have a significant influence

on each other given the strong social ties. Alarming, even with the same social circles where some of these unbanked people live, there are instances of a very sharp rift between those that are financially able to access services and those that do not even know of their existence. This study therefore tried to investigate why financial inclusion levels are still low despite the existence of a number of financial intermediaries in Uganda considering Wakiso and Kiboga as case studies since they offer a representative and very realistic comparison between urban and rural inclusion.

Objective

The objective of the study was to examine the relationship between financial intermediation and financial inclusion and how this relationship promotes access and usage of financial services with a view of achieving an increased financial inclusion portfolio especially among the non-financial services users.

Literature Review and Hypothesis:

Financial Intermediation and Financial Inclusion

Many financial intermediation scholars such as Mishkin (2007) have come to believe and concur that, information asymmetry is the greatest hindrance to a good and proper functional system. Information asymmetry has been defined by Akerlof, (1970) as a moment where one of the parties to a financial contract has a competitive edge in terms of accuracy of information than the other party does. Christozov et al (2009) noted that intermediaries like banks use their edge in terms of information that cannot be accessed by the clients, and frictions such as transaction costs such as borrowing and monitoring performance to overcome the information problem.

Scholars such as Leland & Pyle (1977) have gone ahead to stress the role of information asymmetry. They therefore believe that, one of the basic ways through which an intermediary shows off its status of being informed is by investing its wealth where it has special information and knowledge. It is also a perceived view by some scholars such as Diamond (1984) that banks act as delegated monitors of clients who are not privy to information. In his argument, he said that since monitoring is costly, it is efficient to delegate the task to a specialised agent, the bank.

Diamond (1984), also argues that the intermediary “monitors” borrowers on behalf of investors who lend to the intermediary. This therefore appears to suggest that the intermediary has to equally be monitored by its lenders, which raised the famous “who monitors the monitor?” which he solved by reasoning that the borrowers must be monitored by an intermediary because there is an ex post information asymmetry in that the lenders do not know how much the firm has produced.

Many traditional models such as the Arrow-Debreu model of 1954 of resource allocation stressed the fact that financial intermediaries did not have a role to play simply because firms and households interact through markets. This assertion was based on the assumption that the markets that provide a platform of interaction which is perfect and complete thus if one were to be better, the other would be worse off. In contrast to this, the Modigliani and Miller theorem supposes that regardless of the financial structure, households and firms can construct portfolios which may be taken by an intermediary (Fama, 1980).

There is strong evidence to the effect that intermediaries such as banks amass huge sums of resources and acquire information that enables them to allocate capital to its highest valued use, thereby improving and raising the average return to capital (Arestis et al., 2001; Wachtel, 2001). Marquis (2001) observed that a bank’s effort to pool savings and lend money is largely dependent on its ability, capacity, and coverage in the market in order to attract deposits, which are the liabilities of the bank. This certainly explains why a number of banks in Uganda which have closed shop have become victim of closure because of their inadequacy in market coverage and subsequently failure to attract deposits. The deposits from the clients are used to lend money to borrowers above the cost paid on these deposits, (Wachtel, 2001). In order for this to happen though, the intermediary should be able to break even per transaction through earning a sufficient return above the borrowing cost of such a transaction Siklos (2001).

Intermediaries equally provide market participants with information necessary to enable them make decisions about how much to save or borrow and when. These intermediaries as a trend compete for deposits from the clients by among others increasing rates on deposits, corporate social responsibility, giving incentives to savers, and shouldering the burden of risk

of financial investment on top of competitively high interest rates (Siklos, 2001). This means that the existence of such intermediaries is basically because information asymmetry and transaction costs which are a result of imperfections and incompleteness in the market between the lenders and borrowers, and other players, (Rau, 2004).

One of the ways through which intermediaries curtail transaction costs is through enabling trade by acquiring information from lenders and borrowers. From the lenders, information may be in regard to how much is available and the potential profitable investment ventures (Heffernan, 2005) while from the borrowers, how much is required, at what rate, where, when and how to invest to enable lending in the market and an inter-linkage between lenders and borrowers, (Babbel and Santomero, 1996).

The earlier theories of development concentrated on labour, capital, institutions etc. as the factors for growth and development. The leading works hardly included finance as a factor for growth. Since then there has been ample research analyzing how financial systems help in developing the economies. A broad agreement exists among economists that financial development prompts economic growth. Financial system development indeed has a say to economic growth (Rajan and Zingales, 2000). Time and again empirical evidence has emphasized the relationship between finance and growth. According to the works of King and Levine (1993) and Levine and Zervos (1998), at the cross-country level, evidence suggests that measures of financial development are vigorously and confidently related to economic growth.

Other studies have also established affirmative association between financial development and growth. It is indeed irrefutable that considerable part of the differences in long run economic growth across countries can be elucidated by disparity in their financial development (Rajan and Zingales, 1998). Beck, et al (2006) use Rajan and Zingales (1998) approach, which provides supplementary evidence that financial development increasingly props up the growth of smaller firms which constitute largely the priority sector lending in the case of Indian Financial sector. Recent survey evidence suggests that access to finance has a direct nexus with that of innovation. Cross-country findings evidence points to the fact that finance promotes growth through increase in productivity, (Demirguc-Kunt, 2007). Further, it

has also been revealed that financial development plays a significant role in moderating the impact of external shocks on the domestic economy (Beck, et al, 2006).

Besides the debate concerning the role of finance in economic development, economists such as Demirguc-Kunt & Levine, (2001) have also debated the relative importance of bank-based and market-based financial systems for a long time. Joseph Schumpeter argued that banks assume a crucial role in economic development. According to this perspective, the banking sector causes transformation in the path of economic progress by soothing the allocation of savings and of course not necessarily by altering the saving rate. Largely, the Schumpeterian view of finance and development highlights the impact of banks on productivity and growth (Schumpeter, 1934).

The banking sector can wield a positive influence on the overall economy, and hence is of broad macroeconomic importance Jaffe and Levonian (2001); Rajan and Zingales (1998). It is established that better developed banks and markets are closely associated with faster growth Christopoulos and Tsionas, (2004). Improved functioning of banks can be able to boost resource allocation and hasten growth (Levine & Zervous, 1998). Correspondingly, by aiding risk management, improving the liquidity of assets available to savers, and by lowering trading costs; banks can enliven investment in potential economic activities (Greenwood and Smith, 1997). Banks do exercise significant and causal impact on productivity and growth, which contributes to overall GDP growth. It is also ascertained by some researchers that the size of the banking sector can be safely considered a good predictor for future growth, especially when focusing on long term projects (Vaona, 2005). The research so far has not only looked at how finance facilitates economic activity but also social aspects like poverty, hunger and so on.

Development economists and states have often been for a long time interested in the relationship between financial development and economic growth especially in the period which is known as the era of the Washington Consensus. A growing GDP is an evidence of a society getting its collective act together for progress meaning that every member of that society is involved or included and plays a significant role. As its economy grows, a society becomes more strongly organised, more compactly interwoven

pointing to strength in structures. Growth is good, sustained high growth is better and sustained high growth with inclusiveness is best of all. Inclusive growth in the economy can only be achieved when all the weaker sections of the society including agriculture and small scale industries are nurtured and brought on par with other sections of the society in terms of economic development (Boot and Thakor, 1993).

The major development challenge is to make financial growth inclusive. Policies for inclusive financial growth are vital components of majority of government strategies for sustainable growth. Inclusiveness is an essential ingredient of any successful growth strategy (CGD, 2008). The three pillars of inclusive growth as highlighted by Ifzal (2007) are (i) Maximizing economic opportunities (ii) Ensuring economic well-being and (iii) Ensuring equal and inclusive opportunities to economic opportunities. A financially inclusive growth strategy encompasses the key elements of an effective poverty reduction strategy and, more importantly, expands the development agenda. Developing inclusive financial systems which are financially and socially sustainable, as a poverty reduction strategy should be given priority, (Bhandari, 2009). Beck, Demirguc-Kunt and Levine (2007) have noticed a positive effect of finance on poverty reduction. Economies with higher levels of financial development experience faster reduction of poverty. This has been explained by an extensive body of literature including White and Anderson (2001) and Bourguignon (2003).

In an often cited cross-country study, Kraay (2004) proves that growth in average incomes explains 70 percent of the variation in poverty reduction in the short run, and as much as 97 percent in the long run. Lopez and Servén (2004) suggest that for a given inequality intensity, the poorer the country is, the more vital is the growth component in explaining poverty reduction. Thus, equitable growth is indeed an imperative for inclusive growth.

The importance of financial inclusion arises from the problem of financial exclusion of nearly 3 billion people from the formal financial services across the world (De-Luna, 2017). The review of literature points to the fact that the most functional definitions are context-specific and originate from country-specific problems of financial exclusion and related socio-economic conditions. Thus, over a period, various definitions of financial inclusion/exclusion have developed. However, there is no universally

accepted definition on financial inclusion. Financial inclusion has commonly been well-defined in terms of financial exclusion since measuring it is perceived to be difficult. Financial exclusion is a complex concept and the issues needed to be pondered include; distinction between access and usage, degree of exclusion and whether individual or family is excluded.

According to the World Bank (2005) financial exclusion includes four key areas; Transaction banking, Savings, Credit and Insurance. Broadly, financial exclusion can be broadly defined as the inability to access basic financial services owing to complications accompanying with access, conditions, prices, marketing or self-exclusion in response to unfavorable experiences or perceptions of individuals or entities. The sections that are generally excluded are; marginal farmers, landless labourers, unorganized sectors, urban slum dwellers, migrants, ethnic minorities, women, and rural households with no fixed income.

Efforts that have been put in place as a means of enhancing financial inclusion have been met by various challenges such too detailed documenting procedures that require proof of identity and address, high charges and penalties among defaulters, generic products that do not meet the needs of the majority especially those that are excluded financially. There is no single over-riding factor that could explain financial exclusion. It includes a variety of factors, some of which could equally be context specific (World Bank, 2005). The supply side barriers pose bigger impediments in the process of financial inclusion. Some of the significant causes of comparatively low expansion of institutional credit in the rural areas can be risk perception, high transaction costs, lack of infrastructure, difficult terrains and low density of population, Beck et al (2007).

Another noticeable factor is the perception among bankers that a large number of rural population is un-bankable as its capacity to save is limited, needs small loans and earns low margins in handling small transactions. Also, non-availability of Know Your Customer (KYC) requirements such as documentary proof of identity and address can be one amongst the barriers in having a bank account particularly for migrants and slum dwellers (World Bank, 2005). Further, unsuitability of products and services that are offered to the rural people are not tailor- made for example, most of their credit needs are in form of small lump sums and banks are reluctant to give small

amounts of loan at frequent intervals. Consequently, they resort to borrowing money from moneylenders at exorbitant rates (African Development Bank, 2007). The poor market linkage or penetration of service providers also constitutes the major factors of financial exclusion compounded by biased perceptions among the bankers that the rural areas have poor repayment record.

Global literature explains financial exclusion also in the context of a larger issue of social exclusion of weaker sections of the society. While Leyshon and Thrift (1995) explain financial exclusion as such processes those aid to prevent some social groups and individuals from getting access to the formal financial system, Carbo et al. (2005) and Conroy (2005) opine that it is a state of inability of some poor and disadvantaged societal groups to access the financial system. Mohan (2006) reasons that financial exclusion implies the lack of access by some segments of the society to suitable, low-cost, fair and secure financial products and services from mainstream providers. From the above reasoning, it can be an indication that financial exclusion occurs mostly to people who are from the disadvantaged sections of the society.

On the demand side, persons are dissuaded from accessing and utilizing transaction banking services for a range of psychological and cultural reasons. Elderly people in rural areas who are part of a 'cash only' generation, migrants and low income people perceive banking as only being appropriate for people who are better off than they are and fear losing control of their money if they cease to deal only in cash, Mohan (2006).

One more issue of interest is whether low level of financial inclusion is associated with high income inequality, Kempson et al., (2004). Beck et al. (2007) have examined financial sector outreach and its factors by employing cross country data. Even in the developed economies too, studies have revealed that the exclusion from the financial system occurs to low-income groups, the ethnic minorities, immigrants and others Barr, (2004); Kempson and Whyley, (1998); Connolly and Hajaj, (2001). Studies by Leyshon and Thrift, (1995) and Kempson and Whyley (2001) highlight that the geographical factor that people living in rural areas and in locations that are remote from financial centres are more likely to be financially excluded.

This meant therefore that the levels of financial inclusion inevitably rise in response to both prosperity and declining inequalities. Another factor that can be related with financial exclusion is employment, Goodwin et al., (2000). Recent evidence also suggests that the continued payment of social security benefits and the State pension in cash is significantly related to financial exclusion Kempson and Whyley, (1999). Though informal sector accounts for a substantial share of employment in several less developed countries, it does not facilitate the process of financial inclusion International Labour Organisation, (2002). Formal employment also entails inclusion and hence the proportion of formal sector employment would be a vital indicator of the degree of financial inclusion.

In the Indian context for instance, the Committee on Financial Inclusion in India, also known as the Rangarajan Committee, (2008) defines financial inclusion as the process of ensuring access to financial services and timely and adequate credit where needed by vulnerable groups such as weaker sections and low income groups at an affordable cost. The financial services include the entire gamut savings, loans, insurance, credit, payments and others. The financial system has to provide its function of transferring resources from surplus to deficit units but both deficit and surplus units are those with low incomes, poor background and other traits. By providing these services, the aim is to help them come out of poverty. Measurement of Financial Inclusion is not universally the same. Different countries adopt different indicators to measure financial inclusion using the definitional aspects of financial inclusion and exclusion and their indicators as recommended by World Bank (2014).

In the developed countries, the formal financial sector serves most of the population, whereas a large segment of the society in developing countries, mainly the low-income group, has modest access to financial services, either formally or informally. According to Peachy and Roe (2004) developed countries have experienced good levels of inclusion. However, it was reported by the African Development Bank (2007) that in the developing countries, formal financial sectors serve relatively a small segment, often not over 20-30 per cent of the population.

In Democratic republics, financial inclusion is imperative on the policies of the government to ensure equitable growth of all sections of the economy.

The rate of financial inclusion in developing countries is still low for instance in Uganda, inclusion levels are at 54% with about 50% of the bank account holders using their accounts not even once a month (BOU, 2014).

It is universally opined that the resource poor need financial assistance at reasonable costs and that too with uninterrupted pace. However, the economic liberalization policies have tempted the financial institutions to look for more and more greener pastures of business ignoring the weaker sections of the society. It is essential for any economy to aim at inclusive growth involving each and every citizen in the economic development progression.

According to CGAP (2009) report, “Banking the Poor via Government to Public Payments”, ‘promote a higher degree of financial inclusion with greater social impact’. However, Kemal, (2015) in the case study of Mobile-banking in Pakistan discovered that G2P payments promoted a lower degree of financial inclusion. He showcased this after investigating what type of mobile accounts were provided to users, as financial inclusion entails providing access to a wider array of financial services (Ehrbeck, 2010; Bold, Porteous and Rotman, 2012). Although m- banking successfully connected millions of women to the banking system. It was however noted that provision of bank accounts is not enough for the financial inclusion drive. He revealed that users were provided with ‘limited purpose accounts’ that were conduit accounts and confined to withdrawals. As these bank accounts were not fully ‘financially inclusive’, they handicapped women in executing a broader spectrum of financial transactions that inter alia include transferring funds, making savings, accessing micro- credit and insurance to instigate local economic activity.

Kemal (2015) noted that although the m-banking infrastructure permitted a front-end access to banking services, via agents, the bank-led model was restrictive in terms of cost and proximity to agents in rural areas. Thus, financial inclusion per se was rather ‘limited’ to achieve ‘progressive transformation’ within households (Avgerou, 2010). Since financial inclusion was still in the ‘infancy’ stage to transform the micro-economic landscape for the poor and marginalized communities in Pakistan, m-banking diffusion was made more real and institutionalized within households to ‘alleviate’ poverty, premised on the structuration model. So,

m-banking failed to 'structurally' transform households for participating in economic activities in order to 'eliminate' poverty.

From the same study of Kemal (2015), through Orlikowski's practice lens (2000), women user's constant engagement with technology and financial structures, helped reform financial practices within socio-economic structures. Further, as there was a steep rise in women's learning curve, as they gradually learnt how to manage their household finances independently; financial inclusion was evident at the basic social level. This was attributed to lack of formal financial education needs that ought to be included within the financial inclusion drive. Kemal noted that training was not provided as management did not have the institutional or financial capacity to offer training, meaning that, there must be an intra-organizational capacity building on understanding the dynamics of financial inclusion. Evidence from literature also suggests that mobile technologies support micro-entrepreneurial development for accessing information within socio-economic networks (Jenson, 2009; Aker, 2008).

Battacharya and Thakor (1998) have also partly listed what they regard as the key questions and puzzles for financial intermediation research. Battacharya and Thakor mention the role of financial institutions in financial innovation as the first puzzle. This evidently is a subject par excellence for analysis with concepts like delegated monitoring and others. They equally look at the economic bases for differences among financial systems across countries and through time as another critical aspect. This is a wide area of research since Gerschenkron (1962) and Goldsmith (1969), gaining topicality in view of the developments in Eastern Europe and Central Asia, and with the financial crises in Asia, Africa Latin America in mind.

The theory of financial systems, however, so far appears to ignore the poorer areas in the world illustrated by the study of Allen and Gale (2000b) which encompasses empirical description, modeling and testing of different financial systems in their relation to macroeconomic growth patterns. A profound question that has remained unanswered is whether the financial system is welfare improving, welfare destroying or neutral. The evolution of the financial markets and financial innovation, next to optimal allocation of savings, should become analytical concepts of central importance. Institutional developments and the role of governments, banking

supervision, governance of market parties, problems of “crony capitalism” are gaining analytical attention as well (Beck and Levine, 2000; Demirgüç-Kunt and Maksimovic, 1998; Japelli et al 2005; Rajan and Zingales, 2000).

The need for a deep look into the issues in banking system design is another aspect that Bhattacharya and Thakor find to be of critical importance in financial intermediation. It looks at primarily the optimal size of banks whether bank mergers are beneficial to welfare. These issues, including those of competition between banks and other financial institutions and the question of whether some countries are overbanked, need an industrial economics and a product innovation or market development approach as well.

In general, the optimal scale found in most studies is much smaller than that of the modus of bank size in most modern economies. The studies also reveal skepticism in the blessings of bank mergers. Others such as Boot and Schmeits, (1999) presume that scale and scope economies could re-emerge as critical issues in the future as a consequence of technical progress, especially in payment systems. The dynamics of technologically driven product innovation will have to be introduced in the scale and scope and X-inefficiency research. Piloff and Santomero (1996) make the value- effects of bank mergers already an explicit subject of their research. The new research on essential and less essential bank functions and the concept of “contract banking” (Llewellyn, 1999) as examples of the new dynamic value-chain approach.

Since Bhattacharya and Thakor drew up their research agenda for contemporary banking theory in 1993, risk management and risk transformation in the intermediation process have become a common denominator in the research on financial intermediaries and financial intermediation. Risk transformation and management in the intermediation process has since then become a common denominator in the research agenda. However, risk analysis and management has been limited to regulated intermediation and yet the biggest population and inclusion catchment is in the non-regulated which leaves a conceptual gap, Hunter and Smith, (2002).

Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

H₁: There is a relationship between financial intermediation on financial inclusion.

Study methodology

Research design

The study was largely rooted in the analytical research paradigm which was chosen because by its nature, it enables a presentation of a picture of the specific details of a situation, social setting or relationship (Vanda and Vickery, 2011). The advantage of using analytical research is that it helped describe the situation in terms of its characteristics and equally created a set of categories or classified the information, that is to say, analytical research enabled the explanation of the phenomenon of financial inclusion using the particular characteristics of the studied population.

Study population

The study population from the two geographical areas of study namely Kiboga and Wakiso town councils, was 9,880 households, and 7 formal financial institutions registered. This was credible source of data because the study population either directly or indirectly interact with the services on offer by any of the financial intermediaries and besides, these were the people who either used the financial services through inclusion and access or did not because of exclusion. The study population for qualitative data was purposively chosen because on top of having only six institutions supervised by the Bank of Uganda, the two districts still rate high among National poverty indices in Uganda. Besides, Kiboga being one of the rural districts, it is one of the districts with low financial services and access to such services by the population (Finscope 2013). On the other hand Wakiso, being semi-urban, was able to show a comparative picture of what financial inclusion is in the rural and urban districts, the triangulation of which gave a better aggregated position of financial intermediation and inclusion in Uganda.

Sample size and selection

The sample size of research participants was calculated basing on Slovin's formula (1960). Determining the sample size using Slovin's formula for calculating sample size is given by

$$n = N / (1 + Ne^2),$$

Where: n = is the required sample size

N = Total population size

E = level of precision 0.05 (tolerable error) or level of confidence

Thus: $9880 / [1 + (9880 * 0.05)^2 * 0.05]$

$$9880 / 1 + [494^2 * 0.05]$$

$$9880 / 1 + 24.7$$

$$= 384$$

Table 2: Distribution of respondents across the study areas

Respondents category	Population		Sample size	Sampling technique		Reason for choice
	Wakiso	Kiboga	Wakiso	Kiboga		
Households	5,890	3,990	167	167	Simple random	Systematically derived
Key informants						
Bank Managers	03	02	03	02	Purposive	Limited respondents
MFIs managers	04	01	04	01	Purposive	Limited respondents

Data quality control measures

Data quality control refers to the reliability and validity of the instruments used for collecting data. These two concepts are important in the acceptability of the use of an instrument for research purposes (Amin 2005). This is to ensure that the data collected is accurate. In order to ensure that data was accurate, a pre-test of the study tool was done with 47 respondents which helped the revision of the tool to ensure data accuracy.

Reliability

To ensure that the instruments which were used for the study are consistent, accurate and stable Cronbach alpha coefficient was used since it is helpful in measuring the extent to which reliability and consistence between two items at different levels of the same variable can attain consistent results (Struwig and Stead, 2001: 130). The reliability of 0.70 or > was used as the alpha coefficient to test the reliability of this study, which is in line with Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), for a social research. Thus, the reliability test was done through content analysis.

Validity

This is concerned with the instrument measuring what it is intended to measure (Cozby, 2009). Validity equally has to do with the operationalization of a construct like through practical tests developed from a theory and the actual measure of what the theory tests. It was thus concerned with measuring all the constructs developed from the concept and the various theories used for this study. This focused on the empirical and theoretical support for the interpretation of the construct to be measured. (Foxcroft et al, 2004).

An in-depth analysis of the theories used in this study was carried out in order to ascertain that all the measures are consistent with the theories. The researcher extracted and used measures that are consistent with the concepts in existing research. Item scales were then developed and convergent and discriminant validity were considered. This was through factor analysis, and components with Eigen values greater than one and items with correlation coefficient, equal or greater than 0.5 were extracted (Gummesson, 2005).

Factor extraction to establish the correlations between underlying constructs was done as recommended (Farrington, 2009) and this was followed by Principal Component Analysis with a Varimax Rotation where the extraction and rotation method for the sub models for constructs correlation was established. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was used with an intention of assessing the potential of factor-analysis of the data. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was also used to gauge the factor-analysability of the data. The closer a KMO is to 1; the more factor-analysable the data is (Rennie, 2002). For the purpose of this study, data with KMO's of >0.7 ($p < 0.05$) is considered factor-analysable. In addition, Eigen values of greater than 1 are considered significant and are used to explain the variance captured by a factor. Eigen values of less than 1 are considered insignificant and therefore excluded (Chong, Lin, Keng-Boon and Raman, 2009; 17). The Eigen values and the Percentage of Variance levels were explained.

Content validity involved measuring all constructs that were included and represented in particular theories used in the study (Crocker & Algina, 1986; DeVellis, 1991; and Gregory, 1992). Content validity index obtained by

dividing the proportion of items declared as valid by the total numbers of items was carried out (Amin, 2005). Stability of the items and constructs was considered in the instrument as recommended by Neuman (2006) and components with Eigen values greater than one and items with correlation coefficient equal or greater than 0.5 were extracted.

Tool testing

This section presents the findings, interpretation and discussions which were all handled at the same time. What is presented is in line with the study objective and hypothesis. The key variables examined are financial intermediation and financial inclusion. The interaction between these variables is explained.

Table 3: KMO and Bartlett's test of financial intermediation

Eigen Value	3.024	1.353
Variance %	40.320	18.046
Cumulative %	40.320	58.366
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.685
	Approx. Chi-Square	695.814
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	105
	Sig.	.000

Source: Primary data (2017)

The financial intermediation variable with its factors recorded a sampling adequacy of 0.685 which is well above the recommended minimum suggested by Field (2005), meaning that the results yielded by the survey of this variable are reliable. Regarding the degree to which the dimensions are inter-related measured using the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity with an expected minimum significance of $\text{sig} < .05$, the study yielded a test value of Sig 0.000 meaning that the two factors of financial institution size and depth are related under the financial inclusion construct and thus plausible. Ten questions relating to financial intermediation in two factors of institution size and depth were factor analyzed using principal component analysis with Varimax (orthogonal) rotation.

Table 4: KMO and Bartlett's test of financial inclusion

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.809
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2611.383
	Df	351
	Sig.	.000

Source: Primary data (2017)

On the basis of Varimax Rotation with Kaiser Normalization, 2 factors were extracted. With the study yielding a sampling adequacy of .809 well above the minimum recommended value of 0.6, it can be deduced that the sampling was adequately ideal. Similarly, the inter-relatedness of the variables of study was significant. Field (2005) noted that for variables of study to be inter-related, the level of significance should be <0.5 . The level of significance however between financial services access and usage is a significant 0.000 showing a high degree of inter-relatedness between the two.

Field (2005), notes that a value 0.6 is suggested as a minimum for sampling adequacy and from the results of the study, the sampling adequacy with a value of 0.685 means that the sampling was adequate enough to yield reliable results. On the other hand, the Bartlett's test of sphericity measures the degree to which the dimensions of the study variable are inter-related, it should have a significance of sig. <0.05 value if the dimensions are inter-related. Having realized the sphericity test value of Sig 0.000, it was concluded that the two factors of financial institution size and financial depth were perfectly related.

Ten questions relating to financial intermediation were factor analyzed using principal component analysis with Varimax (orthogonal) rotation. The analysis yielded two factors explaining a total of 58.366% of the variance for the entire set of variables. Factor 1 was labeled financial Institution size as a determinant and enabler for access to financial intermediation and had high loadings by the following items: There are many different financial institutions present in this area and the existing financial institutions in this area have greatly expanded to the neighbourhood. This first factor explained 40.32% of the variance. The second factor derived was labeled financial depth. This factor equally recorded high loadings by the following factors: There is increased provision of financial services in this area and there is

increased volume of financial services in this area. The variance explained by this factor was 18.046%.

Findings of the study

Table 5: Correlation between Financial Intermediation and Financial Inclusion

	Mean	SD	1	2	3
Financial Intermediation	3.376	.936	1.000		
Financial Inclusion	3.021	1.116	.381**	.443**	1.000

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

In table 5, the relationship between financial intermediation and financial inclusion revealed a significant and positive relationship between financial intermediation and financial inclusion ($r = 0.381$, $p < 0.001$). These results show that the greater the capacity of the institution to deliver financial services, the greater the number of persons that will be served by the financial services of the institution and hence, higher levels of inclusion. This equally means that if a financial institution starts up more branches in an area that was not previously served, the possibility of service consumers that have not prior to been served by financial intermediaries to access these financial services greatly increases. This also means that the increase in the volume of the services that are offered in an area would mean that the people, who have access to the financial services, shall have a greater level of satisfaction of the financial services, supporting hypothesis 1 (H1) stating that there is a relationship between financial intermediation and financial inclusion.

A critical look into every measure of how financial intermediation relates to financial inclusion yielded significant and positive correlations between the two variables, a clear indication that financial inclusion is heavily dependent on financial intermediation. Schumpeter (1997) examined the relationship between intermediation and inclusion and argued that financial intermediaries with well-developed financial systems and yet fully sized, tend to be in a much better position to extend credit to individuals and firms looking for credit than those that are less sized. This emphasizes that the bigger the financial intermediary, the more available or ease it is for credit access and thus inclusion. While recent studies have suggested that

unrestrained intermediation size that goes unchecked has led to a number of crises, this study's findings are in agreement with the big correlation between intermediation and the ease to access credit from such an institution as a factor of inclusion.

The ability to access financial services, especially by small and medium-sized institutions has become critical. Small and medium-sized financial institutions make up a large part of the financial service players in most countries, including Uganda, but these are equally more constrained in their bid to gain meaningful entry into the market so people with extra resources can deposit and be able to in turn lend out on top of gaining access to financial services from larger institutions (Ayyagari, Beck and Demirguc-Kunt, 2007; Beck, Demirguc-Kunt and Maksimovic, 2005). While it was evident that microfinance institutions and credit cooperatives have helped to reduce the levels of lack of access to finances by the poor by adapting specific lending techniques such as group lending, it seems less conducive to easing financing constraints of more formal and larger enterprises. It is therefore clear that, the financial intermediary size and ease to access financial services such as credit affects both the borrower and the firm. The inability of the relatively smaller financial intermediaries to get access to services such as credit is directly transferred to the individuals in need of credit. The question of the intermediary size, which is often intertwined with the ownership question has a direct relationship on how easy it is for such an intermediary to access credit which is resultantly related to entry barriers.

Another intriguing finding is that, for each financial intermediary interviewed, there is a practice of maintaining a relationship between the borrower and lender through the credit reform database, also known as credit reference bureau. This is used by these intermediaries to establish the capacity of the borrower in terms of their size, payback ability and credit worthiness as well as monitoring and follow up of these clients. The results of the study suggest that more young businesses and/or individual borrowers that do not have a relationship with large financial institutions such as Stanbic Bank and Centenary Bank which are the major players in the Ugandan Financial market in the areas of study, are less likely to use bank finance and as such, report more difficulties in getting bank credit which limits the financial inclusion levels.

It can thus be argued that, the more spread a financial intermediary is, the higher the chances of extending financial services to the people in a given locality where such an intermediary is. This confirms the argument of Degryse et al (2014) in which they discovered that, there is an almost two fold percentage difference for inclusion in terms of credit access in areas with more coverage than those with bare minimum institutions.

Evidence from the study suggests that intermediation is highly characterized by presence of many different financial institutions, a wider network of financial institution offices and existence of outlet points for service access such as ATMs, which translate into increased levels of inclusion in an area. However, this contradicts with the actual situation in regard to person specifics as the existence of these services has not translated into inclusion measures such as account holding in financial institutions as well as credit access among others as only 46% of the respondents are formally included. This means that inclusion cannot be solely pegged to presence of financial intermediation as there is more to it that may facilitate the usage such as financial literacy, and reduction in transaction costs so that alternatives are not seen as cheaper options among others.

A study by Spence (1973) shows that, there is an impact of the financial intermediary's size on the usage of the services they offer as this is enabled by a number of innovations that help extend the reach of the intermediary closer to the populations.

The findings of this study are in tandem with studies conducted earlier. Hannan (2002, 2004); Hannan and Prager (2004a, 2004b); Park and Pennacchi (2004), argue that the trend towards consolidation of branches in very large branch networks has implications for both bank customers and the banks themselves. Consumers and small businesses are the customer segments that have traditionally relied most heavily on branches to access bank services. Prior research suggests that these customers face something of a trade-off in light of the growth of very large branch networks.

On the one hand, larger banking organizations and organizations that operate in multiple markets tend to charge higher fees and offer lower deposit rates than smaller, single-market institutions. This suggests that, branch-dependent customers could face additional costs as branches are

increasingly consolidated into the large branch networks of multi-market banking organizations.

On the other hand, large branch networks offer the convenience of many possible points of contact with the institution and, potentially, the ability to avoid ATM surcharges and other usage fees by staying within the bank's own network. Earlier studies such as one conducted by Dick (2003) suggest that depositors value geographic reach like having branches in many towns and municipalities, and local branch density, which is, having many branches of an institution in a given area when selecting a depository institution. Market surveys also suggest that, customers place quality on convenience when choosing their bank; 39 percent of bank customers surveyed in 2001 indicated that they selected their bank primarily due to its location (Fung 2001). These factors imply that the scope and scale of large branch network are qualities that many customers value.

From the perspective of the institutions themselves, the growth in the number of bank branches and the consolidation of branches within very large branch networks has implications for cost structure, business focus, and profitability. Full service branches impose significant costs that banks must cover through the revenues generated by these networks, primarily the hidden and clear income associated with deposit accounts (Orlow, Radecki and Wenninger 1996). Continued expansion of branch networks seems consistent with a belief by these organizations that branches will continue to be an effective channel for generating retail banking revenues, despite these costs and the development of alternative distribution channels such as call centers, ATMs, online banking and mobile banking.

Apart from collecting deposits, branch networks that characterize size of the financial intermediary also generate new lending, especially consumer and small business lending. While at many larger banking organizations, credit decisions have been removed from the branch and centralized in regional or at head office credit departments, branches arguably continue to serve as initial points of contact for new small businesses and individual customers. Thus, one measure of productivity for a branch network is the volume of new retail lending generated through these contacts.

It is also important to note that, the net deposit costs vary significantly across branch network size groups. Institutions with fewer branches have a higher net deposit cost for the clients while those that have more branches tend to have lower net deposit costs meaning that this cost is passed onto the clients in the proportions in which they are spread across the branches. This is a clear evidence of how the size of the financial intermediary affects inclusion of the populations in the locality of the intermediary.

However, it should be noted that the intermediary size does not have any consistent relationship with the profitability of the financial institution. In most cases, the financial institution size variables are not statistically significant and there is no clear pattern in the sign and magnitude of the coefficient estimates over time.

Recent work on the possible consequences of large financial institutional size include Cetorelli, (2014), who found that, the growth of financial intermediary size and complexity may lead to complicated and ineffective monitoring and that the design of informed regulation of complex banking organizations presents a key challenge. Bank size can affect risk through the choice of investment strategy that an intermediary adopts as it grows and diversifies or through decisions about funding and capital structure. Using a theoretical model, Claessens and Ratnovski (2014) found that, wholesale funds used to supplement retail deposits can create risks in banks that hold mostly investment assets rather than loans because random or inaccurate information about these asset values may trigger inefficient liquidations and subsequently lead to institutional closure.

Looking at the depths of a financial intermediary, the aspect of institutions having increased provision of financial service in the areas was considered to assess how this influences the usability of financial services by community members. Mishkin (1998) noted that credit markets as part of the financial markets are a very important aspect of measuring depth of financial depth. However, in this area of study, credit markets are non-existent given that the concentration of such services is clustered in a few urban centres, mostly in Kampala.

Given that the majority of the respondents expressed the fact that they had a positive thinking about credit, it means that there is a willingness to

consume the services of the financial intermediaries like credit. However, many are not able to because of the structural hindrances to the acquisition of these services. While the depth of the financial intermediaries is thin on ground, the presence of formal institutions is not utilized to capacity meaning that depth, while it has an effect on the levels of inclusion, it does not solely explain inclusion or exclusion. This finding augurs well with the findings of Lorraine (2015) who noted that even in areas where Islamic banking is practiced such as in Middle East and North Africa; the banking system had a limited impact on financial inclusion. Lorraine (2015) equally noted that countries from the Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) have less access to financial services and make less use of them than the rest of the world. This is a clear illustration that while depth means that services are moved closer to people, it does not translate into financial inclusion.

In a bid to understand this relationship more clearly, private credit was used as a big indicator measure. Čihák, *et al.* (2012) concluded that the higher the ratio of private credit to Gross Domestic Product a particular country has, the higher the financial depth of the financial institutions in that country will be. The banking sector is part of the depository financial institutions which has generally dominated the channeling of private credit.

There are two main indicators of financial depth for the financial institutions namely private credit to GDP and assets of financial institutions to GDP. In developed countries there is a proven relationship between having very high private credit to GDP ratios unlike in developing economies such as Uganda where there are a lot of situations of credit access that is not documented. Thus, the exactness in terms of these ratios cannot be established in Uganda's case.

Djankov, *et al.* (2008) with a case study of Mexico, found that 89% of people with no access to the financial system claim not to have adequate money, whether their own or credit facilities. Another study by Martinez, Hidalgo, & Tuesta (2013) which also used Mexico as a case study, found out that the main constraint of respondents for not having financial access was the lack of income earned. This matches entirely with the findings of this study in Uganda where the unbanked majority cited lack of income earned for not having adequate money to join any financial intermediary. This therefore means that however much spread a financial intermediary may be

with a thick depth, the use of the services that are offered by these intermediaries may still remain low because the population does not have income earned to facilitate the use of the offered services. Besides the above hindrances to financial access being identical in Uganda and Mexico, the two have a similar background as developing lower income countries with the same development concerns related to poverty, limited income gap, and low levels of education.

In order to be able to understand the phenomenon and to make sense of the same regarding the population that is unbanked, focus group discussions for this category of people were conducted and the participants were purposely chosen to make meaning and enable the researcher get to the core of the problem to address the underlying challenges.

One interesting finding however was that the targeted population had a much better degree of trust in private money lenders and loan sharks as compared to financial institutions. While most of these are unregulated, the public, especially those lacking security and those without an assured income continue using them for credit access because they are more accessible and have flexible pay back terms and periods. These however charge higher interest rates, sometimes over 30% per month, which in an ideal environment is too high. However, the demand for credit access is unexpectedly high majorly because of the personal connection with these loan sharks coupled with the low financial literacy and the bureaucratic process of getting the same financial support from the formal intermediaries. This explains why most of the local people that have accessed credit from such unregulated credit providers have failed to pay back leaving the debtors in a vicious cycle of poverty Usman, et al. (2004).

Many scholars have come to perceive the relationship between institutional depth characterized by branches and financial inclusion as a 1:1 relationship. In India for instance, the assumption is that, if inclusion is to be achieved, then more branches are needed. However, empirical evidence even from the developed economies with high levels of financial inclusion suggests otherwise. For instance, India has just 110 branches per a million persons, compared with the USA which has more than 300 branches per a million persons, and Spain with a whopping 900 branches per million persons, with the next nearest in the EU being Italy with 650 branches per a

million persons. This would normally mean that there is a need for India to design strategies of matching the numbers of the already established economies regarding branch density in order to rouse financial inclusion.

In a stark contrast to the above position, some countries such as Norway with 90 branches per million persons has a 98.6% inclusion level, Sweden with 150 branches per a million persons has a 99% inclusion level yet some countries with more branches such Italy with 650 branches per a million people at 84.0%, Greece at 360 branches per million people has 84% inclusion percentage while Spain with an incredible 900 branches has an inclusion level of 92% with 22% of its population opting for loans from friends and family, World Bank (2014). This therefore means that the number of branches doesn't necessarily translate into inclusion.

This picture in essence means that financial inclusion is actually not enhanced by branch density. To understand this clearly, the example of Kenya, with 50 branches per a million people has only got a 20% financial inclusion through a bank and 65% financial inclusion through a mobile phone or mobile money account. This correlation however may not be related to branch density, but with the regulators propensity to know their customers in a branch as a requirement for account opening. Brett (2016) argues that the Identity Verification in-branch is the single biggest hurdle to financial inclusion today in both the developed and developing world.

De Soto, (2000) argues that, there is not any economy in the world that has improved financial inclusion for poorer segments of the market through branch access, and no market in the world will ever get 100% financial inclusion based on branch density and traditional in-branch on boarding. However, recent trends show that there is a possibility of countries such as Kenya that have a relatively low formal inclusion and higher levels of informal intermediation such as mobile money to surpass levels of countries such as USA with high density although this inclusion can be made better through provision of prepaid debit cards and other alternative financial services that may exist in better developed economies.

From the contextual understanding and findings of this study informed by the feedback of the respondents, more branches may not be the answer for financial inclusion in Uganda. Rather, the strengthening of the non-

formal mechanisms such as mobile financial transactions may be more appropriate. For instance; the ownership of a mobile money account by an individual should not be a luxury but a necessity for any Ugandan. This is mainly because of the perception of the community members that bank services are expensive and may equally be attributed to financial literacy. Thus, even if branches were increased, there is a very high likelihood that people may still not make use of the newly created branches. Besides, apart from the services offered, these financial institutions tend to have limited knowledge of their clients and so there is a big disconnect between the two entities.

Regulated intermediation requires physical presence of an individual and a signature of the same for identity verification. This inadvertently works against the objective of achieving total inclusion because it limits inclusion and transaction to physicality. However, modern systems that permit the usage of mobile phones for primary bank accounts, both opening and transacting calls for prioritizing of mobile on boarding.

The closer relations between the financial intermediary that provides account opening and access using mobile on boarding shifts to a platform where the provider is able to interact with behavioral learning around the customer including spending patterns, the saving ability, and other traits which can be generalized as opposed to being one offs as may be the practice with physical branch account holders. This not only helps clients with easy access but also benefits expand the information base of a financial intermediary about a client. The lack of provision to allow on-boarding of new bank accounts via a mobile phone, means that such a financial intermediary is left behind in regard to numbers especially when it comes to inclusion and the customer behavioral adoption when it comes to banking.

From the study findings, more than a third of the respondents reported using a formal financial institution for financial services, banks and Microfinance Institutions for a number of purposes including their routine financial transactions and financial advice and management among others.

Previous research indicated that there is a very big impact of the depth of financial institutions on the usage of the financial services in any geographical location. Demirgüç-Kunt et al, (2008) argue that banks are not

generally geographically accessible for the poor since financial institutions are likely to be located in richer neighborhoods. The poor are also burdened by lack of collateral and inability to borrow against their future income because their income streams tend to be hard to track and predict, meaning that depth of a credit lending institution has a proportionate impact on the usage of their services which accounts for the fact that in many countries, financial access is still limited to only 20–50 percent of the population, excluding many poor individuals and [SMEs](#), simply because the cost of increasing depth in a given locality may not bring returns to the financial institution because of the likelihood of the unprofitability to serve the small credit needs and transaction volume of the lower-income population, Demirgüç-Kunt et al, (2008).

This Demirgüç-Kunt et al, (2008) argument concurs with the empirical findings of this study. Because of the likely losses, there was a noticeable concentration of financial service outlets in areas that seemed highly populated in the two districts of study. Looking at how services are used across the different education levels points to flaring fact that respondents who were below a diploma level of education seemed to favour friends and family as their sources of financial information as opposed to banks, and expressing use of mobile money more than formal institutions for their financial transactions. This means that there is a degree of difficulty among this category of people who despite the presence of intermediary structures, opt for other alternative sources.

Ghatak (1999) reasons that, accessing financial services is basically a social construct which is so reliant on faith and trust among the intermediary and borrower. In his argument, he emphasizes the fact that regardless of the information asymmetry as an advantage on the intermediary and transaction costs being borne by the same, transaction cannot take place between the financial intermediary and the borrower unless there is such a degree of faith in the institution and trust in the capacity of the borrower to pay back. Thus, there is a contract between the institution and the borrower which has to be honoured with all its terms, Gleaser & David, (2002) and while this reasoning relates to individual persons as a unit of measure, it applies to the community or location as a collective entity. If a financial intermediary does not have trust in the ability

of a given location to consume and maximally utilize its services on offer, the logic of increasing depth in such a locality does not make business sense.

Many theories have been advanced with a notion that a bank with physical presence develops considerable knowledge of the credit risk and business opportunities in its market through its interaction with consumers and businesses, which are a basis of its loan and deposit products. Agarwal et al (2007) stress the fact that having physical presence is key because the bank has to interact repeatedly with the community to develop the necessary relationships and from this, credible information regarding the potential borrowers and depositors can be got.

However, enhanced Institution-customer relationships can overcome this obstacle resulting from the intermediary depth. Banks are able to generate information from a particular customer using soft information, which may not be easily accessed through any other means for instance, the tendency by a prospective client to over draw his/her account can easily be traced through such a relationship. Berger et al. (2005) argue that, banks that have access to this sort of usage information from their loan customers' accounts are able to identify creditworthy borrowers.

Banks operating in a local market are also more likely to have information on the local economy, giving them a context from which they can determine to have physical presence or otherwise. This means that they can evaluate the future prospects of a borrower that is not readily available to an out-of-market lender. For instance, a bank with close ties to a clients' market may know that their employer is experiencing financial difficulties and that their request for a loan was turned down by a potential lender. This would make such an employee, a high-risk borrower. Given the difficulty in generating soft information without a physical presence in any local market, the closure of any intermediary branch translates into the failure to secure a loan even if they moved to a far off lender.

Young et al (2007) in their study on commercial lending discovered that low-income homebuyers who obtain their credit from banks with branches in their neighborhoods are less likely to default than homebuyers who use banks without a branch in the area or mortgage brokers. This effect is especially strong among borrowers with low credit rating. Young et al (2007)

also noted that, average default rate for this group was around 20 percent while the default rate of those borrowers who took their loans from a local bank was up to 4.3% less. This equally aligns with the findings of this study that majority of the respondents strongly believed the financial services in the area to be cheap while 59.8% of the same respondents shared a view that these financial institutions plying their trade in their areas bother to reach out to them to market their services to the locals and are thus appreciated, a confirmation of the findings of Young et al (2007).

From this study, it can be deduced that, physical presence gives an intermediary the opportunity to get to know distressed individuals and areas better and channel resources to people who can manage them best. However, the majority of these creditworthy people are also likely to be financially constrained, and so unlikely to bear the full cost of keeping a branch open in an area with declining business opportunities. Thus, they are the ones who will be worse off when branches close. This study equally reveals that the benefits that come from creditworthy borrowers in declining low-income areas being in close physical proximity to a bank branch.

It should be noted that while it would be considered a deterrent to usage of financial services, majority of the respondents contended that the longer distances travelled to the financial institutions are no hindrances to accessing the services needed. This means that to this category of respondents, the demand for credit services supersedes the distance they have to cover in order to access credit. This finding is in stark contrast with the findings of Pedrosa (2008) while studying the effect of geographic distance on credit in Niger. They discovered that when considering an economic transaction between two agents; a borrower and a lending institution the effect of distance consists of the physical cost that either of them has to meet to realize the success of the transaction. They noted that distance affects the credit market in a number of ways including the direct transaction cost in terms of the actual transportation cost to deliver financial services to the borrower. While costs such as screening of projects for borrowers, monitoring of the borrower and others are supposed to be borne by the borrower, in instances where the distance between the two is far apart, the intermediary may have to meet some costs which influences the decision whether or not to monitor such a prospective client.

Undisputed evidence points to the fact that relatively long distances moved because an intermediary does not have physical presence is also associated with and equally explains higher interest rates and lower loan amounts. It also underpins the lower frequencies of monitoring, lower default rates and a higher prevalence of female group lending even though women have a higher rate of illiteracy compared to their male counterparts at 83% for individuals aged 15-24. (World Bank, 2008).

Geographic distance between members captures social connections for many reasons. Monitoring costs which would have been lumped on a single individual are in this case reduced when individuals live closer to each other, making monitoring easier and less costly. Of critical benefit is the fact that people who have more common associates or people in their circles are able to easily access information from and about other members in their circles. Given that members are known to each other and fear to lose their reputation and respect, becomes handy in pushing the potential defaulters to the limits to meet their obligations since such people are likely to have more frequent future interactions and more connections in common.

Conclusion

The study results suggest that institutions with mid-sized branch networks have lower deposits per branch than those with both larger and smaller branch networks. They also hold lower levels of small business loans per branch than smaller institutions. In summary, these findings suggest that, banks with mid-sized branch networks may face profit pressure in their branch network operations since their per-branch performance appears to lag than of both smaller and larger institutions, with no offset in deposit interest costs relative to the larger institutions.

While the study revealed that, there was an evidently strong effect of financial intermediation on financial inclusion, and that financial intermediaries have availed financial products to their clients, the study also pointed to the fact that depth and size do not seem to ably respond to the problem of financial exclusion meaning on top of having presence in a community with many branches, intermediaries need to invest more in the non financial drivers of access to and usage of financial services such as the intermediary cum personal relationships with prospective clients, capacity building of these organised groups of such things as risk management,

organizational capacity building and education on financial literacy and other aspects. The findings are illustrative of a gap regarding knowledge of financial intermediaries for their potential clients and understanding what their specific financial needs may be in order to be able to ably respond to them.

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QUALITY OF PRODUCTS AND COMPETITIVENESS IN THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN UGANDA: A CASE OF UGANDA CLAYS LTD.

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Abstract

The current study sets out to analyse the effect of Quality of Products on the competitiveness in the manufacturing sector with specific reference to Uganda Clays Ltd. In order to achieve the above purpose the study objective was; To analyse the effect of Quality of Products on Competitiveness. The current study applied the post-positivist paradigm and employed a descriptive cross-sectional survey design. The main Approach used was Quantitative but Qualitative method and/or approach was also employed on limited scale. Results from the study indicate that overall, Quality of Products had a profound effect on Competitiveness ($r (160) = .527, P < 0.01$). The findings therefore reveal that if a company maintained good quality products there would be an increase in the market share and hence remain very Competitive.

To achieve sustainable competitiveness the study proposed the SCOPQUAP Model which guarantees not only competitiveness but also sustainability.

Key Words: Quality of products, Competitiveness, SCOPQUAP Model.

Introduction

The current study set out to analyse the effect of quality of Products on competitiveness in the Manufacturing Sector.

Quality of Products means to incorporate features that have a capacity to meet consumer needs (wants) and gives customer satisfaction by improving products (goods) and making them free from any deficiencies or defects (Akrani, 2013).

UCL product quality mainly depends on important factors like the type of raw materials used for making a product, how well are various production-technologies implemented, skill and experience of manpower that is involved in the production process, availability of production-related overheads like power and water supply and transport (UCL Marketing Plan 2016).

The product quality management approach at UCL is about ensuring that all personnel in the production process "does the right things, right, the first time". This enables the staff to avoid misunderstandings of what to produce, and how hence circumventing productivity losses, quality losses and schedule delays (*UCL Marketing Plan 2016*).

The nature of product quality at UCL is evidenced in the experienced human resources with the energy and ability to execute and deliver to the customers' expectations, the largest manufacturing capabilities in the industry, (machinery and production capacity), owns Quality Clay deposits within the industry and above all there has been a steady manufacturing track record spanning over 65 years with consistency in quality manifested in the product durability, standard dimensions and texture (*UCL Marketing Plan 2016*).

UCL was first registered as a private limited liability Company on 10th July, 1950. At that time it was a monopoly in the business and was therefore focusing on increasing the number of individual sales hence transactional marketing. However towards the end of 2000 there developed stiff competition coming from both direct and indirect competition.

In 2001, UCL a Clay products manufacturing company approved Quality of Products strategy for enhancement of the company's competitiveness (*UCL Marketing Report, 2001*). The major aim of coming up with a Quality of Products strategy at UCL was therefore based on the expectation that it would present enormous benefits which included among others improving its competitiveness by 45%' in the ten years (*Uganda Clays reports 2001*). Hence forth improved quality of products strategy was selected to make UCL remain Competitive.

Statement of the Problem

In enforcing the Quality of Products strategy it was deemed that when implemented Uganda Clays Ltd would become competitive (*UCL Marketing Report 2016*). Additionally UCL became the only company in the Clay manufacturing sector in Uganda that complied with the requirements for both Local and International Quality Standards hence certification by both Uganda National Bureau of Standards (UNBS) and International Certification Services (ISO) PVT. Ltd (ISO) 9001:2000 in 2003 (*UCL*

Marketing Report 2016). This therefore confirmed the fact that UCL products were of high Quality and could be trusted by the customers anywhere in the world.

However, UCL Competitiveness increased by only 12% in the 10th year instead of the forecasted 45% raise. This left a big crevice of 33%, yet there had been several interventions through operating with the best plants in Kajjansi and Kamonkoli to continuously improve quality and having the staff professionally trained to offer best quality services (*UCL marketing Reports 2011*). This 12% raise after 10 years seems to indicate that Uganda Clays is not as competitive as was expected. It was therefore necessary to confirm how much Product Quality contributes to Competitiveness by carrying out an empirical study.

Objective of the study

The objective of the study was to analyse the effect of Quality of Products on Competitiveness in the manufacturing Sector.

Study hypothesis

H₀¹ There is no significant relationship between Quality of products and competitiveness in the Manufacturing Sector.

Related Literature

Theoretical review

Uganda Clays Ltd is struggling with the dilemma of competitiveness. The Board of Directors and Management wanted to enhance the level of Competitiveness believe that Quality of Products would play a major role in achieving this goal. To analyse this predicament, the Blue Ocean theory has been indentified to offer an apt theoretical prism through which to consider the contribution of Quality of Products to Competitiveness in the manufacturing sector.

In the current study, the theory of the Blue Ocean theory which was developed by globally pre-eminent thinkers (Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne, 2005) offers an apt theoretical prism through which to consider the impact of Quality of Products to Competitiveness in the manufacturing sector and thus was relied on as this theory postulates a number of factors that may be important to this study.

Blue Ocean Theory is about creating and capturing uncontested market space, thereby making the competition irrelevant. Lasting success comes, not from battling competitors, but from creating blue oceans of untapped new market spaces ripe for growth (Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne, 2005). The Blue Ocean Theory explains better the Uganda Clays Limited current Quality of products Approach where the main intention is to remain competitive despite the existence of other companies.

It should be stressed that the theory selected in this study is a representative sampling of key theories of marketing in general and Quality of products in particular but in no way should be construed to be an exhaustive list. The same can be said for the key thought leaders and selected literature cited throughout.

Effect of Quality of Products and Competitiveness.

Quality of Products is a vital area to be concentrated on in a business environment because it decides the market share of the firm. It is also used as one of the product differentiation strategies by few leading firms. In a study entitled Product Quality for Competitive Advantage in Marketing Singh (2013) focused on the major role played by the quality of product in competitive advantage in marketing and the steps to attain the product quality. Accordingly Singh (2013), asserts that Marketing has to set the quality standards for the firm's products, constantly verifying these standards and upgrading them as per the needs and growing sophistication of the market is a crucial task in product management. The study elaborates that product quality, customer satisfaction, and company profitability are intimately connected and thus, higher levels of quality results in higher levels of customer satisfaction. Quality creates value and customer satisfaction. Marketers play several roles in helping their organization to define and deliver high quality goods and services to target customers. As the competitive environment becomes more turbulent, the most important issue the sellers face is no longer to provide excellent, good quality products or services (Teng, 2007), but also to keep loyal customers who will contribute long term profit to organizations.

Marketers are forced to look beyond the traditional 4Ps of marketing strategy for achieving competitive advantage (Andaleeb, 2006) to compete in such competitive and interactive marketplace. It is only through continuous

managing for excellent quality the firm can maintain bright product / brand image in the customer's mind in this competitive world (Singh, 2013). The research at hand however realises the scholars highlighted throughout the study do not elaborate on Quality of Products exhaustively, a gap that this current study intended to fill.

In competitive marketing, Delege (2007) emphasised that firms must consider their strengths and weaknesses and examine a competitor's background, strength and weakness, provide a valuable insight into their strategic thinking and actions. The author examined a full range of areas in manufacturing, technical and financial strength, in relationship with suppliers and customers, market and segment served, as well as the usual garnet of marketing activity. Delege (2007) further stressed that it is particularly worth undertaking a detailed review of competitor's product range, identifying where it is weak and where it seems to be heading. Conversely, while conducting a study, Eliaz and Spiegler (2008) presented a model of competitive marketing based on the notion that consumers are very rational, and that firms use marketing tactics in an attempt to influence consumers' decision process. The standard model of consumer behaviour, they claimed, assumes that consumers apply well-defined preferences to perfectly perceive set of available alternatives.

For Business executives to perform strategic planning for firms' future, it is imperative to know who the competition is, and exactly what managers are up against Bacak (2005) to ensure that market share is sufficient for the firms' future. Heyneet. al., (2014) affirms that it is in the market process that Competition is widespread given that it is herein where buyers tend to compete with other buyers, and sellers tend to compete with other sellers. This is because in offering goods for exchange, buyers competitively bid to purchase specific quantities of specific goods which are available, or might be available if sellers were to choose to offer such goods. Similarly, sellers bid against other sellers in offering goods on the market, competing for the attention and exchange resources of buyers. Competition actually results from scarcity when there is never enough to satisfy all conceivable human wants and occurs when people strive to meet the criteria that are being used to determine who gets what (Heyneetal, 2014). Other researchers such as Cowen et. al (2013) believe the competitive process in a market economy

exerts a sort of pressure that tends to move resources to where they are most needed, and to where they can be used most efficiently for the economy as a whole and for the competitive process to work however, it is important that prices accurately signal costs and benefits.

Product support can be as simple as a set of instructions and a throwaway wrench that comes with an assemble-it-yourself child's bicycle or as complicated as warranty programs, service contracts, parts depots, and equipment on loan to replace a defective machine while it is being repaired (Thomas and Waterman, 1980). All of these constitute product support; they are designed to ensure that customers obtain the most value from use of the product after the sale. On the other hand design **for supportability looks beyond the company's doors** (Bennekomp and Goffin (2002), **hence** it is process of maximizing the benefits the customer receives during the product ownership period. In the contemporary language, it is truly designing the product for optimal customer experience. .

Competitiveness of a firm depends largely on its aptitude to innovate and develop and that some enterprises get some advantages over the larger competitors in the world because of the pressures and challenges that are subject. Goolsbee and Syverson (2008) conducted a study about the entry of a low-price competitor (Southwest Airlines) into the airline industry in the US and this study discovered that large price decreases occur during the first three quarters of the time period that elapses between the announcement of entry and the point in time when actual entry occurs. Conversely Besker and Basker and Noel (2009) analyzed the effect of Wal-Mart's entry into the grocery market using a store-level price panel dataset. They find that competitors' response to the entry of a Wal-Mart store, which has a price advantage over competitors of about 10%, is a price reduction of 1%-1.2%, on average, with most of this reduction being accounted for by smaller-scale competitors. They conclude that competitors' responses vary in line with their degree of differentiation from Wal-Mart. At one extreme, the largest supermarket chains reduce their prices by less than half as much as smaller competitors. At the opposite extreme, low-end grocery stores, which compete more directly with Wal-Mart, cut their prices by more than twice as much as higher-end stores. Another scholar Jia (2008) develops an empirical model –one which relaxes the assumption that entry into different markets is

independent— to assess the impact of Kmart stores on Wal-Mart stores and other discount retailers and to quantify the size of the scale economies obtained within a given chain. She finds that the negative impact of Kmart's presence on Wal-Mart's profits was much stronger in 1988 than in 1997, while the opposite is true for the effect of Wal-Mart's presence on Kmart's profits. Generally speaking the existence of a highly competitive environment is the safeguard progress on the economic scale and the burden of global markets.

In many industries, marketing budgets are being restructured to devote more resources to defensive marketing for customer retention and Scholars like (Kotler, 1992) argue that as markets become increasingly competitive, price competition intensifies and reduced loyalty appears to be the norm in contrast (Gummesson, 1999) argues that with the growth of marketing databases and the Internet, the ability to reach customers individually becomes a viable strategy for a wide range of firms including consumer products companies. Nevertheless, Quality of Products strategy is not without some challenges and if done improperly, the strategy will not achieve the goals of the firm. One strategy perhaps may not be appropriate for all marketing programs. Since this is an issue that raised concern in the competitive land scape, it deserved to be studied.

Research methodology

The field research was carried out in greater Kampala and Wakiso Districts. These areas are considered appropriate because most of the clay Products Manufacturing Factories including Uganda Clays Ltd are situated in this area and major and reliable Customers can be traced in these areas as well as other important respondents. These areas also account for 70% of UCL's market share.

The total number of respondents was 162 but the response rate was 160. The sample was determined using the formulae for (Krejcie and Morgan, 1970). So the sample of 160 respondents including Staff (Field Sales Staff, Marketing & Customer Service staff, Managing Director and Heads of department in Company Customer contact points or Outlets in Wakiso and Kampala and selected customers was considered sufficient for this study. All these respondents were aware of the Uganda clays activities.

A descriptive cross sectional survey design adopted by this study required one to use more than one data collection method. In that regard a survey was the primary method. A specially designed Questionnaire was administered to 160 respondents. It was designed in such a way that respondents had a list of possible options or answers which they ticked. The Questionnaire as a tool was preferred because it is an appropriate instrument for any survey research. The respondents had to provide answers in a predetermined order. The instruments had three sections; demographics, Quality of Products and Competitiveness.

The Questionnaire as the main tool in the study employed 33 items. Apart from items on the demographics characteristics of the respondents, the rest of the items were on the likert scale type. This scale served as a measurement for the relationships between Quality of Products and Competitiveness. The likert Scale was (i) Strongly Agree = 5, (ii) Agree = 4, (iii) Neutral =3, (iv) Disagree =2, (v) Strongly Disagree =1. The main approach used was Quantitative

Table: 1: Categories of respondents

No	Category of respondents	Population	Sample size
1.	Commercial/Institutional Customers	150	88
2.	Retail Customers	100	56
3.	Heads of Department	06	06
4.	Staff/Employees	22	10
5.	Top Management	02	02
	Total	280	162

Source: field data (2016)

Validity:

The Validity of the items on the Questionnaire was determined using the Content Validity Index .The questions were rated as very relevant, relevant, irrelevant, and very irrelevant. The proportion of the very relevant and relevant questions over the total questions was computed using the following formulae;

$$CVI = \frac{\text{Total Very Relevant Questions} + \text{Relevant Questions}}{\text{Total Questions}}$$

Therefore:

$$CVI = \frac{40+29}{69+8=77} = CVI = \frac{69}{77}$$

$$CVI = 0.9$$

The content Validity Index is supposed to be above 0.7 as recommended by Amin (2005) for the questionnaire to be considered Valid. Therefore, the value of 0.9 indicated that the questions in instrument were highly valid.

Reliability:

Reliability is the degree to which an assessment tool produces stable and consistent results (Cozby, 2001). Reliability was determined using the internal consistency method that is estimated using Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951, 2004; Nunnally, 1978; hull and Nie, 1981). Typically, reliability coefficients of 0.70 or higher are considered adequate (Cronbach, 1951, 2004; Nunnally, 1978).

Table.2: Reliability Test Using Cronbach's Alpha

Variable	Cronbach's alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	Number of Items
Quality of Products	0.693	.814	12
Competitiveness	0.817	.817	9
Average Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items		0.815	

Initially, the consistency levels of the items/questions were examined using Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha measure of reliability was Quality products 0.814 and Competitiveness 0.817. All these commonly recommended values have an average Cronbach's Alpha of 0.815 which is in the acceptable range. This showed that all the items in the instrument were consistent and acceptable.

Findings and interpretation

The concept of quality of Products

At Uganda Clays Limited quality was conceptualized as fitness for use or purpose, to do a right thing at first time, to do a right thing at the right-time, find and know, consumer want. Features that meet consumer needs and give

customer satisfaction, freedom from deficiencies or defects, conformance to standards and value or worthiness for money in the production process.

Uganda Clays Limited quality of products mainly depends on important factors like the type of raw materials used for making a product, how well are various production-technologies implemented?, skill and experience of manpower that is involved in the production process, availability of production-related overheads like power and water supply and transport.

Table 3: Categories and Quality of products at Uganda Clays Limited.

S/N	Product	Low	Moderate	High
1.	Roofing Tiles			√
2.	Bricks & Half Bricks			√
3.	Inter-Lockings & corners	√		
4.	Partitioning Blocks		√	
5.	Suspended Floor Units			√
6.	Ventilators		√	
7.	Floor Tiles		√	
8.	Decorative Grills			√

UCL staff perception of quality of Products

Uganda Clays Limited staffs were convinced that the company produced the best quality brands that were of the best texture, durable, which meet the market standards and are of desirable interest for customers. This was supported by the fact that Uganda Clays Limited was ISO 9001-2000 and UNBS certified Clay manufacturing Company in Uganda. These are the only recognised product quality certification companies in Uganda that gauge the standard of products.

Table 4: Perceptions on Quality at Uganda Clays Ltd.

Item	M	SD	Description
UCL continuously improves on their products.	4.33	.93	Very High
UCL products are preferred above other products in the market in terms of performance	4.40	.79	Very High
UCL is consistent in providing good quality products	4.35	.84	Very High

UCL products have the best features and look beautiful	4.30	.89	Very High
UCL products certified by authorised quality certification bodies like UNBS,ISO	4.43	.85	Very High
UCL has a good reputation and it gives me prestige and personal security to buy from them	4.26	.96	Very High

The results from table.3 revealed there are some issues which largely have very high mean levels like UCL Continuously improves the products (4.33), UCL products are above other products in the market (4.40), UCL is consistent in providing Quality Products (4.35), UCL Products have the best features and looks beautiful (4.30), UCL products are certified by Quality Certification bodies like the Uganda Bureau of Standards and International standards Organisation (4.43) as well as UCL has a good reputation and gives the Prestige and personal Security of associating with Uganda clays Ltd (4.26). This clearly means the above mentioned issues play an important role in both the Quality of products. Henceforth management of Uganda clays Ltd needs to take a keen interest since they can vitally have an influence on the competitiveness of Uganda Clays Ltd.

Table 5: Correlations for Product Quality versus competitiveness

Correlations			
		Quality of Products	Competitiveness
Quality Of Products	Pearson Correlation	1	.527**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	160	160
Competitiveness	Pearson Correlation	.527**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	160	160
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

The test for Pearson's Correlation had Results in Table 5 which indicated that overall, there was a very strong positive significant relationship between Quality of Products and Competitiveness ($r(160) = .527, P < 0.01$). These findings imply that good Quality of Products enhanced Competitiveness at UCL. This also indicated that Quality of Products is a prerequisite for organisational competitiveness. These findings therefore reveal that if the

company maintained good quality of products the market share would be increased and hence remain very Competitive.

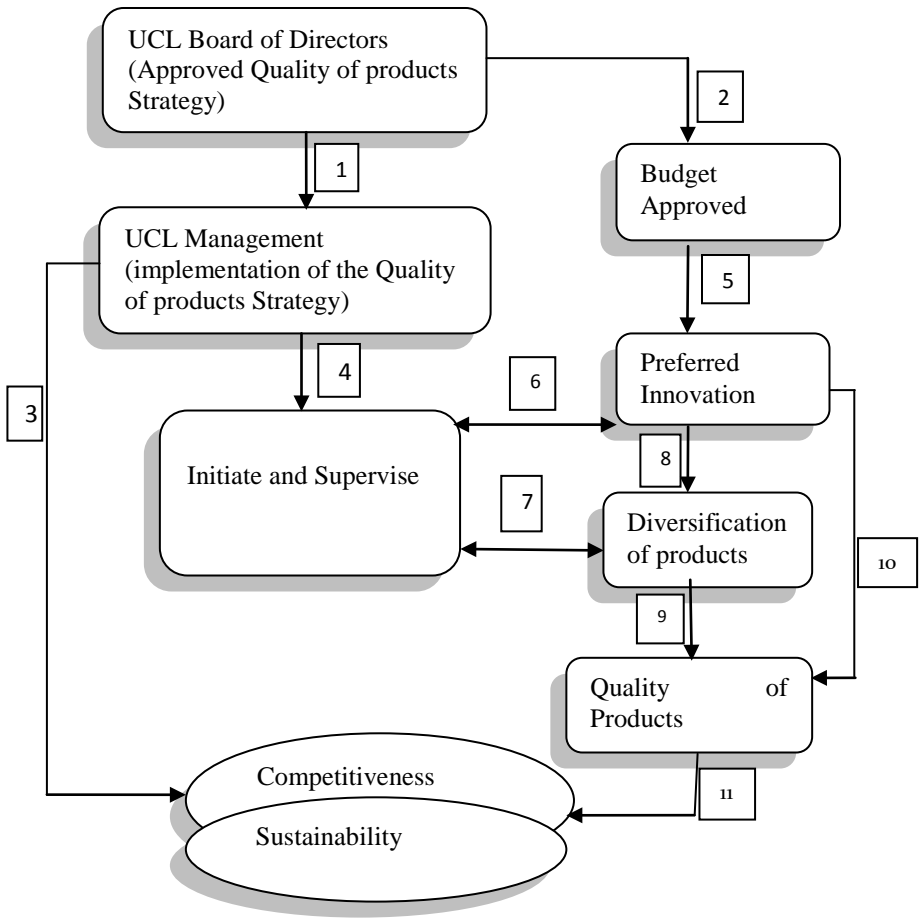
Table 6: Coefficients for Quality Products and Competitiveness

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.493	.305		4.889	.000
	Quality of Products	.576	.074	.527	7.804	.000
a. Dependent Variable: Competitiveness						

Quality of products as the predictor variable and Competitiveness the criterion variables are statistically significantly related (Beta.527, $P < 0.01$). This statistic revealed that the null hypothesis (H_0) which stated that “there would be no significant relationship between Quality of Products and Competitiveness” was rejected and instead the alternative hypothesis (H_a) that “there would be significant relationship between Quality of Products and Competitiveness” was supported.

In spite of the current Competitiveness there was still need to improve the whole spectrum and hence the current study initiated the following new Model to enable companies remain sustainably competitive.

Fig. 1 Sustainable Competitiveness Preferred Quality of Products Model (SCOPQUAP MODEL)



Key concepts and Operationalisation of the (SCOPQUAP MODEL)

Approved Quality of Products strategy: (AQP): For a Quality of Products strategy to be successful it must be approved by the Board of Directors.

Implementation of the Quality of Products strategy: The first (1st) arrow shows that after approval of the Quality of Products strategy the Board passes it on to Management for Implementation.

Approved Budget (AB): The second (2nd) Arrow shows that the board approves a budget to provide a financial framework for the decision making process and that the Quality of Products strategy implementation has been planned for.

Competitiveness Management (CM): The third (3rd) arrow clearly shows that in implementation of the Quality of Products strategy management keeps keen interest in monitoring Competitiveness to be able to adjust accordingly.

Initiation and Supervision: The fourth (4th) arrow show that good quality of products is achieved through Initiating & supervising Holistic organisational Systems.

Preferred Innovation: The fifth (5th) arrow shows that preferred Innovation will take place where a specific allocation of the approved budget will cater for it.

The sixth (6th) arrow shows that management initiates and supervises preferred innovation and that it is a continuous process.

Diversification of Products: The Seventh (7th) arrow shows that the process of expanding business opportunities through additional market potential of an existing product (Diversification of products) is initiated and supervised by company Leadership and is continuous.

The eighth (8th) Arrow shows that preferred Innovation is connected to Diversification of products and all must have a budget approved.

Quality of Product (QP): The ninth (9th) Arrow shows that diversification of products is intended to improve the Quality of products.

The tenth Arrow (10th) shows that preferred Innovation is intended to improve Quality of products.

Competitiveness (C): The eleventh (11th) arrow shows that Quality of products leads to Competitiveness and that there is a link between all the other arrows which all aim to augment Quality of products to enhance Competitiveness save for the third arrow which has a direct link to Competitiveness.

Sustainability (S): The last relationship in the new model Shows that competitiveness is interconnected to Sustainability and that all other

relationships should work together to achieve sustainable Competitiveness that will stand the test of time.

Conclusion

In a nutshell the study reveals that sometimes the line between Quality of Products strategy approval, implementation and execution is very thin and the differences are subtle which may lead into conflict. Basically, the board of Directors management and the Execution team must work as one team and each person involved in performance of any responsibilities should act conscientiously and the entire organisation must all work to achieve the stated desired results.

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THE IMPACT OF DECENTRALIZATION ON GOOD GOVERNANCE IN UGANDA

Amon Reeves Muzoora

Abstract

Uganda introduced the decentralization policy in 1997 under the Local Government Act of 1997 that has since undergone four amendments. The policy inherently decentralized service delivery institutions and their governance in order to improve access to services for the rural poor. This paper analyzed and assessed the impact of decentralization policy on good governance in Uganda (the case study of Wakiso District) during the past 10 years of democratic transition and focused on accountability and public participation.

The study design was cross sectional and exploratory, employing mixed methods to collect quantitative and qualitative data. Data was obtained from a sample size of 118 individuals. 81 respondents were considered for the self-administered questionnaire while 37 were considered for focused group discussion and interviews. The study involved collection of primary and secondary data. 105 respondents were supplied with questionnaires and 13 were interviewed. Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse data and generate tables and figures for diagrammatic illustration.

The findings indicate that decentralization resulted in greater participation by communities in the control and governance of service delivery including prevention and mitigation of corruption and low level of accountability. In light of this, the study recommends increment of local funding sources and creation of mechanisms for accountability among public officials to achieve improved service delivery.

Keywords: *Decentralization, Good governance, Accountability, Service delivery, Participation, Communities.*

Background

Decentralization is the transfer of administrative and political power from central to regional or sub-national governments (Muriisa, 2008). Decentralization is a longtime practice in Africa. However, it became more pronounced in the 1980s and 1990s when it featured as one of the World Bank's structural criteria. Decentralization programs in Africa followed the

recommendations of the World Bank for developing countries to devolve political and administrative powers to local and autonomous levels. The rationale for introduction of decentralization was that most of the social services such as health, education, water and sanitation that were centrally controlled by government were systematically failing (World Bank, 2003). The prime pursuit of decentralization was therefore to ensure efficient distribution of goods and services. In addition, decentralization was expected to quicken decision-making processes, increase participation by the local people, reduce corruption, ensure formulation of decisions tailored to people's needs and curtail clientelism associated with centralized government. Proponents of decentralization argue that the ills of centralized government including corruption, clientelism and political alienation would be cured by decentralization of power from central government to sub-national governments (Faguet, 2000).

The motivation for decentralization varies across countries and regions. In Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, it was part of political transformation to extend decision making from the central where few participated to the local governments where many would participate (Rondinelli, 1983).

In Sri Lanka and South Africa it was a response to ethnic and regional conflicts. It is argued that decentralization provides an institutional mechanism for bringing divided groups into a formal rule-bound bargaining process (Treismann, 1998). Decentralization in this case serves as a path to national unity. In Uganda, Chile and Cote D'Ivoire, it aimed at improving service delivery (Shah and Theresa 2004). In Uganda, the Local Government Act (1997), a central part of the decentralization policy stipulates that most central government powers and responsibilities for public services planning and delivery should be devolved to local governments.

Since the late 1980s, governments in sub-Saharan Africa including Uganda have been undertaking various political and socio-economic structural reforms to democratize and achieve sustainable development. Many African countries have undertaken programs linked to decentralization to strengthen the role of regional and local governments in the development process (World Bank, 1996). Decentralization has been considered essential to create a collaborative mechanism between the state

and the people. Uganda, after its recovery from a prolonged internal civil strife, Uganda is now ready to move ahead with democratization and development.

Uganda today is therefore at a critical juncture. The local governance and its Local Council (LC) structure will bear important functions and responsibilities in order to make the current decentralization politically and developmentally successful. While the institutional mechanism is in place, both opportunities and constraints it presents are enormous. Whether the intended collaboration between the state and the people will be realized or not will influence the outcome of the “indigenous” experimentation. This has implications for the polity as well as for improving the living standard of the people in Uganda.

After 1986 Uganda experienced massive reforms including decentralization that “wished to avoid competitive politics that would appeal to the population on grounds of ethnicity, religion, or regional particularism” (Hesselbein, Golooba-Mutebi & Putzel, 2006). Given the legacy of violence in Uganda, decentralization was largely to; enhance the state’s capacity, limit ethnic fragmentation, and avoid perpetual conflicts. Decentralization thus aimed to reduce the workload of central authorities, improve local control and ownership over services, allow local managers to make independent, context driven decisions and improve accountability and service delivery through a better system of local monitoring (Birungi, et al., 2000). The decentralization process has considerably succeeded and experienced flaws as well. Among the successes are in; improvement of institutional strength, empowerment citizens, encouragement of participatory development, improvement of service delivery and creation of employment opportunities (Okidi & Guloba, 2006). The flaws of Uganda’s

Decentralization process include the excessive demand for and creation of new districts and the associated high levels of administrative fragmentation. Some of the districts are ineffective, leading to incessant demand for more districts from sectors of the population wishing to control their own resources to improve efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery. An additional concern about decentralization is a return to ethnically based patronage networks. While the original goal of government was to inhibit ethnically-based patronage,, the government has increasingly

used group identity to allocate districts and this strengthens patronage networks. The state continues to exert strong control over these mechanisms, by presiding over local fiefdoms such as districts, and access to resources and opportunities for patronage (Green, 2008; DENIVA, 2011)

This research studied decentralization policy in Wakiso District focusing on public policy formulation, implementation and monitoring at the National level. .

The study investigated the impact of decentralization policy on good governance in Uganda with a focus on Wakiso District. The research assessed the impact of the policy on two variables which include accountability and public participation. The research also investigated the ideology behind creation of new districts in Uganda in relation to other ideologies like regional tier, federalism and East African integration. The success of new districts to take services closer to the people, the challenges, lessons learnt and the cost of “over decentralisation” were also addressed. The research further identified key stakeholder roles, alternative strategies for strengthening decentralisation policy beyond creation of new districts and recommendations for improvement of decentralisation policy in Uganda.

Problem Statement

Decentralization is one of the policies undertaken by the government of Uganda to overhaul the ineffective systems of governance and public administration that existed during the politically turbulent times before 1986. While the post-1986 Government of Uganda had the vision and resolve to introduce and manage the reform programme, it lacked the financial and human resources to sustain reform operations on such a massive scale.

Decentralization policy was in 1993 introduced as a pilot project in 13 out of 38 districts then. Decentralization was embraced and spread across the 38 districts of Uganda in three years that followed. In 1995 decentralization was integrated in the national constitution and legalized by Parliament of the Republic of Uganda in the Local Government Act, 1997.

The number of new districts overwhelmed the national human and financial resources. Many of the new districts were resultantly managed by

semi-qualified staff and politicians with minimal leadership skills. Even after the 2005 controversial amendment of the constitution limiting number of districts, the government of Uganda continues to create more districts even with growing scepticism among political leaders in some sub-regions like Bushenyi, Masaka and the Acholi Sub-region.

The number of districts has therefore increased from 38 in 1993 to 112 by year 2010. Resistance and demand for more districts depends on the interests of the region. In terms of accountability, 97 of the 112 failed to account for over shillings 8.3 billion advanced to councillors, an act that can result into loss or misappropriation of funds (Auditor General's Report, 2008/09) and a sign that decentralization does not always lead to good governance.

Purpose and Objectives of the Study

Purpose of the Study/ Main objective

The purpose of this study was to explore and assess the impact of decentralization policy on good governance in Uganda (the case study of Wakiso District) during the past 10 years of democratic transition.

Specific Objectives

- i. To establish the impact of decentralization on political and administrative accountability in Wakiso District.
- ii. To analyse the impact of decentralization policy on public participation in political and administrative management of the district.

Hypothesis

Hypothesis of the study

H_O: There is no impact of decentralization policy on political and administrative accountability.

H_A: There is an impact of decentralization policy on political and administrative accountability.

H_o: There is no impact of decentralization policy on public participation.

H_A: There is an impact of decentralization policy on public participation

Literature Review

A good number of researchers have recently written on the impact of public policy reforms and decentralization initiatives around the world in their relations to administrative reforms. Although decentralization is widely covered, none of these studies has covered its impact on the socio-economic development of both the rural and urban population.

The study specifically focused on the different phenomenon from the rest of the application of the theory of public policy reform on decentralization on the performance of local governments in an effort to bring about (socio-economic development) good governance in Uganda.

Theoretical Framework

The study of “decentralization strategy for good governance” is derived from the controversial debate put forward by the territorial dimension of decentralization theories of the state of the 1940s, 1960s, 1970s and 1990s focusing on decentralization and good governance. It is inherently based on decentralization for empowerment and effectiveness (Smith B.C 1985, Allen and Unirin, 1995), the failure of current decentralization programs in Africa (Dele Olowu, 1999, Oluwu and De Wit, 2000) and the failure of the centralized state-institutions and self-governance in Africa (Wunsch and Elowu, 1995). It borrows from “the idea of local government as a third tier of government” (Adam lekun. 1984) and also from “decentralization of development administration in East Africa” (Rondinelli, 1983a). The above among others shall be needed as tools for analysing decentralization policy.

Decentralization and good governance

Decentralization is identified by many as a crucial factor contributing to good governance. The relationship between ‘successful’ decentralization and ‘good’ governance is quite high according to a hypothesis claimed by Vengroff and Salem (Vengroff and Salem, 1992, pp. 473-492). Jerry VanSant also identifies decentralization as an important institutional setting to improve governance in developing nations (VanSant, 1997). The hypothetical positive relationship between decentralization and good governance is supported by observations in Africa, where “nations with the ‘best’ long term records of democratic governance also have for extended periods been involved in serious experimentation with the implementation of various forms of decentralization (Vengroff, 1994)” Robert Charlick explains the

relationship between governance and decentralization as a way of the state providing multiple centres of participation in decision-making that in turn assures better management, responsiveness, and accountability which are basic features of good governance (Charlick, 1992). There seems to be an agreement on the crucial role of decentralization in democracies with almost all authors observing that decentralization only works with support from political decision makers. According to VanSant “decentralization itself is no guarantee of good governance nor of access by citizens, especially the poor, to basic services.” Richard Vengroff and Ben Salem (2010) also point out that “while numerous countries have undertaken so-called decentralization programs few have demonstrated the political will necessary for its successful implementation (Richard Vengroff and Ben Salem, 2010).” The literature on development management indicates that the success of decentralization depends less on the formal rhetoric used by politicians and more on the degree to which decentralized units participate in actual political decision making.

Good governance is a high priority consideration for international aid agencies but remains difficult to define. Foreign aid is more concentrated on the complex issue of governance than ever before. James and Anderson (1975) note that the concept of good governance is “highly complex and surrounded by intense controversy (World Bank, 1992).” Traditionally, “development seemed a more easily surmountable and largely technical challenge (World Bank, 1997)” New projects address the issue of development from a multifaceted point of view, aiming at building good governance rather than improving the technical-physical aspects of state administration.

For the sake of development management, governance can be best defined as: *Impartial, transparent management of public affairs through the generation of a regime (set of rules) accepted as constituting legitimate authority, for the purpose of promoting and enhancing societal values that are sought by individuals and groups* (Charlick, 1992).

Charlick (1992) notes that building good governance is important everywhere but plays an even more substantial role in development management because it is ultimately “the use of political authority and exercise of control for social and economic development.” Governance has a

political and a technical dimension. The two are interrelated. James and Anderson (1975) define certain aspects such as genuine political commitment as the political dimension and efficient public administration as the technical dimensions of governance. None can exist without the other. Richard Vengroff and Ben Salem (2010) suggest four factors upon which the quality of governance depends:

1. Transparency of budgeting;
2. Access to and opportunities for participation;
3. Public initiatives;
4. Government responsiveness to the populace and/or elected representatives;

Muriisa (2008) pointed out efficiency, economy, effectiveness and accountability as the yardsticks for measurement of decentralization.

Efficiency measures the extent to which output is maximized using minimum resource inputs. Two types of efficiency may be considered: *allocative efficiency* which considers a match between public service and local needs, and *productive efficiency* which considers a match between provision of the public service and its costs, improved accountability and reduced levels of red tape.

Economy refers to production using the cheapest means. In competitive tendering, it is assumed that resource inputs are obtained from the cheapest source while services are provided by the lowest bidder.

Effectiveness measures the extent to which the original objectives and policy goals are achieved. It has to be emphasized that the above measures are not isolated but affect and impinge on each other. For example, increased economy may be achieved with loss of effectiveness and efficiency. An increase in school enrolment without a corresponding increase in recruitment of teachers may lead to loss of effectiveness because some children may lack sufficient attention.

Accountability concerns *political accountability* in which the elected representatives account to their electorates, and *administrative accountability* which is the extent to which managers achieve set targets. Usually, the focus is on the extent to which targets are achieved within the limits of the budget.

The concept of public policy

Public policy presupposes that there is a domain of life which is not private or purely individual, but held in common in attaining good governance. The public comprises that domain of human activity which is regarded as requiring governmental intervention or common action (R.K Sapru, 2004). Policies can be defined as “general directives on the main lines of action to be followed”, (Y. Dror P.4, 1968). It is also defined as “changing directives as to how tasks should be interpreted and performed,” (Peter Self, p.67, 1972).

Sir Geoffrey Vickers defines policies as decisions giving direction, coherence and continuity to the courses of action for which the decision-making body is responsible (Sir Geoffrey Vickers, 1965). A policy is also regarded as a proposed course of action of a person, group or government within a given environment providing obstacles and opportunities which the policy was proposed to utilise to achieve an objective or a purpose (Carl Friedrich, 1963). A policy may also be regarded as “a purposive course of action followed by an actor or set of actors in dealing with a problem or matter of concern” (James Anderson, 1975). Generally, policy may be defined as a purposive course of action taken or adopted by those in power in pursuit of certain goals or objectives. Public policy is “the authoritative allocation of values for the whole society that abound good governance (David Easton, p.129, 1953).

The other major concept is decentralization, and in this regard, this means reversing the concentration of administration at a single centre and conferring powers of Local government. The idea of decentralization is captured as a political phenomenon involving both administration and government, with the aim of promoting Government responsiveness to populace a tenet of good governance (Smith, 1985).

In the study of politics, decentralization refers to the territorial distribution of power. It is connected with the extent to which power and authority are dispersed through the geographical hierarchy of the state, and the institutions and processes through which such disposal occurs. Decentralization entails the subdivision of the State's territory into smaller areas and the creation of political and administrative instructions in these areas (B.C Smith, 1985, P.1). Some of the instructions so created may

themselves find it necessary to practice further decentralization (Olowu, 1987).

This study was interested in the process of policy formulation. Another aspect of Public Policy in decentralization is found within national administrative agencies such as government ministries or public corporations which find it expedient to delegate authority to responsible officials at district level.

The decentralization policy involves different kinds of hierarchy combining different institutions and functions. Each level of government within a federal or unitary state may delegate powers to lower-level governments. It is also true that administrative agencies of government at all levels may practice decentralization within their organizations. The study of decentralization therefore, unlike some influential but constructing traditions in Political Science and Public Administration should not borrow questions about concepts like “Local” and “Government” when discussing Local Government. Geographical areas and the state institutions within them are highly variable (Olowu and De wit, 1987).

Decentralization policy is widely regarded as a necessary condition for social, economic and political development as. State must localize its governmental apparatus in order to realize good governance.

In different regions of the world, national governments are using decentralization policy as a strategy for coping with the political instability caused by secessionist movements and demands for regional autonomy. The irony of this situation is that it is often brought about by minority groups that would dearly love to be “integrated” if that meant enjoying equal rights with the majority population. However, it is a sense of discrimination with the larger community that so often forces minority cultural and ethnic groups to feel itself discriminates against them, or allows others to, is hardly likely to concede a right to self-determination. Whether decentralization constitutes an adequate response to demand for autonomy will depend on how extreme those demands have become, which, in turn will depend on the level of repression experienced in the past.

The attraction of decentralization policy is not merely that it is the opposite of centralization and therefore can be assumed to be capable of remedying the latter's effects. Decentralization is associated with a wide range of economic, social and political benefits in developed and less-developed societies including improvement of the efficiency with which demands for locally provided services are expressed and public goods provided (Shepard, 1975). Market Models of local-decision making consider decentralization as a means of expanding the scope of consumer choice. Decentralization is said to reduce costs, improve output and more effectively utilize human resources (Hart, 1992).

Politically, decentralization brings government closer to the people by strengthening accountability, political sensitivity and national integration and promoting liberty, equality and welfare (Maas, 1959; Hill, 1974). Decentralization has been elevated to the role of guardian of basic human values (Steffensen et al, 2000).

Decentralization cannot escape criticism in the context of some theories of the state. Katznelson (1972) notes that decentralization threatens reinforces narrow sectoral interests and is anti-egalitarian through its support for regional variation in provision of public goods. Decentralization in a socialist perspective is likely to be discussed in relation to the nature of the state and economy in which it operates. A romantic, idealistic perception of decentralization, as a kind of absolute good to be valued in its own right should be reviewed. Under decentralization, local institutions are susceptible to manipulation by dominant classes such as national governments that present adult suffrage in local elections as egalitarian. Far from guaranteeing political equality, local institutions under decentralization may perpetuate the misdistribution of influence as in a capitalist society. There is a feeling that the political education obtained from local democracy teaches the importance of social and economic disadvantages that restrict the political power of certain classes and inhibits potential of local government to change the structural constraints on economic and social advancement. In the Third World, where decentralization is given the official objective of mobilizing the poor in development efforts, it may be recognized that local institutions have simply provided yet more resources and power to be commandeered by already powerful elites and propertied interests (Sharpe, 1981).

Critics observe that the decentralization strategy's major role in capitalist societies has been part of liberal reformism. It incorporates what might otherwise be forces antagonistic to the regime into the state apparatus by extending the apparatus down words (Katznelson, 1972) and creates the form of dispersed power without creating its substance.

So, a flashback to Public Policy generally indicates that "Our democratic values tell us that government should represent all; the poor as well as the rich, and everyone should have an equal chance to influence government. But we know that is not that way" (Welch, Grahl, Corner, Rigdon and Vemeer, 1999:261).

The matter of public policy shall fully be handled by the researcher when tackling the theoretical approaches that attempt to explain the policy process, how influence is exercised and the political forces that mould policy decisions. These include the elite class and group approaches.

Empirical evidence indicates that decentralization policy does not mean the same thing to different people. The opponents and proponents of the policy may agree on the institutions and processes involved but from fundamentally different premises about the nature of power or the meaning of democracy. Critics visualize decentralization operating within very different kinds of political and economic systems. Decentralization under capitalism and liberal political institutions will be judged differently. Critics often fail to specify the kind of political or administrative hierarchy they have in mind when recommending or condemning decentralization. It is often politically expedient to be imprecise. Ambiguities in language, as Rondinelli points out; "public pronouncements in Tanzania and the Sudan implied that local governments would be created; the language of decentralization laws- and even their titles- used the term 'Local Government', whereas in reality, leaders in both countries initially intended only to establish local units of administration that would act as agents of the Central Government "(Rondinelli, 1981a, p.140)". This was a mere administrative delegation

Proponents of decentralization contend that the need for decentralization is universal. Even the smallest states such as the Solomon Islands with a population of 180,000 people spread over a scattered

archipelago of 29,000sq km of land and 803,000 sq. km of ocean and speaking seventy-four different languages (Prendas, 1982). May geographically and ethnically require decentralization with a specified degree of autonomy.

The proponents of decentralization argue that it is a necessary condition for social, economic and political development and that the contemporary state must localize its governmental apparatus regardless of ideological foundation.

More dramatically, many states have to devise a response to localize political demands for greater autonomy. Fewer states can ignore public hostility to centralization and uniformity. In different regions of the world national governments are using decentralization as a strategy for coping with the political instability for regional autonomy. The irony of this situation is that it is often brought about by minority groups that would benefit from “integration” if that meant enjoying equal rights with the majority population. However, discrimination within the larger community that so often forces minority cultural and ethnic groups to seek autonomy (Muriisa, 2001)(Bunyoro Vs Buganda on Lost Counties of Buyaga and Bugangaizi);

Economically, decentralization is said to improve the efficiency with which demands for locally provided services are expressed and public good provided (Shepard, 1975). Politically, decentralization is said to strengthen accountability, political skills and national integration and brings government closer to people. Decentralization provides better services to client groups and, promotes liberty, equality and welfare (Maas, 1959; D.M. Hill, 1974). Decentralization provides a training ground for citizen participation and political leadership and has been elevated to the role of guardian of basic human values (Van Putten, 1971).

On the other hand, the opponents of decentralization consider it parochial and separatist, anti-egalitarian and threatening the general will by reinforcing narrow sectoral interests through its support for regional variation in the provision of public good.

From a socialist perspective, decentralization is likely to be discussed in relation to the nature of the state and economy in which it operates. Above

all, decentralization will be judged by reference to the interests which benefit from and control substantial political institutions. A romantic, idealistic perception of decentralization, as some kind of absolute good to be judged by its own right, is rejected. Local institutions will be seen to be just as susceptible to manipulation by dominant classes as national governments. A different view of power will be adapted to that which sees local democracy as egalitarian in political terms because of universal suffrage in local elections. Power will be seen as residing beyond the institutions of decentralized government and as unequally distributed among classes according to their material position in society. Far from guaranteeing political equality, local institutions may be accused of perpetuating the misdistribution of rewards and influence that characterizes capitalist society generally. There may also be a feeling that local democracy teaches the importance of recognizing the social and economic disadvantages which restrict the political power of certain classes and the lack of opportunity provided by local government to change the structural constraints on economic and social advancement. In the third world, where decentralization is given the official objective of mobilizing the poor in development efforts, it may be recognized that local institutions have simply provided more resources and powers to already powerful elites and propertied interests.

Critics observe that decentralization incorporates what might otherwise be forces antagonistic to the regime into the state apparatus by extending the apparatus downwards (Katzneson, 1972). Decentralization thus creates the form of dispersed power without creating its substance.

Critics continue to warn against assuming that more centralization in British Local Governments is inevitably bad (Broaden, 1970). Not everyone approves of the extent to which the British state in its operational aspects is a male bourgeoisie gerontocracy (Smith and Stanyer, 1976, p.110). The public confidence in their honesty as well as their competence declines as the number of councillors and officers convicted for corruption increases. Evidence from both public opinion polls and sociological investigation suggests that decentralization does not strengthen trust in the fairness of government (Yin and Lucas, 1973). The case of Northern Ireland where devolution was marred by gerrymandering, and by discrimination in the

administration of law and order and municipal housing hardly inspires an automatic faith in decentralization, wherever the blame for all the trouble should lie (Birch, 1977).

The critics of decentralization in the USA, have reacted strongly against what they see as the inefficiencies of political fragmentation leading to urban sprawl, inadequate open spaces, congested schools, mediocre administration, smog, traffic jams and the breakdown of mass transportation systems (R.C, Wood, 1959). The disparities in the quality of life and public services between the central and the sub-urban areas of the fragmented, metropolis have attracted a good deal of criticism from American students of decentralization. Decentralization within urban governments to neighbourhood institutions has been opposed not only as 'a betrayal of integration' but also a view of its anti-professional stances, as a denial of the merit system in urban government (Yates, 1973).

Students of under development, of which the researcher is one, have warned that the proliferation of administrative arrangements at the local level can bring about deterioration in the quality of administration as larger numbers of officials with less education, narrower outlooks and hardly any experience are employed (Mukerji, 1961).

Decentralization and accountability in local governments

The concept of accountability

In conceptualizing accountability these fundamental questions are asked: what is accountability? Who is accountable? To whom? For what? How can we tell one person or group is more accountable than the other? In whose interest do those who wield political authority work? Is it the general public, elected officials, agency heads, clients, special interest groups or the future generation? Figuring answers to these questions will probably lead us to find the impact of decentralization in promoting accountability in local governments. (Romzek and Dubnick, 1987:229).

Definition of accountability

Accountability, like decentralization, is a subtle notion. It means different things to different people. Brinkerhoff (2004:372) notes that despite its popularity, accountability is ill-defined. Mulgan (2000) on the other hand

calls it 'complex and chameleon-like' as Schedler (1999) observes that 'accountability represents an underexploited concept whose meaning remains evasive, whose boundaries are fuzzy and whose internal structure is confusing'.

Despite the disparities in definitions, accountability theories have claimed prominence in public administration literature, encompassing three nucleus aspects. First, accountability is a relational term because parties account to each other. Secondly, it is an obligation because one entity (person or organization) commits to explain their actions to another. Thirdly, accountability is corrective because it penalizes entities with unsatisfactory explanations (Eckardt, 2008:29, Brinkerhoff, 2004).

Bovens (2005) combines the three aspects by defining accountability as "*a relationship between an actor and a forum, in which the actor has an obligation to explain and to justify his or her conduct, the forum can pose questions and pass judgment, and the actor can be sanctioned*". Accountability therefore is the process by which organizations and individuals are answerable for their performance. It requires a clear statement of the expected outputs and outcomes, the, (gklhgl sd) parties responsible for achieving them, to whom they report and who takes the credit or the blame of the end result.

Decentralization and Public participation

Participation entails active engagement of both internal and external stakeholders in the decisions and activities that affect them. As a minimum requirement, participation must include the ability to influence decision making and not just seek approval or acceptance of a decision or activity (Lloyd et al., 2007). Public servants must be held accountable for democratic authority to succeed at the local or national level. Local Government employees must be accountable to elected representatives, and representatives must be accountable to the public. The effective tool used in bureaucratic accountability is supervision. On the other hand elected leaders are checked by the public using elections as the main mode of accountability (Blair, 2000).

In many developing decentralizing democracies accountability faces a number of challenges especially that some functions remain centralized. In Uganda for example, all district workers are recruited at the local level but

receive their salaries and other emoluments through a centralized payment system effected by Ministry of Public Service and Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development. Retention of such important controls at central level weakens local political leaders' capacity to hold local government bureaucrats to account and complicates problem solving at the local level. Government's reluctance to decentralize salary payments may be caused by reluctance of employees to be decentralized. On the other hand, politicians are held accountable by citizens through periodic elections.

The theoretical assumption here is that non performing leaders are removed from the office. However in developing democracies, election processes are stage managed by the influential politicians and the largely poor citizens find difficulty holding them to account. Nevertheless elections reflect public will (Blair, 2000:27). In many systems, opposition *political parties* are a powerful engine for enforcing accountability. The party in power most often has strong incentives to evade accountability, but opposition parties have their own incentives to uncover wrongdoing by the ruling regime and publicly hound incumbents for their misdeeds. They present a constant vision of a viable alternative for doing public business differently and perhaps better. Such a visible alternative helps keep the party in power on a path of political morality (Blair, 2000). The challenge is that although they keep government in check, opposition in many developing democracies is too weak to influence the ruling government. Public meetings in many countries have been instituted to insert civic opinion into local governance.

The central idea of participation is to give citizens a meaningful role in government decisions that affect them at both central and local level

Expounding local participation

The rationale for participative government at local level stems from recognition that involving people in governing processes makes local authorities accountable to citizens (Blair 2000; Sirker and Cosic 2007). An ancillary benefit is that the work of the authorities becomes transparent to local people (Holdar and Zakharchenko 2002; Manowong and Ogunlana 2006).

Scholarly thought and the work of practitioners was reflected in 'Agenda 21', the outcome document of 1992 United Nations 'Earth Summit' in Rio de

Janeiro, Brazil, highlighted stakeholder participation as a major factor in promoting sustainable development (Stone 1989). Since then, Agenda 21 was given political, legal and regulatory force by national governments and by United Nations organisations in every area of human endeavour.

In some jurisdictions, the right to public participation has been enshrined in law, conceived as a human right or as a manifestation of the right to freedom of association and assembly in . countries such as the Netherlands, Germany, Denmark, the USA and Sweden. Uganda has public participation and freedom of information provisions in her legal system (Zillman et al. 2002).

The argument that decentralization improves resource allocation, accountability, and cost recovery relies heavily on the assumption that sub-national governments have better information than the central government about the needs and preferences of the local population, and that the population is more aware of actions of sub-national governments than of the central government. sheer physical proximity to constituents does not ensure that sub-national governments have the needed information unless they make an effort to elicit it.

Methodology

This chapter presents the type of research, data collection techniques, research strategy, sample of respondents, techniques of data analysis, and finally application of a measure of reliability and validity of observable chosen measures of the researched concepts.

Research design

The study was mainly based on empirical qualitative and quantitative data. The study in question is descriptive, intended to gain in-depth in-sights into the decentralization policy in relation to good governance. The study adopted an exploratory case study and cross sectional research. The qualitative case study put emphasis on a full contextual analysis of events and conditions and their interrelations (Schindler and Cooper, 2003).

In this regard, Ministry of Local Government was the major centre of the study while Wakiso district, Entebbe municipality and Buganda region were the sub-centres. The Ministry of Local Government and the other two sub-

centres were purposively selected based on their rich experience with decentralization. The study relied on Primary and Secondary data. The study combined information from primary and secondary sources of data including unstructured expert interviews, secondary literature, use of questionnaires and observation.

Sample size and selection

Of the total sample size of 118 individuals, 105 were supplied with questionnaires. The sample size was determined using the sample determination table developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) and Roscoe J. T (1975).

Data Collection instruments

Interview Method

37 consenting participants responded to structured questionnaires and interview guides. The information sheet specified that respondents would not be liable for their individual perceptions and that the information they gave would be confidential.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a form containing a set of printed questions aimed at obtaining statistical information. In this study the researcher formulated and printed the questionnaires. A structured and validated questionnaire was used for data collection. The instrument contained five sections- A, B, C, D & E. Section A captures demographic data of the respondents; section B examines the administration of decentralization in the governance of Wakiso district; section C assesses the impact of local executive development on promoting good governance and effective empowerment of people in Wakiso district; Section D examines the impact of policy making and empowerment of the people of Wakiso district on oversight and good governance. Section E was designed to establish the contribution of service and infrastructure management on promoting good governance in Wakiso district in order to analyze and assess the effects of decentralization with institutional participation and its influence on good governance in Wakiso. A total of 81 respondents were reached by the use of questionnaire.

Reliability and validity of the Instrument

Reliability is the requirement that the application of a valid measuring instrument to different individuals and groups under different sets of circumstances will result in the same conclusions (Mouton & Marais, 1990: pg 50). The reliability of the instrument was ascertained using the test-retest procedure. A reliability coefficient (r) of 0.88 was obtained. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used in the data analysis. Fishers statistics was further employed to compare the coefficient value(s) of both variables, to measure the level of significant difference between the general service users and providers. The researcher also examined the content of the interview questions by discussing it with a group of panellist to find out the reliability of the instrument. The researcher excluded irrelevant questions and changed words that were deemed difficult by the respondents, into much simpler terms.

Data Analysis

Data obtained in the field was analyzed and using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The distribution of the frequencies and percentages of the respondents was carried out for their profile while means for the variables were computed. In testing the hypothesis, a one way ANOVA, correlation to establish the relationship between the variables was carried out.

Results and Interpretation

Hypothesis 1 on decentralization and accountability

H₀: There is no impact of decentralization policy in promoting accountability.

H_A: There is an impact of decentralization policy in promoting accountability

The study tested the hypothesis with a linear regression analysis; the model summary under table 1 below shows the R square was 18% of the observed variability in accountability explained by the independent variables that is; Local government departments receive guidance from the CAO on policy implementation, there is adequate liaison between the district councils and the local government functionaries. The activities of the district departments, including all delegated services and local councils are

adequately supervised and coordinated. All lawful decisions taken by the council are implemented as stipulated. The local government councils and their departments. $R=0.133$ is the correlation coefficient between the observed value of the dependent variable and the predicted value based on the regression model. The Adj. R^2 (0.059) is the proportion of the variability in the dependent variable explained by the linear regression. The results show that decentralization policy contributes 5.9% to accountability at Wakiso district. The remaining 94.1% is contributed by other factors outside the scope of the current study.

Table 1: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.133 ^a	.018	.059	1.50103

a. Predictors: (Constant), Local government departments receive guidance from the CAO on policy implementation; there is adequate liaison between the district councils and the local government functionaries. The activities of the district departments, including all delegated services and local councils are adequately supervised and coordinated. All lawful decisions taken by the council are implemented as stipulated, The local government councils and their departments

The analysis-of-variance (ANOVA) table 2 was used to test the equivalent null hypothesis. The $F=0.231$, $p<0.948$, the null hypothesis that there is no impact of decentralization policy in promoting accountability was not rejected, meaning that at least one of the population regression coefficient is not zero. The results indicate that an increase in the independent variables will result in to a slight increase in dependent variables. This shows that there is a weak relationship between the decentralization policy and accountability.

Table 2: Analysis-of-variance

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	2.603	5	.521	.231	.948 ^b
Residual	144.197	64	2.253		
Total	146.800	69			

a. Dependent Variable: Monthly financial statements in clear and useful formats are provided to the council Committees in accordance with Regulation 8 of the LGFAR 2007 and Budget reviews are made through the council with publication to the public.

b. Predictors: (Constant), Local government departments receive guidance from the CAO on policy implementation, there is adequate liaison between the district councils and the local government functionaries, The activities of the district departments including all delegated services and local councils are adequately supervised and coordinated. All lawful decisions are taken by the council and implemented as stipulated. The local government councils and their departments are well coordinated.

The regression matrix below tests what independent variable is more important to the dependent variable. The results show that adequate liaison between the district councils and the local government functionaries is the most significant independent variable to accountability at Wakiso district because it has a t-statistic = 0.470, $p < 0.640$.

Table 3: Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.232	.903		3.581	.001
Local government departments receive guidance from the CAO on policy implementation	-.012	.256	-.008	-.047	.963
There is adequate liaison between the district councils and the local government functionaries	.143	.304	.078	.470	.640
The activities of the district departments, including all delegated services and local councils are adequately supervised and coordinated	-.148	.163	-.133	-.907	.368
All lawful decisions are taken by the council are implemented as stipulated	.044	.216	.032	.204	.839
The local government councils and their departments are well coordinated	.048	.218	.034	.219	.828

a. Dependent Variable: Monthly financial statements in clear and useful formats are provided to the council Committees in accordance with Regulation 8 of the LGFAR 2007 and Budget reviews are made through the council with publication to the public

The result therefore shows a weak relationship between decentralization policy and accountability indicated by a correlation coefficient (r) of 0.133. This means that there is a slight effect of decentralization policy on accountability at Wakiso district. Decentralization policy has not been effective in promoting accountability in Wakiso district despite the measures provided for in the policy.

Hypothesis 2 on decentralization and public participation

H₀: There is no impact of decentralization policy in promoting public participation.

H_A: There is an impact of decentralization policy in promoting public participation

The study used linear regression analysis to test the hypothesis. The model summary in Table 4 below shows the R square was 30.2% of the observed variability in decentralization policy and public participation in Wakiso District explained by the independent variables that is; the local government council makes decisions in line with the council role on the basis of the social, economic, environmental and cultural well-being of the entire community and allocates resources in a fair socially inclusive, and sustainable way. The LGC committees are functioning with planned and publicized meetings, open discussions, and minutes taken. All members are given the opportunity to speak if they request. Council members understand, appreciate, and are committed to their roles. The public and civil society is encouraged to attend and contribute to council committee meetings. $R=0.55$ is the correlation coefficient between the observed value of the dependent variable and the predicted value based on the regression model. The Adj. R^2 (0.267) is the proportion of the variability in the dependent variable explained by the linear regression. The results show that decentralization policy contributes 26.7% to promoting public participation in Wakiso. The remaining 73.3% is contributed by other factors outside the scope of the current study.

Table 4: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.550 ^a	.302	.267	.65130

a. Predictors: (Constant), The LGC makes decisions in line with the council role on the basis of the social, economic, environmental and cultural well-being of the entire community and allocates resources in a fair socially inclusive, and sustainable way. The LGC committees are functioning with planned and publicized meetings, open discussions, and minutes taken. All members are given the opportunity to speak if they request. Council members understand, appreciate, and are committed to their roles. The public and civil society are encouraged to attend and contribute to council committee meetings.

The analysis-of-variance (ANOVA) Table 5 was also used by the study to test the equivalent null hypothesis. The $F=8.579$, $p<0.000$, the null hypothesis that there is no impact of decentralization policy in promoting public participation was rejected, meaning that at least one of the population regression coefficient is not zero. The results indicate that an increase in the independent variables will result into a corresponding increase in dependent variables.

Table 5: ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	18.195	5	3.639	8.579	.000 ^b
Residual	41.995	99	.424		
Total	60.190	104			

a. Dependent variable: communication and dissemination tools are used to reach citizens in settlements outside the headquarters and the marginalized groups

b. Predictors: (Constant), The LGC makes decisions in line with the council role on the basis of the social, economic, environmental and cultural well-being of the entire community and allocates resources in a fair socially inclusive, and sustainable way, The LGC committees are functioning with planned and publicized meetings, open discussions, and minutes taken, All members are given the opportunity to speak if they request., Council members understand, appreciate, and are committed to their roles., The public and civil society are encouraged to attend and contribute to council committee meetings.

The regression matrix below tests what independent variable is more important to the dependent variable. The results show that council members understand, appreciate, and commitment to their roles is the most significant independent variable to decentralization policy and promoting public participation in Wakiso district because it has a t-statistic = 4.276, $p < 0.000$. Also its Beta is much larger than the corresponding standard error. This indicates that there is a strong correlation with the dependent variable.

Table 6: Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	3.504	.709		4.944	.000	2.098	4.910
All members are given the opportunity to speak if they request.	.398	.127	.391	3.137	.002	.146	.649
Council members understand, appreciate, and are committed to their roles.	.626	.146	.560	4.276	.000	.335	.916
The LGC committees are functioning with planned and publicized meetings, open discussions, and minutes taken	-.237	.124	-.276	-1.909	.059	-.484	.009
The public and civil society are encouraged to attend and contribute to council committee meetings.	.119	.106	.165	1.123	.264	-.091	.329
The LGC makes decisions in line with the council role on the basis of the social, economic, environmental and cultural well-being of the entire community and allocates resources in a fair socially inclusive, and sustainable way	-.756	.181	-.460	-4.176	.000	-1.115	-.397

a. Dependent Variable: communication and dissemination tools are used to reach citizens in settlements outside the headquarters and the marginalized groups

Conclusions and recommendations

This thesis assessed the impact of decentralization policy on good governance in Uganda during the past 10 years of democratic transition while identifying democratic local government as a prerequisite to democracy taken as “an act of faith” to decentralization approach to service delivery in Uganda. The thesis reviews different academic and empirical works done in Uganda since decentralization policy was started. The thesis is premised on the fact that for proper evaluation of the impact of decentralization to good governance, one needs to look at accountability and public participation as tools of evaluation. The thesis argues that decentralization has achieved only partial achievements in promotion of good governance in the areas of public participation but has not done well in accountability.

The findings show that despite the good intentions of decentralization, its implementation has faced challenges of financing (Budgeting and Budgetary control), accountability, infrastructure management and resource management at the local government level. The thesis concludes that as a policy for good governance, decentralization falls short of realizing that objective in Uganda despite a few isolated indicators of good governance.

The findings suggest that improving local funding sources and creating mechanisms through which public officials could be held more accountable would lead to improved service delivery. Attaining financial capacity would lead to effective implementation of decentralization and efficient service delivery.

The capacity of both local governments and CSOs needs to be strengthened if they are to be able to engage, in an inclusive manner, in real debate about resource use and service delivery. However, there is also a risk that the emphasis on social accountability impedes the development of public accountability, as local officials and elected representatives devote their attention to meeting external performance conditions and can blame inadequate funding for poor service delivery.

By inference, the findings of this study lend credence to the Mathbor (2008) model of effective community participation which argues that providing adequate and timely information, educating people about proposed development initiatives and outlining a plan of action are the first stages in the process of citizen engagement in decision-making.

Participation in local service delivery is widely recognised as a way of enriching democracy, building trust, increasing transparency and accountability, and advancing fairness and justice in governance at all levels. However, its successful implementation depends on resolving a number of complex issues. Uganda's decentralisation and drive for better governance provide a good case study and an interesting one, but much more is required to be done before it can be said that this drive has achieved its goals.

Recommendations

Therefore in order to improve accountability across local governments, the central government should make a deliberate effort to improve citizens' access to information that benefits them, through subsidizing radio receivers which are a common means of communication. Civil society organizations should be empowered through independent funding, to play an important role in empowering the population through sensitization about their right to information and participation in mass activities to express a collective voice. Civil society organizations in Uganda the citizens. It is therefore important to have CSOs and CBOs whose operations are not regulated by local government leadership if accountability is to be achieved.

Lack of adequate funding renders local governments incapable of delivering services and makes it difficult for the citizens to demand accountability from their leaders. It is more feasible to have larger local governments that can financially sustain themselves with a sustainable local revenue base.

The low human resource capacity especially affects the newly created local governments as they cannot recruit new staff without Public Service Approval. All these take place where decentralization policy is a means of creating new positions for staff, while the government is failing to pay decent salary to the serving staff and depriving the retired civil servants of their retirement benefits. A deeper look at a comprehensive government reform would be very important.

In some of the local governments, there is clearly lack of adequate capacity of the population to hold their leadership accountable. Low literacy levels among local government leaders make it difficult for them to supervise their technical teams as 'educated' civil servants consider their elected 'supervisors' less knowledgeable.

Political history of the local government also plays important role in accountability. Here we find the role played by leadership and historical origins as core in facilitating or failing accountability. An impoverished population cannot stand up and demand for accountability. Self seeking local government officials tend to 'buy off' the citizens in case they are found to be corrupt. This deprives the rest (majority) of the citizens of their benefits. Therefore reform policies aimed at empowering people would be the solution.

For participation and accountability to work effectively, information about government plans and government decisions needs to be shared widely and in a timely manner, and this is not yet the case in many contexts, as in the distinction made on experiences.

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INTRODUCING VISUAL ART TO THE MARKET: THE VARIATION OF PRICING STYLES IN UGANDA'S LOCAL ART MARKET

Mike Nandala

Abstract

This paper examines the prices of visual art from the point of view of the artists themselves. Based on interviews with selected visual Ugandan artists in the Greater Kampala Metropolitan Area (GKMA) & Jinja town, the most common factors involved in price decisions are identified: size, expense, status, market factors and the perception of the artist's value. Through Correlation Analysis (CA) and Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA), the relationships between the components of price determination decisions are described. First of all, the analysis reveals that some visual art producers adopt a traditional approach to production and distribution, while others take an artistic approach. These different guidelines determine price decisions. Secondly, prices based on the determination of an artist's aesthetic value tend not to be combined with prices based on market factors such as demand. While models of pricing decisions are uncovered, the complexity of decisions that set real prices shows that artists work to negotiate prices a living that combines economic activity which provides creative expression, assurance in fairness and community norms within and outside the world of art.

Keywords: art, artist, visual art, contemporary art, pricing art, cultural objects.

Introduction

The value of Ugandan art is very uncertain. This is especially true for artworks of unknown and emerging artists. Evaluation is often subjective and potential buyers often rely on the experience of critics, distributors and artists themselves in the evaluation of art (Ridgeway, S., 1989). There seem to be few objective criteria for determining value. How, then, do artists decide how to put a price on their work? Other scholars have examined the artistic prices of the traders in the organisational context of the galleries (Velthuis, O., 2005), the social construction of the value in the auctions (Smith, C.W., 1989) and the influence of the prices of the art auctions on the established prices from distributors (Candela, E., & Scorcu, A.E., 2001). This paper examines prices from the point of view of the artists themselves, the people

who create cultural objects and then, in the hope of selling the work, attach a price. This study does not focus on the determinants of specific prices or the prices that are actually obtained when a work of art is sold. Rather, the study investigates the behaviour and decision-making of individuals as they decide, within specifiable contexts and what to charge for the goods they have brought to market (Eichner, 1987).

The creation of art is often considered as something separate from commerce and, sometimes, it is located above it in a hierarchy of values. Few art teaching centres and higher institutions in the Uganda require or even offer courses on the business of being an artist. However, many artists, especially new artists and those outside the main markets, do a lot of the work of selling art themselves. As Plattner (1996) articulates: “*art is sold as a commodity, but it is produced as a religious vocation, as an object of intense personal expression*” (p.23). Studying the pricing decisions of the artists themselves allows the examination of the connection between the production and distribution of cultural goods.

Zelizer (2005a) argues that scholars who study the relationship between the economic world and the social world tend to adopt one of two approaches, “*separate spheres and hostile worlds*” or “*nothing but*”. The first approach considers economic activity and expressive activity as separate entities. If the two spheres come into contact, contamination and corruption is the likely outcome. Some who take this view are concerned that privacy can be corrupted by market transactions. Others worry about the contamination of the economic sphere, for example, arguing that the rationality of economic transactions is diminished when social relations develop between exchange partners. The second common approach, called the ‘nothing but’ approach, seeks to avoid the dualism of separate spheres by examining activities related to economics through a reductionist lens. Economic activity is considered only as a power, only to maximize personal benefit, or only on cultural expression (Zelizer, 2005b).

Recognizing the multifaceted aspects of economic activity, Zelizer (2005a) defends a third perspective called: “*connected life*”. The argument is that people construct and negotiate lives that combine economic activity with intimacy, meaningful relationships and self-expression. “*Shared understandings and their representations, the components of culture, support*

all economic life" (Zelizer, 2005b). Zelizer (1988) argues that markets are better understood as an interplay of economic, structural and cultural factors. At the top of Zelizer's call, It's understood how artist's price decisions are part of a broader process of negotiating artistic meaning in the art world.

In the following section, the study reviewed the existing literature on prices, followed by a description of the data collected through qualitative and analysed interviews using conventional methods of Correspondence Analysis (CA) and Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA). The first section of analysis identifies and describes the most common elements included in the artist's price decisions: size, cost, market, status and value for the artist. In the second part of the analysis, the relationship between the price elements is analysed through an examination of the elements which tend to conjugate within the decisions of the individual artists.

The literature of pricing

The general literature on prices suggests that the price itself is more art than science, especially for new and innovative products (*Ursprung, H.W., & Wiermann, C., 2011*). Lacking complete information, entrepreneurs tend to satisfy rather than maximize when making decisions (*Campos, N. F., & Barbosa, R. L., 2009*). Employers tend to use general rules, such as basing the price of a product on the average total cost plus a deduction per profit, instead of using the abstract calculations of theoretical economists (*Dorwood, N. 1987*). It has also been discovered that organisational and market environments influence price decisions (*Diamantopolous, A., & Matthews, B., 1995*). Few sociological studies have been conducted on prices in any sector, however, a key finding of the existing literature is that, even within the same organization a variety of strategies can be used (*Uzzi, B., & Lancaster, R., 2004; Zbaracki, M. J. & Bergen, M., 2006; Eccles, R.G. & White, H.C. , 1988*). Recent studies that examine prices from a sociological perspective find that prices are determined by the integration of the transaction relationship (*Uzzi and Lancaster, 2004*) and the concerns of status since the price often points to a company's niche market (*Podolny, J.M., 2005*). Therefore, artist price decisions can vary and the artistic price is influenced by the organization's context, social relationships and concerns for status.

The study of art prices is an emerging literature among European sociologists (Moulin, R., 1987, Bonus, H., & Ronte, D., 1997; Candela and Scorcu, 2001, Rengers, M. & Velthuis, O., 2002). The study of Moulin (1987) on the French art market suggests that the price is rarely determined by production costs, such as the artist's labour and the cost of materials. Moulin examines the price of paints in different market segments. For what is called 'trash' paint (which is sold on sidewalks and souvenir shops), the price level is established based on what buyers are willing to pay. Therefore, in this market segment, a determining factor in price is the type of neighbourhood in which the work is sold; the rich pay more than others for garbage. On the contrary, established painting, known as "old masters", is considered an investment. Factors such as limited supply and artist prestige influence the price in this segment. For what is called "trash" paint (which is sold on sidewalks and souvenir shops), the price level is established based on what buyers are willing to pay. Therefore, in this market segment, a determining factor in price is the type of neighbourhood in which the work is sold; the rich pay more than others for garbage. On the contrary, established painting, known as "old masters", is considered an investment. Factors such as limited supply and artist prestige influence the price in this segment. Auctions are one of the main means of selling an established painting, so the final price depends on the amount a person is willing to pay to win his competitor (Moulin, 1987), and the legitimacy for this evaluation method is built within the auction community (Smith, 1989).

Contemporary art is a third segment which, according to Moulin (1987), is different from "unwanted" or "established painting". In contrast to the painting market, the offer of a contemporary painting is unlimited while artists continue to create new works of art. The question is due in large part to the critical judgments and purchase choices of art collectors and key museums. It is usually sold by distributors inside the galleries, the production costs of the gallery (rent, acquisition costs, advertising) are taken into consideration in the price. Buyers tend to consider the competition and reputation of a distributor, as well as the price as a quality indicator. As in the markets of other goods (Podolny, 2005), the price is used to report quality to buyers. Moulin (1987) argues that traders are very resistant to falling prices, as buyers tend to associate price with aesthetic value.

The innovative study by *Velthuis (2005)* on pricing decisions taken by gallery owners in New York and Amsterdam, finds that contemporary art distributors make decisions based on what he calls “*price scripts*”, which simplify the decision to set prices applying a set of rules. When working with a new artist, the typical screenplay is to set low prices and consider the work of comparable artists. For the more established artists, the script implies establishing the current level of prices based on previous prices. The owners of the galleries tend to increase prices when demand is high, as when the last show of the artist has run out; periodically, as every year; or based on reputation, as when the artist receives critical criticism. Velthuis believes that price scripts used by gallery owners are complemented by reference values that provide numerical values for certain types of decisions, such as conventional minimum prices for certain types of media and some dimensions of works. In the Dutch art market, dimensions and means have been identified as determining the price within the working body of an artist, although the characteristics of the work of art do not explain the differences between the artists (*Rengers and Velthuis, 2002*).

Although ambitious in its scope, the existing literature does not investigate the price decisions of the artists themselves. Previous research has found that even when sales are mediated by a third party, artists often influence the decisions of gallery owners and museum curators (*Ridgeway, 1989, Greenfeld, L., 1988*). In the lower price markets, many private sales are made between artists and customers or directly in art festivals and alternative exhibition spaces. How do artists make decisions in these contexts? Do artists include production costs when they take their pricing decisions into consideration? Even if distributors rarely lower prices, do the artists do? Do artists in peripheral markets follow the same screenplays as distributors in elite markets? In examining the decisions on the prices of the creators of art, this paper attempts to fill this gap in the existing literature.

Both the general literature on prices and the emerging literature on the price of art can make two important conclusions. First of all, there are a variety of ways in which people make price decisions. Secondly, despite the diversity of possible pricing strategies, participants in economic exchanges tend to rely on certain conventions (scripts or general rules) to establish prices. A review of the literature reveals that few studies have examined the

prices of individual entrepreneurs, while many examine the price behaviour of organizations. Moreover, when considering studies about price, in art markets, it emerges from a point of view of distributors, rather than artists. This study therefore tries to contribute to the sociological literature on price fixing through an analysis of the decisions made by individuals involved in the production and distribution of cultural objects.

Methodology

The analysis in this document is based on 53 in-depth interviews with visual artists conducted between February 2017 and April 2018. The artists interviewed met three general criteria. They identified themselves as visual artists, worked in the same town located in Kampala city, Jinja town and have sold or are actively trying to sell their art.

The artists were identified using a theoretically informed sample with multiple entry points. The artists have been contacted in a variety of artistic events: in addition to openings in commercial and nonprofit galleries, contacts have been established at outdoor art festivals and open studio events have been organized. Others have been contacted through their websites or after viewing the works exhibited in nontraditional settings, such as hotels, bars and empty showcases. Using the theoretical sampling logic (*Glaser, B., & Strauss, A., 1967*), after each interview the artists were asked to recommend other local artists whom they thought were in a different professional phase or took a different approach to sell and fixing prices. Interviews were conducted with the recommended ones. Through this process, a high level of variation was achieved within a small sample.

The interviews were semi-structured and ranged from 45 minutes to 2 hours, with a duration of over an hour. The following analysis is based on the answers to the following open questions from the interview: When was the last time you sold a work of art? Have you decided on the price? How did you decide the price? Was this transaction typical of the other times you sold your work? How do you usually evaluate your work today?

In addition to the interview data, the analysis is based on interviews with representatives of 10 local, commercial and nonprofit galleries and 18 months of fieldwork in the local art in Kampala & Jinja, from October 2015 to March 2017.

The Ugandan Local Art Market

Ugandan art is predominantly produced using traditional art, modern and contemporary art practices. Majority of Ugandan visual artists, employ traditional and contemporary techniques in producing artworks that they sell in the local markets through art fairs/exhibitions and in galleries, categorised as either contemporary art, traditional art or tourist art. This study, focussed on findings in price decisions in Greater Kampala Metropolitan Area (GKMA) & Jinja town local art markets, basing on interviews with selected visual Ugandan artists.

Kampala

The Greater Kampala Metropolitan Area (GKMA) had a population that exceeded 750,000 people in 2010, as measured by the 2002 national census. For a city of its size, GKMA has a vibrant visual arts scene. It attracts artists and art organizations largely due to the beauty of the good natural climate, landscape and human resource.

Kampala city is recognized as a national centre for the arts in Uganda, overflowing with many talented, professional and upcoming artists whose traditional and modern art production techniques depict rich artistic elements suitable for aesthetic and utilitarian purposes to a wide range of audiences both locally and internationally. There are ingredients of rich traditional cultural attachments and identities realised through the items produced and preserved for future generations to come. Sculptures, paintings, pottery and local crafts which are traditional produced are consumed as aesthetic or utilitarian items by the communities and buyers who appreciate them.

The art climate in the 1990s, brought about the emergency of commercial art galleries in Kampala. Gallery café and Tulifanya gallery were among the first popular galleries in Uganda established in the 1990s that collected artists' works which were thought to be marketable and hence promoted. Umoja art gallery and Design Agenda among others, also opened their doors to receive new emerging artists as well as promoting the old artists in the field of art. Other commercial art points that later on sprung up, alongside gallery exhibitions, were Organised out-door exhibitions such as the MishMash open garden exhibition which was sponsored by Orange Uganda (now Africel Uganda) that, operated once a month, then the Fireworks

Annual Art Exhibition also organized by Fireworks Advertising Agency and the Signature Art Exhibition which is sponsored by several top-notch corporate companies.

Jinja

The 2002 national census estimated that the population of Jinja was 71,213, including 36,325 men and 34,888 women. In 2010, the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) estimated the population at 82,800. Jinja town, situated in Eastern Uganda, has cultural and traditional sites, water and sports activities around the source of River Nile which provide a source of artistic inspiration and painting themes for artists living and working there. The construction of luxurious hotels and beach resorts along the river source has also contributed to the rise in tourism for both local and international visitors, giving birth to a vibrant tourist art industry and handicraft production in Jinja. Furthermore, Jinja is among Uganda's most popular vacation destinations, drawing both local and international visitors who visit the source of the Nile, Buggyali falls, boat rides, forest walks or rides and exotic ethnic / cultural sites.

However, Jinja is not recognized as a national centre for the arts. In a region of the country historically known as 'home for the source of the River Nile', Jinja is on the sidelines. While some local artists have representation in major national and international markets, most of the artists studied here show and sell their work locally and in other peripheral markets.

As art markets, Kampala & Jinja are not extremely expensive. In fact, art in this context can be devalued simply because it is not created and sold in an elite market (*Rengers and Velthuis, 2002*). A visitor can enter a gallery and see the original art that sells for a few Uganda shillings. Depending on the gallery, typical prices range between Uganda shillings 3000/- 50,000, 100,000/- and up to 500,000/-, with 1,000,000/= the ceiling of the price found for some contemporary art works (and above one million, depending on other factors such as size, expense & status). The main exception is the regional niche of the 'commissioned art' that has a higher price. Many artists in the Greater Kampala Metropolitan Area (GKMA), and more so in Jinja, are new and have difficulty in art marketing. This is common for the upcoming artists who are just getting into the commercial art market. As a result, they are different in terms of the experience of selling their work and the types of

places they have shown. Many of their art works are displayed in alternative spaces, as well as in local galleries. Only a handful of artists interviewed have an agent or an exclusive relationship with an art-dealer or distributor.

Both Kampala and Jinja are known for their realism, abstract and semi-abstract art. While these genres are popular, one can find many types of visual art. The most frequently used genre however is 'realism'. Majority of visual art is represented realistically in paintings because of the typical perspective of the consumer towards a definition of art as something that is recognizable. One artist pointed out that "people come up with the idea that true art resembles the real object", and that's it's a good thing for an object to be represented in 'photographic' quality (*Interview*). The spectators of this art can easily and immediately understand what the paintings represent, with three most frequently used groups of paintings, in the body of art produced and sold, namely, a), local traditional activities (traditional dancers, homesteads, subsistence farming and local trade), b), landscapes (mountains and rivers), and c), wildlife (lions, elephants, and monkeys).

Recognizing the convenience of both GKMA & Jinja town, graduates, self-taught artists and other artists from the region - including other parts of the country, have been attracted to produce and trade their art in these places. In terms of style, there is a significant variation.

The artists

The variation was sought through the sampling strategy and it was achieved. Among the artists interviewed, 32 were women and 21 were men. Their age varied between 22 and 70 years. Most were permanent residents of GKMA & Jinja, though some moved from other parts of the country. Two-dimensional and three-dimensional artists were represented. Majority were painters, using mediums like watercolour, oil and acrylic. Ten art works were best described as mixed media; four focused on crafts and three on ceramics; and six were mainly sculptors.

Although all the interviewed people identified themselves artists, they varied according to whether they earned their living through art. While 32 were employed full-time as artists, more than half had additional sources of family income. Another 14 were maintained through a combination of the sale of works of art and worked in fields related to art, including work in

galleries, workshops, graphics production and teaching. Seven of the artists had daily jobs not related to art or were merely engaged in educating the youth.

The artists interviewed sold their artwork at a variety of prices. About a quarter usually sold artworks for less than shillings 3000/-. Eighteen had prices between shillings 3000/- and 50,000/-. Another ten had prices between shillings 30,000/- and 100, 000/-. While many of the artists had sold work for over shillings 175,000/-, none charged most of the artworks above this benchmark. Some had made bigger installations or public art projects with prices much higher than their typical artworks.

What the artists had in common was that they actively participated in the sale of their artworks. Few had exclusive agents or relationships with art dealers. As a result, they were involved in both the production, distribution and marketing of their artworks. In most cases, artists made price decisions or they did it in collaboration with gallery representatives.

Configuration and Relational Methods

From the onset of the interview process, it was clear that the artists that were spoken to, addressed prices in various ways. No evaluation formulas merged. To make sense of diversity, the study took an inductive approach to identify and classify different pricing styles. The transcripts of the interviews were coded to identify the factors considered by each artist in their decision. Subsequently, the factors were grouped according to substantial knowledge (*Ragin, C.C., 2000*). Through this process, the most common decisional elements were identified, which allowed the creation of a data matrix of common price elements by individual artists. The matrix indicated the presence or absence of a price setting element in the price decision of each artist.

To help describe the variety of pricing decisions, the study analysed the data matrix using two types of formal analysis, Correspondence Analysis (CA) and Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA). These different approaches to data analysis have characteristics that can be usefully integrated (*Breiger, R. L., 2004*). The CA was used for the first time to analyse the relationship between the elements of price decisions (*Sonnett, 2004*). CA allows portraying two or more types of entities in the same visual space

(Breiger, R. L., 2000). In the results that follow, the elements of price decisions were examined with respect to each other and to the cases (the artists) that embodied these elements.

The study also used the QCA techniques to discover empirical types (Ragin, 2000). This method strives to integrate the features of case-oriented research into medium to large sample size studies. The goal is to compare cases with complete entities, described by function configurations. This approach distinguishes QCA from other statistical methods that focus on the relationship between variables (Ragin, C.C., 1987). By adopting a case-oriented approach, QCA uses Boolean methods of logical comparison to examine and simplify complex patterns of variable configurations. The results specify the minimum number of configurations needed to logically cover all the cases in the data.

QCA is useful for the inductive discovery of empirical types. According to Ragin (1987), typologies allow researchers to locate case positions within a multidimensional attribute space. The empirical typologies allow the identification of attributes or characteristics that tend to appear together within the cases. In this study, an empirical type consists of a combination of elements combined in the decision to evaluate an artist. Therefore, the study conceptualized the styles of pricing decisions as configurations of price items that generally appear together. A further strength of QCA is that it explains the absence of attributes. Therefore, QCA allows the identification of price items that are not in a particular decision style, together with the included elements.

Elements of Price Decisions

Unlike the elite markets where the retailer or the often-defined price gallery representative (Velthuis, 2005), artists working in Kampala & Jinja indicate that they usually make price decisions themselves. Majority exhibit in places where no one else has commented on prices, such as bars, hotels and restaurants, open websites and art fairs. When viewed in a gallery, some visual artists make price decisions in consultation with the gallery representative, but the final decision usually depends on the artist. Interviews with local gallery representatives confirmed that this is standard practice, even if they encourage an artist to change prices if prices are considered inappropriate.

Most galleries also dictate that an artist's prices should be consistent across galleries and other places. Artists have described prices as a difficult decision, even for those who have sold their artworks for many years. As artists who had made a living through art for years, they deduce that: "a price is more an art form than the art itself" (*interview*).

While individual reports of price decisions varied, all the interviewed visual artists based their pricing decisions on at least one of the following general elements: the size of the work; expenses related to the creation or sale of work; market factors, such as the demand; status factors, usually in terms of the artist's reputation; and the value of the work estimated by the artist (*see Table 1*).

Table 1: Common elements contained in price decisions

Decision element	Examples	No. of cases
Size	Prices per square inch	37
	Higher prices for larger jobs	
Expenses	Time / work	38
	Material	
	Framing costs	
Market	What the market will have	40
	Increases based on demand	
Status	Revenue based on reputation	31
	Prices based on the perceived value of the media	
Pricing by artist's perception	How good was the second job the artist and/or his close collaborators	32

The five elements mentioned, do not exhaust all the factors considered in price decision. For instance, the price of some artists, their artworks are based on the belief that art must be accessible. Others make price decision where the artworks were created or what the works represent in the price. For each of the five elements, there are some artists who may find it difficult to adopt them. A brief description of each of these five elements of price decisions is discussed below.

As other studies have found (*Velthuis, 2005; Rengers and Velthuis, 2002*), the size of an artwork is a common factor in price decisions. While most follow the general rule that larger jobs should be more expensive, some artists use a more precise “square inch” method. For example, a painting that measures 24 inches and 30 inches would be Shillings 240,000/- if it is priced at ten thousand shillings, per square inch. Some artists use this method, but most of those who refer to prices in square inches find it problematic. In the artist’s experience, the formula exceeds the prices of larger works or is not suitable for their environment. Among the minority of artists who do not mention the size, it is still recognized as a standard practice. These artists have often indicated that the choice to overcome this convention requires an explanation to the gallery owners and potential buyers.

Most visual artists used shopping as a factor in their pricing decisions. Production costs, including framing and merger costs, were generally considered in the price. Others also considered the cost of materials, particularly when they work using expensive media, such as commercial brand artists paints and canvases. When art is shown in other towns and beyond, some artists consider the cost of shipping their artworks. Only a few calculate the costs of their works. Among those who consider the cost of labour, none takes a strong position on the theory of labour value. These artists are willing to exploit themselves by labelling some hours worked as ‘billable’ and others as ‘research’. Although the study found out that a handful of artists vehemently believed in the fairness of the use of expenses to calculate the price, others explicitly stated that spending should never be a consideration. The absence of expenses as a factor was particularly common among artists who focused primarily on reputation or status in the art world as the main criteria for determining the price.

Within the artistic community, there are recognized results that confer a status on an artist and his work. Some artists base prices on these results, for example by increasing prices after showing them in the respected galleries or after examining or including the artworks of the main collectors. To cultivate relationships with collectors, several artists indicated that they had granted discounts to well-known collectors to strengthen their relationship. Some artists also referred to a hierarchy of status based on the type of medium. For example, among the paintings, oil is considered more valuable than other

media. The paintings made on canvas are more precious than those on paper. The study found out that a status ranking of the used media frequently influenced the pricing decision. Market factors were also mentioned by majority of artists. A well-known local painter, an owner of a company that is not tied to the arts before devoting himself entirely to art, believed that price fixing *“simply implies determining what the market can support”* (interview). Not all artists had used that economic language, but many had referred to the price increase based on demand, for instance, when an art work is sold at a show or if they had problems replacing the artwork sold in the galleries. Others analysed comparable labour prices to get an idea of acceptable prices, particularly labour prices that had been sold. Although many had indicated that market factors may have caused them to raise prices, most did not decrease prices when demand decreased, an observation that was also made in the art elite markets (Velthuis, 2005). It is not common to lower prices, because it is believed that the price points to the value of labour. Price reductions devalue art. However, some artists will offer work at ‘selling prices’, especially in older pieces, some even come to draw attention to discounted items with coloured stickers

.Most artists claimed to have discounted prices for reasons unrelated to supply and demand. In particular, most employ a sort of ‘discount for good friends’ in which they charge less to close friends and family. Even those who avoid discounts still make exceptions. One of the artist explained that he gives a *“high price to my mother, close relatives who have done wonderful things for my mother and the person with whom I am currently living with”* (interview).

The majority of the artists mentioned their estimate of the value of labour as a price factor. Some artists decide that some jobs are simply better than others and therefore deserve a higher price. These artists recognize that evaluating their work in this way is subjective. As artists, they are willing to trust their aesthetic sensibilities. They believe they know good work when they see it. For example, the prices of a sculptor working with *‘dynamics’* higher than other works of the same size that are *‘acceptable’* only, thus creating a price range for each dimension within the body of work.

Not all artists rely on their ability to determine which pieces are better than others and, therefore, deserve a higher price. In some cases, artists

evaluate their work through interaction with other people close to them, such as friends, partners, teachers and other artists. Several artists have set up a new working group and have trusted consultants offering opinions on prices, also referring to this practice as '*hosting price list*'. While many artists consider aesthetic value in their pricing decisions, it is noteworthy that others strongly reject this criterion. These artists advance their argument that the price based on aesthetic value is a novice mistake because the new artists think that each new piece is "*their best work*" (*field notes*) and, therefore, priceless. From their point of view, mature artists should set prices based on status and other accepted criteria in art marketing.

Relationships between the price elements

As shown in Table 2 and discussed in the previous section, most artists used more than one element when setting the price of their artworks. In fact, only four used only one of the five elements. In summary, 20 of the 32 possible combinations or configurations of elements were used by the 53 interviewed artists. This variety of answers reveals accounts of individual artists on their current pricing decisions to explore the relationship between the price elements contained in the decisions. In this section, the study analysed the relationships between the elements of pricing using the results of a CA, a technique useful for visually examining positions within a cultural field (*Bourdieu, P., 1984*). The study also analysed empirical types of pricing decisions based on configurations of the five price elements using the results of the QCA and put these empirical types in the field of price elements represented in CA.

Pricing as a domain

To examine the relationship between the elements, the study made a CA based on disjunctive coding of the interview data as shown in Table 2.

The chosen encoding creates a matrix that includes variables that were inverse to those contained in the original data matrix and is the protocol appropriate for correspondence analysis that includes individuals, also known as multiple correspondence analysis (*Le Roux, B., & Rouanet, H., 2004*). In this case, it is similar to that described in the Table 2 matrix, but the elements indicating prices that are absent in each case (i.e., price decision of each artist). The artists are contained in the rows and the price

elements in the columns and a 1 indicates the absence of the element. This method is particularly useful for this analysis, as price decisions are characterized by the missing assessment elements, as well as by the elements included in the decision. That is, disjunctive coding helps to show what configurations of elements reject artists. It also allows you to interpret the results together with the result of the QCA analysis discussed later in this section.

Table 2 *Price styles as configurations of decision elements*

Size	Expenses	Market	Status	Value to artist	Number of cases
1	1	1	0	1	7
1	0	1	1	0	6
1	1	1	1	1	6
0	1	1	1	1	5
1	1	1	0	0	5
1	1	0	0	1	3
1	1	0	1	1	3
0	0	0	1	1	2
0	1	0	0	0	2
1	0	1	1	1	2
1	1	0	1	0	2
1	1	1	1	0	2
0	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	1	0	0	1
0	0	1	1	0	1
0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	0	0	1
0	1	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	1	0	1
1	0	1	0	1	1

The number of existing configurations: 20; Number of cases: 53.

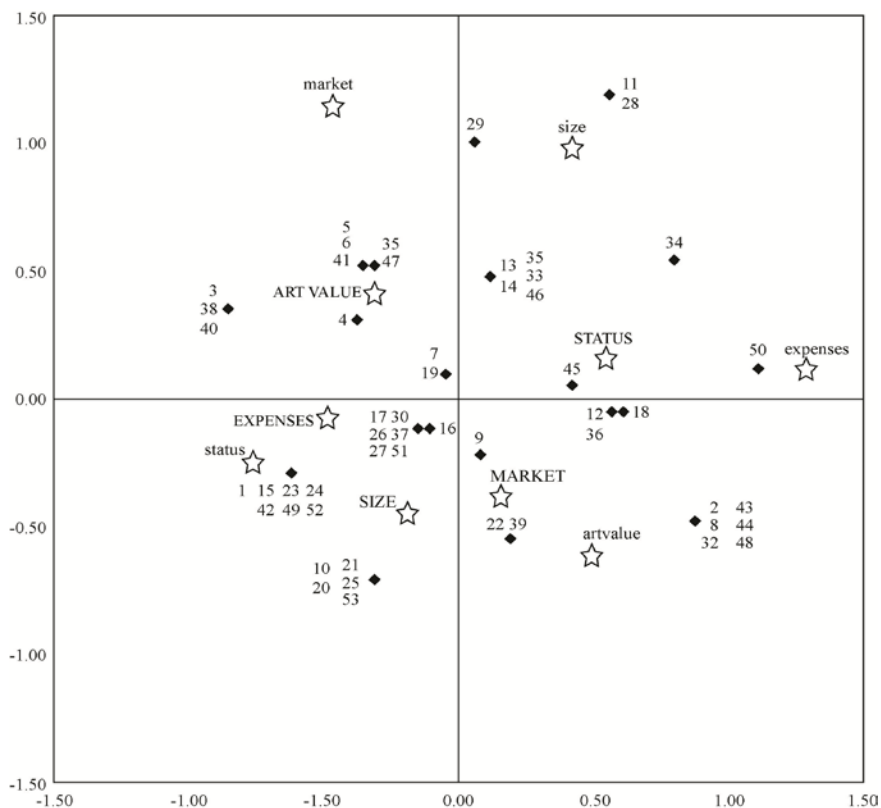


Fig. 1. The structure of pricing decisions. **Note:** price elements that are uppercased are present in a decision. Price elements in lowercase letters are absent from a decision. The location of the individual artists is indicated by a diamond and is labelled with a case identification number

The diamonds indicate the position of the artists in relation to the price elements, with the case number assigned to each artist, indicated next to the position. Various relationships between the price elements are illuminated. The presence of expenses and the size are found in the lower left quadrant of the figure. The angle between expense and size and origin (the centre point) is small, suggesting that these two elements are related. This is not surprising, given that in interviews many artists, though not all, indicate that they accept the size convention because larger works require more materials and more time investment.

In contrast to the close relationship between expense and size, some of the other elements are almost opposite to each other, as shown by an angle close to 180° between the price and origin elements. In particular, the presence of the artistic value, which is the estimate of the value of the work of an artist, is contrary to the presence of market factors, such as prices based on demand. An artist's esteem is often based on personal aesthetic criteria and an intimate knowledge of one's own abilities. On the contrary, taking into account market factors, the merchandising process is highlighted by creating a work of art commensurate with other works or even other consumer goods. This result of Analysis of correspondence reveals two poles similar to the distinction between *Podolny, J.M., & Hill-Popper, M. (2004)* between a hedonistic conception of value and a transcendent conception of value.

Based on *Podolny & Hill-Popper (2004)* conceptually distinguish the conceptions of the value of competition. With a hedonistic conception of value: *"the perception of a consumer of the value of an exchange offer depends on how that offer directly compares with other offers of exchange in a set of abstract dimensions"* (*Podolny & Hill-Popper, ibid, p.94*). Evaluation involves the consumer as a judge, dividing the object into key attributes, each of which can be evaluated and summarized. The ideal-typical hedonic evaluation is when a consumer magazine classifies a product in multiple dimensions and adds the scores into a general classification for the product. The hedonic value implies the use of a common metric to compare different entities, or what *Espel and, W. N., & Stevens, M. L. (1998)* call the social process of censorship.

In contrast to the hedonic conception, it is a transcendent conception of value *"when the corresponding value derives exchange depends on the extent to which each is invested in an advantageous position with respect to the other is from the object"* (*Podolny & Hill-Popper, ibid, p .94*). Value is created by reducing the social distance between the consumer and the producer. The transcendent evaluation tends to be holistic. When artists base their price on their perception of value, they are indicating that their privacy and connection with work gives them the ability to value. By setting prices this way, artists assume that buyers will be willing to pay more for a job creator to consider higher than other jobs of the same size and media.

Other price elements that are almost opposite in the analysis of correspondence are status and the expenses. Based on interviews and fieldwork, I interpret them as different orientations for creating art. Cost-based pricing is a handmade method, similar to other hand-made products. On the contrary, prices are based on the utilization factors of status recognized in the world of contemporary art. In sectors where it is difficult for customers to determine the actual quality of the goods or services offered, status can be used as the quality of the signal (*Podolny, J.M., 1993*). This has been observed in sectors ranging from investment banking to wine (*Benjamin, B.A. & Podolny, J.M., 1999*), and was also observed in art markets (*Velthuis, 2005; Fine, G.A., 2004*). The analysis of correspondence suggests a dimension that varies from one orientation of the vessel to one end and an artistic orientation from the other.

While Fig. 1 suggests the key dimensions of variation, considerable complexity remains. If more visual artists rated the contemporary art marketing way, the size would be closer to status correlated with the expenses, since size is one of the benchmark values used in the elite art markets (*Velthuis, 2005*). If the artists followed the price of distributors, the status should also be contrary to the perception of the value of the artist, as based on subjective evaluations of quality in the main markets prices to be avoided. These results indicate that many artists in Kampala & Jinja do not follow the rules of the elitist art world.

In some cases, non-compliance is the result of an artist who is new to the art world. A Jinja artist who is now represented by an art dealer in a Kampala city, talked about his first price errors. When he first started, he thought of each new piece as '*his baby*'. Later, when he served as director of an art gallery, he saw many new artists making the same mistakes, whether to think of each job as a precious child or focusing on the costs associated with creating jobs. His confidence in prices based on the status, which he called '*perceived value*', was strengthened by his experience with the administration of the gallery:

The real value is materials & time. You know, all the numbers you can add, two plus two [are] four. And the perceived value is where you showed? Who represents you? Which collections [includes your work]?. This is what gives you the security of giving a price to your work. And this is what makes the

difference for an artist who understands it. But an artist who perceives a work of art as “a masterpiece” and “it’s my child”. They do not understand that they have to build a career so that they can have a higher perceived value instead of real value (Interview).

From the interviews, it is also clear that some artists knew the rules, but they consciously made different decisions about how things were done in larger markets. In fact, many artists were concerned about the status and used the size convention, but they could not avoid the possibility of selling works of art at a price lower than that spent on materials or the production process. They were concerned with the criteria in the art world, but at the end of the day, they could also balance their current accounts. Some preferred to keep a painting rather than selling it for less than the cost of materials. Other artists were part of the local contemporary art scene, but some were not willing to submit to all conventions, for example by ignoring their sense of value for a particular piece.

Model of pricing styles

Since many artists combine two or more common price items when making a decision, pricing decisions can be described in terms of combinations or configurations of items. Although 32 (for example, 2), configurations of the five elements were possible, there were actually 20 configurations in the price accounts of the interviewed artists. These were shown in Table 2. Compared to the possible number of configurations, this was a limited diversity. However, the presence of 20 different combinations indicates that there was no uniform or regulatory approach to pricing among artists in Kampala & Jinja. The data in Table 2 also indicate that the most common configurations contained three or more elements, suggesting that art prices often implied multiple criteria.

To make sense of the diversity of pricing decisions, the study constructed empirical types, in which a type consisted of a combination of conditions that appeared together in one or more cases (*Ragin, 1987*). In order to reduce the number of configurations describing price styles, an analysis of the configurations is shown in Table 2 using a precise qualitative comparative analysis. For each case, the result was coded as ‘1’, because each case is a decision to set prices. The elements for each case were coded with ‘1’ if present or with ‘0’ if it did not exist. The data table was imported into the

fsQCA program and analysed using the Quine-McClusky fine-tuning algorithm. This analysis reduces the number of configurations, logically determining the minimum number of configurations needed to cover all cases.

When interpreting QCA results, the “+” sign indicates logical OR and the “*” sign indicates logical AND. The conditions present in a configuration are indicated by capital letters and conditions that are absent within a configuration are indicated by lowercase letters. The brittle-set solution follows:

- EXPENSES*MARKET+
- MARKET*STATUS+
- size*MARKET*artvalue+
- SIZE*EXPENSES*STATUS+
- SIZE*EXPENSES*ARTVALUE+
- SIZE*MARKET*ARTVALUE+
- size*EXPENSES*status*artvalue+
- size*expenses*market*ARTVALUE

The results reveal eight empirical types, which were inserted on separate lines above. The first type is listed in the first line and includes the presence of expenses and market factors in a decision. (The sign “*” means logical AND.) Since the status, size and value of the artist do not appear in this type, these elements may be present or absent for a case that will be described by this type. The ‘+’ sign indicates logical OR, therefore, ‘+’ at the end of the first line means that EXPENDITURE * MARKET is a type, but there are other types. The line that follows, describes the second type which includes the presence of the market and status; The expenses, dimensions and value of the artist may be present or absent because a case falls into this type. Again, the sign ‘+’ which means logical OR indicates that there are other types necessary to cover all cases. Unlike the first two types, some types include the absence of a price element. For example, the third type listed includes the presence of the market element with the absence of reference to the dimensions and the absence of the value for the artist; status and expenses may be present or absent because a case falls into this type, as they are not specified.

With the results of the QCA, it is possible that a particular case is found in more than one of these types. In fact, a third or 18 of the 53 artists belong to the two most common types: MARKET and EXPENSES, and STATUS and MARKET. There is a significant overlap because the results are constructed in such a way that all artists use at least one of these types of decisions. In other words, the types cover all cases. The results also indicate that there is no price element contained in all price types. In other words, there is no element that functions as a necessary condition for a price decision. This provides further evidence that there are no clear pricing rules.

Since the results of the QCA reveal eight types, eight empirical types in the analysis have been overlapped from the previously discussed correspondence. In Fig.2, the types of price styles suggested by QCA are indicated in the same field shown in Fig.1. The circles have been drawn around the cases corresponding to each of the eight types. The circles overlap because some cases can be described as belonging to more than one type of price style.

Two circles in Fig. 2 are drawn with bold dotted lines because they cover a large proportion of cases. The first of these two types is STATUS and MARKET. The second of these two types is MARKET and EXPENSES. Forty-two (42) of the 53 cases belong to one or both types. The remaining 11 cases not included in these two most common types which include ARTVALUE. Therefore, the mapping of QCA results in correspondence analysis suggests three main types: STATUS and MARKET, MARKET and EXPENSES, and ARTVALUE, each of which may or may not be combined with other elements. As claimed by *Ragin, C.C., & Sonnett, J. (2005)*, researchers must find a balance between complexity and parsimony using substantive and theoretical knowledge to simplify QCA results. The simplification of the eight types contained in the three-way QCA solution has substantial validity.

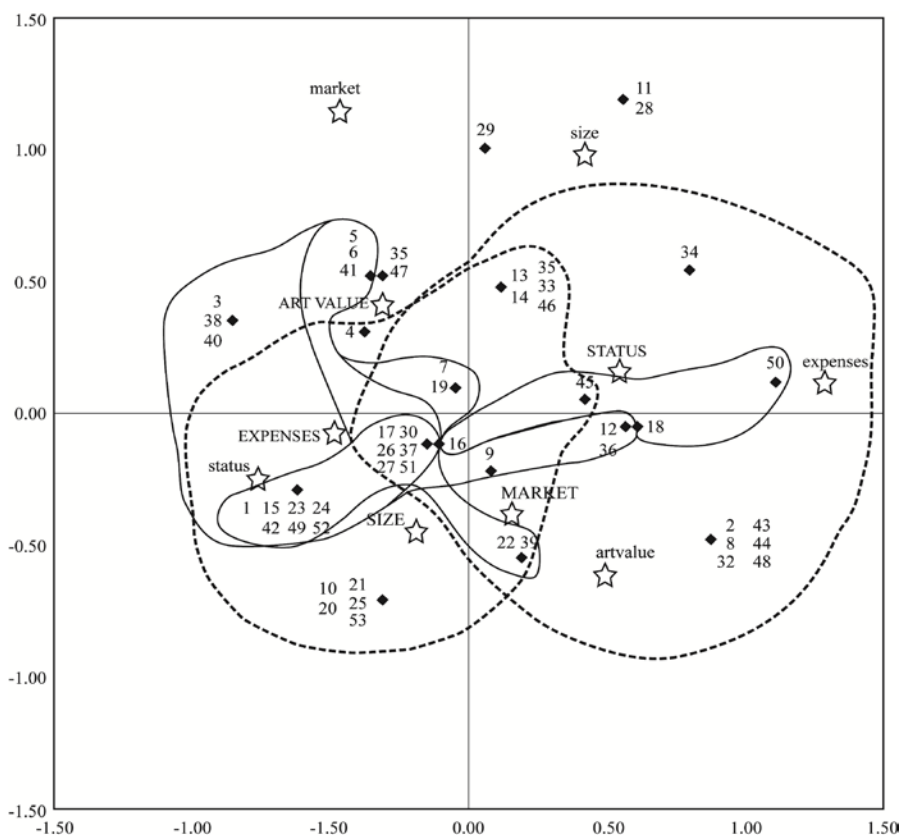


Fig. 2. Price styles in relation to price elements. Note: this is the same correspondence analysis of Fig. 1 with the addition of circles drawn around artists who share a price style. Since an artist's pricing decision can fall into more than one style discovered by the QCA results, the circles overlap.

A price decision can be market-oriented with a traditional approach to taking expenses into consideration. Or a price decision can be market-oriented with a global orientation of art to status. If a decision does not take one or both of these common approaches, it includes the concept of its own value that transcends market-matching processes, incorporating its own assessment of the value of the producer in the decision to set prices. Each of these three types is analysed in more detail in the following sections.

Status and market factors

The STATE and MARKET factors are some of the main criteria used by art distributors in pricing art in elite art markets (Velthuis, 2005). The results of QCA show that even in a peripheral art market these elements are often found to coexist, especially for those artists who sell in the organisational context of art galleries. The following quote from a painter who also supports himself through commercial art illustrates the connection between these two elements:

“[I sold a painting] for four hundred thousand shillings, but it is the market. If you know if the market can support it. I could not have done it several years ago, because I did not have any kind of reputation and they told me: ‘Okay, why is it worth it?’ But now that I did it... I just had more experience. And with the Jinja art studio and with several pieces in Kampala and across [the region], I have a little more weight when it comes to prices. But. When I go to exhibitions, I do not want to be so far from the general price that people do not even see, you know. So, they are probably above average [compared to similar artists]” (Interview).

This artist has supported himself and his family with art for 16 years. When he began to sell his work seriously, he considered that the artworks were good, but it was not established. Now he has his own exhibition space in his bar ‘the office’, that attracts rich visitors from outside Jinja town. He has achieved results that include winning prizes at competitive art fairs and that his work has been bought by several art collectors.

He associates what “the market can sustain” with his reputation as a visual artist. However, he is more skilled than when he started. In art fairs, he tries to stay within the price range of a similar job, so as not to leave the market.

If it is possible to set the price of an art outside the market, it is also possible for an artist to put too low a price to take it seriously. Several artists have suggested that the price itself indicates to potential buyers their reputation and, therefore, the value of art. A sculptor who shows up at outdoor art fairs has experienced the increase in the price of a particular piece. He discovered that if the price increases, it actually generates more interest in the work.

Many artists have mentioned the possibility of diminishing work, valuing it so low that potential buyers do not take it seriously or consider it a respectable art. The owner of a gallery described the following scenario:

“We have had several cases in which people enter and look at a painting. And they say, ‘It’s a beautiful painting!... I love paintings!’ ...I only have the spot for that painting!... It’s just the painting I was looking for!’ And they will approach the painting, then look at the price label and leave,... ‘Oh, it’s only 100,000/-!. I thought it would be 600,000/-’. And then they’ll leave and they’ll never look at that painting again, and what that tells me, is that person is ... a person with a 600,000/- spot on his wall. Many people do not have much confidence or do not really know what good art is against bad art, and if it’s 100,000/-[spot], it should not be that good...Cheap art means poor quality art” (interview)

Market Factors and Expenses

In contrast to the combination of MARKET and STATUS, which is observable in the elite art markets, as well as among some local artists, the combination of MARKET and EXPENSES is a more crafted approach. For example, some of the artists interviewed replicated their work. Each piece was handmade, but they repeatedly used the same design. The artists who replicate their work and therefore adopt a more crafted approach will probably use the STATE and the EXPENSES as factors in price decisions.

The next quote is of an artist who creates decorative and functional art using recycled plastic material. Much of his works are sold wholesale to gift shops and supermarkets within Kampala city, with retailers doubling the wholesale price. Most of his works are sold for less than 10,000/-. Here he analyses the market factors, in particular the demand, combined with the expenses:

“[When the price is fixed] Generally what I do is try to get the lowest amount of money wholesale to get a small profit, and then double it, and that’s what I sell for retail, which is kind of common. But many people find it hard to say that it is very expensive to retail. But if I cut it in half, I will not earn wholesale money. So, if that kind of product works like that, I will simply limit it to liquidating it. I simply will not do it or I will not sell them anymore. It’s not worth it. There’s no profit, but this hat [design] I did, was sold wholesale at

five thousand shillings. And they have been selling out of my work studio at ten thousand shillings and took them to the shop...And I was like, 'You know, maybe I should sell at fifteen thousand [shillings like the retail price]? 'And they were like,...No, twenty thousand [shillings]"

This artist must trust the shops that buy his work to measure demand. Suggesting that the retail price is commonly twice the wholesale price, refers to a convention in the price of consumer goods in general. This makes sense since the organisational context of his sales is within the craft stores. At the same time, this convention is quite similar to the practice of art galleries. Commercial galleries usually take 50% of the sale price of a painting or a sculpture.

Along with demand, expenses are a factor and even influence the choices of some artists on what art to create. The artist usually quotes transport or delivery charges for most of his work, so he avoids bigger and heavy works. He is also working on a project to train some members of his community - especially youth, to make some of their own artistic products. His motivation includes providing his future employees with sustainable income, but also increasing production and keeping costs low.

Value For The Artist

Most artists who do not use the MARKET and STATE and / or MARKET and EXPENSES styles, consider their perception of value when they set the price of their art. The perception of the artist's value is sometimes combined with expense or status factors, but rarely with market considerations. This can be seen by comparing the relatively small angles between ARTVALUE and STATUS or EXPENSES (angles based on the central point (see Fig. 1), compared with the angle close to 180° between ARTVALUE and MARKET.

As discussed above, value-based pricing for the artist and expenses such as materials and labour can be a fledgling pricing strategy. Once an artist is socialized through interaction with other artists or gallery representatives, he often stops using his own sense of aesthetic merit in the pricing decision. When a new artist begins to sell a significant amount of work or gets recognition for his work, he can begin to consider market and status factors instead of his sense of value. In fact, the interviews reveal that prices based on value for the artist are a strategy used by many new artists.

At the same time, other artists who have had long and successful artist careers and who are part of established artistic communities also consider their aesthetic judgment when setting prices. An artist who has been described by others as “the man of town” considers both his own perception of value and his status in setting prices for his sculpture pieces. Over time, he has raised prices while his fame within the local art community has grown. He has served on the boards of numerous nonprofit organizations and organized local art events, which increased his visibility. When asked to explain his decision to raise prices, he replied:

“Reputation, a lot of volunteering, having my name out there in any way. Therefore, more people get to know me about this. They know me through voluntary work activities. So for me, it is advertising through voluntary work. . . [So reputation is the main factor in raising prices?] Yes, it’s an important part of this” (Interview).

This same artist refuses to believe in the dimensions or size of his art works, even if he recognizes the convention. Instead, he decides how good he is at thinking that a certain piece is in consultation with his partner:

“It’s like, well, you can go for the size, like 3000/- per inch, or something of that sort, and I tried a little. And it’s just like this does not work.... And I probably price them according to. . . How much I would like to be paid. . . So when customers ask me, I would as in say. . . ‘It’s bigger, but has a lower price?’ It’s because it’s based on how much I like it. And that’s how things cost” (Interview).

Of course, this artist is not a beginner. In fact, he has sold his art for quite a number of years. Therefore, cost based on aesthetic value is sometimes a pricing policy of hipsters, artists who know the conventions of the art world, but who consciously reject some of them (Becker, H.S 1982).

Conclusion

The diversity of price styles shows that there is no uniform price approach between the artists studied. In this context, there are no clear rules on price behaviour. The price of art by artists who market and sell their work is not an institutionalized practice (DiMaggio, P. J., & Powell, W.W., 1983). Therefore, the results of this study contribute to the growing recognition of

the fact that there is no more than one way to organize economic practices even under the capitalist system itself and in the same field of production and distribution (*Bourdieu, P., 1993; Berk, G., & Schneiberg, M., 2005*).

In addition to cataloguing the diversity of price approaches, artists' explanations of their decisions have been used to examine the relationship between the components of price decisions. Through the objective of a type of entrepreneurial decision, different positions based on sources of competitive legitimacy have been discovered in a field of cultural production (*Bourdieu, 1993*). This analysis revealed two key dimensions of the variation. The first dimension captures alternative conceptions of value. At one end of this dimension, the value is determined in the market. At the other extreme, the value is based on the aesthetic merit determined by the creator of the work. Unlike spending, size and status factors that are more likely to be combined with market concerns, the value of the work for the artist is not correlated with market factors. Estimating the value of an artist is a method of evaluation that transcends the process of measuring the market.

The second dimension of the variation highlights the competitive orientations towards the production and sale of art. At one extreme there is a craft orientation that takes into account the costs, generally the cost of materials and sometimes works. At the other end of this dimension, there is a global orientation of art that incorporates status in the decision to set prices. Prices based on reputation are promoted by many art galleries and are more commonly found among artists oriented towards the fine arts. The analysis also revealed that the most common styles of price decisions combine status factors or expenses with market factors. Increasing prices when demand is strong is an approach adopted by artists with an artistic orientation.

While formal data analysis techniques have revealed patterns and types of price styles, returning to the cases, the actual decisions made by individual artists, it is clear that many fall into more than one type of empirical decision. For some, pride makes it unacceptable to sell a work of art at a price that does not cover the cost of the materials used to produce the art work. At the same time, many artists are aware of the role of status in determining the value of visual art. In fact, they learn about the importance of status-based prices through their relationships with other artists in the art

world. Therefore, many artists really make decisions that combine a craft approach and a global artistic approach. Others believe in price based on reputation or cost function, but reject another convention in the art and craft world: they raise the price when they know that a job is a great artistic achievement. Instead of concluding that the artists simply do not know what they are doing, the results of this study can be taken as evidence to support *Zelizer's* argument (2005a) that economic decisions do not take place in a vacuum separate from the rest of life. Artists lead connected lives. At the end of the day, they should be able to sleep with their pricing decisions.

This study investigated the variety of price styles among artists working in a peripheral market. Future research could investigate the relationship between artists' specific demographic characteristics and types of price styles. Academics studying the artists' business decisions can investigate whether gender, age, duration of artistic career, art school graduates and other demographic characteristics correlate with price styles.

Furthermore, the implications of this study go beyond the question of the price of art. The results show that pricing decisions can be used as a goal to see how multiple motivations come together with the entrepreneurs involved in the creation and sale of their art products. The examination of price styles enlightens both the expressive and the instrumental aspects of economic activity and shows that economic activity is not easily reduced to one or the other. Given the marked increase in the variety of creative products and services available on the market, future entrepreneurship research should be attentive to the challenges faced by those who invest emotionally, physically and psychologically in the creative process and who must then price, to the fruits deriving from their works.

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CORPORATE GOVERNANCE AND THE SUSTAINABILITY OF UNIVERSITIES IN ANGLICAN CHURCH IN UGANDA

Wilson Muyinda Mande

Abstract

The thesis of this paper was that whereas the Anglican Church in Uganda has done well to establish universities, there is need to do more in terms of corporate governance. The paper outlines that facts that the Church been involved in education for a long term. It introduced schools in the country. It has a bureaucratic model of governance the functions of a university council are stated and the challenges that universities are grappling with. In view of all the above issues, this paper has proposed a consortium corporate governance for the Anglican Universities in Uganda. Furthermore, it has also been suggested that for better training people for the ordained ministry, theological training of ordinands be relocated to Namugongo Martyrs' Seminary. Universities should remain for those who want to pursue advanced academic programmes.

Introduction

This paper set out to accomplish three tasks. One, to articulate the uniqueness of Anglican founded universities in Uganda. Two, to probe the concept of corporate governance and how it is applied in the Anglican founded Universities. Three, to assess the challenges of corporate governance for the Anglican Universities in Uganda. Four, to advance the consortium corporate governance model for Anglican founded Universities.

The justification of this analysis is based on the fact that the Anglican Universities in Uganda have been dogged by several challenges arising from both within and without.

Corporate governance of Ugandan universities has come under intense scrutiny in the recent past. The scrutiny came in the wake of the closure of universities like Namasagali. Central Buganda and Luwero. Namasagali University was licensed in 1998 by the Ministry of Education and Sports. However, in 2005 it lost its license by NCHE (Bogere and Nabiruma, 2009). Central Buganda University was founded by the Anglican Diocese of Central Buganda and located near the diocesan headquarters in Kasaka, in Mpigi

District. This University and Luwero University were closed in 2008 (Kayiira Kizito, 2009).

Closing a University has far reaching consequences for the institution and the country. After closure it becomes difficult for the institution to win confidence of the public and reopen. Nationally, it implies that the education system is weak. A closure of a university sends bad signals.

PART I

Anglicanism and the Founding of Universities

The Genesis of the Anglican Church

The Anglican Church began in 1534 when King Henry VIII of England split with the Pope of Rome. In that year, King Henry VIII passed the Act of Succession and the Act of Supremacy. These laws recognised the King as the only head of Anglicana Ecclesia or Anglican Church. The King kept the title the pope had bestowed upon him in 1521 as Defender of the Faith.

In 1549 a Book of the Common Prayer was written and enacted by King Edward VI through the first Act of Uniformity. A Liturgy was necessary because Church in England had broken with the authority of Rome. It was a reformation. At this time whoever protested against the Roman Church became a protestant. For that reason, the Church in England also became protestant.

The Book of Common Prayer was revised three times (1552, 1559 and 1604) before it came a standard liturgy in 1662.

In 1662 the Archbishop of Canterbury Thomas Cranmer, re-organised the *Book of Common Prayer and Administration of the Sacraments and other Rites and Ceremonies of the Church, according to the Church of England, together with the Psalter or Psalms of David, appointed as they are to be sung or Said in churches: And the Form and Manner of Making, ordaining, and consecrating of Bishops, Priests and Deacons*. This title is rather too long and for that matter, the Anglican Church uses the abbreviated name “Book of Common Prayer”.

The King of England has three main roles in the Anglican Church in England: (i) to approve appointment of Archbishops, Bishops and Deans on

the recommendation the Prime Minister; (ii) to open the Church of England General Synod every five years; and (iii) to promise, during the coronation, to maintain the Church. This bit of the history of the Anglican Church is given to justify the reason why Anglican church found universities in the 10th century AD like the Catholics did. The Anglican church emerged in the 16th century.

The Church Establishing Universities

The oldest operating university in the world is Al-Karaouine which was founded by the Islamic faith in 859 A.D. by Fatima al-Fihri in Fes Morocco.

In the Christian World, it is noted that the first University was founded by the Catholic Church. That is, the University of Bologna in Italy in 1088. This was followed by University of Oxford 1096, and University of Salamanca 1164, and University of Cambridge 1209. The University of Aberdeen in Scotland was established by William Elphinstone in 1495. A papal bull was given and the Bishop gave his Charter in 1505.

The term University was derived from Latin “*universitas magistrorum et scholarium*” meaning the “community of teachers and scholars”. Similarly, was the title “professor” which also began at the same time because those who were allowed to teach in the *universitas* had to profess the Christian faith. That the source of the word University and the word Professor.

The motto of these universities reflected the Christian faith and teaching. For instance: the one for Oxford University is *dominus illuminatio mea* (the Lord of my light); that of Cambridge University is *hinc lucem et pocula sacra* (from here light sacred draughts); that of University of Aberdeen is *initium sapientiae timor domini* (the beginning of wisdom is the fear of the Lord).

Universities founded in the 20th century and later have their motto in other languages other than Latin. For instance, the one of Uganda Christian University has it in Greek language as Ἀλφά και Ωμέγα (Revelations 22:13); Ndejje University has “The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom” (Proverbs 9:10). For Bishop Stuart University the motto is “Our God Reigns” (Isaiah 52:7; Psalm 47:8). We can see that Christian influence is still important for all these church founded universities.

The Anglican Church founded its own Universities including the University of Chester in 1839. In Uganda, the Anglican Church of Uganda established universities in the 1990s. For instance, Ndejje University was established in 1992. Bishop Tucker Theological College expanded and turned into the Uganda Christian University in 1997. Others followed suit.

Reason for Anglican Church's involvement in Higher Education

It is important to note that the Christian church has been in the forefront of establishing institutions of higher learning at least in the modern world.

Generally, universities exist to carry out three primary duties: (a) to disseminate knowledge through teaching. Knowledge is the processed information which can be applied in another setting. (b) to create knowledge through research. Universities carry out research in order to get new information about phenomena, new ways of doing things, etc. (c) to carry out community service. This takes place in many ways like students doing voluntary service, carrying out community projects, etc.

In the Anglican Church, universities are set up to do more than the three primary duties mentioned above. The extra roles are:

- (a) To forestall the complete miasma which is engulfing the Christian identity in the face of the ongoing fundamental metamorphosis. The Anglican Church is interested in maintaining the Christian Identity.
- (b) Anglican University endeavours to keep the Humanities and Sciences human. As the society drifts towards mechanistic and reductive models, Anglican universities, try to ensure that the question who is a human being is asked at all levels.
- (c) Universities train the intelligence in argument and honesty. With this people can engage in public debates.
- (d) The Anglican church seeks to bear a more effective witness in an increasingly educated society (Garner, accessed 2018).
- (e) The Anglican Church in Uganda established primary schools, secondary schools, colleges and offered higher education in some of these institutions. For example, at Bishop Tucker Theological College degree programmes were offered even before that institution was transformed into the current Uganda Christian University.

- (f) The society is becoming increasingly educated. To effectively minister to such society, the church needs to be involved in higher education.

In view of the above reason it is appropriate to infer that there is justification of the Anglican Christianity participating in Higher Education especially at university level. One way of taking part is by establishing institutions of higher learning especially universities.

PART II

Concept of Corporate Governance

The term corporate governance has attracted many definitions. Several authors have described it in a number of ways. For instance, Mathiesen (2002) argued that "corporate governance was a field of economics that investigated how to secure or motivate efficient management of corporations by the use of incentive mechanisms like contracts, organizational designs and legislation". The emphasis here is placed on the financial performance like corporate owners motivating so that corporate managers deliver a competitive rate of return. Others did not agree entirely with above view. So, they described corporate governance as "the promotion of corporate fairness, transparency and accountability" (Wolfensohn, 1999). The three are important values for any organisation or institution like a university. However, the central function of corporate governance seems to have been captured effectively by the Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development which defined corporate governance as "the system by which business corporations are directed and controlled. The corporate governance structure specifies the distribution of rights and responsibilities among different participants in the corporation, such as the board, managers, shareholders and other stakeholders, and spells out the rules and procedures through which the company objectives are set and the means of attaining those objectives and motoring performance" (OECD, 1999). Directing and controlling the organisation are the primary obligations of corporate governance.

From these definitions, one can easily comprehend that corporate governance is the relationship among various participants in determining the direction and performance of corporations. The primary participants are (a) the shareholders; (b) the management; (c) the board of directors. The

secondary participants may include employees, customers, suppliers, creditors, and the community. In the Ugandan Anglican founded University setting these are Trustees, Council, and Management. These exist to direct and control the University activities.

Every institution of higher learning, universities inclusive, endeavours to fulfil its vision and mission. If that is to happen successfully, it needs three categories of people: the providers of capital, the formulators of policies, and the implementers of policies and programmes. These are stated as follows:

Table 1 Corporate governance

<i>Activities</i>	<i>Category</i>	<i>Roles</i>
Providers of capital	Shareholders	Ownership
Formulators of policies	Directors	Supervisors
Implementers of policies and programmes	Management	Implementation

The above categories of the participants in corporate governance can apply to all sorts of organisations and institutions. In business enterprises the nomenclature of Shareholders, Directors and Management is employed. In academic institutions the nomenclature usually changes. For examples those who stand in for the shareholders may be referred to as Trustees, those who formulate policies and supervise implementers are described as Council members, and Management may still be management.

The roles of the key participants in corporate governance

As already stated above, there are three primary participants who are shareholders, directors and management. These play the role of ownership, monitoring and performance.

Shareholder’s role: shareholders are often regarded to be the owners of a corporation. Ownership of property involves four main elements: (i) the right to use; (ii) the right to regulate anyone’s else’s use; (iii) the right to transfer rights to property on whatever terms one wishes; and (iv) to ensure that the use of property will not hurt others. Ownership therefore is a combination of rights and responsibilities with respect to a specific property. In some cases, those rights and responsibilities are more clearly defined than in others.

Shareholders or stockholders are deemed to own the company in which they invest. However, stock does not translate into specified segments of the university's assets, at least not unless the university has been dissolved something is left over and after the creditors taking what is owed. Therefore, shareholders have limited liability, limiting their responsibility to prevent or redress the university's wrongs.

Ownership has a long pedigree. In every society, the ownership of property has been a major pre-occupation. However, the debate has usually been between individuals versus community; individuals versus family; individuals versus state; and groups versus groups.

In Uganda under Nakivubo pronouncements in 1969, Government took over much of the ownership of companies in the country. Government was the major shareholder. The cardinal focus underpinning the move, just like John Locke (Stanford, 2016) and Adam Smith (tr.2015) had contended centuries earlier, was to contribute to the common good that is the well-being of society. In the recent past, the propensity towards government ownership has been reversed by the policies of liberalization and privatization, which are the overarching economic philosophy of Uganda. Whereas in the wake of gaining political independence it was thought the state had to spearhead development and enable the citizens get rid of the cardinal enemies of disease, ignorance, illiteracy and poverty; currently the concern is about economic development through foreign investments. This is yet an economic experiment whose results could not be ascertained before the dust and the hullabaloo settled.

Education is also seen through economic lenses which is a challenge to universities in Uganda.

PART III

Law and Governance of Universities In Uganda

The law concerning specifically higher education was formulated and promulgated in 2001. Soon after, the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) was established to execute the roles of regulation as stipulated in the law. Since 2001 the NCHE has actively regulated the establishment of universities and other tertiary institutions in the country. It has given

accreditation to academic programmes of the individual universities in the country. Furthermore, it regularly carries out inspection of institutions of higher learning with the aim of ensuring that quality standards are maintained.

All universities in the country come into the purview of NCHE. The corporate governance of each university is particularly important because the long-term life of a university usually rests on how firmly it is set up.

Corporate Governance and the Law of Higher Education in Uganda

The law that concerns the university education in Uganda is the *Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act of 2001*. This law provides as follows:

- (i) Names of the proprietors of a university be given to NCHE (UOTIA, 100 (2) (h). This provision refers to names of those who are to shoulder the responsibility of ownership or shareholders or founders. For instance, in the case of Ndejje it is the six dioceses of Buganda, or in case of Uganda Christian University, it is the Province of the Church of Uganda.
- (ii) In Part XVII, section 107 of the *UOTIA* 2001, states that “there shall be a governing body for each Private University whose composition, powers and duties shall be specified in its Charter”. The implication of this is that each Private University must have what is commonly known as a University Council. The list of the members constituting the University Council is required to be submitted as part of the application to operate a university the country.
- (iii) The management of a Private University is not categorically stated in the *UOTIA*. However, the law provides that there shall be persons designated officers of the University (*UOTIA*, 2001: 105). Furthermore, there is a requirement for the private University to have a supreme academic body (*UOTIA*, 2001: 108 (1); and faculties, schools, institutes or centres and departments (*UOTIA*, 2001: 108 (2).

Besides the University Council, there is a University Senate. A University is governed and managed through these two organs. This system is common in Ugandan universities regardless of whether they are public or private.

It is also worth noting that the law as assessed above, requires a public University to have the three arms of governance. These are the ones who play the role of owning, directing and implementing. Although the law provides for the functions that make up corporate governance, it does not give clear information regarding a private university. For that matter, private Universities had to adopt the governance model of public universities. This is important to note because all the Anglican Church founded universities in Uganda are Private Universities. The Anglican founded Universities need to have the model that is not only unique but also emphasises the Christian vocation of teaching people.

Universities in Uganda are still in a state of ambivalence when it comes to structures and nomenclature. The Ugandan universities' systems are rather eclectic. For example, see Table 2 below.

Table 2: The nomenclature in Ugandan Universities

A	B	C	D
	USA	UK	Uganda
Leadership of University	President	Vice Chancellor/ Principal	Vice Chancellor Rector
	Vice President	Deputy Vice Chancellor	Deputy Vice Chancellor
In Academic levels	Professor	Professor	Professor
	Associate Professor	Reader	Associate Professor
	Assistant professor	Senior lecturer	Senior Lecturer
Study periods	Semesters	Term	Semester

In Table 2, Ugandan Universities have adopted names from USA and UK mainly. For the top leadership of a University, the title of vice chancellor was preferred to the USA's President or German's rector. Study periods the Ugandan Universities use American title of semesters and less of the UK word of terms. Universities therefore are trying to find a firm ground.

PART IV

University Governance and Church's Education Policy

The Church of Uganda in 2016 formulated and promulgated the Church of Uganda Education Policy. This is an omnibus education policy. In that spirit it had statements on all levels of education from Kindergarten to University. Higher education has only two sections of five pages. In spite of being rather brief, the policy states that it applies to all Church of Uganda founded Universities and other Tertiary institutions. This terseness of the policy indicates the serious inadequacy of the policy.

As if the brusqueness of the Church of Uganda Education Policy was not enough, it is not clear about corporate governance. It is stated that there shall be a Commission for Higher Education. This Commission was to be comprised of:

- (a) A chairperson (nominated by Archbishop and appointed by Provincial Assembly)
- (b) Two representatives of the vice chancellors of C O U universities
- (c) One representative of the Ministry of Education Directorate of Higher Education
- (d) One representative from public universities
- (e) One representative from tertiary institutions
- (f) One representative from Bishop Tucker School of Divinity
- (g) Provincial Education Co-ordinator as ex officio

All the members of the Commission have to belong to the Anglican faith (*Church of Uganda Education Policy*, 2016 pp: 26 – 31).

Having an education policy in place is welcome development. However, there are some gaps in the policy which render its contribution to corporate governance of church founded universities rather weak. The gaps are addressed later on in this paper.

The objectives of the *COU Education Policy* (a) to establish and develop a system of governing its institutions of higher education; (b) to regulate and guide the establishment of those institutions; and (c) to ensure quality and research in the institutions. To achieve these objectives, the COU appointed a Commission for Higher Education and charged it to promote mission,

vision and objectives of higher education; to set rules and guidelines for establishing, operating disestablishing institutions of higher learning.

The Commission for Higher Education to “ensure that Church participates in governance of higher education” (*COU Education Policy*, 2016: 27). The reference to Church which is rather general. The generality makes effectiveness elusive. The arrangement may have worked for Uganda Christian University but not for all Anglican Church founded universities.

PART V

Governance of Anglican Universities in Uganda

The Universities that were founded by the dioceses of the Anglican Church in Uganda were as indicted in the table below:

Table 3 Universities founded by Anglican dioceses in Uganda

	<i>University</i>	<i>Beginning date</i>	<i>Founder</i>
1	Ndejje University	1992	Anglican dioceses in Buganda
2	Uganda Christian University	1997	Church of Uganda
3	Busoga University	1999	Busoga Diocese
4	Bishop Stuart University	2003	East Ankole Diocese
5	West Ankole Diocese	2005	West Ankole Diocese
6	All Saints University Lango	2008	Diocese of Lango

It is clearly noted that there are currently six Anglican related universities in Uganda. Some of these Universities have campuses in various parts of the country. The implication of this is that the Anglican Church in Uganda has played a big role in promoting higher education in the country.

The fact that the above universities were established by the Anglican dioceses in Uganda, it meant that the Province and the dioceses had a strong say in the corporate governance of each University. For instance, for Uganda Christian University, it became a fiat accompli, for the Archbishop of the Church of Uganda to assume the roles of a chancellor. For the remaining five universities the chancellors are diocesan bishops except Ndejje University. This exceptionality of Ndejje probably arises from the fact that that

particular University was by a consortium of West Buganda diocese, Namirembe diocese, Mukono diocese, Mityana diocese and Luwero diocese. It was deemed plausible to elect a chancellor from people who were not Bishops. This consideration may explain why Dr Stephen of Daystar University was chancellor and currently, that is, in 2018, Dr Wilberforce Kisamba Mugerwa is the Chancellor of Ndejje. Otherwise the rest of the Universities have bishops as their chancellors. These are:

- | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------------|
| (a) Diocesan Bishop | West Buganda University |
| (b) Diocesan Bishop | Bishop Stuart University |
| (c) Diocesan Bishop | All Saints University Lango |
| (d) Diocesan Bishop | Busoga University |
| (e) Archbishop | Uganda Christian University |
| (f) Lay Anglican | Ndejje University |

The role of a chancellor of University involves several activities:

It is an established practice that a university has to have chancellor. This officer plays the role of a ceremonial head of the university. The executive head is the vice chancellor. This implies that in the Anglican Universities in Uganda chancellors have no governance role. They are titular head of universities. So, all the Bishops who serve as chancellor have little to contribute to the governance of the Universities. Without another body representing the owners, the corporate governance of the universities apart from Ndejje where there is a Board of Trustees.

In other commonwealth countries like Australia and New Zealand a chancellor besides the ceremonial duties also chairs the University's governing body. In Ugandan case the governing body is the council.

Universities have different reasons for appointing particular individuals as chancellors of the Universities. In the UK such people would be drawn from business or judiciary because the body could be appealed to and resolve disputes. In India a person appointed as governor of a state acts chancellor.

The chancellor in Anglican founded universities in Uganda play the following functions:

- (a) Be visitor to the university
- (b) Preside over all ceremonial assemblies of the university

- (c) Confer degrees and other academic titles at the university
- (d) As a visitor he appoints a visitation committee to assess a university
- (e) To promote the image of the university locally and internationally
- (f) Assist in mobilising resources for the University

The above roles place the chancellor above the managerial functions in a university. Rather it is corporate image and influence where chancellors are expected to do very well in the name of the university. The chancellors of the universities play an important role in the life of a university.

In Ugandan setting the corporate governance of Universities requires the following bodies to be place. The owners of the institution. These sometimes are comprised of Board of Trustees especially when a University is set up and registered as a not-for-profit institution. The owners provide especially the initial capital. In case of the above universities, the Anglican dioceses of the Church of Uganda provided land and buildings that the universities used to open doors to students. Besides the provision of capital, the owners create a vision which informs the strategic plans of the University. As Anglican universities, there is always some endeavour to ensure that some Christian ethos are imbibed by those who work and study in the University.

Ownership of Universities in Uganda fall within the following categories:

(1) *Government or public universities*. These include universities like:

- (i) Makerere University
- (ii) Mbarara University of Science and Technology
- (iii) Kyambogo University
- (iv) Gulu University
- (v) Lira University
- (vi) Kabale University
- (vii) Busitema University
- (viii) Mountains of the Moon
- (ix) Muni University
- (x) Soroti University

(2) *Community Universities*. These include:

- (i) Nkumba University
- (ii) Mutesa I Royal University
- (iii) African Rural University for Women

(3) *Investors in education.* These include:

- (i) Kampala International University
- (ii) Kampala University
- (iii) Livingstone University
- (iv) International University of East Africa
- (v) Victoria University
- (vi) Cavendish University
- (vii) ISBAT University
- (viii) Team University
- (ix) St Lawrence University

(4) *Religious founded universities.* These include:

- | | | |
|--------|------------------------------|-----------------------|
| (i) | Uganda Christian University | Anglican |
| (ii) | Bugema University | Seventh Day Adventist |
| (iii) | Islamic University in Uganda | Islamic |
| (iv) | Ndejje University | Anglican |
| (v) | Bishop Stuart University | Anglican |
| (vi) | Kumi University | Presbyterian |
| (vii) | West Ankole University | Anglican |
| (viii) | All Saints University Lango | Anglican |
| (ix) | Busoga University | Anglican |
| (x) | Uganda Martyrs University | Catholic |
| (xi) | The Pentecostal University | Pentecostal |
| (xii) | African Bible University | Presbyterian |

There are more other universities which are emerging but the above have been mentioned for illustration purposes.

The function of university councils

The function of directing the university is entrusted to the directors. In case of the Anglican Universities in Uganda, those with such responsibilities are known University Council. The composition of the university council based on representation of different categories of the university's stakeholders. These include: (a) alumni associations; (b) government's ministry of education; (c) the public or community; (d) staff associations; (e) current students' body; (f) university senate; (g) university management; (h) secondary schools; (i) other university; (j) etc.

Table 8: Size of University Councils

	<i>University</i>	<i>Council members</i>	<i>Current vice chancellor</i>
1	Ndejje University		Professor Eriabu Lugujo
2	Uganda Christian University	34	Revd Can. Dr John Senyonyi
3	Busoga University	12	Professor David Lamech Kibikyo
4	Bishop Stuart University		Professor Mauda M. Kamatenesi
5	West Ankole Diocese	17	Dr Mesharch Katusiimeh
6	All Saints University Lango		

Their legal obligations as noted by Colley, Doyle, Logan & Stettinius (2003) include:

(a) The fiduciary duty`

The fiduciary duty of the member of the university council refers generally to being trustworthy in acting in the best interest of those whom the council member represents. For that matter a member of university is a fiduciary who ought to take care of university finances and other assets in a prudent manner.

(b) The duty of loyalty

Under the duty of loyalty, a member of the university council has to ensure that the interests of the university are above those of the member. This implies that conflict of interest is not acceptable. When the two interests meet, the council member is supposed to let the university interests supersede the personal ones. The council member is also required to uphold transparency in all the formal dealings of the university.

(c) The duty of fair dealing

Since members of a university council often make decisions of all sorts, the duty of fair dealing presumes that each member will exercise the principle of impartiality. When impartiality is upheld, it means that the member of council will have handled the matter in a fair were.

(d) The duty of care

The duty of care is considered to be a legal obligation which imposes a demand on an individual member the requirement to adhere to the set

standards. It follows therefore that when formulating university policies and procedures. Furthermore, council members are supposed to tolerate laziness or negligence.

(e) The duty not to entrench

The duty to entrench means that council members have a responsibility of ensuring that all the duties of the fiduciary has taken care of. All the duties of the council members ought to be fully entrenched, that is, to be well understood and complied.

(f) The duty of supervision

The council members play the role of supervision of the management. Council members appoint staff of all categories in a university. This is important because without it the university. The above duties are critical for the University council.

Part IV

Challenges for Anglican Universities in Uganda

Universities in Uganda have a number of challenges they are grappling with minimal success. These challenges include (i) the decreasing enrolment; (ii) Funding gaps; (iii) Competition among universities; (iv) Meagre remuneration;

Challenges of governance and sustainability

(i) *Decreasing enrolment of students:* Student enrolment is a challenge for universities in the country especially the private ones. Whereas in the early 2000s the number of students in universities were growing steadily. Even the number of international students especially those from neighbouring countries like Kenya, Rwanda, South Sudan and Tanzania was high (Kawesa Sengendo, 2012; Kasozi, 2010). However, in the 2010s the number enrolling at universities have been decreasingly noticeably. Private universities including those founded by the Anglican Church. The decrease in enrolment implied losing a competitive edge in the region not necessary due to inferior quality as adumbrated by Kasozi in 2010. Rather there were several reasons including policies of neighbouring countries like Kenya and Rwanda which used to send its nationals to study in Uganda.

The national programme on practical skills for employment. In a way this programme was popularised at the expense of university education in the country. In bid to promote the skilling programme, government borrowed heavily as indicated in table 8.

Table 8: The Funds Uganda borrowed to promote skilling programme

	<i>Loan or grant giver</i>	<i>\$ in million</i>
1	ADB	150.0
2	Koreans	26.8
3	OPEC funds for international development	22.95
4	Islamic Development Bank	27.91
5	Saudi fund for development	12.0
6	Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa	5.0
7	Kuwait Fund for Arab Economic Development	11.9
8	World Bank	124.0
9	Irish Aid	7.28
10	Belgium Development Agency	6.1
Total		394

Source: Kwesiga & Masaba, 2018

Most donor institutions and countries prefer to give to or lend to government institutions and not private ones. For that reason, it will be rather hard for Church universities to get substantial funding from church institutions. The donors may also compromise your Anglican teaching. There was a case of donor who withdrew funding to a university because Uganda had a law that prohibited same sex marriage. So, conditionalities especially those that are contrary to Anglican theology, can make it hard to access all possible funding.

Furthermore, it was observed that in spite of the colossal expenses on vocational training institutions, targets were not met. Those who joined these vocational institutes dropped out in alarming percentages. “The institutions of Iganga, Rukungiri, Kitovu, Nakapiripirit, and Kisubi experienced dropout rates of around 20%. Consequently, the 10 – year Skilling Uganda strategic plan which was supposed to produce 450,000 technicians every year, was able to turn out less than 200,000. It is assumed that there is a general lack of interest in education. Young people prefer to

go abroad and do some menial jobs to studying. This theory may explain why students are not filling up universities nor vocational institutions. It is as a challenge for Anglican universities as it is for other categories of educational institutions.

The number of students of in Anglican founded universities is rather low as can be noticed from Table 5. All the 6 universities have less than 30,000 students in total.

Table 9 number of students in Anglican founded Universities

	University	Year	Number of students
1	Ndejje	2014	5000
2	Bishop Stuart	2010	3000
3	Busoga	2007	2500
4	Uganda Christian	2011	10,000
5	All Saints Lango	2010	300
6	Ankole Western	2016	800
Total			21600

Source: institutional websites

For universities that depend largely on students' tuition to meet its financial obligations, the student enrolment is rather low. Although the figures are several years old, there is no guarantee that the number have appreciated drastically. It is a challenge to register a big enrolment of students each intake. The solution to this challenge universities have tried to create campuses in various parts of the country. This render effective management an attendant challenge.

(ii) *Funding gaps*: Almost all Anglican founded universities in Uganda face the challenge of meagre funding. Since all these universities are private universities they are dependent mainly on the tuition fees as pointed out earlier.

The funding for University education has reduced tremendously in Uganda. Before the 1990s students who joined the university did not pay any money instead they would be given some money to cater for their transport. Accommodation, feeding books were given free of charge. In the recent years every student at the university has to pay. Even those on government

sponsorship also pay. The scaling down of funding university education is serious challenge. When students are told to be pay up, they go on strike arguing that they are poor and come from poor families. Yet universities are required to put in place the highest quality standard possible. Government can't pay, families can't and Church can't pay.

To provide quality education one needs to invest substantial amount of money in the University. This coterminous with the principle that the higher the cost the better the quality of education (Mendehall, 2012). This principle is associated with the term harvardisation. Some dissenting voices contend that harvardisation of university education is ruinous (Taylor, 2012). In 2013 the government of Uganda barred at least public universities to increase fees (Namutebi, 2013). Given such a situation it became extremely difficult for universities public and private to raise to a level of satisfying the unit cost of education.

Review of tuition is still hard for most universities in the country. The cost of educating an individual is much more than what students pay in universities. In another research conducted in 2015, academic registrars and admission officers contended that building university reputation costs a lot of money on facilities, staffing, research, publicity and staffing (Mande & Nakayita, 2015). Without good amount of money spent on those items, the ranking of Ugandan universities will remain low.

(iii) *Competition among universities.* The preponderant increase of universities in the country has contributed to intense competition among universities for students and resources. At the time when Ndejje university was established in 1992, there was only private University, the Islamic University in Uganda (IUIU). Most of the universities have been established in the last 25 years. By 2018 there are more 50 universities in Uganda. Consequently, competition intensified for staff and others things. Similarly, vocational institutions have also been established in big numbers to cause more competition for the available students who pass 'A' levels well enough to join further education.

(iv) *Meagre remuneration.* It has been observed that academic staff earn meagre salaries (Asiimwe & Steyn, 2013). On average salaries range between UGX1,000,000 and 2,000,000. This is rather low especially when it is gross

pay. As if to make worse matters worst there is the problem is high taxation. For instance, the Pay As You Earn (PAYE) takes 30%. The consequence of this is for the academics to resort to lecturing in several institutions. This phenomenon is generally known as moonlighting. Since the light from the moon is never full light, it also means that academics do not give full lecturing and mentoring their students because they have to move on to the next university to teach or to carry out academic management.

The issue of meagre remuneration in private universities can be noted vividly when the salaries are compared with those of public universities. Table 6 shows the salaries of academic staff in public universities and how they have been enhanced between 2016 and 2018.

Table 10: Salary rate for academics in Public Universities

Position	2016 / 2017 FY	2017 / 2018 FY
Vice Chancellor	10,626,364	10,420,783
Deputy vice chancellor	8,377,961	8,983,786
Professor	8,031,761	8,487,707
Associate Professor	7,537,144	7,965,011
Senior Lecturer	6,781,147	7,166,097
Lecturer	6,156,020	6,505,484
Teaching Assistant	4,043,083	4,272,600

Source: Circular standing instruction No.5 of 2017.

The above pay rates were to take effect on the 1st of July 2017. However, it is worth to note that in spite of the fact that government enhanced the salaries of academics, the pay rates were still below what other East African countries paid. For instance, in dollar currency, Uganda pays \$2425, yet in Rwanda a professor is paid \$4,900; in Tanzania the same staff is paid \$3,200. It is only in Kenya where the pay for the professor is around \$2,200 (Nakkazi, 2015).

Even though the above pay rates are relatively low in the East African region, they are way above the rates pay in most private universities.

It is important to realise that whereas in public universities there may be extra pay arising out of the contribution of private students, in private universities that arrangement is not common.

Whereas government have raised the salary scales in public universities, the private universities, where most Anglican founded universities belong, have not been able to raise the salaries of their academic staff.

(v) *Unemployment of university graduates*

The litany of unemployment is well engrained in people minds in this country. University education is always castigated for producing graduates who lack skills which employers want. Incidentally no one tell the universities what skills are needed. Others prefer employees from neighbouring countries even if they those foreigners studied in Ugandan universities they will still be preferred.

Table 11 Unemployment of young people including graduates

<i>Year</i>	<i>Rate of unemployed young people including graduates</i>	<i>Nation al average</i>	<i>Total labour force in millions</i>
2013	3.11	1.91	16.01
2014	3.27	1.91	16.59
2015	3.74	2.15	17.22
2016	4.01	2.28	17.87
2017	4.00	2.30	15.84

Source: *The global economy indicators.com* 2017

The university graduates constitute 36% of the youth unemployment rate (UBOS, 2014). The challenge is that unemployment of young people is partly blamed on university education (Museveni 2016). It is often stated and wrongly that universities teach irrelevant programmes that is why graduates do not get jobs. This raises two fundamental issues. One, confusing education with jobs. Education is necessary in its own rights regardless of the available jobs at a particular time. Two, there is no human resource plan for the country. The last manpower plan for Uganda I have seen was drafted in 1967. This implies that we don't know how many jobs exist and in what sectors. No demand note has ever been given to universities stating the kind of professionals the sectors need.

Given the above challenges, it is important that the Anglican Church founded universities in the country review their approaches to corporate governance. The next section on the best practices of corporate governance indicates that more can be done.

The best practices in University governance

Some of the best corporate governance practices for universities include the following:

- (a) *Composition of the university council:* The majority of the members comprising the Board should be non-executive board members. The University council usually has a composition based on constituencies of alumni, senate, students body, staff association, secondary schools, general public, ministry of education and sports, the foundation board.

The above composition of the university council appears to be a best practice because takes into account all the interests of key groups of stakeholders. However, this difficulty with this approach is that it does not consider competences it only focuses on group interests. It is important to have a council member who has competence to handle some of the university level issues. If members can have both the requisite competences and represent some interests the better.

- (b) *Giving members a code of conduct:* There being a code of conduct for all members in the University. This is lacking in most of the Universities. Sometimes nepotism creeps into the governance. Other times decision making gets blurred. All these may happen if there is not code of conduct for the participants in corporate governance.

A corporate code of conduct serves as a tool that outlines responsibilities members have towards stakeholders and requires each person to comply (Arrigo, 2006). A code covers practically every aspect of the corporate governance role and responsibilities.

- (c) *Accurate accountability.:* In a country that is rife with corruption, accurate and timely accountability is absolutely necessary. It wins confidence from the founders and donors. It is also in line with the Christian teaching on stewardship.

Anglican universities should not stop at generating accurate accountability. They need to add some effective risk management. This requires Universities to regularly identify and evaluate the risks they face. The risks universities encounter fall in the categories of finance, operations, environment, legal and ethics. The University council must develop mechanism of handling risks even proactively.

- (d) *Effective communication*: This is the type of communication which avoids silo effect. It goes in both ways, that is top down and bottom up. It is one which is timely.

Effective corporate governance communication is needed because it helped to promote transparency and accountability.

- (e) *Risk management principles*: Universities would do well to put in place good risk management principles. This is better done by instituting a committee solely responsible for handling risk management issues. At least this should be the first step in the process of managing risks of a university.
- (f) *Evaluation of corporate governance performance*: Effective corporate governance is one where members evaluate their performance every season which may a year. This is sine qua non because if the members have diverse skills, experiences and competences which they bring to the university, there should be evaluation on how each contributed to the attainment of the targets which they must have set initially for themselves.

Most those who constitute corporate governance in the Anglican universities in Uganda do not have arrangement nor tools to evaluate their performance. Best corporate governance for the university demands that the members assess their performance.

The above practices of corporate governance are suitable for Anglican Church founded universities because they are conterminous with the biblical teaching which the church strives to uphold.

PART IV

The Bureaucratic Model of Corporate Governance

In this section it is argued that model of governance that the university adopts significantly explains the performance of the institution. The model which is associated with the current status is bureaucratic model.

The current bureaucratic model of governance in Universities

The model of governance that one would not miss if he visited any of the Universities in Uganda will be the bureaucratic model.

This model has been described as one where networks of social groups are dedicated to limited goals, organised for maximum efficiency, and regulated according to the principle of legal-rationality. It is structure which is hierarchical and welded together by systems of communication (Victor, 1971). The bureaucratic elements in the university include the following: (i) university is chartered by the government;

- (ii) the university is a formal hierarchy with offices and a set of bylaws that specify the workings of the offices. There are professors, associate professors, senior lecturers, lecturers, or chancellor, vice chancellor, deputy vice chancellors, deans and heads of department;
- (iv) there are formal channels of communication which are adhered to tenaciously. For instance, the students' results are communicated through department heads, faculty or school boards, and thereafter to senate for final approval;
- (v) as a bureaucracy, a university has relationships whereby some people give orders, approval, authorisations, and the like to others;
- (vi) there are rules, policies, procedures, and committees that hold the university together. These relate to every university activity;
- (vii) the operations of the university are bureaucratic. That is, every major activity has to have records kept, registration and several approvals. Some activities to be accomplished, formal functions have to be organised. Even the routine activities are also treated bureaucratically.

At the beginning of the 21st century, that is in the last two decades, Ugandan society has developed a culture of litigation. It is very easy for people to sue. Several court cases have been settled in favour of those who accuse universities of one thing or other. With such development, bureaucracy taking its toll on people in the universities.

Take the case where student leader, appointed his own guild government ministers. He did not satisfy the students in the way he handled the guild finances. So, his own guild government censored him. He did not even

report to the University Administration instead he went to high court and sued the university for not protecting him. The court ruled that the university was guilty of failing to protect him from his own government. The university was ordered to pay UGX100million. After that incident, the university concerned decided to have the guild constitution revised so that the students' government actions have to be authenticated by the university administration. However, the students objected to the revision of the constitution. That meant there is intensifying bureaucracy in all Ugandan universities without exception.

Lessons learnt so far about Anglican University governance

- (a) Dioceses have established their own universities.
- (b) The diocesan bishop is also the chancellor of the university
- (c) The diocesan bishop is the chair of the university's board of trustees
- (d) There are challenges which need to be tackled head on
- (e) Society is increasingly litigious
- (f) Limited funding is big challenge
- (g) Engaging in a multi-faith environment is making the Anglican founded universities to slide to a penumbra of secularism.

PART V

Consortium Governance of Universities

As a way forward, this paper proposes that a consortium corporate governance be adopted for the Anglican Universities in Uganda. Consortium corporate governance is the model that brings together chairs of board, chairs of council and vice chancellors.

This model requires each Anglican University to send three representatives to the consortium meeting. The three members: the chair of the board of trustees for each university, the chair of the university council, and the vice chancellor would form a body or Commission of 18 members and chaired by the Archbishop or any other person delegated by the Archbishop. Another 5 members like the Dean of the Province, the government commissioner for higher education, and other eminent Anglican educationists. What is currently the Church of Uganda Department of

Education acts as the Secretariat? So, a Provincial Education Co-ordinator automatically becomes the Secretary.

The consortium governance model is different from the collegial system like ones at Oxford and Cambridge universities in the UK. In collegial system each constituent college has equal authority to participate in decisions which are binding on each of them (Bush, 1994:38).

The consortium governance model would promote the following functions:

- (a) United approach to implementation of the Anglican education policies. This also implies formulating a comprehensive higher education policy for the Church of Uganda. The current four-page policy on higher education can only be referred to as a summary.
- (b) Mobilise funds for the existing universities. It is easier to mobilise funds from Church of Uganda wide than doing so at University level.

Mobilising funds internally and in foreign places require a credible institution behind the drive.
- (c) Sharing resources is possible under the consortium governance model. This may include library resources, research co-operation and funding; staff development; external examiners and expertise.
- (d) Develop the niches. It is important for each University to known as the most excellent university in some area of higher education. The resources which for such could be directed to that university. This would also reduce unnecessary competition among these sister universities.
- (e) Lobbying government and other bodies over education policy matters. If the universities of the Church of Uganda acted together they would have a stronger voice than when a single university acted lobbied unilaterally.
- (i) Create joint programmes and projects. Whether in the area of academic standards, staffing, or assessment of the performance in a particular university, and many more could be negotiated through the consortium governance model

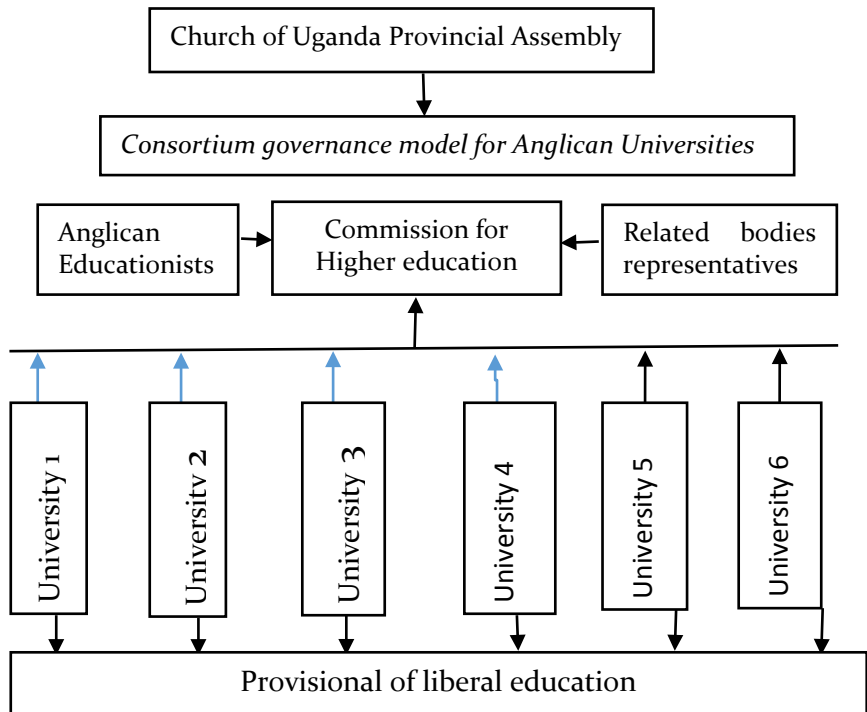
The implications the consortium governance model for universities are: one, the theological training should be offered separately from these secularised universities. Training for the ordained ministry is most appropriate in a theological college or seminary. For that reason, it is appropriate to recommend that an institution like Namugongo Martyrs Seminary becomes the main venue for training men and women for ordained ministry.

Separation of the theological training from university training arises basically out of the philosophical approaches to the term truth in education. Universities ride on the liberal philosophy of education. At first there was religious education. The truth was to be found in the fear of the Lord, hence the mottos of the old universities. In the Old Testament, there is an understanding that God revealed nature and purpose through the history of Israel. As such, education was not only about learning in an academic manner but rather to live according the primary principles of natural law (Aquinas in *Suma Theologica*) or living as people God (Wright, 2004). Religious education emphasised the learners being inducted into an identity and a series of moral commitments (Sack, 1997; Ceetham, 2016). The religious education where training for ordained ministry falls, is grounded in revealed truth human nature, its origin and its destiny.

The 18th century brought with it an intellectual and scientific movement popularly known as enlightenment. This movement emphasised empirical observation and human reason as the only reliable road to knowledge. In a way this criticised the education that had been dominated by the church because it had focused on convention and tradition.

Up to the 21st century, the liberal philosophy of education is dominant in our universities. Where the emphasis is on empirical scientific methods, use of human reason, freedom of individuals to make personal choices about life, and morality being acceptable if conforms to human rights. Religion therefore is a private matter which should not be basis of decisions in an institution of higher learning like a university.

The structure of the consortium governance model for universities



Conclusion

This paper set out to examine the issue of corporate governance for the Universities founded by the Anglican Church in Uganda. It has pointed the fact that Anglican Church in compliance with the great commission of our Lord Jesus Christ, embarked on education ministry. This was intended to promote the principles of living as people of God. In establishing Universities, the church has not been well co-ordinated. This may explain why some church founded universities collapsed and others are weak. To improve the Church of Uganda’s approach to higher education, two propositions have been made. One, that a consortium corporate governance be adopted. Two, that theological training be separated from the university where liberal education is offered.

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Two questions:

1. Adopting the consortium governance model.
2. Archbishop at the level of the Provincial Assembly. Archbishop should not chair a Board of Trustees of a University. He should chair.

PHOTOGRAPHY PEDAGOGY AND SALVAGING THE ENCROACHED WETLANDS IN UGANDA A CASE STUDY MASAKA AND RAKAI DISTRICTS

Deo Nsamba and Andrew P. Yiga

Abstract

*Photography pedagogy and salvaging the encroached wetland is a critical media literacy framework that constructs knowledge and creates a representation of the world that when combined with a Practice Based Research, an original investigation for new knowledge, practice and demonstration, results into a creative outcome. Photography is a tool that has been used in aiding teaching, combined with pedagogical theories and practice of education that could salvage the encroached wetlands. The dependent variable (Uganda wetlands) twined between the two disciplines photography and education combined with a multiple research design could create an innovative theory that could eventually lead to an exhibited model. The analysis of an advanced innovative photography pedagogy **theory, where significance and context of the claims were described in words and a** full understanding was obtained with direct reference to the outcomes which was visually communicated using the photography pedagogy essay exhibition at the end of the research findings. That would ultimately reshape the public opinions on government policies that were often the direct cause of encroachment onto the wetlands. A contextual knowledge occurred through the photography pedagogy text image theory as evidenced in the unit of analysis at Nakayiba wetlands where community members discussed openly on some of the effects that accrued from encroaching onto the wetlands. This was based on the photography pedagogy essay that was passed around the communities by the researcher. And participants learned and processed new information in such a way that it made sense to them in their own frames of reference within their inner worlds of memory, experience and response.*

Key words: Photography pedagogy, Salvage, Encroached Wetland, Practice Based Research,

Introduction

Photography pedagogy has not been used as an alternative option to save the encroached wetlands in Uganda, which was faced with the catastrophe of

environmental degradation that was evidenced through the encroached wetlands by settlements, agriculture and industrial developments. However the government instituted bodies like the National Environment Management Authority, (NEMA) Uganda Wildlife Authority, (UWA) and NAADS have not done much progress through conservation and maintenance of those wetlands. Among such wetlands was the case of the Namanve and forest reserves in both Wakiso and Mukono districts which were encroached upon by 20,000 families and the government gave a notice to have them vacate the land in the next three weeks or face the full force of the law. (New Vision, 2016) Therefore photography pedagogy was the ultimate answer to be focused upon to the dilemma of settlement, and educate the communities in salvaging the encroached wetlands?

Photography pedagogy and salvaging the encroached wetlands in Uganda using an innovative photography pedagogy theory and practice - based photographic exhibition model are in place.

Methodology

The research design is a multi dimension of a participatory action, constructive with an explorative and practice - based photography design combined with a qualitative and quantitative approaches research method. Photography pedagogic experimentation was done through software programs (Adobe Photoshop or Illustrator) and piloting with some of the photographs that became a photography pedagogy exhibition model.

The study proved that the research was a success since the contextual knowledge occurred through the photography pedagogy text image theory as evidenced in the unit of analysis at Nakayiba wetlands where community members discussed openly on some of the effects that accrued from encroaching onto the wetlands. This was based on the photography pedagogy essay that was passed around the communities by the researcher. And participants learned and processed new information in such a way that it made sense to them in their own frames of reference within their inner worlds of memory, experience and response.

The study aims at using photography pedagogy within communities that had encroached onto the wetlands. And the beneficiaries are the general public, since the environment does not need us but we do need it absolutely.

This section considered what the overall intentions were in achieving the purposes of the study which is an innovative photography pedagogy theory and practice – based photographic exhibition model. The contribution to knowledge demanded the researcher to show evidence with substantive possible solutions, strategies, frameworks and theories for the knowledge gap identified through analysis and interpretation of the research findings.

Overall, 30 respondents were interviewed, of which 15 were conveniently sampled from Lwera, Nakayiba, (Masaka District) and Kalisizo (Rakai District), another 8 from purposive interview from the captive group of undergraduate students and 2 lecturers from the School of Commercial Industrial Art and Design of Nkumba University, and Lastly, the 5 Nkumba community members that were interviewed as an after event for comparison purposes with that of Nakayiba (Unit of Analysis) since the research is meant to benefit the public.

Observation unit

- i. Setting: The location of the encroached wetlands in the field had a great impact on the final copies of the photographs, which contained physical and psychological properties that were observed and recorded.
- ii. Behavior of independent variable: the researcher noted the behavior of the manipulated photography pedagogy areas of Lwera, Nakayiba, and Kalisizo, in a manner that he engaged the relevant process that influenced increased visual authenticity within the three areas.
- iii. Behavior of the dependent variable: the researcher took note of the development of the text image elements from the manipulated encroached wetland areas that were subjected to experimental treatment.

Secondary data was got from a variety of sources, and some of these were;

National Environment Management Authority, State of the Environment Report for Uganda, New Vision and Monitor Publications.

Structured observation was an appropriate instrument for the research because it focused on the designated aspects of behavior of encroached wetlands from the original setting using the computer laboratory of a relatively specific formulation that developed the photography pedagogy essay. The study demanded to experiment with the encroached wetland

areas for a behavior to be observed in order to get suitable text that would blend properly with the selected encroached sites. In the computer studio setting, the major chosen encroached wetland sites that were used as test units were arranged into categories, and subjected to experimental treatment principles and elements of design so as to suit the research purpose and minimize the danger that would have developed from the moderated variables. Within these categorical experiments the mechanical problems in observation and the failures in reliability were met by excluding some inappropriate encroached wetland categories and treated others more clearly so as to define them well enough to provide reliable data demanded of the research questions.

Narrative records: detailed notes that interpreted the findings of the study in relation to the elements and principles of art and design were backed up by variations of demonstrations of relevant categories and processes of experimentation. The researcher recorded the visual aspects of the different units, choice of text that blended with units, and the events that occurred in the making of the image composition.

Checklist: This tool was used to record the characteristics of encroached wetlands and text to acquire appropriate image compositions. The visual appeal, included visible varieties of colored text, sizes and formation, combined with their different positioning that varied according to the image composition setup.

Preliminary analysis: Involved gathering data from the behavior of test units of selected encroached wetlands when subjected to experimental treatment, and inform respondents to the standardized questions whose content aimed at discovering standards of action.

Definitive analysis: This involved establishing answers to the research questions and evaluating the suitability of encroached wetlands to the text image composition.

The relationship within the study and its data were interpreted through established and evaluated reports what was typical in the test units of the selected encroached wetlands. And secondly, the results of the study were interpreted basing on the theories, elements and principles of art and design

so as to bring out the relevance of text image essay composition as far as the study was concerned.

The different encroached wetland photographs were named according to the areas they were located from namely, Lwera, Nakayiba, and Kalisizo. Each of these areas had been dealt upon separately in the manipulation process, in as regard to the theories of image and text, basics of composition using typography, meaning, and color terminologies.

The relations between text and pictorial representation were, at first, presented on the basis of the most dominant. Secondly, the outer and inner visual expressions of picture and text were distinguished. And their different functions in the picture-text relations were pointed out. Determined crucial notions regarding the examined phenomena, to ascertain initial classifications for the analysis of picture-text relations, to point out that there are no simple texts based on just one means of expression, and to find the main functions of the message and its parts revealed in the mutual impact of text and picture.

It demanded the designer to seek information from a great range of references, and had successfully communicated with people of all ages, professionals and lifestyle, and properly contextualized his design work.

Linear reasoning implied a strategic thought process using step by step logic, and followed a specific trend. The kind of reasoning frequently involved a predetermined idea or concept that was then worked towards in stages. It involved splitting the idea in manageable components, and considered color, type, composition and scale, and worked on each through to finalize the form to fit the concept. Lateral thinking involved indirect exploration, generating ideas less readily available by linear reasoning. The emphasis was on indirect, creative forms of research.

Composition referred to the visual structure and organization of elements within the design. The images and text, each had its own shapes, sizes, color and textures, from two to three dimensions. It was the most effective tool in guiding the viewer through the complexity of visuals to the intended message.

In creating meaningful composition, it was important to understand the role of visual perception that is the way our eyes and brains made sense of what we saw. The figure and ground, (the form was always experienced in relation to the space it occupied and to other forms that were present in the format) the law of closure,(was a phenomena drawn from Gestalt psychology, which argued that there was a tendency to close or complete lines or objects that are not in fact closed) and the rule of thirds(demanded that most compositions became more dynamic when divided into thirds vertically, and horizontally, with important elements placed within those thirds).

The typographic message apart from its beauty had to convey meaning, a meaning and its expression was at the core of the typographic activity, a level of both individual words and entire passage of text. That was called linguistic meaning, since it resided in language.

Understanding how to deal with space in typography was essential. Proper spacing affected legibility, and space was also an integral and powerful part of any composition, whether symmetrical or asymmetrical. Developed an eye for detail, and considered the role of space in both legibility and meaning as you progress at every stage of the design development.

Typographic emphasis and hierarchy was a critical skill. It involved considering the relationship between multiple elements- the size and weight of type, the position on the page and the dynamics between elements- as well as developing an understanding of how these decisions called forth some contents while suppressing others.

Colour had a unique complex language, and the ability to change its meaning when partnered with other colours. The choice made of the colours to incorporate into the design, required to consider issues of contrast and harmony, and how these would affect legibility in typography. The researcher further set the mood of the photographic essay by using the psychology of colour, through selection of colours that conveyed the correct message at an unconscious level, and that they were suitable for the audience his project was intended to reach. In this case the researcher had to

use dark combinations to evoke mystery and fear as a way of triggering communities to be sensitive of their wetland encroachment.

Photoshop was the industrial standard software package that manipulated the selected wetland encroached photos, that suited the study. Text was incorporated into the design and gave a clear integration of text and image within a single digital environment.

There was one way to import images into Photoshop for modification and incorporation into a design, and that was to scan them. Scanning required some essential skill, as it allowed the capture of actual objects as the depth of field was not too great.

Photoshop layered different images and elements so that each could be worked on separately without altering the rest of the image.

Print production was the last stage in the design process. Familiarity with the print production techniques and issues was vital to ensure the final printed job looked and felt the way it was intended.

The ancient Greek Philosopher Aristotle believed that all knowledge was accumulated memories, collected through a long series of observations and connected by the mind into single experiences, like many pictures forming a single movie. Each picture leads into the next, following the progression, we make sense of in our minds, until we reach a logical conclusion. Having seen certain actions lead to certain consequences before, an experienced man can see a particular picture and conclude what will happen next. A man who can explain why one thing precedes the next thing and can event an appropriate conclusion on the other hand is wise according to Aristotle (Culatta, 2018).

Kohler and Koffka, Max Wertheimer was one of the principal proponents of Gestalt theory which emphasized higher-order cognitive processes in the midst of behaviorism. The focus of Gestalt theory was the idea of grouping, for example; characteristics of stimuli cause us to structure or interpret a visual field or problem in a certain way. The primary factors that determine grouping were: (1) proximity – elements tend to be grouped together according to their nearness, (2) similarity – items similar in some respect tend to be grouped together, (3) closure – items are grouped together if they tend to complete some entity, and (4) simplicity – items will be organized

into simple figures according to symmetry, regularity, and smoothness. These factors were called the laws of organization and were explained in the context of perception and problem-solving. (Husain, 2018)

The fundamental elements and principles of graphic design photography pedagogy as have been understood by the Masaka and Rakai contexts. The exhibition model is meaningful, memorable, and communicative to the audiences.

The Photography Pedagogy Practice Based – Exhibition Model Plates

PLATE 1



Title: Encroached wetland for mudfish

Context: Kamuwunga village, Lwera, (Masaka District)

Medium: Photography

Size: 16.8cm by13.7cm

PLATE 2



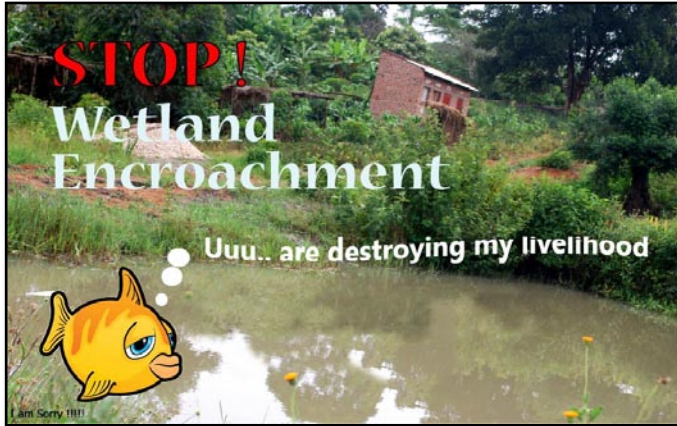
Title: Small scale industrial encroachment
Context: Nakayiba Wetland, (Masaka District)
Medium: Photography
Size: 15.5cm by 11.9cm

PLATE 3



Title: The trauma of the Cholera epidemic
Context: Kamuwunga village, Lwera (Masaka District)
Medium: photography
Size: 15.5cm by 13cm

PLATE 4



Title: Wetland Fish pond farming

Context: Kalisizo Town Council, (Rakai District)

Medium: Photography

Size: 15.5cm by 11.3cm

PLATE 5



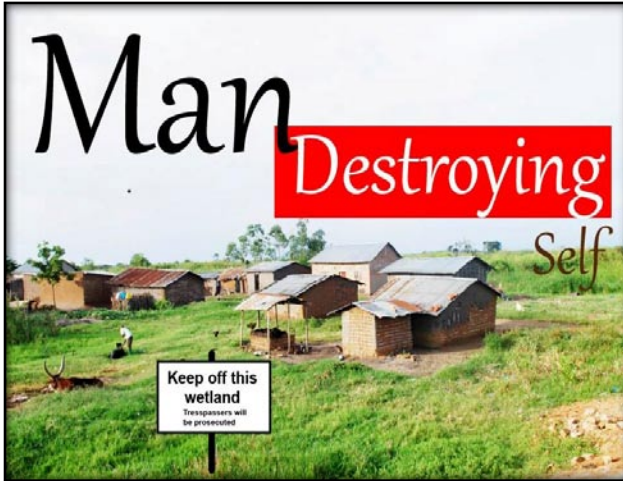
Title: Protect not Pest the Wetland

Context: Ninzi village, Kalisizo (Rakai District)

Medium: Photography

Size: 15.5cm by 11.8cm

PLATE 6



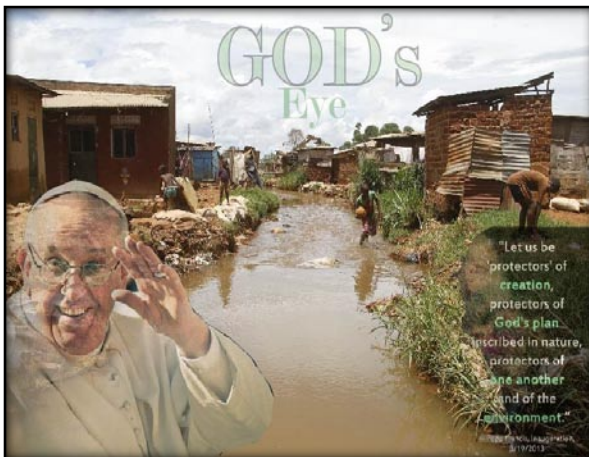
Title: Eminent Disaster

Context: Kamuwunga Village (Masaka District)

Medium: Photography

Size: 15.5cm by 11.8cm

PLATE 7



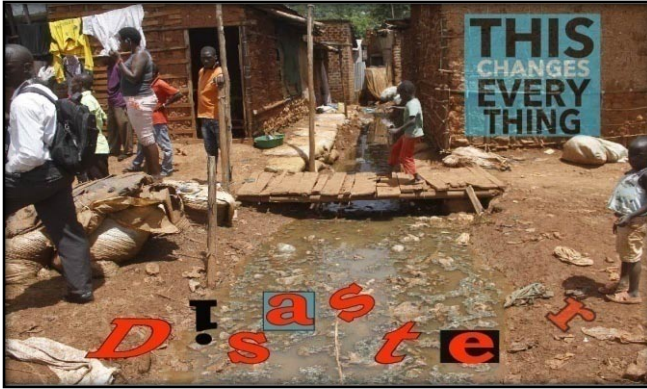
Title: Desperate of God's intervention

Context: Nakayiba wetlands (Masaka District)

Medium: Photography

Size: 15.5cm by 11.8cm,

PLATE 8



Title: Need for Ecological Restoration

Context: Nakayiba (Masaka District)

Medium: Photography

Size: 15.5 cm by 11.9 cm

PLATE 9



Title: The Catastrophe of Wetlands

Context: Nakayiba Wetland (Masaka District)

Medium: Photography

Size: 15.5cm by 11.3cm

PLATE 10



Title: Join The Fight

Context: Ninzi Kalisizo Village (Rakai District)

Medium: Photography

Size: 15.5cm By 11.5cm

Plate 11



Title: Cheating yourself not the Environment

Context: Nakayiba Wetlands, (Masaka District)

Medium: Photography

Size: 15.5cm by 11.9cm

PLATE 12



Title: It all comes back to us.

Context: Kamuwunga village, (Masaka District)

Medium: Photography

Size: 15.5cm by 12.7cm

PLATE 13



Title: Respect your Environment

Context: Nakayiba Nnyendo Wetlands, (Masaka District)

Medium: Photography

Size: 16.2cm by 13.8cm

PLATE 14



Title: Ignorance is no Defence

Context: Kamuwunga village, Lwera, (Masaka District)

Medium: Photography

Size: 15.5 by 12.3cm

PLATE 15



Title: Wetlands are not Wastelands

Context: Kalisizo Butemba Village, (Rakai District)

Medium: Photography

Size: 15.5cm by 13.8cm

PLATE 16



Title: The Dream

Context: Nakayiba Wetlands,(Masaka District)

Medium: Photography

Size: 12. 1cm by 10.4cm

Many of the respondents have been sensitized through the basis of comparison from the photography pedagogy practice – based essay of the encroached wetlands by brain storming, and reflecting about the effects of the outcome of their actions. The nature of text image elements involving template matching against copies stored in memory from past experiences on the other hand however, has reinforced the fact that the relationship between the syntactic (form) elements that tell the story, form a language and composition to establish the first understanding to which a viewer will come, identify the nature of a form, noting how it behaves in space, and comparing the behaviors of individual forms to others, is the foundation of communicating at even the most basic abstract or non pictorial level.

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THE EFFECT OF MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT ON THE PERFORMANCE OF PUBLIC PRIMARY SCHOOL HEADTEACHERS IN NAKASONGOLA DISTRICT -UGANDA

Charles Dickens Serunjogi, John Ssekamwa and Wilson Muyinda Mande

Abstract

The current study set out to examine the influence of Management Development (MD) on the performance of public primary school headteachers in Nakasongola district. This was premised on the belief that for managers to perform their roles effectively, they had to be equipped with the requisite knowledge and skills in management. The study focused on two specific objectives thus; (i) To examine the influence of Peer Group Meetings (PGMs) on headteachers' communication capability (ii) To examine the influence of Continuous Professional Development (CPD) on headteachers' personnel management capability. The study employed a survey design using a mixed-methods approach. The target population included headteachers and Cluster Centre Tutors (CCTs) in Nakasongola district. A sample of 108 participants including 103 headteachers and 5 CCTs was selected for the study. Results of the study showed that through PGMs and CPD, headteachers were able to improve their managerial capabilities using the skills attained in communication and personnel management. However, several challenges were identified including; irregular attendance of PGMs by the headteacher, poor attitude towards change, language barrier and inadequate resources.

Introduction

The current study sought to examine the effect of Management Development (MD) on the performance of primary school headteachers in Nakasongola district. This focus is premised on the belief that for school managers to perform their roles efficiently and effectively, they need to be equipped with the requisite managerial knowledge, skills, abilities, competencies and capabilities (McHugh & McMullan, 1995; Barney, 1991; Grant, 1991; Carnoy, 1999). This is important because through MD both the individual and the organization become more productive and efficient.

The concepts of Management Development and training are often used interchangeably (Milhem, Abushamsieh, Arostegeni & Nieves, 2014). While MD is a gradual process of developing managerial skills, training is short

term and aims to develop technical skills in the current job (Robotham, 2003). For that reason, both MD and training practitioners have always adopted similar methods to deliver knowledge and skills. It is postulated that for a school to perform well, it must have a competent head teacher (Pierson, 2014). This implies that school managers have to be exposed to a continuous process of MD in order to acquire the requisite skills and knowledge needed to perform managerial tasks effectively.

In Uganda, under the Teacher Development and Management System (TDMS), a significant number of primary school headteachers in Nakasongola district attended training in managerial skills and were awarded certificates in school management. The TDMS in-service training programme was a donor funded intervention which was conducted at Nakaseke Core PTC between 1995 and 2003 to enhance headteachers' managerial skills so that their performance could be improved. When the programme phased out its activities in 2003 its structures were taken over by the Government of Uganda through Kyambogo University under the Core PTC network. In the subsequent years, the Cluster Centre Tutors continued with the Cluster Centre-based training of headteachers in managerial skills. This was done in conjunction with the District Local Government of Nakasongola through Peer Group Meetings (PGMs), Continuous Professional Development (CPD) workshops, support supervision activities and seminars. It was expected that by equipping headteachers with the requisite managerial skills, their managerial performance in schools would improve. Unfortunately, there have been continuous overtones of ineffective management of primary schools in the district. Given this background, no study has been conducted in Nakasongola district to verify this claim. The current study therefore, set out to bridge the aforementioned gap.

Literature Review

It is opined that in preparing managers, there are key issues that should be emphasised thus –raising employee efficiency(Richard, et al, 2009) and improving organizational performance by building both the organizational and individual competence (Cummings & Woley, 2005). Other studies posit that managers need to build competitive advantage through training competencies such as creativity and discernment so as to maintain as well as advance their positions in their respective work places (McClelland, 1994)

through human resources capital differentiation (D'Natto et al, 2008). Furthermore, it is argued that manager preparation should focus on innovation (De jong & Hartog, 2007) and the most essential requirement for innovative behaviour in a work place is the development of skilled and competent human resource (Edralin, 2007). Other scholars have linked MD activities to skills and knowledge development (Swap, Leonard, Shields & Abrams, 2001) as well as knowledge sharing (Kullman, 1998; Edralin, 2007; Stagler, 2009). Given the above debate, the role of Management Development (MD) in enhancing the performance of primary school headteachers is not stated. This study aims to bridge that gap by analyzing the effect of MD on the performance of public primary school headteachers in Nakasongola district.

Studies also maintain that MD enhances the ability of an organization to be knowledge intensive and at the same time enables employees to take up new jobs or tasks efficiently (Karthilleyan, Karttu & Graf, 2010). This implies that MD offers an organization the opportunity to improve efficiency both in the long and short term (Forsyth, 2001; Brinkerhoff, 2005). However, it is also posited that maintaining improved efficiency is a function of having the right skills (Giovani, 2011). Other studies consistently opine that improved efficiency in an organization can only be meaningful if it has the potential to enhance the ability of employees to make maximum use of the organisation's resources (Ukenna, Jeoma, Anionwu & Olise, 2010). While this debate provides a wider perspective into the justification of MD in an organization, this study seeks to investigate whether the perceived efficiency brought about by MD translates into improved management of public primary schools by the headteachers.

The emphasis on the institutional heads as the agents of change has been increasing and the need for professional development of educational leaders has gained worldwide popularity (Fullan, 1991). Nevertheless, it is noted that the reason why educational changes are often perceived as problematic is not the nature of change itself but the nature of knowledge, skills and attitudes of those involved and the way they are exposed in action (Burnham, 1994). The debate intensifies with views on the complex management contexts of educational institutions which require a sustained development other than "a short term patching up operation" (Brew, 1995) as

opposed to perceptions of training and development as a means of rectifying deficiencies (Middlehurst, 1995). However, there is need to link MD to the performance of primary school headteachers –an issue that makes this study relevant and timely.

Objectives of the study

1. To examine the influence of Peer Group Meetings (PGMs) on the headteachers' communication tasks.
2. To examine the influence of Continuous Professional Development (CPD) workshops on the headteachers' personnel management tasks.

Methodology

The study employed a mixed-methods design because of the need to relate evidence from qualitative and quantitative methods (Donald, Chaser & Sorensen, 2010). Quantitatively, the study used statistical procedures to generate conclusions whereas the qualitative approach sought to understand the problem on the basis of reported words by giving detailed views of informants.

The target population comprised of headteachers from the 144 public primary schools in Nakasongola district and Cluster Centre Tutors (CCTs) from the five Cluster Centres in the district. Using Krejcie and Morgan table as cited in Amin (2005) a sample size of 108 respondents was selected for the study out of which 103 were headteachers and 5 respondents were Cluster Centre Tutors. The 103 headteachers were selected using convenience sampling while the CCTs were purposively selected.

The headteachers filled the questionnaire at their own convenient time after which the completed schedule was delivered individually or in groups as recommended by (Kothary, 2004). The questionnaire consisted of closed-ended items which used a five-point Likert scale to generate quantitative data. It is recommended that a closed-ended questionnaire should consist of questions which are accompanied by a list of possible alternatives from which respondents select answers that best suit their situations (Amin, 2005). The structure of the closed-ended questionnaire was in such a way that they were arranged into content sub-sections. Each question was introduced using a short statement reflecting its content and purpose. The purpose of the short statement was to help the respondent comprehend

what the question was about without spending much time as suggested by (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

Quantitatively, data was analyzed using descriptive statistics whereas qualitative data was analyzed by carefully organizing the data through generating themes categories and patterns. The factual code helped to identify facts, attitudes and feelings of the interviewees. This helped to evaluate and critically analyse data to establish the adequacy, usefulness and consistency of the information.

Results

The findings of the study were presented on the basis of the two research objectives. To get quantitative data from the headteachers, a closed-ended questionnaire with a five-point Likert scale was used. The headteachers were required to indicate their opinions using Strongly Disagreed (SA), Disagreed (D) Neutral (N), strongly agreed (SA) or Agreed (A). To give a summarized rating of the strength of respondents’ views, the responses under SD and D were presented and discussed under the category of Disagree while those with SA and A were placed under the category of an interview guide was used to solicit views from the headteachers regarding the two research objectives.

Findings on research objective1

The first objective sought to examine the influence of Peer Group Meetings (PGMs) on headteachers’ communication effectiveness at school.

Table 1: Responses on the Influence of PGMs on Headteachers’ Communication tasks

The Influence of PGMs on Headteachers’ Communication tasks			
	DA	N	A
1. Through PGMs, I attained skills in report writing	37 ⁰ %	1 ⁰ %	62 ⁰ %
2. Through PGMs I attained interpersonal skills for effective management	47 ⁰ %	1 ⁰ %	52 ⁰ %
3. Through PGMs I attained verbal communication skills	25 ⁰ %	1 ⁰ %	74 ⁰ %
4. Through PGMs I attained presentation skills	43 ⁰ %	02 ⁰ %	55 ⁰ %

In table I above, headteachers were asked to give their views using Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree and Strongly Agree under

various statements regarding the influence of PGMs on their communication effectiveness and the results showed that through PGMs, majority (62%) of them attained reporting skills. It was noted that one of the key roles of primary school headteachers was to report on different issues affecting their schools as often as possible depending on the situation at hand. Through interviews with CCTs, it was noted that it required headteachers to possess relevant reporting skills such as collecting, analyzing, interpret in grand assembling information so as to prepare quality reports. During the PGMs, the headteachers practiced the skills, evaluated each other and shared ideas on how to improve the quality of their reports. An analysis of annual reports submitted by the headteachers to the District Education Officer (DEO) showed significant improvement in the originality of information, succinctness, clarity, preciseness and language quality. This notwithstanding, the CCTs reported that on average, in every PGM held at the Coordinating Centres, at least three headteachers did not attend – implying that the trainings conducted did not benefit them.

The study also revealed that through PGMs, headteachers acquired interpersonal skills–this was affirmed by the majority (52%) who agreed. Nonetheless, a significant number (47%) disagreed. Through interviews with the CCTs, it was reported that during the PGMs, headteachers shared a lot of ideas and acquired a variety of interpersonal skills such as negotiation, problem solving, decision making and emotional intelligence which helped them to make informed decisions and perform their duties effectively. However, the CCTs explained that given their experience in conducting PGMs, atleast 45% of the headteachers in the district had difficulties in adapting to new ideas. This implied that such officers were always opposed to change –this in turn affected their performance levels and the overall quality of service delivery in their respective schools.

Regarding whether through PGMs headteachers attained verbal communication skills, majority (74%) agreed. However, a significant number (25%) indicated that the PGMs did not help them to develop their verbal communication skills. It was established through interviews with CCTs that effective verbal communication entailed being an effective listener, talking with confidence, being authentic to oneself, being friendly, being sensitive to one's body language and being concise. The CCTs added that the

headteachers acquired these skills practically as they often made presentations and contributed ideas during the PGMs. However, it was observed that language barrier was a big challenge for those headteachers who were not familiar with the languages used by the natives of Nakasongola. As a result, some of them had difficulties in communicating to parents especially during meetings and school open days.

The study further revealed that majority (55%) of the headteachers agreed that they attained presentation skills through PGMs while 43% disagreed. This was attributed to the fact that during the PGMs, all headteachers were required to make presentations about the best practices and challenges in their schools. This helped the headteachers to consolidate on the already acquired skills in the previous presentations and to identify the existing challenges. However, through document review it was noted that 50% of headteachers across the five Coordinating Centres in Nakasongola district still lacked adequate skills of preparing quality presentations. Recommendations by the CCTs showed that the headteachers needed more time to focus on the organizational, analytical and information gathering skills in order to prepare better presentations in future.

Findings on Research Objective 2:

Table 2: The influence of Continuous Professional Development on Headteachers’ personnel management tasks

The influence of CPD on Headteachers’ personnel Management Tasks	Disagree		
	Neutral	Agree	
1. Through CPD I acquired skills in resolving staff conflicts	45%	4%	51%
2. Through CPD I acquired skills in staff motivation	32%	1%	67%
3. Through CPD I acquired skills in training and development of staff	43%	3%	54%
4. Through CPD I acquired skills in guiding and counseling staff	32%	3%	65%

According to table 2 above, majority of respondents (51%) agreed that through Continuous Professional Development (CPD), they attained skills in resolving staff conflicts while a considerable number (47%) disagreed. This was attributed to the fact that conflict management was a key area where a lot of emphasis was placed during CPD sessions. This was due to the fact that workplace conflicts had been cited by the CCTs as one of those vices that hindered the performance of teachers in Nakasongola. The CCTs explained that conflict resolution skills that headteachers attained included; being calm, being respectful to reactions, being ready to forgive and forget, ability to seek compromise and avoid punishing, being able to control emotions and paying attention to the feelings being expressed. While this intervention was at first seen as an uphill task, the CCTs reported that it had helped to enhance stability among staff in 75% of the schools where misunderstandings had been cited.

As to whether the CPDs had helped headteachers to attain skills in staff motivation, 67% of the respondents agreed while 32% disagreed. This level of attainment by the headteachers was mainly due to the availability of the CCTs at the various Cluster Centres and their ability to conduct the CPDs in a consistent manner. Through interviews, all the CCTs reported that they regularly encouraged headteachers to find ways of motivating their staffs in order to expect maximum performance from them. Deplorably, the CCTs reported that due to limited resources, the headteachers mostly used invisible rewards to motivate their staffs because the schools lacked funds to procure physical rewards to appreciate the efforts of specific staffs who displayed outstanding performance.

The current study also showed that majority (54%) of respondents agreed that through CPD workshops they were able to acquire skills in the training and development of staff while 43% disagreed. The strong emphasis placed on staff development during the CPD sessions explains this phenomenon. Through interviews, CCTs reported that during the CPD workshops which were conducted in 2015/2016, the topics that were tackled included; the importance of training and development of staff, identification of staff training needs, preparation of training materials and approaches/ methods of training and development. Nonetheless, it was also argued that although such trainings were perceived as being vital, headteachers did not have

adequate funds to effectively roll out the trainings at the school level on regular basis. This had resulted into substandard school-based training activities in Nakasongola district.

Results also showed that majority (65%) of respondents agreed that through CPDs, they attained guidance and counseling skills which helped them in handling psychosocial issues that affected their staffs. While this achievement was attributed to increased awareness about counseling services, it was reported by the CCTs that a significant number of teaching staffs in Nakasongola did not appreciate the value of such services. Despite the aforementioned challenges, there was need to attract and retain the best staff in public the primary schools in Nakasongola district. This meant that guidance and counseling were necessary in schools for purposes of managing stress and depression that resulted from anxiety related issues like managing deadlines, meeting targets and lack of time to fulfill personal and family commitments. It was nevertheless realised that with the limited resources, atleast 70% of the headteachers had managed to maintain stability amongst their staffs. This was achieved amidst the numerous challenges as stated in the status reports submitted to the DEOs office by the headteachers. The challenges ranged from negative attitude amongst staff to lack of facilities needed in effecting counseling services in schools.

Conclusions

The study findings indicated that although Peer Group Meetings (PGMs) and Continuous Professional Development (CPD) workshops had helped to enhance headteachers capabilities in performing their communication and personnel management tasks respectively, there were still numerous inadequacies that needed to be addressed. These included but not limited to; irregular attendance of PGMs by some headteachers, poor attitude of headteachers towards change, language barrier among some headteachers who were not familiar with native languages and inadequate resources.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are suggested;

- i. The office of the District Education Officer (DEO) should develop a monitoring mechanism to ensure that headteachers attend Peer group Meetings (PGMs) regularly.

- ii. There is need for the office of the DEO in conjunction with the Cluster Centre Tutors (CCTs) to carry out effective Training Needs Assessment (TNA) to ascertain the critical gaps in the performance of primary school headteachers so as to address issues of poor attitude towards change.
- iii. There is also need for School Governance bodies to diversify income sources so as to overcome the challenge of inadequate funding in schools.

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ASSESSMENT FOR LEARNING IN UGANDAN UNIVERSITIES

Joyce Bukirwa Sessanga

Abstract

The effectiveness of the teaching and learning process is best inferred from the effectiveness of their assessment and evaluation. This paper highlights the concept of formative assessment at universities in Uganda. It is aimed at harnessing the role of formative assessment as assessment for learning. The paper highlights the forms of formative assessment, feedback and feed forward. The kinds of assessment done at formative level are explored. Recommendations to improve assessment for learning are discussed. The way forward is given to aid the implementers in better service delivery.

Key words: *Assessment, evaluation, formative assessment, feedback and feed forward*

Introduction

Assessment of learning is the process of measuring the ability of an individual or group of individuals on a given task. Assessment is a key process that can aid learning. Whereas students may ignore their lecturers and what they teach them, they must participate in the assessment process because they are interested in getting a qualification. It is therefore imperative that lecturers individually or collectively pay great attention to the assessment practices in order to promote learning. Assessment measures the breadth and depth of learning. In the right hands, assessment can inspire, motivate and provide the feedback that is essential for targeting prompt corrective help (Petty, 2014).

In education we consider two types of assessment namely; formative and summative assessment. Summative assessment occurs at the end of a program while formative assessment occurs as the program takes place. Formative assessment is meant to aid the learner to improve the process of learning as the teaching is going on. It is aimed at getting evidence and interpreting it to be used by the teachers and learners to gauge the position of learners in their learning, where they need to go and how best to get there. Formative assessment is also called assessment for learning.

Assessment can be used to grade the attainment of learners, help to select candidates for jobs or future courses, provide evidence on the effectiveness of courses and teachers and serves as evidence of learners' achievement. The teacher benefits more from formative assessment. This is used throughout the course to form judgements on whether, and to what extent, learning has been successful; and to pinpoint difficulties so that remedial action can be taken.

Aim and objectives

This paper aims to draw stakeholders' attention to a prominent aspect of formative assessment as a key pillar in the quest to effective learning in Uganda's Universities.

Methodology

This study used a narrative literature review design (Noguchi, 2006; Ridley, 2008), characterized by using peer-reviewed articles as the major data source. The peer-reviewed articles and other sources used were available in the English language and had been published in the period 2000 and 2018.

Formative Assessment

Formative assessment aims at improving student learning through exposure hence familiarizing with the required levels of learning, revealing the gaps in learning and providing a feedback which guides the direction of learning. Formative assessment can include teacher assessment, self-assessment or peer assessment. Students can mark their own work called self-assessment. Petty (2014) submits that any kind of acknowledgement of learning success is reinforcement. A lecturer can give students a set of informal competences and ask them to tick these off themselves achieve them or ask them to self-assess against clear criteria. In addition, students can mark each other's work called peer assessment. Biggs (2007) reported an almost doubled attainment on a University engineering course when students marked their peers' work. The average mark on the unit rose from 45% to around 75% as a result of this strategy.

Different universities and different faculties/colleges/schools/departments have set out guidelines for assessing students' learning. Usually the timing and nature of formative assessment is left to the discretion of the

instructor. This has created a number of challenges because the instructor is left with a lot of powers to solely decide the future of the student. The university guides on the mark out of which students are supposed to be scored. This may be 30% or 40% or 50% as the case may be in a given university.

Need for formative assessment to be informative assessment

Formative assessment must be informative. Sadler (1989) looked at praise and criticism and concluded that every learner needs three important pieces of information if they are to learn to maximum. Learners need information on what they have done well, and what is good about it. They also need information about what needs improving and how to improve it. Students also need to know the goals they are working towards. This information can come from teachers, learners' self-assessment or from peer assessment.

Formative assessment is a process that occurs during instruction using activities that range from a performance task, to a thoughtful and thorough conversation between teacher and student. Learners need to know what they are trying to do if they are to do it. Students must understand the tasks, the criteria for a good piece of work, which includes the assessment criteria. They need to know what they are aiming for.

Learners also need information about what they have done well and what is good about it. You simply can't learn if you never discover when you have succeeded. What students need most is an informative view on what they have done well. It is better for learning if the learner discovers they have succeeded with one of their goals than that they have your approval.

Learners also need information about what needs improving and how to improve it. This needs to be constructive which means forward looking and positive, showing how to improve not just what is wrong. It can be called the mission.

Formative assessment can be seen as an instructional tool for use while learning occurs. It should therefore be emphasized that these assessment systems should be seen as means to a greater goal of helping children develop the cognitive, academic, emotional and physical competencies they need to succeed in 21st century life.

Formative assessment is meant to aid learning. Unfortunately, we cannot rely on the results from this assessment because of its subjectivity. Possibly this could be the reason why most of the products of our education system fail to perform basic tasks and yet they obtained very high grades in the summative assessment. Most of the schools pay a lot of attention to promotional exams possibly because these are the ones that are made public and consequently serve as a basis for judging who the best teacher is.

Black and Williams gave the advantages of self and peer assessment:

- They help students to clarify goals
- They help students to make judgements about their own work
- Students are able to see other ways of doing it.
- They put students in charge of their own improvement and develop in the students a sense of ownership, responsibility and accountability.
- They increase students' effort and persistence.
- They help students to develop a self-critical and reflective habit of mind.
- They save the lecturer time for more productive activities.

Feedback and Feed forward of formative assessment

Heitin (2012), citing Prof. Douglas Fisher and Prof. Nancy Frey of San Diego State University, said the most important components of formative assessment are strong feedback and "feed forward." Good feedback should be timely, specific, actionable, and useful. Students are given opportunities to re-learn and practice the skill again right away. Similarly, lecturers should also "feed forward" by asking themselves how they will use what they learned in the feedback process to inform their instruction. This helps lecturers to decide what needs to be taught again and to whom, which implies flexibility in planning and willingness to turn from whole class instruction.

Rowe, R. (2018). As feedback is designed to enhance student learning, it is insufficient to only provide feedback at the end of the module that simply tells students where they've gone wrong. To be effective, feedback needs to be a two-way dialogue which helps motivate students – although not all students need the same type of feedback. Students need ongoing formal and informal feedback on their work (both assessed and non-assessed) throughout each module, along with support on how to use it. It is

important to make sure students are aware that you are giving them feedback. This should be fairly clear when using written feedback, but remember formative feedback may not always be written down.

Students also need the opportunity to give teachers feedback on what they have learned so you know your teaching is helping them to achieve the intended learning outcomes for your course and can adapt your teaching where necessary (for example spending more time on a particular theory if students are struggling to understand it). Feedback should therefore be a continuous process of conversation and reflection.

This is where formative feedback comes in. Formative feedback is feedback 'for' learning. It is often provided to students during the course of a module so they are able to use it to improve the way they learn and enhance their future academic performance. It can also form part of the feedback at the end of module, where it 'feeds forward' to future modules. Providing shorter bursts of formative feedback, for example in response to mini-tasks, also helps to develop a continuous conversation between students and academics that supports students to become reflective learners.

Feedback needs to be tied in with wider course design and formative assessment structures to ensure that the course is structured in a way that allows students to reflect on and use the feedback they receive. There is no point in returning feedback within three weeks for example if students are expected to submit another similar assessment within two weeks. Thinking about feedback when designing your module (and of course, in the context of your other departmental modules) will ensure that it is useful for students and sustainable for academics.

Conclusions

Formative assessment is assessment for learning and can take on different modes that include peer assessment and self-assessment. The success of formative assessment relates to when it is carried out, the mode of delivery, when it is graded and when the feedback is given.

Recommendations

Lecturers at Universities should carry out formative assessment with the objective of helping learners to learn.

Formative assessment should be carried out in different forms including peer assessment and self-assessment.

Standardization of formative assessment should be promoted to enable stakeholders to rely on the results from it.

Feedback should always be given immediately to enhance learning in Universities.

Formative Assessment Model at University

This model shows the interaction between the two types of assessment and points to the conditions of effective of learning. Effective assessment for learning is the one that gives immediate feedback. This can be seen as the interactive relationship between formative assessment and summative assessment. This is when the two forms of assessment give meaningful feedback to aid learning.

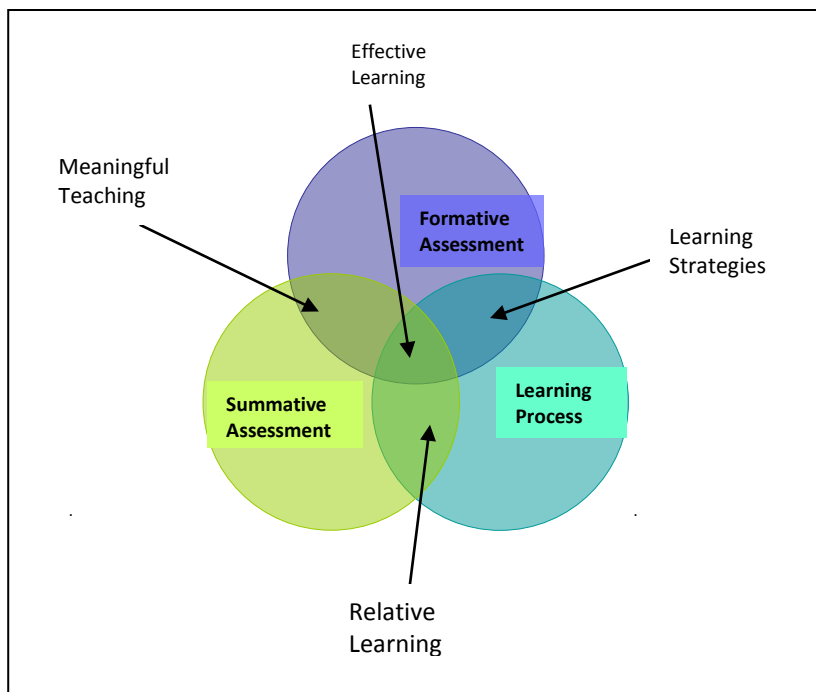


Figure 8.1: Model for Effective Learning at University in Uganda

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INFLUENCE OF OVERCROWDING ON CHANGE IN SEXUAL BEHAVIOUR OF INMATES IN PRISONS OF UGANDA

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Abstract

Incarceration results in a loss of many freedoms and liberty. The article examined the influence of Overcrowding on Change in Sexual Behaviour of Inmates in Prisons of Uganda. The study population included 368 inmates from 03 prisons of Uganda. The study used a mixed-methods approach. A descriptive, cross-sectional and analytical design was used. Qualitative and quantitative data was collected using a self-administered questionnaire which was administered to medic and warders, FGDs with selected inmates, in-depth interviews with prison staff and administrators. Data was analysed qualitatively and quantitatively. Social learning theory guided the study. Stratified and simple random sampling technique was employed. Cronbach alpha was used to estimate reliability and alpha of 0.7. The findings revealed that overcrowding is a social phenomenon occurring when inmates' demand for space in prison exceeds carrying capacity which was evidenced by bivariate Pearson Correlation and coefficient, r (0.466) indicating a moderate but positive relationship. Sexual behaviour was also correlated with coefficient, r (0.436) indicating a moderate and deprivation of sex was evidenced by correlation coefficient, r (0.303) indicating a small. From focus discussion and in-depth interviews 62% respondents commented that "familiarity leads to friendships that at times become close and intimacy results". It was concluded that incarceration environment directly affect sexual behaviour of inmates in prisons of Uganda and was recommended that prisoners should be given less punishment, avail conjugal visits since more prisoners are more prone to learn from the incarceration environment.

Introduction

Throughout the past four decades, rising crime rates and sentencing policy changes have led to mark shifts in correctional populations, particularly an exponential increase in the incarceration rate. The number of prisoners in federal and state facilities increased by 430% = (43% annually) between 1978 and 2009 (Carson, 2014). In 2007, UNAID reported sexual contact between men in custody to vary from a high of 73% in Brazil to between 6% and 12% in UK. Although prison building has become a major

industry, the expensive endeavour of building new facilities has been unable to stem the growth of overcrowding in American prisons (Vaughn, 1993).

Overcrowding occurs when the rate at which people are incarcerated exceeds the rate at which other prisoners are released or die thereby freeing up prison space. Sexual abuse and sexual behaviour of inmates in prisons has a direct relationship with overcrowding in prison (Carson and Golinelli, 2014). Overcrowding and sexual behaviour are interrelated in yielding poor health conditions such as HCV, HIV and TB among prisoners.

Prisoners go to jail to be punished for offending society and not to get infectious diseases. Health care equivalent to that found outside prison must be provided to these individuals.

The number of prisoners in federal and state facilities increased by 430% = (43% annually) between 1978 and 2009 (Carson, 2014). Although prison building has become a major industry, the expensive endeavour of building new facilities has been unable to stem the growth of overcrowding in American prisons (Vaughn, 1993). As discussed in the National Research Council's report on the causes and consequences of mass incarceration, beginning in 1973, incarceration was required for less serious offenses, time served increased for violent offenses and for habitual offenders, and drug crimes were more harshly punished (Travis *et al.*, 2014).

According to Ristroph, (2016), high incarceration rates are generally associated with crime rates globally. The United States of America and Canada actually have the highest overall crime rates in the world. That largely has to do with reports of theft and other crimes in major cities. The country in Central America has the highest murder rate in the world, with more than 90 homicides per 100,000 people, compared to the average of 6.2 percent, according to the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crimes (Woodredge, 2009).

Inmate behaviour has been studied using different theories as deprivation theory, importation, situational, criminology and social learning theories. The study was guided by the Social Learning Theory which postulates that human behaviour is in continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behaviour through learning and copying (Bandura, (1997).

Incarceration environment sometimes called prison environment means the state of being confined in prison; imprisonment and the public would not be served by her incarceration. Shock incarceration, often referred to as shock is a boot-camp, military style prison that focuses on giving the offenders independence and structure as well as promoting responsibility in a learning environment Ristroph, (2016). Prison environment is confined, cramped, and really dangerous.

The incarcerated inmates in Ugandan prisons face years of confinement in often cramped and dirty quarters, with insufficient food allocations, inadequate hygiene, and little or no clothing or other amenities. (Uganda Prisons Service Strategic Investment Plan II 2010/11-2015/16).

In Uganda, resource scarcity at several levels of the government authorities like justice system results in prison overcrowding. These practices have led to the increase in pre-trial detainees and remand prisoners who comprise the vast majority of many youths increasing in the prison populations (Achieng, 2008). In addition to disease, Luzira, Kigo and Kasangati prisoners also suffer disproportionately from abnormal deaths (Kibuka, 2001).

Statement of The Problem

Sexual health of inmates remains a priority in low and middle income countries. However, little is known about prisoners' sexual behaviour and sexual health (Simoooya 2010). While scholarly work examining sexual behaviours of inmates is beginning to emerge, very little work to date explores the relationships between the incarceration environments and sexual activities of inmates. (Vagghn, 1993) The study therefore seeks to fill this significant gap. The study focused on two elements of the incarceration environment: prison overcrowding and prison sub-cultures (Marcum 2014). Overcrowding on sexual activities of inmates in Uganda through rising crime rates and sentencing policy changes have led to marked shifts in correctional populations, particularly an exponential increase in the incarceration rate. Therefore the need to carry out this study to establish the relationship between influences of overcrowding on sexual behaviour of inmates in Uganda.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of the study based on data from three prisons in Uganda, the purpose of the study was threefold to examine relationship between incarceration environment and inmates' sexual behaviour and sexual victimization and the effects of sexual deprivation for inmates.

Objective of the Study

The study objective was to assess the influence of overcrowding on change in sexual behaviour of inmates in Uganda.

Literature Review

The literature was conceptualized with focus to explore whether overcrowding influenced sexual behaviour, sexual abuse on sexual behaviour of inmates. Protective laws, policies and programmes that is adequately resourced, monitored and enforced to improve the health and safety of prisoners as well as the community. Failure to provide prisoners with the same health care options available to the general population violates human rights and international standards. Harm Reduction Coalition (Michael, 1993).

Alexandra (1992) looks at victims of sexual assault under incarceration as being susceptible to HIV and other health and mental health consequences as a consequence of a sexual victimization inside prison; while Welch (2004) carried out a study revolving around forced sex and the concomitant fear of sexual victimization have nontrivial physical, emotional, and psychological implications..

Clearly Walker & Brodsky (1976) and Altice (2016) in their respective studies allude to behavioural change; however sexual behavioural change as a dependent variable or parameter is not considered as a consequence of incarceration, hence the need to conduct a study to bridge this gap.

A report by Schill & Marcus (1998) on an evaluation by CDC of behaviour changes among homosexual or bisexual incarcerated men involving anal sex with non-steady partners without use of a condom. It is the view of the researcher that this study into sexual behaviour fell short of considering whether this change in sexual behaviour continues even after the period of

incarceration ends. This is an aspect this study hoped to address conclusively.

The above authors in their studies sought to establish the relationship between incarceration environment and sexual behaviour of inmates. However, these were generalities and lacked specifics. This study sought to assess the effect of overcrowding, effect of sexual abuse, and effect of deprivation of sex and how they relate to sexual behaviour of inmates in the Ugandan prisons.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

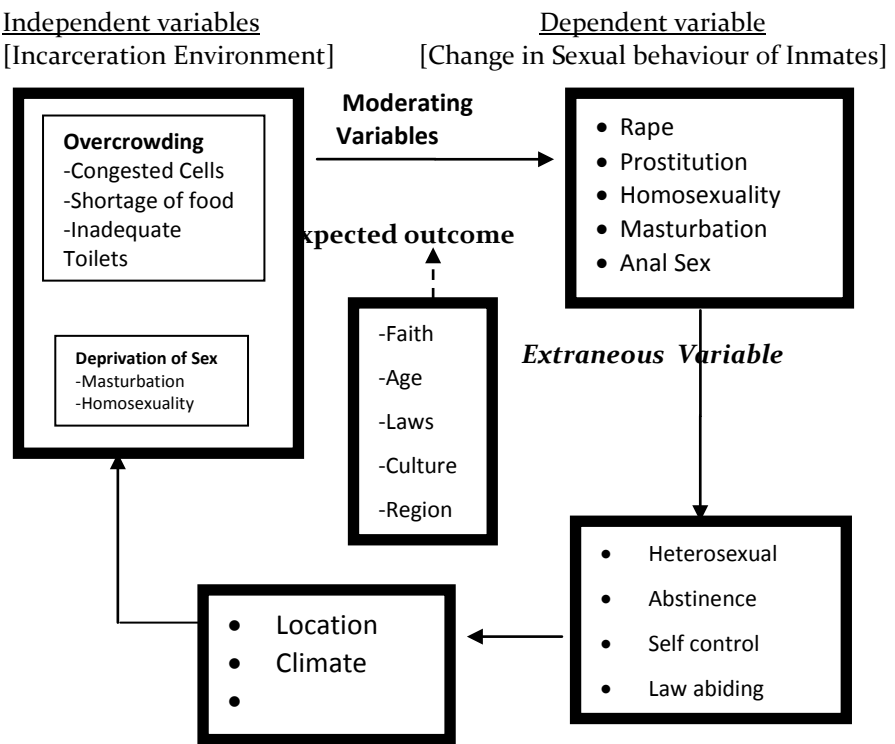


Figure 1.1: Shows the relationship between Incarceration Environment and Sexual behaviour of Inmates in prisons of Uganda.

Source: Adopted and Modified from Schalk and Dijk (2005).

The conceptual framework figure 2.1 was adopted from the views of Schalk and Dijk (2005) and tried to explain the relationship that exists between the dependent, independent and intervening variables. When all that is analysis together, create an effect on sexual behaviour of inmates in many correctional facilities (Diamond, 2008). The researcher bears in mind that all the variables mentioned, it is essentially the dependent variable (sexual behaviour of inmates) that is of the gist of this study.

Figure 2.1: Showed that five components of independent variable overcrowding, violence, sexual abuse of victimization and deprivation of sex are utilized in an attempt to extricate the relationship between overcrowding and sexual behaviour of inmates. Furthermore, these five components form the basis for formulating the questionnaire and interview guide. From the framework, the researcher considers that sexual behaviour of inmates can be affected by the independent variables.

Prison sexuality

Even though sexual behaviour during incarceration is generally considered misconduct (Wilkinson 2003), research suggests that prisoners are sexually active during imprisonment (Fleisher and Krienert 2009; Hensley 2001; Hensley and Tewksbury 2002). Prison sexuality is shaped by multiple levels of social life that are determined by mainstream culture and amplified by the characteristic subculture of correctional confinement. Moreover, various environmental, biological, psychological, and sociological factors influence sexuality in society, and these factors are further complicated by the experience of incarceration (Hensley, Tewksbury, and Koscheski, 2001; Tewksbury and West, 2000).

Conversely, incarcerates who return to free society may exhibit sexual behaviours that are largely shaped by their prior incarceration experiences. The exportation of these prison identities and practices to the general public may influence societal norms about sexuality (for example including masturbation and homosexuality; Lacombe, 2008; Smith, 2006).

Although much of the recent literature on prison sexual behaviour focuses on sexual assault (Blackburn, Mullings, and Marquart 2008; Fowler *et al.* 2010; Beck, Rantala, and Rexroat 2014; Morash *et al.* 2012; Wolff, Blitz, and Shi 2007), which may give the impression that the majority of the sexual

activity in correctional settings is coercive, this has been disputed (Fleisher and Krienert 2009).

Implications of Prison Sexuality

Sexual activity in prison is problematic for numerous reasons. First prisoners who engage in sexual activities may be at risk of contracting HIV. Second, because it is considered institutional misconduct, prison-based sexual behaviour is punishable, regardless of whether it is consensual or non-consensual, and can result in a variety of sanctions. In addition to the potential spread of infectious diseases (Wolfe et al. 2011) and institutional penalties, sexual behaviour in this environment is associated with additional negative outcomes such as violence and stigmatization (Trammell 2011; Hensley et al. 2003).

In correctional settings, sexual behaviour is often seen as a commodity that can be purchased or used to secure certain services or protection from violence (Warren et al. 2010), and the establishment of a prison sexual hierarchy ensures that vulnerable segments of the prison population are coerced into sexually submissive roles (Hensley et al. 2003; Kelly-Hanku et al. 2015).

Crowded Prisons

Gaes and McGuire (1985) confirmed that prison overcrowding is a social phenomenon occurring when the demand for space in prisons within a jurisdiction exceeds the capacity for prisoners in the place. Prison overcrowding can occur when the rate at which people are incarcerated exceeds the rate at which other prisoners are released or die, thereby freeing up prison space.

Although many negative effects of overcrowding have been identified, it does not affect all prisons uniformly and it has been reported that larger institutions with younger inmates tend to be more affected by crowding. The study only considers age and ignores other parameters like cultural background creating a gap this study plans to bridge.

Methodology

The study adopted a mixed methods approach, combining four sources of data: self-administered questionnaires, focus group discussions (FGDs), semi-structured interviews with key informants, and structured observation. The use of a mixed methods approach was intended to provide a more complex understanding of a phenomenon that would otherwise not have been accessible by using one approach alone (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Morse and Niehaus, 2009).

Mixed methods research is an approach to inquiry involving collecting both quantitative and qualitative data, integrating the two forms of data. The standard philosophical underpinning of mixed methods research is pragmatism (Morgan, 2007; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). Therefore, they link the choice of approach directly to the purpose of and the nature of the research questions posed (Creswell 2003).

Study Population

Inmates from the 3 prisons were eligible for participation if they met the following inclusion criteria: 1) were at least 18 years of age; 2) had been incarcerated for at least 6 months and; 3) provided written informed consent. This was because the prisons are metropolitan in nature, big government prisons and contain biggest population of inmates.

Table 3.1 Distribution of sample size

The study was conducted from three government prisons with the following population: Luzira (6078), Kigo (1913) and Kasangati (1011). Corresponding to a sample of 368 inmates obtained from a total population of 9002.

Study Sample

The study sample involved inmates from Luzira, Kigo and Kasangati Prisons in Uganda. This was because the researcher wanted to get a better representation, unbiased and relevant information.

Sampling Design

Probabilistic sampling design was used in this study. Probabilistic sampling design was used to ensure that all inmates from study Prisons were given equal chances to be selected as respondents to the study and encompassed simple random sampling.

Sampling procedure

The inmates in the sampling frame were assigned numbers according to the roster which was obtained from the prison administrator. The numbers were written on small pieces of papers which were folded, put in a box and mixed thoroughly. One by one were randomly picked from the box and the numbers were recorded for consideration as samples. This was done to avoid bias and also to give chance to each and every inmate to be picked.

However, this procedure had shortcomings as the uneducated inmates were selected and it took some more time to get the inmates because some inmates who could be randomly selected would be engaged for some duty or taken to court or at sick bay. In such an occurrence the procedure would be repeated so as to get the required number.

Sample frame and sample size

Table 1: Showing the sample frame of respondents

Prison	Prison Population			Sample		
	Male	Female	Total	Total	Male	Female
Kigo	1021	678	1699	69	42	28
Kasangati	273	152	425	17	11	6
Luziira	5347	1531	6878	281	219	63
TOTAL	6641	2361	9002	368	271	97
				%	73.6	26.4

Primary data (2017)

Data Collection

The process by which the researcher collected the necessary data needed to answer the research problem.

Data collection sources.

Primary Data

Primary data was obtained directly from the respondents in the field through the use of questionnaires, interview guides, and observation.

Secondary Data

Secondary data on the other hand was obtained from documentary review especially from Human Resource department at Ministry of Internal

Affairs HQRS. Thesis from Nkumba University, other public and private libraries with literature relevant to the research topic was analysed as secondary sources of data to supplement primary data from the survey and interviews (Amin, 2005).

Data Collection Methods and Instruments

Qualitative data collection

Qualitative research methods were used in order to gain a deeper understanding of the participants' perceptions and experiences of in-prisons sexual behaviours.

In-depth Interviews

The researcher considered 16 in-depth, semi-structured face-to-face interviews were conducted, using open-ended questions and participants were given the opportunity to freely elaborate upon their answers. The questions were focused around topics pertaining to incarceration environment, sexuality, sexual activity, social interactions, and overall health status. The interviews were conducted in private spaces by the thesis author or principal researcher. Before the interviews began, the principal researcher explained the purpose, that participation was fully voluntary, that their information would be kept confidential, and that the participants could refuse to answer a question or interrupt the interview at any time. Furthermore, permission to record the interview was also sought. The interviews took approximately one hour, and no remuneration was given for participation. After eight interviews, there was a common understanding among the co-authors that saturation had been reached as no new information continued to emerge.

Focus group Discussions

The discussion was carried out by the principal researcher and a note taker using focus group discussion guide in local languages. Tape recordings were done with the consent of the respondents and the prison authority.

Quantitative data collection

A Pre-tested anonymous and confidential self-report questionnaire was administered to 400 incarcerated males and females housed in 3 prisons in Uganda. Prisoners within these institutions were approached by a research assistant and asked to participate in a research study. Male prisoners were

invited to participate by research assistants stationed in common areas such as the reception halls and intake waiting room, study room or library and compound; female participants were recruited from their cellblocks.

Prisoners were generally responsive and this was evidenced from the majority responses from men and women that were approached agreed to participate. Due to such a high response participation, the sample was representative enough of the prison population within the facilities.

Methods

Questionnaires as a method was employed as a way of extracting responses that are expected to enrich the study. This data was raw in nature and questionnaires method was preferred because it was easy to guide the study within the defined parameters.

Interviews

Interviews as a method were employed by the researcher. This method had the advantage of containing open ended questions that could solicit wider views without losing the required details as long as the skill of the interviewer helped guide the responses without digressing.

Data collection Instruments

Questionnaire

Self Administered Questionnaires (SDA'S) were administered to 368 respondents for the express purpose of getting primary data. They were a tool of choice as they made it possible to ask specific questions that were focused with no danger of being diverted outside the area of study. The questionnaires were rather popular because the respondents were able to fill them at their own convenience and were appropriate for this sample. They also provided the respondents with privacy to freely express their feelings on the subject matter since respondents were not required to write their names on them.

Interview guide

The researcher prepared and used a semi-structured interview guide to conduct interviews with the following categories of people from prison: medics, wardens, administrators and selected prison Commissioners. Interviews were chosen because they made it easy to fully understand

someone's impression or experiences, or learn more about their answers as compared to questionnaires. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), interviews are good in that they provide detailed information unlike questionnaires.

Data collection procedure

The researcher obtained an introductory letter from the University Administration which he presented to the Commissioner General, Uganda Prisons' service who authorized the researcher to interface with respondents in the prisons. The researcher had also got permission and authority letter from Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (UNCST) to allow him go for research in prisons.

Data quality control

The researcher implemented the required methods and procedures to ensure that data was collected, managed, and utilized with accuracy and precision. Data was reviewed regularly to detect missing data or information and any typographic errors.

Validity of research instruments

Validity is the extent to which the instrument truly measures what it is intended to measure (Amin, 2003; 2004). The researcher used the expert judgment of his supervisor who acted as an expert to verify the validity of the instrument to the objectives. The expert rated each item as either relevant or not relevant. Validity was then determined using the formula as recommended by (Amin, 2005). However, the researcher also computed the Content Validity Index (CVI) for each item in the instrument as rated by two or more experts in order to determine how valid the study instrument was. For a sample of 54 instruments tested, the CVI was computed as follows:

CVI = Number of items rated relevant by expert

Total number of items in the instrument

$$CVI = \frac{50}{54} \times 100$$

$$CVI = 0.926$$

As recommended by Amin (2005), for the instrument to be valid, the C.V.I should be at least 0.7. Therefore, the tools were valid at $0.926 = 0.93$.

Reliability Statistics

The Researcher used SPSS version 16 to conduct reliability test. Reliability is determined through the interpretation of Cronbach's alpha(α), which is a reliability coefficient that indicates how well the items in a set are positively correlated to one another (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

Table 3: Rule of Thumb for Cronbach's Alpha (α) Coefficient Value

Alpha (α)Coefficient Range	Strength of Association
<0.60	Poor
0.60 to <0.70	Moderate
0.70 to <0.80	Good
0.80 to <0.90	Very Good
0.90	Excellent

Adapted from: Zikmund, Babin, Carr Griffin, M. (2010).

Deprivation of Sex as a variable scored poorly during the reliability test while all other independent variables are in good reliability since Cronbach's Alpha (α) exceeds 0.70. The dependent variable, Sexual Behavior of Inmates is yielding excellent reliability result with Cronbachs Alpha (α) of 0.881. In conclusion, most variables fall under good reliability score ranges. The rule of thumb indicated that Cronbachs Alpha (α) of coefficient 0.7 to < 0.8 is good and 0.8 to < 0.9 is very good. After obtaining satisfactory results of reliability test, the researcher distributed 368 sets of questionnaires.

Table 2: Summary of Reliability Statistics

No	Constructs	Cronbach's alpha	Number of Items	Number of respondents
1	Overcrowding	0.729	8	368
2	Sexual Abuse	0.660	7	368
3	Deprivation of Sex	0.525	6	368
4	Sexual Behaviour of Inmates	0.881	29	368
	Average	0.699		

Source: Primary data, (2017)

Data Processing and Analysis

This subsection detailed how the data was processed logically and scientifically and then subsequently analysed.

Data processing

After collection, data was compiled, sorted, reviewed, edited and coded. The editing was meant to remove any corrupted or erroneous data provided by the different respondents and the coding helped in quickening the process of data input.

Data analysis and presentation

Both qualitative and quantitative data was analysed in order to arrive at results for presentation.

Quantitative data analysis:

Statistical procedures like mean, Standard Deviation (SD) were utilized, in order to establish relationships in Regression and Correlation models between variables.

Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data analysis involved fixing codes to interview data and field notes from observations.

Limitations of the Study and Counteraction Measures

Gathering accurate data from inmates regarding any form of behaviour or lifestyle characteristic was difficult.

The second issue obtaining honest answers from the inmates. Inmates were hesitant in answering questions about offending behaviours for fear of punishment or retaliation.

Sexual behaviour in this environment was highly stigmatized and due to fear of repercussions among inmates or correctional officers, sexually active prisoners may have been discouraged or afraid to report any sexual activity.

Ethical Considerations

Permission was sought to conduct research. The researcher sought consent from the respondents and promised confidentiality about the research to be conducted.

The current state of the variable in the study country/region

The legal sector in Uganda comprises of various institutions concerned with the provision of legal services, the administration of Justice and the enforcement of legal instruments or orders (Nacci, 1982) (Sabbath, 1992).

The main institutions as established by the Uganda Constitution of 1995 include the Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs, the Judiciary, the Parliament, the Uganda Police Force, the Uganda Law Reform Commission, the Uganda Human Rights Commission (Turker, 1992).

During colonial times, the principal penal facility was Luzira Prison near Kampala, although jails were common in larger towns. Prisoners in Luzira were separated according to categories such as long-term convicts, recidivists, women, children, Asians, and Europeans (Uganda Prisons

When the President of the Republic of Uganda seized power, he promised to improve the country's prison system, but this proved to be a difficult task, in part because so many people were arrested. In late 1986, the Uganda Human Rights Activists (UHRA) charged that the authorities had imprisoned as many as 10,000 people at the Murchison Bay Prison in western Uganda, a facility with an 800-inmate capacity. Moreover, the UHRA and Amnesty International claimed that prisoners lived in abominable conditions, which caused a number of deaths from disease (Uganda Prisons Service Strategic Investment Plan, 2011).

In 1987 the President of the Republic of Uganda allowed the ICRC to survey conditions in Uganda's civil prisons. Although some reports suggested that prison conditions improved as a result, there had in fact been little change. In late 1990, for example, Chief Justice of the time condemned overcrowding in Masaka Central Prison. According to his investigation, the prison contained 456 inmates rather than the authorized 120 people. Similar conditions existed in most of Uganda's other prisons (Ackrill, 1981).

Presentation & Interpretation of Findings

This part presents summary findings obtained using the questionnaire administered to respondents in inmates in Uganda. To understand the effect of overcrowding on sexual behaviour of inmates in prisons of Uganda the respondents were introduced to different items to have their say.

This finding is fairly in agreement with Vaughn & Michael (1993) which defines prison overcrowding as a social phenomenon occurring when the demand for space in prison in a jurisdiction exceeds the capacity for prisoners in the place.

On the statement "Prison overcrowding can occur when the rate of at which people are incarcerated exceeds the rate at which other prisoners are released or die thereby freeing up prison space". 10.1% strongly disagreed, 11.4% disagreed, 9.0% were unsure, 48.6% strongly agreed and 20.9% agreed respectively. This statistic indicates strong agreement that prison overcrowding can occur when the rate of at which people are incarcerated exceeds the rate at which other prisoners are released or die thereby freeing up prison space. This is reflected in the mean attained which stands at 3.87 (which is above three revealing agreement with the statement) as well as a standard deviation which stands at 1.387 which is above 1 (Standard deviation above 1 reveal varied responses). This finding is partly in agreement to findings in a study by Eckland-Olson, et al., (1983) which emphasize that prison overcrowding can occur when the rate of at which people are incarcerated exceeds the rate at which other prisoners are released or die thereby freeing up prison space.

This finding is in strong agreement to findings in a study by Dankwa & Victor (2008) which reiterate that prison overcrowding would reduce if courts were sentencing criminal offenders to other programs like rehabilitation centres and community service.

On the statement "Prison overcrowding has led to increased occurrence of sex between inmates". 22.3% strongly disagreed, 16.3% disagreed, 16.8% were unsure, 28.5% strongly agreed and 16.0% agreed respectively. This statistic indicates agreement that prison overcrowding has led to increased occurrence of sex between inmates. This is reflected in the mean attained which stands at 3.12 (which is slightly above three revealing slight agreement) as well as a standard deviation which stands at 1.532 which is well above 1. This finding is partly in agreement to findings in a study by Alexandra (1992) which concluded that prison overcrowding has led to increased occurrence of sex between inmates.

On the statement "Prison overcrowding has led prisoners to change their sexual orientation". 21.2% strongly disagreed, 12.2% disagreed, 19.0% were unsure, 29.9% strongly agreed and 17.7% agreed respectively. This statistic indicates slight agreement that prison overcrowding has led prisoners to change their sexual orientation. This finding is in agreement to findings in a study by Wormith (1985) which underlines how prison overcrowding has led prisoners to change their sexual orientation.

On the statement “Prison overcrowding may encourage inmates that are “listening” to other inmates having sex into engaging in sex themselves. 22.6% strongly disagreed, 17.1% disagreed, 15.2% were unsure, 26.6% strongly agreed and 18.5% agreed respectively. This statistic indicates agreement that prison overcrowding may encourage inmates that are listening to other inmates having sex into engaging in sex themselves.

This is reflected in the mean attained which stands at 3.10 (which is slightly above three revealing slight agreement) as well as a standard deviation which stands at 1.523 which is well above 1. This finding is in part agreement to findings in a study by Carson & Daniela (2014) which concluded that prison overcrowding may encourage inmates that are “listening” to other inmates having sex into engaging in sex themselves.

On the statement Prison overcrowding has led to increased physical contact which in turn drives deprived inmates to engage in sex.. 17.1% strongly disagreed, 15.5% disagreed, 17.9% were unsure, 27.4% strongly agreed and 22.0% agreed respectively. This statistic indicates slight agreement that prison overcrowding has led to increased physical contact which in turn drives deprived inmates to engage in sex. This is reflected in the mean attained which stands at 3.27 (which is above three revealing agreement with the statement) as well as a standard deviation which stands at 1.445 which is above 1. This finding is partly in agreement to findings in a study by Zamble & Porporino (1988) which underlines how prison overcrowding has led to increased physical contact which in turn drives deprived inmates to engage in sex.

On the statement “Prison overcrowding which affords no privacy leads to prisoners learning other sexual practices they were unaware of before their incarceration”. 14.7% strongly disagreed, 10.1% disagreed, 13.9% were unsure, 41.3% strongly agreed and 20.1% agreed respectively. This statistic indicates strong agreement that prison overcrowding which affords no privacy leads to prisoners learning other sexual practices they were unaware of before their incarceration. This is reflected in the mean attained which stands at 3.63 (which is above three revealing agreement) as well as a standard deviation which stands at 1.465 which is above 1. This finding is in part agreement to findings in a study by Arrigo & Milovanovic (2009) which concluded that

prison overcrowding which affords no privacy leads to prisoners learning other sexual practices they were unaware of before their incarceration.

Ways of Solving the Overcrowding in Prison

One of the 112 respondents from focus discussion and in-depth interviews 63% commented on ways of solving the overcrowding in prison said:“...*The Authorities need to build new wards to accommodate the increase in numbers... these wards were built in the 1920s when inmates were far less....*”

From 112 respondents from focus discussion and in-depth interviews 68% commented on ways of solving the overcrowding in prison said:“...*speedy trials would go a long way on reducing overcrowding as those prisoners on remand cause overcrowding....*”

While 112 respondents from focus discussion and in-depth interviews 66% who explained on ways of solving the overcrowding in prison said:“...*Giving lighter sentences, easier access to bail and early release of reformed prisoners would alleviate the overcrowding and it's attendant problems....*

Findings on the relationship between overcrowding and sexual behaviour of inmates in prisons of Uganda.

This section delivers a detailed description of the inferential statistics obtained from the field of study based on the specific objectives of the study. It goes on to present and answer the research questions. These findings were thus obtained on the relationship between incarceration environment and sexual behaviour of inmates in Uganda in terms of overcrowding, sexual abuse and deprivation of sex and how they relate to sexual behaviour of inmates in prison. Objective one of the study was to establish the effect of overcrowding on sexual behaviour of inmates in prisons of Uganda.

Correlation between overcrowding and sexual behaviour of inmates in prisons of Uganda.

In order to determine the effect of overcrowding on sexual behaviour of inmates in prisons of Uganda, the study computed Pearson product-moment Correlation (PPMC) between overcrowding and sexual behaviour of inmates in prisons of Uganda. The bivariate Pearson Correlation produced a sample correlation coefficient, r , which measured the strength and direction of linear relationships between pairs of continuous variables. Results can be seen in table 4.2 below:

Table:4 Correlations

		Overcrowding	Sexual Behaviour of Inmates
Overcrowding	Pearson Correlation	1	.466**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	368	368
Sexual Behaviour of Inmates	Pearson Correlation	.466**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	368	368
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Primary Data (2017)

Based on the results in table 5.2 above, the bivariate Pearson Correlation produced a sample correlation coefficient, r (0.466) indicating a moderate but positive relationship; however this relationship is also statistically significant. Since (0.466) r is positive, this implied that as the variable “Overcrowding” increases, the dependent variable “Sexual Behaviour of Inmates” also increases, and in moderate amounts of 46.6% at the 100% test levels.

However, the researcher felt the need to conduct an assessment of the exact degree and nature of the relationship between overcrowding and sexual behaviour of inmates of inmates in prisons of Uganda by modelling the relationship of these variables using simple linear regression.

Regression results on overcrowding and sexual behaviour of inmates in prisons of Uganda.

To estimate the magnitude and nature of relationship between overcrowding and sexual behaviour of inmates of inmates in prisons of Uganda, the study carried out a simple linear regression.

Table: 5 Simple regression results between overcrowding and sexual behaviour of inmates

<i>Model Summary</i>				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.466 ^a	.217	.215	.574837004953933
a. Predictors: (Constant), Overcrowding				

Primary Data (2017)

The adjusted R-Square has great explanatory power which measures the strength and direction of linear relationships between pairs of continuous variables (overcrowding and sexual behaviour of inmates). The adjusted R-Square value of 0.215 indicated that overcrowding contributed a small 21.5% (at the 100% test level) in accounting for sexual behaviour of inmates of inmates in prisons of Uganda. This consequently implies that the results were skewed and the majority of the respondents agreed that the remaining 78.5 % of the observed sexual behaviour of inmates in prisons of Uganda is accounted for by factors other than overcrowding.

Table 6: ANOVA^b

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	33.585	1	33.585	101.639	.000 ^a
Residual	120.940	366	.330		
Total	154.526	367			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Overcrowding

b. Dependent Variable: Sexual Behaviour of Inmates

Primary Data 2017

When the study conducted a simple linear regression, a *f*-value, and significance level of that *f*-value, was part of that output. The *f*-value of 0. 101.639, was statistically significant was obtained (*p*- value of 0.000 > 0.05). This implies that overcrowding as a variable is significant and does account for the observed sexual behaviour of inmates' in prisons of Uganda.

Table 7:Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.458	.130		18.840	.000
Overcrowding	.358	.036	.466	10.082	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Sexual Behaviour of Inmates

Primary Data (2017)

After the evaluation of the f -value and Adjusted R^2 , the researcher felt it important to evaluate the regression beta coefficients. Results were found to be a regression beta coefficient of 0.466, positive and its equivalent t -value was statistically significant. Moreover, the outcome variable “Sexual behaviour of Inmates” at the 100% test level increased by only 46.6% on the influence of overcrowding, which positive and moderate. This implies that overcrowding is significant in influencing of sexual behaviour of inmates in prisons of Uganda. It also has a moderate, but positive effect on sexual behaviour of inmates.

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ADOPTION OF AN ETHIC OF COMMUNITARIAN SERVERSHIP IN CONTROLLING HIV/AIDS AMONG THE YOUTH

Wilson Muyinda Mande

Abstract

The thesis of this paper was to propose the adoption of an ethic of communitarian servership in an effort to control the HIV infection especially among the youths. It has been observed in Part A that Uganda fall in the region that has been worst affected by HIV / AIDS. It has also been argued that in spite of the gains attained the struggle against HIV / AIDS in Uganda, the disease was still a national problem. Women have been noted to have infected more than men. Although a number of strategies have been used since 1990s to the infection rate, the pandemic still rages on unbridled. In view of the fact that HIV / AIDS has become a miasma, it is proposed that an ethic of communitarian servership be adopted as one of the ways of curbing infection of HIV among the population.

Introduction

HIV / AIDS is the disease that affected Uganda perhaps more than any other disease. It has affected the unborn babies, the youth, the married and old. HIV was identified in Uganda in early 1980s. This means for a full generation the country has been grappling with this pandemic. By the end of 2016, it was estimated that about 1.4 million Ugandans were HIV positive, about 52,000 people acquired HIV in 2016, and about 28,000 had died in the same year of HIV / AIDS related deaths. Given the above facts, the issue of HIV / AIDS still needs to be given serious attention. The current paper makes a humble contribution to raising that attention.

The paper is structured in such a way that after this terse introduction, there is part A where the global HIV / AIDS situation is discussed in relation to the Ugandan context. Part B focused on general HIV / AIDS issues in Uganda. The discussion of HIV / AIDS among the Ugandan youth is discussed in Part C. The plausibility of adopting the ethic of communitarian servership to control HIV/ AIDS especially among the youth is emphasised in part D.

Part A

HIV AIDS Situation Globally

HIV was first identified in 1981 in the USA. Within a few years it had spread to many parts of the world. From 1981 to 2017 about 78 million have been infected by HIV/AIDS and about 35 million people died of the HIV related illnesses. The figures of 2016 show how the infections behaved globally.

Table 1: New HIV infections globally

Region	New infections 2016	Change from 2010
Eastern and Southern Africa	790,000	29%
Western and Central Africa	370,000	9%
Asia and Pacific	270,000	13%
Western & Central Europe & N. America	72,000	9%
Latin America and Caribbean	115,000	5%
East Europe and Central Asia	190,000	60%
Middle East and North Africa	18,000	4%
Globally	1,825,000	

Source: Global HIV / AIDS statistics (2016) <https://www.avert.org>

The figure of 1,825,000 represented people infected with HIV in one year (2016) alone. In terms of numbers, Eastern and Southern Africa had the highest number of new infections of all the seven regions of the world. It is noted in table 1 that in 2016, there were 790,000 new HIV infections in Eastern and Southern Africa region alone. This is about 43% of the global total.

The countries that make up Eastern and Southern Africa are Mozambique, Kenya, Zambia, Tanzania, Uganda, Zimbabwe, Malawi, and Ethiopia. In terms of deaths which is HIV / AIDS related, these eight countries lost approximately 420,000 people in 2016. Although the number of deaths from HIV/AIDS related sicknesses has from 760,000 in 2010 to 420,000 in 2016, the number of deaths is still high.

This preponderant numbers of infections being found in Sub-Saharan Africa is also consonant with numbers of people living with HIV /AIDS. This is clearly provided in table 2:

Table 2: *Living with HIV / AIDS globally*

<i>Region</i>	<i>Number of people living with HIV /AIDS</i>
Eastern and Southern Africa	19.4
Western and Central Africa	6.1
Asia and Pacific	5.1
Western & Central Europe & N. America	2.1
Latin America and Caribbean	2.1
East Europe and Central Asia	1.6
Middle East and North Africa	0.23
Globally	36.63 million

Source: Global HIV / AIDS statistics (2016) <https://www.avert.org>

It is realised Eastern and Central Africa had the highest number (19.4million) of people living with HIV / AIDS. It is striking that Eastern Southern Africa region is leading as far as failure to control HIV / AIDS is concerned. In view of the observation, it is appropriate to argue that East and Southern Africa is the region that is hardest hit by HIV. This region has approximately 6.2% of the world's population. However, 19.4 million people are living with HIV. This represents more than 50% of the total number of people living with HIV worldwide.

Young women and HIV in East and Southern Africa

In 2016, HIV prevalence among young women (15-24 years) was double that of young men in the region (3.4% compared to 1.6%) although in some countries the disparity between genders is even greater. The reasons why young women are disproportionately affected by HIV in the region are numerous and complex.

Sex for money

It is well known that sex for money is a common practice in some communities. In some communities there are high levels of transactional sex between young women and men. This increases the young women's vulnerability to HIV. Prostitutes or commercial sex workers as some prefer to describe it, sell sex in order to get some income. Unfortunately this comes with risks, HIV being one of them.

Intergenerational sex

Recent studies from 2017 in Zimbabwe and Uganda also provide evidence that inter-generational relationships are a major driver for HIV infection among young women, who may find it difficult to negotiate condom use with their older partners. Both studies found young married women with partners 16 or more years older were at three times greater risk of HIV infection than those with partners 0–15 years older. Marriage patterns in Zimbabwe and Uganda are comparable with many other parts of East and Southern Africa, so researchers have suggested similar correlations between age-disparate relationships and increased HIV prevalence among young women elsewhere in the region.

There are several reasons that can explain this matter:

- (a) *Sex without proper training.* Many if not all engage in it when they don't know how to go about. Sex is a socially veiled taboo such that people don't want to talk about it. The best they can do is to use euphemisms or rewordings. These veil a socio-biological activity which is very crucial. Sex though a necessity, is shrouded into some social anathema such that parents don't want to teach it to their teenagers. The best parents could do would be to ask their daughters to go to their aunts and boys to go to their uncles. In other instances, parents ordered their children not to engage in any relationships or social activities which had prospects of climaxing into sex. Consequently, young people engage in sex activities clandestinely. Sometimes if not many times young learn to do sex in a wrong and dangerous way.

Wrong ways of doing sex include (i) doing sex wrongly like doing it anywhere anyhow (ii) no preparedness is allowed, couple just forcing it; (iii) doing it when they one or both parties' reasoning capacity is compromised especially under the influence of alcohol or drugs; (iv) engaging in sex ignorantly; (v) doing in a place that is not conducive. All these situations render this important dangerous. In that way it easily becomes a conduit for HIV transmission. This partly explains why infections rate in sub-Saharan has remained high. Research coming from Kasensero where HIV / AIDS was first identified, the infection rate of 13% is still higher than national average of 7.3%. That is so because

sex is handled ignorantly and therefore wrongly. The ultimate result is that the dangers associated with sex are obscured.

- (b) *Limited negotiation* between women and men over sex. African concept of a woman circumvents the culture of negotiation. For instance, (i) in some of our societies, there is no courtship. When a young man identifies a girl whom he would like to marry, he literally chases her wrestle her down and have sex with her. This is what indicated that young man is a man worthy marrying. (ii) In yet another culture when a girl is identified she is grabbed by boy's parents and taken to their home. She is tested by being given some activities to perform. When she does so very well, then they pay the bride price and girl becomes a wife to the young man. (iii) In other societies women are supposed to argue with men.
- (c) *African culture of sharing* is so deep that we even share women and men. Women and men are shared. In Buganda this was anticipated. So, they put measures in place like child identification ceremony (*okwalula abaana*). Parts of the umbilical cords would be placed in a basket full of water. If cord floated, child belonged to the family. If cord fell to the bottom the basket, it meant the father of the child was not the man of the house. In many societies if a man died and left behind a young woman the relatives of the deceased would take over. In Buganda they would *muka kitaawo taba nnyoko* literally your father's concubine is a not a mother to you. This implied that there was a possibility of son making the same woman his concubine in case the father passed on. This partly explain why HIV/AIDS has persisted in our societies. Hence the high incidences of HIV/AIDS prevalence and infection.
- (d) *Poverty*. Poor people cannot afford the basic human needs (BHNs). So, they make a recourse to whatever activities that promise some money. It has been noted that more Ugandans are slipping into poverty with the number of poor people increasing from 6.6 million in 2012/13 to 10 million in 2016/17, according to the *Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS) 2016/17* report released Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS). The above development translates into income poverty levels rising from 19.7 per cent to 27 per cent. At the sub-regional level, the survey cites the worst hit regions as Karamoja, with 61 per cent of the people

categorised as income poor, followed by Tororo and surrounding districts with 48 per cent and Busoga with 42 per cent. Income poverty means the proportion of Ugandans whose personal income lies below the poverty line, which is \$1.25 that is UGX4,500 a day.

Such poor people will not think about HIV / AIDS because they are concerned with daily survival. One lady who after testing HIV positive refused to tell her husband that she was already infected. When asked why, she replied that feared losing a bread winner. Her reasoning was poverty driven.

People living in abject poverty cannot do sex properly and in proper environment. In his song *Baala*, Sulaiman Ssebunya Sebyala who uses the Daxx Kartel as code name. He sings about how drinking irresponsibility makes people irresponsible. Such alcoholic behaviour renders people vulnerable to HIV infection.

- (e) *Lack of sufficient medication.* The UNAIDS target is that by 2020, 90% of all people living with HIV will know their HIV status. By 2020, 90% of all people with diagnosed HIV infection will receive sustained antiretroviral therapy. By 2020, 90% of all people receiving antiretroviral therapy will have viral suppression. This approach is that men on ART are 90% safe, so their possibility of infecting others is only 10%. Causes of lack of sufficient medication include corruption. For instance, the Global Alliance for Vaccines (GAVI) \$20m or UGX51 billion that was disbursed to Uganda disappeared into thin air (Kagolo, 2013).

PART B

HIV/AIDS Situation In Uganda

The first HIV / AIDS case in Uganda was identified at Kasensero landing site along the shores of Lake Victoria in Rakai district in 1982 by Dr Serwadda. In the first decade of HIV/AIDS infection in Uganda, there were high infection and death. Although the infection rate had reduced by 2013 globally, Sub-Sahara Africa was responsible for 72% of the new infections (Mafigiri, et al (2017).

The youth in Uganda constitute 78% percent of the population. This means that out of the 34,634,650 million Ugandans, 27,015,027 are youth

(UBOS, 2014). This population is very important and therefore needs critical attention perhaps than any other cohort.

Table 3 HIV facts in Uganda

<i>Year</i>	<i>New Infection</i>	<i>deaths</i>	<i>Number living with HIV</i>
1990	140,000	64,000	1,200,000
1991	130,000	73,000	1,300,000
1992	110,000	82,000	1,300,000
1993	100,000	89,000	1,300,000
1994	100,000	95,000	1,300,000
1995	95,000	99,000	1,300,000
1996	89,000	100,000	1,300,000
1997	92,000	100,000	1,200,000
1998	91,000	100,000	1,200,000
1999	93,000	100,000	1,200,000
2000	95,000	100,000	1,200,000
2001	99,000	100,000	1,200,000
2002	98,000	99,000	1,200,000
2003	100,000	96,000	1,100,000
2004	100,000	92,000	1,200,000
2005	110,000	84,000	1,200,000
2006	110,000	76,000	1,200,000
2007	100,000	77,000	1,200,000
2008	100,000	76,000	1,200,000
2009	110,000	69,000	1,300,000
2010	99,000	63,000	1,300,000
2011	94,000	57,000	1,300,000
2012	84,000	52,000	1,300,000
2013	74,000	43,000	1,400,000
2014	60,000	36,000	1,400,000
2015	54,000	31,000	1,400,000
2016	52,000	28,000	1,400,000

Source: UNAIDS: Country facts Uganda 2016. www.unaids.org/en/regioncountries/uganda/

It is estimated that about 4.2 million youth are living with HIV / AIDS worldwide (Mafigiri, *et al.* 2017). The number of Ugandans acquiring HIV every year reduced from 170,000 people in 2011 to 127,000 in 2014 which about 30% decline. Whereas the infection rate is reducing generally, it remains high among the youth. About 7.1% of those infected are girls between 15 and 24 years. The boys remained at 2.8%. Whereas the infection rate had reduced to about 6.4% in 2006, by 2015 it had risen to 7.3% (Emodek, 2015). The infection rate has soared among the youth (Segawa, 2014).

The Uganda *National Youth Policy* (2001) defines a youth a young person between 18 and 30 years. For purposes of HIV / AIDS issues, it is preferable to consider the youth as young person between 12 and 35 years. This is the age range when people are very active in relationships.

Reasons for the high incidences of HIV infections among the youth include the following:

- (a) *Sex for money*: Use of multiple partners especially on the side of girls as a means to making ends meet. Young girls have many needs. Parents cannot pay for all their daughters' needs. So, they have use their bodies to get some money. Unfortunately, in some instance this strategy comes with challenges of HIV / AIDS.
- (b) *Low rate of condom use*. It was estimated that 84% don't use condoms. The low rate of condom use implies more vulnerability to HIV infection.
- (c) *Beginning sex before the age of majority*. About 62% of boys and girls start active sex before they are 18 years old. At this age they are not more enough to think critically about sex and its associated issues. Rather they are moved more by excitement and peer pressure. In that was being susceptible to HIV infection becomes a matter of course.
- (d) *Some behaviours like corruption have compromised the battle against HIV / AIDS*. In mid-July 2010, the international conference discussed Uganda as an area where HIV / AIDS was re-emerging. At the start of the AIDS epidemic, countries around the world turned to Uganda and saw a nation that forcefully addressed AIDS, using straight talk, evidence-based approaches, and the engagement of people living with HIV. Ugandan government and civil society leaders became famous on the world stage.

So much has changed. Intolerance and bias have replaced effective approaches. Widespread corruption, including the theft of millions of dollars targeted for HIV services, has damaged Uganda's anti-AIDS efforts, as well as reputation.

Discriminatory, punitive laws and policies are proposed instead of practical approaches (Amon,2010). It was noted that in some instances some people who became infected with HIV / AIDS were sometimes dubbed immoral persons. That incriminating attitude did not only stigmatise but also circumvented the control of HIV.

Table 4: People living on ART

<i>Year</i>	<i>Number of people</i>	<i>Percent</i>
2010	239,102	20%
2011	330,000	24%
2012	403,089	33%
2013	526,524	44%
2014	750,864	55%
2015	834,931	60%
2016	938,000	60%

Source: Government of Uganda, 2016 <https://reliefweb.net/uganda/hiv-prevalence-general>

It can be noted that the number of people accessing the Anti-retroviral therapy (ART) has increased over the years from 20% to 60%. This percentage however, is not sufficient enough because it has to be 100%. Although the ART is useful, it can only work effectively if it was supported by an ethic of communitarian servership. Without such ethic, it is possible for those with HIV even when on ART to infect others whose sero-status may be negative.

Approaches to controlling HIV infections attempted in earlier years

A number of approaches were attempted to control HIV /AIDS in Uganda. These approaches included spiritism, exposure of sero-status, provision of professional care, public policy on HIV / AIDS, ART, ABC strategies and circumcision of boys.

Table 5 *approaches used to control HIV infections*

Decade	Approaches used
1980s	<p><u>Spiritism</u></p> <p>(a) Making to recourse to supernatural powers. It was believed that people were being haunted by evil spirits. In 1989, one Yowanina Nanyonga of Sembabule claimed that God had sent her to cure those who had HIV AIDs by making them eat soil.</p> <p><u>Declarations</u></p> <p>(b) Musicians like Philly Bongole Lutaya composed and sang song like “Alone...”. This musician did two things, to declare his positive sero-status and also warn others to be aware of the HIV / AIDs virus.</p> <p><u>Care</u></p> <p>(c) The AIDs Support Organisation (TASO) was formed in 1987 with the objective of supporting those infected and affected by HIV / AIDs at the centres and in the communities. Care took forms of counselling, community mobilisation and support.</p>
1990s	<p><u>Care</u></p> <p>(a) In the 1990s the AIDs Information Centre (AIC) was established by the government of Uganda. This focused on testing and counselling. It was thought to have been the first government run HIV AIDS counselling centre in Africa.</p> <p><u>Public policy on HIV / AIDS</u></p> <p>(b) In 1992 the Uganda AIDS Commission was founded with the obligation of developing HIV / AIDs policy.</p> <p><u>Multi- pronged approach</u></p> <p>(c) In 1992 a multi-sectoral AIDs Control Approach was adopted.</p>
2000s	<p><u>ABC policy</u></p> <p>The ABC policy was introduced emphasising Abstinence, Being faithful to one sex partner and Condom use. This policy was intended to stem the high infection rate which had gone as high as 15%. With the ABC infection rate reduced from 15% to 6%.</p>

2010S	<p><u>Anti-retroviral therapy</u></p> <p>(a) Anti – retroviral drugs (ARVs) approach had contributed to stagnation of HIV prevalence. The number of people enrolled on the ARV therapy (ART) were 330,000 in 2011. This number increased to 750,896 in 2014.</p> <p><u>Circumcision of boys</u></p> <p>(b) Circumcision of men was another approach. It was predicted to lower infection rate by 60% among the sexually active men.</p>
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From the table above, it can be noted that many approached have been used to control and prevent HIV/AIDS infection. The many approaches revealed that in last 30 years, Ugandans have had an unflinching commitment to the fight against HIV/AIDS. The above approached were used by government, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), communities and individuals. There have been some benefits from these approaches. For instance:

- (i) The infection rate reduced from 18% to 15% and to 6.4%. This was applauded globally.
- (ii) There is wide-spread awareness about HIV / AIDs.
- (iii) Stigma was no longer as intense as it had been in the earlier years.
- (iv) Care services were availed to those who were infected and affected by HIV / AIDS.

HIV/AIDS persistence among the youth

The age bracket of 15 to 24 years has been given special attention by most studies on HIV / AIDS. This is because this is the age bracket that has most infected by HIV / AIDS in the country.

Table 6: Approximate figures of HIV / AIDS among the youths

<i>Year</i>	<i>deaths</i>	<i>Number living with HIV</i>
1990	3,800	290,000
1991	3,800	270,000
1992	3,700	250,000
1993	3,500	220,000
1994	3,300	200,000
1995	3,200	180,000

1996	3,000	170,000
1997	3,000	160,000
1998	3,100	150,000
1999	3,500	150,000
2000	3,900	160,000
2001	4,500	170,000
2002	5,100	170,000
2003	5,600	180,000
2004	6,100	200,000
2005	6,100	210,000
2006	5,900	220,000
2007	6,400	230,000
2008	6,700	230,000
2009	6,300	240,000
2010	6,000	240,000
2011	5,700	240,000
2012	5,400	240,000
2013	4,800	240,000
2014	4,200	230,000
2015	3,800	220,000
2016	3,600	210,000

Source: UNAIDS: Country facts Uganda 2016. www.unaids.org/en/regioncountries/uganda/

The above statistics show that the numbers of youths living with HIV / AIDS was high in the early 1990s. It lowered a bit in the late 1990s, but it rose again in the mid-2000s. This scenario represents a persistence of HIV/AIDS among the youths.

The trends regarding the deaths of young people from HIV / AIDS related illnesses formed a dome curve in the sense that in the 1990s a number was lower compared to the numbers of 2000 to 2010. Then the number went down again by 2016. These numbers are given in table 7.

Table 7: the youth who died of HIV /AIDS related illness

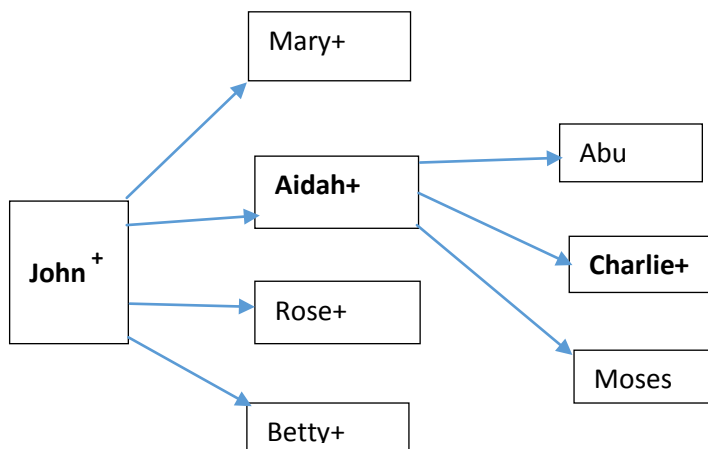
<i>Year</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
1990	1,000 (26%)	2,900 (74%)	3,900
2000	1,800 (42%)	2,500 (58%)	4,300
2010	1,800 (34%)	3,500 (66%)	5,300
2016	1,900 (53%)	1,700 (47%)	3,600

Source: UNAIDS: Country facts Uganda 2016. www.unaids.org/en/regioncountries/uganda/

From table 7, it is clear that in 1990s the number of female youth dying of HIV/AIDS related sicknesses were higher (74%) than their male counterparts (26%). However, by 2016 the differences were no longer significant between the two sexes, that is, 53% and 47% for male and female respectively. This implies that HIV/AIDS is a big danger to both boys and girls. All efforts should be geared towards controlling the infection among both.

Regarding infection, studies have found that girls were more infected than boys. For instance, the government report of 2014 indicated that 3.8% of girls were infected compared to 1.9% of the boys. It further estimated that about 570 young girls acquired HIV every week in the same year (UAC, 2015). This meant that among the youth, girls were more susceptible to HIV / AIDS infection than the boys.

Girls between the 15 and 24 years of age are more susceptible to infection than their male counterparts partly because of their biological nature. It is argued that a man's sperm contains no virus. However, the fluid has heavy content of the viral load especially if the man is HIV positive. The vaginal fluid on the other hand, has does not contain heavy viral load of HIV. This means that a woman has a bigger exposure to infection than a man. Biologically, a woman was made as a depository.



In the above figure, John is HIV positive. He has unprotected sex between four girls Mary, Aidah, Rose and Betty. All the four girls get infected. One of the girls Aidah has other three boyfriends: Abu, Charlie and Moses. She gets into unprotected sexual intercourse. Only one of the three boys, Charlie, is infected. In this case there eight youths, four boys and four girls. All the four girls are infected and only two boys are infected. This is one of the reasons that explain why young girls between 15 and 24 years are getting infected in higher percentages than their male counterparts.

Part B

The Concept of Communitarian Ethics

Communitarianism is an ethical theory that focuses on prioritising communal responsibilities instead of giving pre-eminence to individual rights. This theory considers communal values to be superior to individual wishes and preferences.

The communitarian theory of ethics emanates from communal values, established social standards and traditions, and considerations of the larger society. Communitarians emphasize the influence of society on individuals and contend that values are rooted in common history and tradition (Beauchamp and Childress 2001). These two authors further explain that communitarian ethics is a community based theory. It is “derived from communal values, the common good, social goals, traditional practices and

co-operative virtues and social solidarity” (p.77). An argument was advanced by Tam (1998) “that communitarianism was based on three principles.

- (i) It requires that any claim of truth be validated through co-operative enquiry.
- (ii) The communities of co-operative inquiry, which represent the spectrum of citizens, should validate common values that become the basis of mutual responsibilities of all community members.
- (iii) All citizens should have equal access and participation in the power structure of society.

There is a contention that the cardinal premise of communitarian ethics is the recognition of society as a web of intersecting communities with differing moral values and standards (Johnson 2005). Furthermore, it is premised that communitarian ethical theory underlines the fact that the common good is an ideal. In contrast to other ethical theories like utilitarianism, Kantianism, and so on, communitarian ethics underrates the values of individuality, autonomy, and personal rights. This is because “members of a society are bound by a sense of community” (Sandel, 1982: 172). It was underlined by Bellah (1985) and his colleagues that a community is “a group of people who are socially interdependent, who participate together in discussion and decision making and who share certain practices that define the community and are nurtured by it” (p.333).

While this does include respect for human life and dignity, allowing for all persons to achieve a meaningful potential, the common good also calls for concern for long-term sustainability, intergenerational justice, an emphasis on active and informed citizenship, and a balance between individual and communal interests. At times, the common good may require all citizens to consider the needs of the broader community above the needs of any one individual, group, or organization (Johnson, 2005).

The principle of servership

The principle of servership is embedded in acting communally (Mande, 2017: 187). The term ‘servership’ can be differentiated from ‘service’ in that the former requires focussing on community. Service on the other hand refers to performance of a duty or function. It does not necessarily need to be community focused nor morally based. This is why even convicted

offenders are often sentenced to 'community service'. When these offenders carry out their punishments, they do not so out of interest in community values nor moral obligation. It is only servership principle which entails ethical obligation, hence the term 'communitarian servership'.

An ethic communitarian servership for control of HIV/AIDS

The ethic of communitarian servership has a number of principles. These are:

- (a) *Mutual responsibility.* The Luganda term *obuvunaanyizibwa* translated as mutual responsibility. The ethos of mutual responsibility was taught in traditional society. Mutuality meant that members of the community had to be schooled in the ethos of executing roles and activities that benefitted many or carried out for their intrinsic worth.
- (b) *Guidance.* On the principles in traditional Buganda society was *obuwabuzi* or guidance. Many of the activities in every community call for guidance from experts. Those with expert knowledge or experience provided leadership to others. In a way providing guidance is offering leadership. Guidance did not necessitate controlling rather it focused on empowering others and realising community objectives.
- (c) *Participation.* In traditional Buganda society, the term *okwenyigiramu* which is translated as participation required an individual taking part in community functions or programmes personally. In this sense participation main focus was on serving for the sake of the community. This principle necessitated all community members to take part in the implementation of the decisions mutually agreed. Participatory decision making and actions were possible because the Baganda taught that *emitwe emingi mwe muva ekigambo ekituufu* that is when people put their heads together, they find the right solution. The implication is that participatory decision-making and implementation is the best approach to managing community issues.
- (d) *Mediating peace.* This principle was derived from the Luganda *okutaasa* or *okutabaganya*. One of requirements in this is that each member of the community had a role to play in saving the community members under any threat. This could be resolving conflict or any other action which staved off possible calamity.

- (e) *Trust*. In traditional society there used to be a great sense of trust among community members. This was possible *obwesigwa* was highly emphasised. People interacted and knew each other well enough. Trust was the basis of many roles and assignments in the traditional Buganda society. Community members were very careful were always careful not to betray the trust or they would fetch what the Baganda described as *okuswala* (or shame). *Okuswala* was state of being despised because one would have acted or behaved in an unethical.
- (f) *Integrity*. Traditionally the moral principle of *obwesimbu* or integrity inculcated into the youths and adults alike. Every body was expected to have integrity. This meant being dependable. An individual, a family or community would be considered ethical if the members had *obwesimbu*. In case one individual lacked *obwesimbu* or integrity, it would make that community to be associated with unethical behaviour. This was evident in the adage that *omulya mmamba aba omu n'avumaganya ekika* or one immoral person ruins the name of the community.
- (g) *Care*. In Buganda society the principle of care was known as *okufaayo*. This principle was taught and transmitted in proverbs thereby expecting every person to cultivate an principle of care. For instance, the proverbs underlining the principle of care included: *oluganda kulya, oluganda enjala terudda* (good relations are cemented by care). Another proverb stated that *mu nju temuba kkubo* (a home is not a thoroughfare). It can be noted from these proverbs that care is an important and indispensable principle.
- (h) *Autonomy*. The principle of *eddembe* meant that an individual had autonomy within in the community. Individuals were at liberty to choose the professions they preferred, became friends with people they liked. Individuals possessed property according to each one's ability and taste. This explained why some people were rich while others were not wealthy. Some excelled in some areas while others excelled in other areas. This is why there were famous and nonentities in the community.
- (i) *Unity*. Unity or *obumu* was greatly emphasised in the traditional society. Unity in Buganda was characterised by three bonds: blood (*omukago* or being of the same descent, that is, *baanabakintu*); spiritness (this is the will power that connects people of the same community or locality);

and interaction (*enkolagana* cooperation was more valued than unilateral actions).

Application of the ethic of communitarian servership to servership

Communitarian ethics applies to communities. In Uganda like elsewhere there are two levels of community. (i) the natural community which is characterised by descent, language, and values. These include clans, tribes, citizenship, and the like. (ii) operation based-communities. These are the communities that come up because of specific activities. These include communities of professionals, those with deviant behaviours, people with special challenges like the unemployed, those affected by same problem, those with similar religious beliefs like the church, and so on. In view of the above categorisation, it could be rightly argued that natural community is the primary community while the operation-based community is a secondary or sub-community.

In spite of those differences, a community normally has members, it has values, and controls the participating members. For that reason, it will be better and easier to use the ethic of communitarian servership to deal with the issue of controlling HIV / AIDS infect of populations.

This could be done in the following ways:

- (1) Use the infrastructure of the communities like the church, families, etc
- (2) Create slogans to remind people of their responsibility to live responsibly.
- (3) Teaching young people how to handle sex.
- (4) Set up lobbying groups to influence policies and decisions on HIV / AIDS including making the drugs available for all people who need it.

Conclusion

In conclusion it has been observed that HIV / AIDS still big challenge to Ugandans. Although a number of strategies have been used to contain it, the pandemic still rages on. Towards the start of the 21st century, HIV / AIDS was found to be affecting young people without letting up. So, one way of dealing with this challenge is to adopt an ethic of communitarian servership. When this is done, it is possible to control the infect rate to a greater extend.

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OUR LADY OF THE ASSUMPTION PARISH CHURCH MITALA-MARIA: UNDERSTANDING THE VIRGIN IN THE CONTEXT OF THE DEIFIED HEROINE

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Abstract

The dogma of the Assumption resonates with the Aristotelian argument that “Men create gods after their own image, not only with regard to their form, but with regard to their mode of life” (D’Holbach 2008:308) because it promoted the cult of the Virgin from the vantage point of hero worship that led to the creation of new deities and to deification from the cult of the person. In this study, the dedication of Our Lady of the Assumption parish church Mitala-Maria demonstrated that the parish church was an embodiment of the missionaries’ crusade to sway African believers to the Virgin as a deified heroine in the archetypal image of a guardian deity or mother goddess that resonated with the believers. The parish church absorbs meaning through three fundamental elements which resonate with its visuality that gave it character to impress itself upon believers’ hearts and minds: Titular; iconography; and, pitch. It has a parallel devotion of St. Balikuddembe, an African martyr of equally heroic stature in patronage role with mortals. The devotional images are discussed in the effort to read into the intentions for the dedications, and the study evaluates their implication in terms of a better understanding of the cult of the Virgin in Uganda popular devotion.

Keywords: Parish church, Mitala-Maria, Our Lady, Assumption, cult, heroine, devotional image

Introduction

Introducing a new faith to a different culture is usually a big challenge both to the propagators of the faith and to its recipients. It usually comes as a threat to the indigenous culture, and it also usually tends to portray superiority of the new faith in challenging the status quo of the indigenous one. To challenge the status quo works against building bridges and it causes more prejudice. It calls for addressing the following question: Why would the natives trust the new faith? For the Roman Catholics, the following answer would suffice: The new faith needed to have a synchronic vision which was Ugandan, Christian, and Catholic within the social structure of

the believers. Such was the case in Uganda in the first decades of missionary activities in the country. Those decades not only witnessed the rivalry between Christianity and the native religion, but also denominational rivalry between the Protestants who came in 1877 and the Roman Catholics who arrived two years later. The natives had already been exposed to Islam about three decades earlier through the Arab traders, but they were suspicious of the intentions of the Arabs because of their involvement in slave trade. The Protestant missionaries were closer to the centre of power as an alternative to the Mohammedans, but they were also received with some circumspection because of African traditions that were threatened by the new Christian faith. The Roman Catholic missionaries, then, had a good chance to win over the hearts and minds of the natives because their cults of images had some parallelism between them, but they also needed to win favour with the Kabaka of Buganda. They needed to win his confidence, to win credibility with their faith, and to build the trust of the natives and of the Protestants. In Islam images were forbidden, the Protestants used few of them, and the Catholic cult of images was closer to that of traditional African religion. The Roman Catholic parish churches are, arguably, sites of the manifestation of that confidence, credibility, and trust. They were constructed to build a community and their dedications and choice of titular were meant to build rapport with the community.

The parish churches were also command posts for ecclesiastical power and control as well as symbols for the expansive influence of the Roman Catholic Church in Uganda. Wherever they stationed, the missionaries built parish churches as mission posts for evangelical work. A good site for a parish church was a place central in a community where they could also build a school and a health centre. That partly explains why some historians referred to missionaries as agents of colonialism through their leading role in education and health care. The survival of the parish churches is evidence to the preservation of the distinctive character of the Church that took rank with the legacy of imperialism. That influence defined the iconography of the parish church and its devotional images. The believers were actively involved in the labour work of the construction of the church. The parish church, thus, became the most important task of the Ugandan society during mission evangelism. It was a grand structure in the community so as to accommodate a large congregation, and it also served as an outreach post of

the missionaries to the populace. The earliest churches were built after an ecclesiastical style not hitherto known in Uganda. The way it was built and the type of devotional images that were put inside demonstrated the power and importance of the Church in the community. One of the roles in the acquisition of new meanings in the church was to provide a community which one could trust. Going to church was also a desire to belong to the group or community one wanted to identify with. In African tradition loyalty was in the community and in the clan or family and cemented by rites. It was adapted to the Church through inculturation and shaped according to the beliefs of the congregation and of the liturgical rites such as baptism, a communal meal (Eucharist), the rite of shaking hands, the requiem mass, etc.

On October 25, 1899 Père Joseph Laane (Naani), W.F., established a parish church at Kyaniika about 20km from Kampala. He dedicated it to the Blessed Virgin Mary and renamed the village with a Luganda descriptive term of Marian territorial authority and control, “Mitala-Maria”, which translates as “Mary’s territory” in order to fix the impression on the minds of the villagers. It meant that the Virgin had defeated the spiritual forces that had reigned in that area and it was thereafter under her supreme authority. The spiritual geography of the area was, thereafter, believed to be controlled by the Virgin. “Although almost any geographical feature may become the focus of worship, mountains and hills are the features usually identified as being sacred”(Mbiti 1991:87). With the name Mitala-Maria, sacredness was subsequently seen by believers in terms of territorial dominion of Christianity in the area beyond Nature Religion’s devotional images which Africans had been conversant with. Naming the village after the Virgin Mary also inspired having a Marian titular for the village’s parish church. In 1892 the White Fathers had won a similar victory in Masaka in Kalungu and named the village that symbolized the Virgin’s dominion “Villa Maria” which meant in Luganda “*Sitaani viira Maria*” that translates into “Leave this territory for Mary.” Villa Maria became the seat of the Victoria Nyanza Vicariate, but now it is in Masaka Diocese since 1953. In 1953 the Archdiocese of Rubaga was created and Mitala-Maria was under its territoriality. It is now in the Roman Catholic Archdiocese of Kampala. In 1966 the Holy See merged Rubaga Diocese which belonged to the White Fathers, and Kampala Diocese

which belonged to the Mill Hill Missionaries who controlled the Upper Nile Vicariate and had renamed their vicariate the Diocese of Kampala in 1948.

The Titular: Our Lady of the Assumption

In the Hebrew Scriptures, it is expressed that God created man in his own image (cf. Gen. 1:27), however the Aristotelian thesis that ‘men create gods after their own image, not only with regard to their form, but with regard to their mode of life’ inverts the rhetorical form of that Scripture in a way that accommodates arguing for hero worship as a mode of life which forms the basis for deification. Hero worship was influential in the creation of new deities and the deification based on cult personalities who were revered in popular devotion. The beliefs and desires which determined the moral nature of devotional images shaped the identity of the deity. The cult of the Virgin promoted variants of Marian devotional images. Among the dogmatic images of the Virgin is the Assumption (Latin: *assumptio*, taking up into Heaven) of the Blessed Virgin Mary, body and soul into the glory of Heaven. It is an extra-Scriptural narrative as part of the sequence from the Dormition to the Coronation. The Dormition of the Virgin (Latin: *dormitio*, sleep also called Death of the Virgin, *Transito*, and *Koimesis*) “is the first in a series of events often grouped together as a single scene under the title of the Assumption”(Murray et. al 2004:37). The Assumption is one of the following Glorious Mysteries: The Resurrection of Christ; The Ascension; The Descent of the Holy Ghost; The Assumption; and The Coronation of the Virgin by Christ. In the Apocryphal Gospels dating between the 2nd and 4th centuries it is stated that “Mary’s body was taken up into Heaven on the way to her burial, or according to others, three days after her burial”(Murray et. al 2004: Ibid).The Roman Catholic Church defined The Assumption, by the Magisterium, as a dogmatic truth. According to the hierarchy of dogmatic truth The Assumption is propagated basing on The Truth of Sententia Communis of Catholic theologians. The doctrine of the Assumption was formally defined in 1950 by Pope Pius XII. “The Assumption of the Virgin Mary is the greatest of all the festivals which the [C]hurch celebrates in her honour”(Butler 1956:927). Its Feast Day is celebrated on August 15.

Our Lady of the Assumption fits in the context of the deified heroine just as was the case in Greco-Roman and a number of other religious traditions. “Sometimes a hero’s career is so remarkable that when he dies, he is allowed

to join the ranks of the gods. Deification is reserved for the truly great heroes, usually people who demonstrate great bravery or supernatural strength on a number of occasions”(Wilkinson 2009:175). What was remarkable about the Virgin that accorded her heroicity to warrant hierarchical placement in Heaven was based on her being the God-bearer (Gk: *Theotokos*) that rendered her a subject of popular devotion which was responsible for the promotion of the dogma of Assumption and Coronation. In light of feminist ethics, Our Lady of the Assumption is not as appealing because her heroicity was more emphasized in the context of submission rather than of courage. Numa Denis Fustel de Coulanges, on the deification of heroes, argued that “It was not even necessary for one to have been a great man [sic] or a benefactor [sic]; it was enough to have struck the imagination of his [sic] contemporaries, and to have rendered himself [sic] the subject of a popular tradition, to become a hero [sic]-that is to say, one of the powerful dead, whose protection was to be desired and whose anger was to be feared”(1980:140). The establishment and dedication of Our Lady of the Assumption parish church Mitala-Maria in 1899 by the Missionaries of Africa (White Fathers) invoked the protection of the Virgin as a deified warrior in the spiritual battle for proselytizing Kyaniika villagers. Such a deification “most often happens in cultures in which the way of the warrior is held in especially high regard – in parts of Africa, for example, and in Japan”(Wilkinson 2009: Ibid). To the African believers, The Assumption reinforced belief in life after death and it factored into the missionaries agenda of inculturation based on the cult of deification. In the Baganda cult of deification “[t]he principal gods appear to have been at one time human beings, noted for their skills and bravery, who were afterwards deified by the people and invested with supernatural powers” (Roscoe 1911:271). Deification, thus, provided a lesson that one was guaranteed a heavenly appreciation for good behaviour on earth. Our Lady of the Assumption parish church Mitala-Maria reinforced the cult of the Virgin in Ugandan spiritual geography and it provided a promise of glory in the hereafter. The present-day parish church was reconstructed in 1960 by Rev. Fr. Martin, W.F. with the help of Rev. Fr. Chamberlain (Sambara), W.F.

The Virgin became part of the texture of Catholic life in Africa and Patroness of Africa. Marianism during the post-conciliar age favoured regenerating the cult of an African Madonna because it suited the theme of

“Save Africa with Africa” (Comboni Missionaries 2017) that was the gist of Bishop Daniel Comboni’s “[*Plano*] per la rigenerazione dell’Africa” [Plan for the Regeneration of Africa](Ceillier 2011:33) in the Vicariate Apostolic of Central Africa. In 1969 Our Lady of Africa Mbuya parish church was dedicated whose female persona reflected the spirit of the age that feminized Africa. Feminizing the nation and the continent romanticized the role of motherhood that was assigned to the Virgin Mary. In popular devotion the Virgin was mobilized in the archetypal image of the mother to foster a relationship between the venerator and the Marian devotional image. She was assigned the role of a deity appealing to gendered consciousness. In a simulacrum relationship between man and woman which was passed down in Christian piety from the Middle Ages, the man is the servant of that feminized devotional image. The woman is handmaiden and object for chivalry in the devotion. However, the feminized morality of the Christian faith enables the women to play a central role as chief stewards of popular devotion. They are the instrumental fibre in the practice of faith.

The Iconography for the Parish Church

Our Lady of the Assumption parish church Mitala-Maria was built on hilly ground in Mawokota County, Mpigi, along Kampala-Masaka highway. The church was built like a hall in rectangular form. It departed from the tradition of churches with Latin cross ground plans. It faces south. It is a congregational church with thick walls from baked bricks. It has buttresses like Romanesque churches to support the walls. It has a corrugated iron roof that replaced the red tiles which missionaries used for the churches in Uganda. Its façade is simple with a large concrete-made Latin cross on the top of the façade. It has three metallic portals leading to the same nave. There is tinted glass on the upper half of the portals. Near the left hand-side portal there is an epigraph with the following centennial message: “MITALA-MARIA PARISH (1899-1999) THIS STONE COMMEMORATING 100 YEARS OF [EXISTENCE] WAS UNVEILED BY H.E. DR. SPECIOZA W. KAZIBWE VICE PRESIDENT REPUBLIC OF UGANDA IN THE PRESENCE OF H.E. EMMANUEL CARDINAL WAMALA ARCHBISHOP OF KAMPALA ON 23rd OCTOBER 1999.”

In front of the church, there is a devotional park with an approximately 4 metres plaster model of the Virgin of Grace statue. It stands on a pedestal of

about 6 metres high. The Virgin is encased in glass for protection. She is in a white robe and has a golden sash around her waist. She has a green enveloping gown and a white veil. Her hands are stretched out while she looks down in sacred gaze to viewers. There is an epigraph on the pedestal with the following text: "This prayer park of Our Lady was blessed by the Auxiliary Bishop of Kampala Archdiocese Christopher Kakooza on 24th August 2014."

In the church's interior, the walls are plastered and painted in white and cream. The windows have tint of yellow and pink colour. There is transennae below the windows to let in air. The floor is made of terrazzo to provide a feel of sanctity from the glittering glazing it provides, and the roof is supported by metal bars. The church has a sitting capacity of approximately 4,000 people. There are two altars in the church: The high altar, and the subsidiary altar to St. Joseph Mukasa Balikuddembe. At the high altar, there is a 3 metres Crucifix on the apse. It depicts the Suffering Christ whose plaster model is on the wooden beam. On the right-hand side of the Crucifix there is a mural painting of Our Lady of the Assumption. She is standing in white and light blue clouds with her hands stretched out. She is in a white robe and an enveloping light blue gown. She has a halo of rain-bowlike colours and looks to Heaven. White rays of light from Heaven splash towards her. Below her feet there is a red inscription which provides textual gloss of the dogmatic title Our Lady of the Assumption. On the left-hand side of the Crucifix is a painting of Our Lord of Divine Mercy. The eastern side of the choir has an approximately one metre plaster model of St. Joseph with the Christ Child. On the western side of the choir there is an approximately 1.5 metres plaster model of the Virgin of the Child. She is in a white robe, a blue gown and a white veil. She holds the Christ Child with both hands. The Christ Child is in white robes and depicted with hands stretched out. The second altar in the church is: Altar to St. Joseph Mukasa Balikuddembe. It is on the western side of the aisle. It is at the wall with a blind lancet. There is a large mural of the martyr painted as the altarpiece devotional image. He is depicted in an orant position, kneeling in a meadow and his hands folded by the chest with a palm branch as a symbol of martyrdom held within the hands. He is in a white kanzu and a red robe covers his back from the shoulders. He is dark-skinned and has short crisp hair. Beneath the white boundary that frames the mural there is an

inscription of the following Luganda textual gloss promoting his patronage role: “JOSEPH MUKASA BALIKUDDEMBE OMUWOLEREZA WA SEKIRIBA KYA TTAKA” [Joseph Mukasa Balikuddembe patron saint of all people that will die]. Outside the church on its eastern side there is a secondary school named after the martyr: St. Balikuddembe Senior Secondary School Mitala-Maria.

Approximately 250 metres away from the parish church and a few metres away from the Kampala-Masaka highway there is the Lady-Chapel, Chapel of the Blessed Virgin Mary. It faces north in the direction of the parish church. It has baked red bricks and a red-tiled roof. Its windows are stained-glass, double windows with wheel windows above them. It is a simple chapel reminiscent of those of mendicant orders. It has a metal cross of approximately one metre on the tip of its façade and a wooden portal under the engaged portico. The façade has three arcaded openings to the portico and two auxiliary openings to it: The eastern opening, and the western opening. The eastern opening to the portico is covered with a large stained-glass window depicting the devotional image of Our Lady of Perpetual Help which is visible via the western opening. Another stained-glass window covers a quarter of the central entrance to the portico. It depicts the Virgin embracing Pope Pius XII. The Virgin is in a golden robe and a blue gown. She has a double halo of yellow light surrounded by a thick blue halo. The Pope is in a white cassock and a white cap. Our Lady of Perpetual Help is depicted in a wheeled window with a boundary of red, yellow, green, and blue colours. She is depicted in a dark-blue gown that envelops from the head to cover her body and a red robe beneath the gown is visible from the chest and hands. The blue gown or mantle represents her perpetual virginity while the red robe represents the Passion of the Christ. The cloaked veil represents her modesty. She has an orange diadem and a white-patterned halo. She looks towards the viewers and holds the Christ Child in her hands, who is troubled by the instruments of the Passion as he is depicted with a sandal falling off his left foot. He has an orange crown on his head and a golden patterned halo. He is in a green robe and an orange gown.

The Christ Child looks up on his right-hand side at the frightening instrument of the Passion held by Saint Gabriel the Archangel. The instrument is a Patriarchal cross (three-bar cross) also known as an

archiepiscopal cross. He is in a purple robe, has green-coloured wings and a golden halo. On the left-hand side of the Virgin there is Saint Michael the Archangel with the lance and sponge which are also instruments of the Passion. He was also depicted in the same manner like Saint Gabriel the Archangel. The Virgin was depicted as the Theotokos of the Passion that is popular in the Eastern Orthodox Church. “The Theotokos embodied two concepts vital for the context of war: Virginal motherhood, which is the source of Mary’s invincibility, and motherly sacrifice – in selflessly offering her Child to the world, the Theotokos presented a model of selfless love indispensable for any state recruiting armies”(Pentcheva 2006:61). The image of the Theotokos in connection with the ideology of victory in battle emerged as a visual strategy in Christian spiritual warfare.

The Pitch: The Social Life of the Dedications for the Parish Church

Mitala-Maria parish church was under the White Fathers from October 1899 to January 1990. The present-day parish church and the name Mitala-Maria represent the legacy of the White Fathers in the area. The parish church is now under diocesan priests.

Are there special features believers identify with in Our Lady of the Assumption parish church Mitala-Maria? The devotional images of the Virgin Mary both in the church and in the devotional park are special features for believers in the village that got its present-day name from the cult of the Virgin. The Virgin was presented to them in five different ways: First, as Our Lady of the Assumption depicted by the altarpiece mural; second, as Virgin of the Child depicted by the plaster model at the western side of the choir; third, as Virgin of the Grace depicted by the statue in the devotional park; fourth, as Our Lady of Perpetual Help depicted in the stained-glass wheel window of the Lady-Chapel; and, fifth, as the Madonna with Pope Pius XII depicted in the stained-glass window at the central entrance of the façade to the Lady-Chapel that emphasized the pontiff as the Pope of Mary. In addition to those Marian images, St. Joseph Mukasa Balikuddembe was accorded a subsidiary altar in the church to promote his cult as patron saint of mortals. His patronage role was proverbially expressed in the following Luganda text that would impress upon believers to internalize the Christian message: “Omuwolereza wa Sekiriba kya ttaka.” The proverb “Sekiriba kya ttaka, mpaawo atalikyambala” means that all people

will die. The White Fathers learnt the local languages when they moderated themselves closer to the ordinary people so that they would incarnate the Gospel and effectively reach out to them.

What are the essential sacred stories interpreted for different problems in Uganda from the dedications for Our Lady of the Assumption parish church Mitala-Maria? The dedication of Mitala-Maria parish church to Our Lady of the Assumption expressed the Marian virtues which the White Fathers promoted to the parishioners as well as their hope in the afterlife. The Assumption provided the following hope to the believers: "The same path which conducted her to glory will also lead us thither; we shall be partners in her reward if we copy her virtues. Her example is both our model and our encouragement. From her assumption we derive another great advantage – that of her patronage" (Butler 1956: 931). The story of The Assumption was essential to the understanding of eternal life from the vantage of the Roman Catholic Church. It also enabled believers to confide in the Virgin Mary concerning their stresses in everyday life because she was believed to have obtained hierarchical placement in the heavenly realm so as to be able to intercede for them. The following excerpt from the Prayer to Our Lady of the Assumption demonstrates the implication of devotion to her: "From the shadows of this vale of tears, we seek in you heavenly assistance, tender mercy, comfort for our aching hearts, and help in the trials of Church and country" (Papal Teachings 1961:324). The relevance of the dogma of the Assumption and its propagation as an expression of faith had a synchronic and diachronic development in popular piety. The belief was implicitly held since the Council of Chalcedon in A.D. 451 until it was defined *ex cathedra* into the dogma of The Assumption by Pope Pius XII on November 1, 1950 in his Apostolic Constitution, *Manificientissimus Deus* (From Latin: The most bountiful God). It was an assurance to believers about their own victory in the afterlife but also about the Virgin's empathy with them.

How was the devotional image of Our Lady of the Assumption adapted to the situation in Uganda in light of the beliefs and desires that shaped the dedication for the parish church at Mitala-Maria? The Church promoted the cult of Our Lady of the Assumption to the parishioners of Mitala-Maria in a way that reinforced belief in the Virgin as an equivalent to a deified heroine who was to be trusted in their spiritual lives. The nature of her heroicity

which was manifested by the dogmatic devotional title centred on the belief that her body was redeemed from the corruption of the grave. That belief was subsequently adapted and Pope Pius XII later on defined the dogma as the following excerpt demonstrates: “She, by an entirely unique privilege, completely overcame sin by her Immaculate Conception, and as a result she was not subject to the law of remaining in the corruption of the grave, and she did not have to wait until the end of time for the redemption of her body” (*Munificentissimus Deus*, November 1, 1950). The devotional image of The Assumption was adapted to the situation in Uganda by exalting her above the traditional African devotional images of the mother goddess, the guardian deities, and the earth gods which the missionaries discouraged so that the Virgin would be regarded in the context of the archetypal images of the heroine whose body was believed to be not only incorruptible when she died, but that it was also taken into the heavenly realm. Her dogmatic title was conveniently chosen to convince the Mitala-Maria parishioners of the invincibility of the Virgin and to whom they would entrust their devotional needs.

The effectiveness of the dedications in Our Lady of the Assumption parish church Mitala-Maria in giving Christianity an African character: The subsidiary altar to St. Joseph Mukasa Balikuddembe promoted his devotional image as a Uganda Martyr and a patron saint of mortals with the Luganda proverbial inscription to that effect as. Balikuddembe’s martyrdom resulted primarily from asking the Kabaka to spare the life of Bishop James Hannington. Balikuddembe’s courage was expressed in the following transcription of the rebuke he made to the Kabaka Mwanga II (1868-1903): “Your father Mutesa [1837-1884] never put a white man to death. Why, then, should you want to kill one? Do not put him [Bishop Hannington] to death because of what your chiefs have said: they will applaud any decision. Do not kill that white man, for if you do, you will have to answer for it before God’ ” (Faupel 2007:117). Balikuddembe tried to stem the rising tide of Mwanga II’s fury and determination to kill the Anglican Bishop belonging to the Church Missionary Society, Bishop James Hannington (1847-1885), who had come for evangelic mission to Uganda via the eastern route. It was regarded as a bad omen in Buganda for the “white man”, or a guest to the kingdom, to access their kingdom via Busoga the eastern route. The Bishop’s using that route was received with superstition. The nature of Balikuddembe’s intercession

for the Bishop showed a manifestation of courage, first, by making a comparative appeal to Mutesa I's accommodation of the "white men." Second, he underscored the King's decision to kill the Bishop as a misguided one by the chiefs who were the bastions of the traditional religion that was threatened by Christian evangelism which the Bishop came to bolster in the country. Third, with temerity, he appealed to courage and stood up for the truth which he professed by warning the Kabaka that he will face judgment before God to answer for his actions. Thus, Joseph Mukasa Balikuddembe showed moral superiority and intellectual domination over the Kabaka and his martyrdom, thereafter, made him a political martyr as well as a martyr of the faith he stood for. "All superiority is odious, but the superiority of a subject over his prince is not only stupid, it is fatal" (Greene 2010:4). Balikuddembe was electrified by religious belief in a fair deity which was marshaled up by his Christian faith. "Mwanga's problem was not religion *qua* religion, but fear of having power eroded" (Muyinde Mande 1996:41). Christianity provided Balikuddembe with moral superiority over traditional African religion and that superiority also threatened the Kabaka who was custodian of traditional religion in Buganda. It threatened to erode the Kabaka's power who asserted his authority over the Majordomo Balikuddembe by ordering for his execution in 1885. "Regardless of whom or what you believe in, belief as a psychological phenomenon urges action. We act our beliefs; do because we believe. The stronger the belief, the more action takes over, the more motivated we become and the surer and narrower our justification for what we are doing" (Hillman 2004:181). The monotheistic psychology that summoned up St. Balikuddembe's courage also mobilized a martial energy to stand up for the truth which held that the object of his belief was a Supreme Deity and a fair Judge who was intolerant to different or variation in belief. "Theology of god and psychology of belief reinforce each other. On the one hand, belief is validated by the absolute superiority in the object of belief, the god or leader or idea; for who would believe in a lesser god?" argued Hillman (Ibid:182). "On the other hand, the hyper irrational extremes attributed to the divinity fuel the faith of believers, who prove their faith by fighting ever more strongly for their cause, even if lost, just because it is beyond reason" (Ibid). The position of belief in a deity professed by Christians, and which Balikuddembe held, was a threat to the Kabaka's moral precepts because of the former's charisma. St. Balikuddembe was promoted by the White Fathers as appealing to the African concept of

the living-dead and their relationship with the mortal. He is also the patron saint of chiefs and politicians.

How a generative discourse of socially redeeming value of Christian devotional images should be reconstructed from the pattern of veneration in the dedications for Our Lady of the Assumption parish church Mitala-Maria: The devotional park with the statue of the Virgin of the Grace and the Lady-Chapel provided additional devotional space to the parishioners. The Lady-Chapel has experiential Marian religiosity defined by the stained-glass window image of the Virgin embracing Pope Pius XII. Pope Pius XII (1876-1958) was the most Marian of the Popes because during his pontificate he popularized Marian devotion more than any pontiff had done. In the Roman Catholic Church he is well known as the Pope of Mary. Depicting him when he is embraced by the Virgin Mary implied that he also embraced devotion to her and that he led by example to popularize that devotion. At Mitala-Maria that devotion was demonstrated through a pattern of five Marian devotional images: Our Lady of the Assumption; Virgin of the Child; Virgin of the Grace; Our Lady of Perpetual Help; and, the Madonna with Pope Pius XII. They summed up Marian religiosity for the Mitala-Maria parishioners for the village to be worth its salt as a Marian village in name and in devotional experience. Those Marian images should also be seen in terms of promoting the role of women as key stakeholders in building a cohesive spirit in their communities in Uganda.

Reconstructing Our Lady of the Assumption for Mitala-Maria Parishioners

The Virgin was fitted into the role of a deified heroine. The concept of hero worship in popular devotion was marshaled to the parishioners through the image of the Virgin that the dogma of The Assumption promoted. She became the symbol of victory for the White Fathers and their proselytes in the spiritual battle against forces of evil so that the populace would pride in her deification. The old adage that history is written by the victors represented a truism to Mitala-Maria as a village named after a spiritual victory of Christian evangelism in the area which the White Fathers attributed to the Virgin. She was considered to be on the side of those who revered her and those who sought her intercession. Thus, the parishioners tended to believe what was convenient for them to believe. Devotion to Our

Lady of the Assumption has dialectics between belonging to the Roman Catholic victors and of separation from the subjugated traditional African religion in the area.

Contribution to Popular Devotion as Image Maker: Mitala-Maria, a Village named after the Blessed Virgin Mary

A few famous Marian images are worth mentioning to underscore the importance of her role in popular devotion: The Pilgrim Fathers named a State, Maryland, in the United States of America after the Blessed Virgin Mary when they landed on the Feast of The Annunciation March 25, 1634 and dedicated the land to her. The French missionary priest of the Congregation of the Holy Cross, Edward Sorin (1814-1893) founded The University of Notre Dame du Lac "*L'Université de Notre Dame du Lac*" (The University of Our Lady of the Lake, or simply known as The University of Notre Dame) a Roman Catholic research university in Indiana, U.S.A. in 1842 in honour of Our Lady (French: *Notre Dame*). "Most of the French Gothic cathedrals were built to the glory of Mary, the mother of Christ, who in French was called Notre Dame – Our Lady" (Hillyer & Huey 1966:14). Variants of "Our Lady" were subsequently developed over the years in Marian devotion. "To the medieval mind, of course, no saint was greater than the Virgin Mary" (Nystrom & Nystrom 2004:180). In Catholic visual culture, the popularity of the Virgin continued throughout the years. In the nineteenth century, the Bavarian Roman Catholics founded on December 8, 1842 Marienstadt (Mary's City) now St. Mary's a city in Elk County, Pennsylvania. And, in Uganda the White Fathers named a village, Mitala-Maria, after her. The image of Mary mother of Jesus Christ as a village icon characterized the strands of religiosity that stood out from the cult of the Virgin in the rural community of Roman Catholics in the area. Her image was domesticated in order to incarnate Christianity through mission evangelism in the area. The description of Mitala-Maria as Mary's territory contributed to creating an alternative image in the spiritual geography of the area.

Conclusion

The Aristotelian thesis that 'men create gods after their own image, not only with regards to their form, but with regard to their mode of life' leads to a better understanding of the Virgin in the context of the deified heroine in the devotional cult of Our Lady of the Assumption. That titular for the parish

church at Mitala-Maria favoured the enterprise of the White Fathers to incarnate the Gospel in the village they named after the Blessed Virgin Mary as a symbol of the victory of the missionaries in evangelizing the area. It was the first parish church in the Roman Catholic Archdiocese of Kampala to have that Marian dogmatic title as its titular. It offered to the Church an opportunity of domesticating the cult of the Virgin in the area, to the parishioners it offered an opportunity to identify with the Virgin in her archetypal image of the heroine, and to the village it offered a Marian iconic image like some other places in the world, such as Maryland, The University of Notre Dame, and Marienstadt did in the United States.

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