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Prof. *Gordon Wavamunno B. Kasibante*  
***THE CHANCELLOR***

## **Editorial**

The common theme most of the papers in this volume is ethics. The paper by Wilson Muyinda Mande explores ethics policy and the mitigation of risks in commercial banks in Uganda. Since the 1990s a number of commercial banks in the country have failed. Some just closed while others were taken over because of the excessive risks. The risks were partly caused by disregard of ethical conduct and policies. The author points out that risks arising partly out of unethical approaches to banking. He argues that to resolve this, banks should embark on ethics training for both employees and clients.

Kabugo and colleagues carried out research on gender disparities among the Kalangala fishing communities. The topic of gender disparities raises the issue of justice, hence being an ethical issue. Market economy promotes social inequalities. This paper appeals for redress of the situation through social and economic policies.

The article by Kamaduuka and Wilson Muyinda Mande investigated contribution of awareness of legislation on ethical performance of local government officials in Uganda. Once again, ethics is in question. The ethical principles of virtues are brought to the fore in this article. Public servants in local governments are adjured to embrace ethics especially virtues if they are work successfully.

Nsookwa addresses the issue of Kiswahili language which is still a challenge in Uganda. With the expansion of the East African community and the emphasis on the region as an economic block, there s need for Uganda to promote Kiswahili or else Uganda

remains a disadvantaged member of the community. In a way Nsookwa's contention brings out the fact that justice and rights in the East African community can only be promoted if all members can communicate effectively with one another. Justice and rights are ethical principles. So the paper advocates ethics even though the language of ethics is not used.

In the paper on brand performance survey in universities of Uganda, the author, Steven Akabwai considered customers values. The findings revealed that Uganda Martyrs University is recognised for its high moral standards. So he concluded that moral standards were an important ingredient that contributes to marketing and academic reputation of a university. Put differently, good ethics makes universities excel.

The article by Tumusiime focused on managerial control of income generating projects and its effects on sustainable realisation of their purpose. The study found that the control exercised in most projects was not effective. This in a sense means that there are ethical implications especially virtues.

Issues to do with households diversifying their livelihood activities were investigated by Charles Edaku and Michael Mawa. This study established the fact that commuting is a common livelihood strategy in Uganda although there are inherent challenges to sustainable livelihood of commuter households in the country. This situation implicitly raises the question of welfare ethics and rights.

The paper by Robinah Kalemeera Namuleme raised the issue of information behaviour in the context of HIV / AIDs related emotions. The study noted that there is hysterical information

seeking, covert information seeking, hiding of information and discarding information. This behaviour arises from anxiety, fear, and grief. These issues carry ethical implications in the sense that virtue of confidentiality, respect and integrity information behaviour.

Joyce Bukirwa Sessanga calls for a humanistic approach to teaching and learning chemistry at A level in Uganda. The study found that students desired to be self-actualised and were motivated by teaching environment characterised by an emphasis on benefits of chemistry. There is a relationship between motivation and performance was determined.

David Mwesigwa explored theoretical and practical implications of community service in Uganda. Community service by its very nature is ethical. Providing community service is part and parcel of welfare ethics.

Professor Wilson Muyinda Mande  
**Editor**



# ETHICS POLICY AND RISK MITIGATION IN COMMERCIAL BANKS IN UGANDA

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## Abstract

The current study set out to explore the contribution of ethics policy on risk mitigation. The study has revealed that commercial banks in Uganda have risks in areas of credit, liquidity, market, operations, compliance, taxation, and reputations. The results further revealed that ethics policy had a significant relationship with compliance [ $r(48) = .318, p < 0.05$ ]. Similarly compliance also significantly related to risk mitigation [ $r(48) = .437, p < 0.01$ ]. There was also a strong relationship between ethics policy and risk mitigation [ $r(48) = .380, p < 0.01$ ]. The causal effect of ethics policy on risk mitigation came out as 51%. In order to have effective risk mitigation, ethics training was proposed. A simulation should that if bank employees were given ethics training, mitigating risks in the commercial bank would improve up to 70%.

**Keywords:** Ethics Policy, Risk Mitigation, Commercial Bank

## Introduction

The task of this study was to analyse the effect of ethics policy on risk mitigation in Uganda's commercial banks. The Uganda Bankers Association put in place an ethics policy commonly referred to the code of good banking practice. The cardinal aim of this policy was to ensure that risks in the commercial banks are kept at bay by promoting and maintaining high standards of professional and moral behaviour (Mutebile, 2010). The ethics policy to which most commercial banks subscribe have objectives which emphasise a number of ethical principles including those indicated here below:

**Table 1:** Ethical Principles of the Bankers' Code

Objectives	Embedded ethics
i) To set out the standards of good banking practice	Virtues
ii) To ensure that banks act fairly and reasonably with customers	Justice and virtue
iii) To help customers understand how their accounts operate	Virtue
iv) To promote confidence in integrity and security of banking system	Virtue
v) To maintain high standards of professional and moral behaviour in banking system	Virtue and deontology

**Source:** Code of Good Banking Practice, 2009: 2

It is noted from the Code that the ethics policy for the commercial bankers emphasise mainly three ethics principles: virtues, justice and deontology. The implication of this is that banks have to establish ethical systems and the staff have to be ethical in their dealing with customers; and when executing their professional duties as banking staff. Similarly the six fundamental principles of dealing with customers in Uganda's banking industry also emphasise virtues and justice. These principles are:

**Table 2:** *Ethics embedded in Fundamental Principles*

	<i>Fundamental principles</i>	<i>Embedded ethics</i>
a)	Avoid conflict of interest	Justice
b)	Offer service without discrimination	Justice
c)	Safeguard deposits by sound investment	Virtues
d)	Act fairly and reasonably	Justice and virtues
e)	Respect confidentiality	Virtues
f)	Ensure reliability of systems and technology	Virtues and deontology

**Source:** *Code of Good Banking practice*, 2009: 3

One critical issue in the Code is that it holds both the commercial banking systems and the individuals working in those banks ethically responsible.

Holding a commercial bank morally responsible is tantamount to arguing that a commercial is moral person. This implies that a commercial bank is a member of moral community of equal standing with human beings. The meaning of this is that one can legitimately ascribe moral responsibility to a commercial bank. It means that commercial banks should have privileges, rights and duties, just as it is the case with human beings. However what is not resolved is the question whether a commercial bank can have a fuller sense of responsibility in terms intentionally causing something to happen? For instance can a bank cause clients lose their money? Some ethicists like Ladd have argued that it is improper to expect organizational conduct to conform to the ordinary principles of morality. "We cannot and must not expect organizations, or their representatives acting in their official capacities, to be honest, courageous, considerate, and sympathetic or to have any kind of moral integrity. Such concepts are not in the vocabulary, so to speak, of the organizational language game" (Chryssides and Kaler, 1993). In a way this view suggests that commercial banks cannot have conscience, therefore

cannot be moral persons. So they cannot act morally on their own accord. Commercial banks that have membership with the Uganda Bankers Association (UBA) and subscribe to the ethics policy are about 27 as listed in below in table 3.

**Table 3:** *Commercial Banks in Uganda that are members of UBA, 2014*

	<i>Commercial Bank</i>	<i>Year opened</i>	<i>Total Assets in UGX</i>	<i>Branches</i>	<i>Member of UBA</i>	<i>Employees</i>
1	ABC bank Uganda	2010	30.72 bn	2	Yes	44
2	Bank of Africa Uganda	1984	446.9 bn	34	Yes	333
3	Bank of Baroda Uganda	1953	825.8 bn	15	Yes	188
4	Barclays Bank Uganda	1927	1,166 bn	44	Yes	800
5	Cairo International Bank	1995	7.5 bn	5	Yes	136
6	Centenary Bank	1983	1.45 tn	60	Yes	1,767
7	Citibank Uganda	1999	587.4 bn	1	Yes	40
8	Commercial Bank of Africa	2014	45.4 bn	1	Yes	35
9	Crane Bank	1995	1.45 tn	38	Yes	500
10	Diamond Trust Bank	1945	628.5 bn	26	Yes	1,264
11	DFCU bank	1964	1.197 tn	36	Yes	476
12	Eco Bank Uganda	2009	164.4 bn	11	Yes	145
13	Equity Bank Uganda	2008	370 bn	39	Yes	550
14	GT Bank Uganda	2008	89.8bn	7	Yes	120
15	Global Trust Bank	2008	90 bn	26	Yes	200
16	Housing Finance Bank	1967	558.4 bn	17	Yes	300
17	KCB Bank Uganda	2007	335.5 bn	16	Yes	336
18	NC Bank Uganda	2012	34 bn	1	Yes	36
19	Orient Bank	1993	517.7bn	20	Yes	400
20	Stanbic Bank Uganda	1906	3.24 tn	93	Yes	1,859
21	Standard Chartered Bank	1912	2.5 tn	14	Yes	629
22	Tropical Bank	1973	215 bn	14	Yes	412
23	Uganda Development bank	1972	146.9bn	1	Yes	36
24	United Bank of Africa	2008	29 bn	10	Yes	150
25	Imperial Bank Uganda	2011	214.65 bn	5	Yes	100
26	Bank of India	2012	896 mn	1	Yes	36
27	Finance Trust Bank Uganda	1984	92.3 bn	33	Yes	312

On the other hand commercial banks like other companies can be regarded to have a conscience and the language of ethics does apply to them. This is possible because the moral responsibility of persons can be projected to commercial banks. Moral responsibility is based on three things:

- (a) Someone to blame – the casual sense
- (b) Something has to be done – the duty
- (c) Some trustworthiness can be expected – the credibility

The causal sense can be applied to legal and moral contexts in that the cause of actions and events can be traced. So responsibility here has to do with finding out who is answerable in a given situation. The aim is to determine someone's intention, free will, degree of participation, and appropriate reward or punishment. Since commercial banks can be rewarded or punished, it means they are moral persons. For that matter they can be held morally responsible. In view of the foregoing discussion, it is right to infer that the ethics policy as introduced by the Uganda Bankers Association, applies to both the banks as institutions and to the individuals who work and make decisions in those banks. It is also intended that if the banks followed the ethics policy tenaciously there would be negligible risks especially those arising out of unethical decisions.

### **Problem statement**

The problem being examined in this study is that although there is an ethics policy which the Uganda Bankers Association put in place to regulate the moral actions banks and thereby mitigate risks, there have been worries and fears about risks in the Ugandan commercial banks which have been deemed to be just increasing. The risks include the following:

- (1) *Credit risk* – Acting unprofessionally and negligently led risk. For instance there are cases of customers who acquired loans and were supposed to pay interest on the loans. However, it turned out that interest was not loaded for some loans. In Bank AAA the loan of UGX4,500,000 and in Bank BBB the loan of UGX12,630,500 were loaded without interest. In some other banks (EEE, III and LLL) accounts were overdrawn without authorisation by the credit departments. Some of the amount discovered in bank BBB was UGX 22,742,200; in bank DDD was UGX8,860,900; and in Bank KKK UGX8,000,300. Some closed accounts were also overdrawn by close to UGX500,000 in Bank CCC. One of the risks involved in all these

incidents was loss. The overdrawn accounts put the bank at risk and management would easily overstate income. Furthermore, charges for replaced ATM cards were never recovered thereby creating loss.

- (2) *Liquidity risk* - There were daily calls on cash resources from overnight deposits, current accounts, maturing deposits and calls on cash settled contingencies which the bank could not meet because of lack of resources. In 2010, some banks had a liquidity gap of as much as UGX 573,352,000. In 2011 there were approximately 20 payments totalling UGX16,056,500 made by tellers when the vouchers had irregularities like inconsistency in figures and words, no officer's signature, no domicile, no title account, and no stamp of the bank. All this exposed banks to the risk of financial loss on the part of banks (*Risk Assurance Report*, 2010, 2011 and 2012).
- (3) *Risk of credit quality* - Bank of Uganda 2012 supervision found a "rising risk from deterioration in loan quality. These risks materialised in 2013 and reduced bank profitability. By December 2013, systematic risk increased, driven by continued rise in bad loans. Non-performing loans rose to their highest level of 5.6% since 2004 (*BOU supervision report*, 2013).
- (4) *Risk of managing financial institutions* - It is intimated that risk management in financial institutions in Uganda gained prominence in the late 1990s when commercial banks exhibited deep seated failures in this perspective (Bagyenda, 2011).

All these risks occur in spite of the existence of the ethics policy which is intended to mitigate risks. It therefore raises the question of how far does ethics policy go in mitigating risk in commercial banks in Uganda.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The study analyses the contribution of ethics policy to mitigating risks in commercial banks in Uganda.

### **Specific Objective**

1. To analyse the relationship between ethics policy and compliance with legal requirements
2. To assess the contribution of compliance with legal requirements to risk mitigation in Ugandan commercial banks.
3. To determine the contribution of the ethic policy to risk mitigation in Ugandan banks.

## Hypothesis

The hypothesis which was generated for the current study was coterminous with the objective of the study.

### Ethics Policy relates to Compliance

- $H_0^1$  Ethics policy does not significantly relate to compliance with legal requirements
- $H_A^1$  Ethics policy significantly relates to compliance with legal requirements

### Compliance and Risk Mitigation

- $H_0^2$  Compliance with legal requirements has no significant contribution to risk mitigation in Ugandan commercial banks
- $H_A^2$  Compliance with legal requirements has a significant contribution to risk mitigation in Ugandan commercial banks

### Ethics Policy mitigates risks in Commercial Banks in Uganda

- $H_0^1$  There is no significant contribution of the ethics policy to mitigation of risks in Ugandan commercial banks.
- $H_A^1$  There is a significant contribution of the ethics policy to mitigation of risks in Ugandan commercial banks.

## Literature Review

### *Ethics Policy*

The term ethics policy can be examined looking at each word separately. The word ethics is from Greek *ἠθικᾶ* that is *Ethika* meaning decisions or actions that are valued. The decisions or actions came into ethics discourse if they affect a person positively or negatively.

### *Ethics in Risk Management Practices*

A study seeking to explore Ethics in risk management practices was conducted by Caldarelli, Fiondella, Maffei, Spano and Zagaria (2012). They advanced the view that ethics in risk management is the new driving value for business activities. Whereas this study is important, it does not address the same issues as those raised by the current study. It is proposed by several authors that it is possible to manage risk ethically (Robins and Fleming, 2004). In another study Mande (2012) explores the contribution of ethics training to MBA students' readiness to manage ethically. These studies are useful and helpful but they do not explore how much ethics

policy mitigates the risks commercial banks in Uganda face. This gap is what the current study tries to investigate and probably fill.

#### *Ethics as a Risk Management Strategy*

There work of Francis and Armstrong (2014) contended that ethics was a risk management strategy. With this kind of strategy it is possible to identify potential problems, prevent fraud, preserve corporate reputation, and mitigate court penalties. Although this study is good, it is worth noting that its orientation is Australian which makes it generalise and apply to Ugandan context. This is already a gap that the current study seek to fill. In another study it has been argued that ethics acts as a strategic enabler for any organisation's success and sustainability. It can also serve as a builder by giving an organisation a powerful sense of identity, instilling confidence in its staff and evoking security in stakeholders. It is further observed that ethics is an equally important defensive strategy. Ethics policy can help to identify the issues before they compound into problems. Ethics can prevent outright fraudulent behaviour and preserve reputation and brand (Campbell, 2009).

#### *Ethics of Risk Management*

The link between ethics and risk management has already been established (Young, 2004). The paper by Boatright (2014) indicates that there are four key highlights. These are: (1) determining the risks to be managed, by whom and for whose benefit; (2) maintaining of competent control; (3) top management understanding the risks and potential gains; and (4) quantifying the probability of extremely rare events. These are critical highlights except that they are not enough to explain the risk issues in Ugandan commercial banks. This leaves a gap for the current study.

#### *Risk*

A lot has been said about risks in general. However in the commercial banking sector risk can be considered as a fundamental element that drives financial behaviour. Risk is omnipresent in every financial system in the real world (Arunkumar, 2005). The current study agrees with the above submission. This is because it is now common knowledge in the finance world that the success and survival of the banking institutions depend largely on effective management of risk. Commercial banks devise many ways to deal with risk. One such a way to deal with risk is implementation of ethics policy. In the Wharton studies, types of risk especially credit risk, counterparty risk, liquidity risk, legal risk, foreign exchange risk, and interest risk are recommended to be studied (Santamero, 1997). The current

study seeks to analyse how ethics policy has mitigated the effects of such types of risk in Ugandan commercial banks.

### *Compliance*

Compliance is quite important. Compliance officers play a key role of assessing risks in areas of investment, market, credit, operations, funding and liquidity (di Florio, 2011). This observation is one of the points the current study seeks to conform and also gauge as far ethics policy is concerned in Uganda's commercial banks.

## **Methodology**

### ***Research design***

The research design adopted for this study was the cross sectional survey (Amin, 2005). This study was designed to use various methods to obtain data and other facts. Mixed methods research is defined as a "research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches and methods in a single study" (Creswell *et al* 2005). The term cross-sectional research is sometimes used to describe the same phenomenon of applying many research methods. It is a triangulation approach that was used. The term triangulation refers to a "combination of methodologies in a study of the same phenomenon" (Gill and Johnson 1991:50; White, 2002: 26).

Triangulation has a number of benefits. One, multiple and independent methods help the study to attain greater validity and reliability than a single methodological approach. Two, it allows quantitative and qualitative methodologies to be used for the same study. Three, it cuts out the limitations a specific methodology would impose on the study. So the use of triangulation enabled the current study to harvest all the above mentioned benefits. Several other research activities like administration of questionnaire, reviewing literature and interviewing some bank officials were carried out simultaneously.

### ***Sampling technique***

The minimum sample for the study was determined using Roscoe's (1975) rule of the thumb approach. Roscoe contended that in social science research, any number of respondents between 30 and 500 is sufficient to give credible results. So the figure of 48 as minimum sample was determined using Roscoe's rule of the thumb. This number was deemed to be sufficient to yield results that reflect what views and experiences of



commercial banks in Uganda. After determining the number of respondents, purposive sampling was applied to select the respondents to the questionnaire. This is a judgmental sampling technique whereby samples are sampled on the presumption that they would satisfy the research objectives (White, 2002). There was a deliberate purpose of focusing on only those who work in accounts and auditing.

Regarding which individuals had to respond to the questionnaire, convenience sampling was employed. Convenience sampling refers to the collection of information from members of the financial department who were conveniently available to provide it (Sekaran, 2003: 276). So employees in four departments of auditing, credit, risk and compliance were requested to respond to the questionnaire. In addition to that twelve branch managers were interviewed. The unit of analysis was therefore the managers and employees in departments that deal with risk more regularly.

*Table 4: Respondents according to departments*

	Bank	Auditing	Credit	Risk	Compliance	Total
1	AAA	1	1	1	1	4
2	BBB	1	1	1	1	4
3	CCC	1	1	1	1	4
4	DDD	1	1	1	1	4
5	EEE	1	1	1	1	4
6	FFF	1	1	1	1	4
7	GGG	1	1	1	1	4
8	HHH	1	1	1	1	4
9	III	1	1	1	1	4
10	JJJ	1	1	1	1	4
11	KKK	1	1	1	1	4
12	LLL	1	1	1	1	4
	Total	12	12	12	12	48

*Source Field data*

In order to maintain confidentiality, the names of the participating banks were assigned alphabetical names AAA through LLL.

## **Data collection methods**

The methods used to collect information and data included the following.

### (a) Unstructured interview method

Unstructured interview is one of the four types of interview. Others being; the structured, the non-directive, and the focused (Cohen and Manion, 1994: 273). The unstructured interviewing is where there is great freedom and flexibility (Saunders, *et al*, 1997). This method was deemed to be appropriate for branch managers of the twelve selected commercial banks in Kampala.

### (b) Survey method

This is the method of data collection by which the respondents provide answers in a pre-determined order (Saunders, 1997: 243). For this study, a questionnaire of 52 items was administered to 48 bank employees. The items on the questionnaire covered a number three broad areas; ethics, compliance, credit and risk. A survey method in some instances is quite useful (Gilbert, 1995: 95). It is possible to get the questionnaire to many people (48) at the same time. Through the administration of the questionnaire, this study was able to acquire information, opinions, and experiences.

### (c) Review of primary records

It was possible to review some of the records especially the annual reports of the respective banks. Some reports had already been uploaded on their websites. The main items reviewed were data to do with issues of risk in the areas of credit and compliance.

### (d) Review of secondary literature

Secondary literature was mainly the published books and articles. These were read so as to clarify the issues in the areas of ethics policy, risks in the banking sector, credit and compliance with legal and policy requirements. The library of Nkumba university were accessed.. Some internet materials especially databases that the university subscribe to were retrieved and studied for a period of two months.

## **Validity and Reliability**

The issue of validity and reliability were taken into account. White (2002) pointed out that validity is concerned with the idea that the research design fully addresses the research objectives that have to be achieved. In the current study, validity was established through a validity test using the Content Validity Index (CVI). The product of the CVI test was 0.772. Since

conventional research wisdom requires that a good research be  $\geq 0.6$  (either equal or greater than 60%), it meant that the questions posed were relevant and valid to the study variables.

Reliability is important because the data collection instrument must have the ability to consistently yield the same results when repeated measurements are taken of the same individuals under the same conditions (Koul, 2004: 130). The reliability was done using the Cronbach's (1964) alpha ( $\alpha$ ) test in order to ascertain the internal consistency of the study variables. The results of the reliability test were shown in the table below:

*Table 5: Reliability.*

	<b>Variables</b>	<b>Cronbach Alpha Coefficients</b>
1	Ethics policy	0.791
2	Compliance	0.833
3	Risk	0.767
4	Credit	0.801
	<b>Average</b>	<b>0.775</b>

**Source:** *Computed using SPSS*

The average coefficient is 0.775 whose implication is that the study variables were reliable and consistent. The average of 77% is above the usual 60% which is considered to be cut off point.

### **Data analysis**

The quantitative data generated during the field research was collated and analysed using the SPSS software program. Correlations and regressions were done in order to effect of independent variable on intervening and dependent variables. These were applied so as to accurately determine the relationships between ethics policy and risk mitigation in banks.

Similarly the qualitative data was analysed by use of various approaches. Some data from literature reviewed critically in order to clarify concepts. Some information was assessed so as to determine its applicability to the current study. Furthermore past studies were carefully studied so as to identify the gaps that the current study had to fill.

### **Findings and Discussion on Uganda Commercial Banks**

#### *The concept of Risk*

There is no universal held definition of risk. Sometimes the meaning of word "risk" varies depending on context. For instance it is commonly used

in insurance to refer to insured items like cars, buildings and others. Risk has also been defined as: a combination of hazards measured by probability; a condition in which losses are possible. From this we define risk to mean the variation of actual outcomes from expected outcomes. For instance, in an investment decision - expected outcome = profit; if actual outcome = loss, then risk (Skelton, 1997).

Many times risks can be classified into several categories depending on context. For instance there are: (a) Inherent risks; (b) Unsystematic risks; (c) Incidental risks; (d) Event risks also known as pure risks arise from natural phenomena mainly and human error; (e) Fundamental risks are impersonal in origin and affect society at large e.g. war, drought; (f) Particular risks are personal in origin and affect individuals or small groups e.g. fire, theft, vehicle accidents and the like. The current study is concerned with the so-called incidental risks especially credit risk, interest rate risk, liquidity risk, investment risk, and currency risks.

### **Risks faced by commercial banks in Uganda**

There are seven types of risks that are significant and common to commercial banks in Uganda.

*Table 6: Responses on whether a bank has ever worries of risk*

	Bank	Credit	Taxation	Compliance	Liquidity	Market	Operations	Reputation
1	AAA	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
2	BBB	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
3	CCC	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
4	DDD	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
5	EEE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
6	FFF	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
7	GGG	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
8	HHH	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
9	III	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
10	JJJ	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
11	KKK	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
12	LLL	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

*Source: Field Research*

The table above indicate the responses of bank employees to the question whether the commercial bank has ever had of incidents of risk in each of the seven areas. It emerged clearly that all the participating banks have had incidents of risk in the last five years that is between 2010 and 2014. Bad ethics or failure to adhere to the ethical principles had had a disastrous effect on banks. The commercial banks in Uganda that failed due to unethical performance are:

**Table 7: Banks that were closed in Uganda**

	<i>Closed</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
1	Greenland Bank	The closure of these commercial banks was caused by unethical activities. The activities were linked to liquidity risks, compliance risks, credit risks and operational risks.
2	Uganda Commercial Bank	
3	Fina Bank	
4	National Bank of Commerce	
5	Nile Bank	
6	Global Trustee Bank	
7	Co-operative Bank	
8	International Credit Bank	

The failure of the above banks was ascribed to “unethical practices”. The situation was referred to as one of poor and abusive management which exposed the bank to the seven described risks consequently the bank had to be closed (Mwesigwa, 2014). It has also been observed that profitability of banks has been declining while non-performing assets and loans have been on upward trend (Businge, 2014).

For clarity purposes the types of risks experienced by the commercial banks in Uganda are explained here below one by one.

### **(1) Credit Risk**

Risk is a big concern for all financial institutions. So a bank has to set in place comprehensive resources, expertise and controls to ensure efficient and effective management of credit risk. In lending transactions; credit risk arises through non-performance by counterparty for credit facilities utilized. These facilities are typically loans and advances, including the advancement of securities and contracts to support customer obligations (such as letters of credit and guarantees). In trading activities; credit risk arises due to non-performance by a counterparty for payments linked to trading related financial obligations.

In Uganda banks, bad debts are considered to be an almost permanent fixture on their balance sheets. The loans written off by the banks have massively increased. For instance Centenary Bank wrote off UGX7.8bn of bad loans, up from UGX4bn in 2012. DFCU Bank wrote off UGX 15bn, nearly twice as much as the UGX8.7bn of 2012. Standard Chartered Bank's non-performing loans and other assets increased from UGX10bn in 2012 to UGX120bn in 2013 (Mwesigwa, 2014). Non-performing loans are a sum of borrowed money upon which the debtor has not made his or her scheduled payments. Bad debts cannot be blamed on bad ethics alone but also on slow economic activity that contributed to more bad commercial loans. "The level of non-performing loans has increased from 4.9 per cent in September to 6.9 per cent in December 2013. The credit risk was partly caused by unethical actions both locally and internationally.

## **(2) *Liquidity Risk***

Liquidity risk arises if the bank has insufficient funds or marketable assets available to fulfil their current or future cash flow obligations at the least possible cost. The nature of banking and trading activities results in a continuous exposure to liquidity risk. The bank's liquidity risk management framework however is designed to measure and manage the liquidity position at various levels to ensure that all payment obligations can be met under both normal and stressed conditions. Liquidity risk is one of the risks commercial banks assume. This is one of the challenges for the Ugandan banks (Donat and Asa, 2012). Commercial banks have had liquidity risks. When one bank was assessed, it was rated to be in marginal ranking. This meant that that bank had put UGX36billion depositors' cash at risk. The same bank was involved in a controversy whereby it was said that it had paid out UGX63 billion to 1018 non-existent "ghost" pensioners. Payments were done in a suspicious (unethical) manner (Obore, 2013).

## **(3) *Market risk***

Market risk arises from a decrease in the market value of a portfolio of financial instruments caused by an adverse move in market variables such as equity, bond and commodity prices, currency exchange rates, interest rates and credit spreads, and implied volatilities on all of the above. Market risk exposures as a result of trading activities are contained within the bank's corporate and investment banking trading operations. The bank manages market risk through a range of market risk and capital risk limits.

Banking-related market risk exposure principally involves the management of the potential adverse effect of interest rate movements on

net interest income and the economic value of equity. This structural interest rate risk is caused by the differing re-pricing characteristics of banking assets and liabilities. The governance framework adopted for the management of structural interest rate risk mirrors that of liquidity risk management in terms of committee structures and the setting of standards, policies and limits. This is also true for the monitoring process and internal controls.

#### **(4) Operational Risk**

Operational risk is the risk of loss suffered as a result of inadequacy of, or a failure in internal processes, people, systems or external events. The bank recognizes the significance of operational risk, which is inherent in all areas of our business. The bank's operational risk governance standard codifies the core governing principles for operational risk management and defines a common framework with the basic components for the identification, assessment, management, monitoring and reporting of operational risk. This common framework defines the minimum requirements whilst ensuring an element of flexibility for each business unit's particular operating environments. This framework is further supported by a set of comprehensive operational risk management policies.

The bank's approach to managing operational risk is to adopt practices that are fit for the purpose to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of the bank's resources, minimize losses and effectively utilize opportunities. This approach is aligned to the bank's enterprise risk management framework and adopts the sound practices recommended by various sources, including the Basel II Accord's Sound Practices for the Management and Supervision of Operational Risk. The independent operational risk functions perform control and oversight roles, including the setting of appropriate policies, governance standards and tools. The tools include:

- (a) A centralized operational loss database providing management reports used to identify improvements to processes and controls arising from loss trends;
- (b) Risk and control self assessment through which existing and potential future risks and their related controls are identified and assessed; and
- (c) Key risk indicators which measure specific factors to provide an early warning to proactively address potential exposures.

The bank further maintains a comprehensive insurance programme to cover losses from fraud, theft, professional liability claims and damage to

physical assets and operates a comprehensive internal audit programme on the entire Bank's operations. Resource to support fraud prevention has been enhanced and the implementation and continual review of the adequacy of the monitoring and control processes on all bank transactions has also been set as a focus area. The bank has in addition, set up a structure for a forensic services unit, which is mandated by the audit committee, and is responsible for the application of a prudent fraud risk management practice throughout the bank. The strategic approach focuses on fraud prevention, detection, investigation and whistle blowing activities. The bank maintains a zero tolerance approach towards fraud and dishonesty.

#### **(5) *Compliance Risk***

Compliance is an independent core risk management activity, which also has unrestricted access to the managing director and the chairman of the board. The bank is subject to extensive supervisory and regulatory regimes, and while the executive management remains responsible for overseeing the management of the bank's compliance risk, group compliance actively engages with management and the compliance officers within subsidiaries to proactively support the generation of legal, ethical and profitable business. The bank operates a centralized compliance risk management structure run by a fully equipped specialized unit that grants oversight on all compliance related matters. The Compliance unit provides leadership and guidance on compliance with money laundering, terrorist financing, occupational health and safety and emerging legislative developments. The regulatory services unit provides training and awareness on regulatory developments, particularly in the area of consumer protection.

#### **(6) *Taxation Risk***

Taxation risk is the possibility of suffering loss, financial or otherwise, as a result of the misapplication of tax systems (whether in legislative systems, rulings or practices) applicable to the entire spectrum of taxes and other fiscal imposts to which the bank is subject. The bank fulfils its responsibilities under tax law in relation to compliance, planning or client service matters. Tax law includes all responsibilities which the bank may have in relation to company taxes, personal taxes, capital gains taxes, indirect taxes and tax administration. The identification and management of tax risk is the primary objective of the bank tax and regulatory function, and this objective is achieved through the application of a tax risk matrix



approach, which measures the fulfilment of tax responsibilities against the specific requirements of each category of tax to which the bank is exposed, in the context of the various types of activity the bank conducts.

#### **(7) *Reputational risk.***

The safeguarding of the bank's reputation is of paramount importance to its continued operations and is the responsibility of every member of staff. Reputational risks can arise from social, ethical or environmental issues, or as a consequence of operational risk events. Management of all operating activities is required to establish a strong internal control structure to minimize the risk of operational and financial failure and to ensure that a full assessment of reputational implications is made before strategic decisions are taken. The bank sets clear standards and policies on all major aspects of business and these standards and policies are integral to the bank's system of internal control and are communicated through procedures, manuals and appropriate staff training. Reputational risks are considered and assessed by the board, the bank risk management committee, the bank audit committee and executive management. For that reason therefore, the current study constructed a hypothesis to test whether the adoption of the above code of conduct contributed significantly to the enhancement of risk management in the commercial banks in Uganda.

### **Results of the Tests of the Hypotheses**

The ethics policy for commercial banks in Uganda was also assessed for its compliance with the legal and regulatory requirements imposed on the financial institutions in the country. For instance the Bank of Uganda, in its capacity as the central bank of the nation has supervisory roles that carry out on all financial institutions all categories. So, a hypothesis was developed to test the compliance with their own accounting procedures with legal and regulatory requirements. Hypothesis was tested as indicated in the results below.

#### **Test of hypothesis 1 ( $H_0^1$ ): Ethics Policy and Compliance**

The first null hypothesis ( $H_0^1$ ) read "There is no significant relationship ethics policy and compliance". The relationship between ethics policy and legal requirements was first determined through a bivariate correlation. The results indicated that there was a negative significant relationship between ethics policy and compliance ( $r(48) = -.318, P < 0.05$ ). The hypothesis was further tested using a simple linear regression. The results revealed that there was a linear relationship between ethics policy and compliance with legal requirements ( $F(1,46) = 5.168, P < 0.05$ ). As can be noted from this

statistic, having proper ethics policy in place go hand in hand with compliance with legal and regulatory requirements. It was also found that the Adj.  $R^2$  was .081 which when calculated meant that ethics policy contributed 8% to making compliance with legal requirement less difficult.

***Table 8: Ethics policy and compliance***

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std Error	Beta		
Constant	6.095	.782		7.789	.000
Legal requirements	.410	.181	.318	2.273	.028

a. dependent variable: ethics policy

The results of Beta =.318,  $P < 0.05$  as given table 4:3 above clearly show that there was a low negative significant relationship between having in place accounting procedures and compliance with legal and regulatory requirements of the banking institutions in the country. It meant that the more effective the accounting procedures are, the less difficult it becomes to implement the legal requirements. Given the above results, one can conclude that the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternate hypothesis ( $H_A^1$ ) which stated that, "There is a significant relationship ethics policy and compliance with the legal and regulatory standards" was supported instead.

***Test of Hypothesis 2 ( $H_0^2$ ): Compliance and Risk Mitigation***

The test of hypothesis 2 on compliance and risk mitigation was done first the bivariate correlation. This yielded results ( $r(48) = .437$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) which indicated that the more the above compliance with legal and other regulatory requirements the more risks are mitigated. So compliance is an effective technique in mitigating the risks and their effects. A simple linear regression was also carried out to confirm the contribution of compliance to effectively mitigating risks in the commercial banks. First, a linear relationship ( $F(1,46) = 10.849$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) revealed that the more the compliance the more the risk mitigation. Second, an Adj.  $R^2$  was .173 which meant that compliance alone contributed 17% to the effectiveness in mitigating risks. The coefficients of the regression are shown in table 4:1 below:

***Table 9: Compliance and Risk Mitigation***

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std Error	Beta		
Constant	1.130	1.710		.660	.000
Compliance with legal requirements	1.260	.382	.437	3.294	.002

a. dependent variable: Risk mitigation

Table 4:1 above gives the results as Beta =.437,  $P < 0.01$ . This points the fact that the compliance alone had a moderate positive significant contribution to risk mitigation in commercial banks. The results therefore proved that the compliance and risk mitigation execute its risk management activities bring about effectiveness.

***Test of Hypothesis 3( $H_0^3$ ): Contribution of Ethics Policy to Risk Mitigation***

$H_0^3$ : There is no significant contribution of ethics policy to risk mitigation. The above hypothesis was test first using a bivariate correlation which yielded the following results:  $r(48) = .380$ ,  $P < 0.01$ . It revealed therefore that there was a positive significant relationship between ethics policy and risk mitigation in commercial banks of Uganda.

The hypothesis was also subjected to a linear regression matrix in order to determine how much ethics policy contributed to risk mitigation. The regression test produced results as shown in the table below:

***Table 10: The Contribution of Ethics Policy to Risk Mitigation***

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std Error	Beta		
Constant	7.525	.303		24.862	.000
Ethics policy	.675	.067	.380	10.106	.000

a. dependent variable: Risk Mitigation

The model summary of the regression test produced an Adj.  $R^2$  of .689 which meant that the adoption of the code of conduct contributed 69% to the enhancement of risk mitigation activities. The remaining 31% was contributed by other factors outside the scope of the current study. There was also a linear relationship between ethics policy and risk mitigation ( $F(1, 46) = 102,139$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ). From this statistic, it is possible to conclude that the more commercial bank staff adopt the ethics policy, the better the mitigation of risks in the banks. Furthermore, the results of the regression

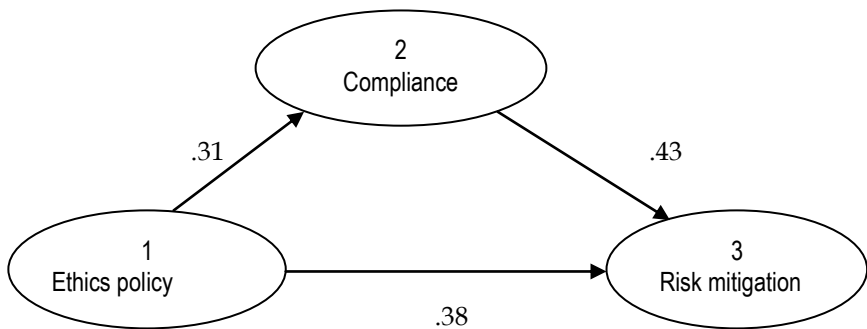
(Beta = .380,  $P < 0.01$ ) indicated that the ethics policy is a strong contributor to mitigation of risks. In the light of the above results, it is suitable to state that the null hypothesis  $H_0$  that “there is no significant contribution of ethics policy on risk mitigation in commercial banks” was rejected. The alternate hypothesis  $H_A^3$  stated that “there is a there is a significant contribution of ethics policy to risk mitigation in commercial banks” was upheld.

#### HYPOTHETICAL MODEL FOR ETHICS POLICY AND RISK MITIGATION

The hypothetical model was used to determine the overall effect of ethics policy on risk mitigation. The hypothetical model therefore provides a reliable explanation that risk mitigation is a function of ethics policy, that is,  $RM = f(EP)$ . In the explanation the following are taken into account:

- (a) Determining variables – in the model there is an independent variable (ethics policy), and moderating variable (compliance), and a dependent variable (risk mitigation).
- (b) Establishing causal paths – the causal paths relevant to variable (3) which is risk mitigation are paths from (1) to (2) to (3); and from (1) to (3).
- (c) Stating assumptions – e.g. all relations are linear,
- (d) Variables are measured linearly left to right.

The paths for the hypothesised empirical model



The paths in the hypothesised model above establish the following relationships:

- (1) A positive significant relationship between ethics policy and compliance
- (2) A positive significant relationship between compliance and risk mitigation
- (3) A positive significant relationship between ethics policy and risk mitigation

The results were as the paths coefficients indicate:

<u>Paths</u>	<u>Variable</u>	<u>coefficients</u>
P21 = Ethics policy and compliance		.31
P32 = Compliance and risk mitigation		.43
P31 = Ethics policy and risk mitigation		.38

Variable 1 (ethics policy) is the only exogenous variable because it has no arrows pointing to it. This leaves two endogenous variables in the model, that is variable 2 (compliance) and variable 3 (risk mitigation). Each of these variables is explained by one or two variables.

### Effects of decomposition

The paths coefficients were used to decompose correlations in the model into direct and indirect effects corresponding to direct and indirect paths reflected in the arrows of the model. This is based on rule that in a linear system the total causal effect of variable A on variable B is the sum of the values of all the paths from A to B. Risk mitigation is the dependent variable while ethics policy is the independent variable, the indirect effects and calculated by multiplying the paths coefficients for each path from ethics policy to risk mitigation

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \text{ethics policy} \longrightarrow \text{compliance risk} \longrightarrow \text{mitigation} \\
 &= .31 \quad \times \quad .43 = .1333 \cong .13
 \end{aligned}$$

So, .13 is the total indirect effect of ethics policy on risk mitigation, plus the direct effect of .38. The total causal effect of ethics policy on risk mitigation is (.13+.38) .51. In view of the above model, it is appropriate to infer that ethics policy is a major determinant of the risk mitigation. The other factors which account for the remaining .49 should be only peripheral in the matters of risk mitigation in a workplace.

Although the total causal effect of 51% is moderate, there is some discontent about the risks in Ugandan commercial banks (BOU annual reports of 2011, 2012 and 2013).

### Recommendation: Ethics Training For Bank Employees

As already indicated, ethics policy alone contributes 51% to risk mitigation in the commercial banks. In order to boost the contribution of ethics to risk mitigation, there should intensive training in ethics for all employees in the banking industry in Uganda.

### *Simulating the contribution of training in ethics*

How much the training in ethics can contribute to risk mitigation, can be determined by carrying out a simulation. The simulation is carried out in following steps:

- Step 1 the percentage of total causal effect is subtracted from 100%. In this study, the total causal effect from the hypothetical model is 51%. So 100% minus 51% leaves 49%.
- Step 2 the product in step 1 above is multiplied by the direct effect. In the current study, this is  $.51 \times .38 = .19$ . So the contribution of training in ethics is 19%.
- Step 3 The product in step 2 is added to the total causal effect in order to derive the total causal effect after simulation. In this study the 19% is added to the 51% giving a final figure of 70%.
- Step 4 Conclusion based on the simulation is that it is viable to adopt the training of bank employees in ethics because it promises to add value (19%) to the risk mitigation.

### **Summary of the Chapter**

It short it can be stated that this paper set out to present facts about ethics policy and risk mitigation in commercial banks in Uganda. The concepts of ethics policy, compliance and risk plus risk mitigation have been defined. It was found that ethics policy alone contributes 51% to risk mitigation in the commercial banks. It is proposed that if ethics training is adopted, the contribution of ethics to risk mitigation would rise to 70% from the initial 51%.

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# GENDER DISPARITIES ON WOMEN'S LIVELIHOODS IN SMALL SCALE FISHERS, UGANDA

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## **Abstract**

*The paper examines gender disparities and its effect on women's livelihoods in Small Scale Fishers (SSFs) in Kalangala District of Uganda. In spite of various attempts to lessen the negative effect of gender disparities, women's livelihood in SSF's has continued to be poor. Findings showed that (a) due to social / cultural gender disparities men dominated in major fishing activities while 91% women employed in post-harvest activities alongside domestic chores. (b) Women's low education (79% attained up to primary level compared to 50% men with secondary education), child rearing obligations, and cultural constraints make them less qualified than men for economically productive employment. (c) Only 20% women compared to 60% men were involved in other income generating activities. Women lacked land or personal houses for bank loan security. (d) Resource ownership, access and control had majority of fishing gear assets owned by men (76%) who earned above \$1333 weekly compared to 38% women who between \$15 and \$ 29. The majority of women were unable to easily access the available though inadequate social services because of long distances with unreliable, costly transport and domestic work load. These disparities had an effect on women's livelihoods in that they could not engage in economically productive work.*

**Keywords:** Gender Disparity, Women Livelihood, Small Scale Fishers

## **Introduction**

This paper examines gender disparities among Small Scale Fishers (SSFs) and its effect on women's livelihood in Kalangala district located in Lake Victoria Basin (LVB), Uganda. The paper was premised on the fact that in spite of various attempts to lessen the negative effect of gender

disparities, women's livelihood in SSF's continues to be poor in a patriarchy oriented country. The relationship between gender and livelihoods is increasingly becoming a developmental problem. Actually gender disparities are becoming one of the primary impediments to achieving worthwhile livelihoods. Women are in most cases accountable and responsible for the financial and household management and yet they struggle to get support from their men and opportunities from the community with regard to managing their livelihoods. Minimizing the importance of gender issues in livelihood practices may lead to inappropriate policy measures and increased poverty among rural people (Wombeogo, 2007). A number of authors have examined the impact of gender disparities on women's livelihoods in relation to property rights for resource ownership; access and control in rural agriculture farming and women's contribution to business and economic development (Mukund, 1999; Bina Agarwal, 1998) and (Centre for Women in Development, 1993).

This paper has taken up the theory of patriarchy which is related to the above several findings, and it states that certain rules and practices of society have kept women in a subservient role and that institutions of society, run by men, have continued these practices over time, Jones (2000). Uganda being a patriarchy oriented country several factors were involved in creating these conditions including: the gender division of labour and responsibilities, many inequitable laws on property rights, land use/tenure rights and inheritance laws and practices (Government of Uganda and Uganda National Council for Children, 1994). These have resulted into gender disparities in relation to productive and unproductive work roles, resource ownership and access, participation in decision making and access to social amenities in favour of men.

### **Research Problem and Objective**

Much as women have been key participants in SSFs, their livelihood has remained poor. This is evidenced in their low economic status, poor resource ownership and control; inadequate participation in household and community decision making and inability to access resources and social services. This has denied women better lives in terms of good health, feeding, hygiene, housing, adequate income, relevant decisions on gender issues and social protection (Mokgokongo, 2010).

Women's capability, material, social resources and activities required for one to make a living have remained poor. This is caused by existing social/cultural customs embedded in gender division of labour and

inequitable laws on property rights, land use/tenure rights and inheritance laws and practices. These have resulted into gender disparities in favour of men (Government of Uganda, 1995).

Previous studies in the fishing sector, (Omwenga et. al, 2007; Katunzi, 2001; LVFO, 1999, Republic of Uganda, 2002, Gaheb and Sarch, 2002) emphasize better fisheries management and adoption of appropriate technologies. However, no specific analysis has been made on the effect of gender disparities on women's livelihood in small scale fishers in a less developed country like Uganda. This study presumes that even though fishing is the most important source of livelihoods for 75% of women in the sector who live below the poverty line of \$1 a day, men seem to control the fish industry from the actual fishing to selling in the market in Kalangala District which is made up of 87 islands in Uganda. (Ngware and Ngware, 2004). Women involved in Rastrionebolaargentea (Mukene) in SSFs in Lake Victoria Basin (LVB) have been marginalized by social/cultural barriers and national legal provisions. This is reflected in unequal gender division of labour in public and private work, unequal resource distribution and control, inadequate representation and participation in decision making bodies and poor access to social services. Several authors (Hirobjarturet..al, 2005, Kibas 2001; Walmsley et.al, 2006) have written about interventions like functional literacy education, credit facilities, improved infrastructure improved transport and telecommunication services which have been put in place. However, this lacked in-depth gender analysis of the existing gender disparities in terms of division of labour, entrepreneurial skills, decision making, resource ownership; control and access to social services which tend to favour men.

This paper seeks to close the gap by examining how women's livelihoods in SSF's have been affected by gender disparities in Kalangala district in Uganda. It is anticipated that improved gender relationships and empowerment of women in the industry within the SSF's will result into a better livelihoods economically and socially.

### **Study Objective**

The objective of this paper is to examine gender disparities and its effect on Women's livelihoods in Small Scale Fishers (SSFs) in Kalangala District in Uganda. This has denied them better lives in terms of good health, feeding, hygiene, housing, income, energy, relevant decisions and social protection.

## **Prior Work**

This section carries out a survey and review of related literature on gender disparities and livelihoods in relation to the study variables and the objective so as to effectively develop the gaps and show the relationship between variables. This section therefore addresses the themes of the article on gender division of labour among Small Scale Fishers, resource ownership and control; women's representation and participation in decision making bodies and women's access to social services. It opens with a summary of gender disparities in livelihoods.

The UD Report(2006) argues that generally, poverty in the region is seen as having resulted from gender disparities arising from poor governance and faulty policies (or lack thereof) which do not acknowledge the rights and voices of the affected majority female citizens in the region, failure of decision makers to promote pro-poor development and from HIV/AIDs pandemic. This is so even when the people living in Kalangala district are endowed with immense natural resources – forests, water resources, minerals, fertile soils, and good climate among others.

Uganda being a patriarchy oriented country, the household division of roles and responsibilities, inequitable laws on property rights, land use/tenure rights; inheritance laws and practices result into gender disparities. Such are: unequal division of labour, unfair and unequal resource access, ownership and control, lack of adequate participation in decision making and women's poor access to social amenities. This affects women's livelihoods in respect to addressing their problems, needs, priorities and proposals for solutions. IFAD (1999) emphasizes that woman's participation and access to productive resources and opportunities for development are also greatly affected negatively by unequal gender relations. (Omwenga, Abila, and Lwenya 2007) assert that poor livelihoods amongst fishers of Lake Victoria were due largely to lack of capability of efficiently participating in the industry. On the whole, even though Small Scale Fishers face many problems due to what is seen as lack of assistance to both women and men operators (UD Report, 2006), this paper is of the view that gender disparities among the SSF's have dominated in affecting women's livelihoods in SSF's.

## **Gender division of labour**

In small-scale fisheries, the key questions to be addressed focuses on how men and women feature in the fishing roles, that is who does what, when and how (Republic of Uganda, 2002).



Studies have proved that for productive work, women in the SSF's were given mostly the low level tasks such as carrying fish from the boats to the drying grounds and packing before dispatch to the markets in addition to managing restaurants and "looking after fishermen". Men were kept to control the fish industry from the actual fishing to selling in the market (Ngware and Ngware, 2004). In this women were using un-hygienic traditional sun drying methods which produce a product which does not dry uniformly and is often contaminated by dirt, faeces and sand. This is so even when the Constitution of Uganda (1995) has provision for parliament to enact laws that ensure for the right of persons to work under satisfactory, safe and healthy conditions. Such a situation renders the product largely un-suitable for human consumption (USAID, 2005) when it would have provided relevant food nutrients for healthy living. The current state of HIV/ Aids situation in the LVB also adversely affects women's livelihoods in the SSFs as noted by Tanzarn and Bishop-Sambrook, (2003), as they have in some cases to exchange sex for fish so as to survive economically with their children. Kibas et.al.(2010), (Ngware and Ngware, 2004) confirm that women in SSFs were marginalized regarding the whole process of fishing.

A study done at Kasensero landing site in Uganda (2002) showed that women are culturally prohibited from actual fishing, and as expressed by one woman that

*"we have to rely on men all the time because we cannot go to make riches ourselves from the resource (the lake). Our poverty will be continuous until we are allowed to go to the lake"*

Hence gender roles in these occupations appear to be culturally ascribed with women being relegated to the labor intensive and demanding tasks as observed in UNEP and UNCHS, (2000). However, as observed by Ellis (1998 and 2000) fishing is a seasonal activity and women have to diversify into other income generating activities, possibly in other public and private work. The GoU (2007) clearly states that concerning public and private work, women tend to participate in under-paid or lower-paid jobs compared to men due to low or no education. The work done by women is valued differently from that done by men and culturally men are regarded as "bread winners" hence they "should earn more income". However, even in such a situation, married women end up having to spend more income on household needs than men or at times they are obliged to do so as single mothers. The implication of this is that their incomes may not be sufficient for them to enjoy acceptable livelihoods.

### **Women's resource ownership and control**

The GoU (2007) revealed that in Uganda women traditionally do not own land and other assets and even though they are heavily involved in economic production activities, they have no control over their produce and benefits. A study on women entrepreneurs in Uasin Gishu District in Kenya, Kibas (2006) found that women's decisions on family assets were controlled by their spouses, making control of the available resources another challenge. GoU (2007) emphasize that within the household, men usually monopolize the financial decision-making as well as the use of household assets and this definitely affect women's economic and social power.

Schmmer (2005) argues that household resource management is having access and control over economic resources. It includes dynamics that are related to decision making, assigning priorities, resource allocation and access to and control over resources of land, water, time, credit and savings. Furthermore, women through their socialization fear to risk more than men to invest their hard earned money in trade and other related opportunities (GoU 2007; World Bank 2000 and Kirjavainen 2008). This is contributed by women's extra household burdens/roles and limited ownership of land and other resources which make it more risky to invest. Men therefore tend to save larger amounts for local income-generation activities than women who invest in small income generating activities requiring small amounts. However, even in that case many women have not registered their businesses due to the paper work involved and low education.

Furthermore, Andrew et.al (2007) argue that non-participation in credit markets can arise due to women's failure to satisfy the loan eligibility criteria. For instance, they may lack the appropriate physical collateral for obtaining a loan as per the prevailing legal provisions in the country where a number of financing institutions require the guarantee of a male family member before the loan is acquired, (Acharya 1999). Bankers have low confidence in women's capacity to repay the loan and so they have to be assisted by a man to manage and pay back the money. However, many women end up losing such money to men. Katholieke, (2011/2012) argue that women sometimes have little or no control over their loans, with the male family member making all the decisions.

The legal framework provisions of Uganda have many inequitable laws on property, land use/tenure rights, inheritance laws and practices. GoU and UNCC (1994) reveal that the existence of such laws confirm that gender inequalities occur in both the legal system and the customary practices. Property ownership/inheritance, land and family assets in Uganda are inherited through patrilineal kinship ties-from father to son- thus leading to women being dependant on their husbands' assets. The property ownership rights of orphans and widows are frequently denied; in the absence of protection, they are often chased away from the late parent or husband's property. This is so even when official laws exist which provide women with rights to own land and other assets in case of divorce or widowhood. These are not enforced in practice and so land and other property stay in the hands of men. This therefore affects women's gainful involvement in SSF's and livelihoods as confirmed by World Bank (2003) that customary law and practices consider women to be 'minors'.

Despite the growing dependence on the fisheries, women's ability to access and manage the benefits from the lake and land to which they are tied remains highly restricted. This is so even when management of resources by women is so crucial because it is their responsibility to sustain and maintain the standard of the household (Schmmer 2005; Adetunji and Adepoju 2009). The cost of excluding women from control of land and its resources tends to be significant since in many cases women direct the use of income from productive land on food, health and education of their children while men invest in capital assets and businesses, which is most likely to have an effect on women's livelihood.

### **Women's representation and participation in decision making bodies**

The aspect of representation on decision making bodies is legally discriminative in favour of men, whereby out of the nine positions for any local council governing committee, only one position is specified in the Constitution of Uganda (1995) to be held by at least a female. A study carried out in Uganda (UGP, 2007) observed that there were fewer women in leadership positions at all levels majorly because of their limited education, cultural beliefs and expectations which hampers their involvement in decision making. Molyneux, (1995) argues that this is because women lack experience and training in leadership and the state/community administration has not done much to empower them through adequate orientation and training. Women's weaknesses are instead used as a stick to beat and deride them, which makes other women

become hesitant to come forward to stand for elections. In turn, women as a group never build up the core strength necessary to make their voices heard so as to have gender specific issues addressed.

Furthermore, Acharya (1999) affirms that the male perception of a woman's place and role in society creates hurdles in the effectiveness of the elected women representatives on leadership committees. Women leaders therefore seem not to effectively influence the development agenda to be favourable for women due to limited skills and knowledge about development planning and negotiation and traditional/cultural beliefs and expectations. This has implications on available women's opportunities for better livelihood.

### **Women's access to social services**

Many households need to survive by fulfilling their fundamental basic needs through accessing and utilizing basic services. These include health in terms of medical facilities, sanitation including potable water, shelter, sanitary/latrine and education. However, in fulfilling those needs, men and women may in many instances attempt to make separate decisions concerning gender-specific social services. Society has labelled women as health care givers, teachers and sanitation enforcers. This implies that absence or inadequacy of any of these services becomes costly to the woman.

A study at Katosi found out that the common absence of clean water sources on the landing sites affects women who must prepare food and do general clean up for the family. Using lake water which in most cases is contaminated therefore becomes unavoidable, (Madanda, 2003). Mogwanja (2004) revealed that Kalangala district per se is faced with limited inter-island transport networks and poor information flow; given that it is made up of 89 islands with only 432 sq.km(4.8%) of land out of a total size of 9,066sq.km. There is therefore a high production cost versus lack of direct access to health centres for antenatal care and general medical care, It is true that there are no health centres per island and 50% of these facilities are on the main Island of Bulagala. All this has contributed to poor service provision.

Concerning women's reproductive health, household nutrition and hygiene greatly affect women's efficiency in their domestic and developmental roles. The poor state of health facilities and communication systems is said to negatively affect women's livelihood as care givers more

than men. Sanitation on the other hand is a relatively broad concept involving among others the construction and use of sanitary facilities as a way of preventing diseases arising out of inappropriate hygiene habits such as poor disposal of excreta (Mogwanja (2004). According to studies conducted in different communities in Uganda, Kyangwa and Odongkara (2005) reveals that 90.4% of the respondents in fishing communities agreed that some fishers did not possess or use latrines, while 8.8% disagreed. This greatly affects women's livelihood hygienically and as mothers. Outstanding factors that reportedly influenced possession or use of latrines include: nature of the soils (19% of respondents), inability to construct latrines (17% of the respondents), habit of some fishers (12% of the respondents) and cultural beliefs of some fishers (10% of the respondents mainly affecting women. This was because of cultural beliefs of fishers where it was believed that: "Use of latrines could affect women's fertility" and that "When a pregnant woman uses a latrine he gets a miscarriage". Kyomuhendo (2005) emphasizes that women in social settings were more concerned about the issues of health, sanitation and hygiene compared to men. This was attributed to the fact that their vulnerability to diseases was due to abject poverty which compels them to live and work in environmentally hazardous areas, inability to access appropriate health care when ill, and above all, their lack of power to make decisions especially those regarding health care in patrilineal households. This situation has had effect on women's livelihood.

### **Theory of patriarchy**

Patriarchy is a social system in which men are regarded as the authority within the family and society, and in which power and possessions are passed on from father to son. It refers to the 'rule of men over women'. Even more broadly, it refers to the web of economic, political, social and religious regulations that enforces the domination of women by men throughout the ages, Jones (2000). The article is in line with the theory of patriarchy which has played a role in determining the gender disparities at play in SSF's in Kalangala District, Uganda. The theory encompasses a set of social relations between men, which have a material base, and which, though hierarchical, establish or create interdependence or solidarity among men that enable them to dominate women. It is argued that the material base upon which patriarchy rests is where men control women's labour power (Sally and Barbara, 1980).

## Research Methodology

A case study design with a mixed approach using the dominant (qualitative) –less dominant (quantitative) design was used, Kakinda (2000). Quantitative research provided the fundamental connection between empirical observation and mathematical expression of quantitative relationship. The main benefit of quantitative and qualitative approach is that it allows the strengths and weakness of each technique to be addressed and produce more convincing research findings. At the same time, the above approach enables an element of triangulation or convergent validity to build into research design (Fraenkel and Wallen (2000).

The study population included stakeholders directly involved in small scale fisheries, government authorities in fisheries management, Non Government Organisations (NGO's) and Community Based Organizations (CBO's). This study selected two landing sites because of limited resources, that is Kaaya and Kasekulo who handle over 95% of *Rastrionebolaargentea* (Mukene) fish species, and have women as the majority population.

Stratified sampling techniques were applied to different categories of people within the targeted population. The sample included all players in the SSFs i.e. men, women, youth, CBOs, NGOs, Government Agencies and private sector. The study sample aimed at equal representation from all categories of key stakeholders in the SSFs as given below in Table 1:

**Table 1:** *Sampling frame of stakeholders of SSF's in Kalangala district (Uganda)*

<i>Category of stakeholders</i>	<i>Kalangala District Population</i>	<i>Sample Population located at the selected landing sites</i>
Gazetted fishing sites	64	02
Fisher folk Associations	33	04
Government officers	23	04
NGO's and CBO's	131	04
TOTAL	251	14

**Source:** Field findings

In addition a total of 89 respondents were identified, categorized under the type of activity carried out in the SSF's. These are as shown in Table 2 below:

**Table 2: Categories of respondents by Gender and Occupation**

Category	Uganda		Percentage		Total
	M	F	M	F	
Boat owners	10	02	83.3%	16.7%	12
Fishermen and Crew	26	00	100%	00	26
Fish handling processors workers	12	20	19%	77%	32
Traders/transporters	10	02	83.3%	16.7%	12
Government workers	04	00	100%	00	04
Non- Governmental Organizations	01	02	33%	67%	03
<b>TOTAL</b>	63	26	71%	29%	89

**Source:** Field Findings

This was triangulated by data from 04 Focus Group Discussions (FGD's) according to gender. The instruments of Self-administered questionnaires, interviews, FGD's, observations and review of primary and secondary literature were used to collect data. Descriptive statistics was generated using the SPSS software while qualitative data was analyzed under the sub-themes of: unequal gender division of labour among SSF's; unfair and unequal resource ownership and control, Inadequate representation and participation in decision making bodies; poor women's access to social services according to the objective.

## **Presentation and Discussion of Findings**

This section presents the findings of the existing gender disparities and their effect on women's livelihood among small scale fishers. It runs in line with the sub-themes of the article and they include: unequal gender division of labour, unfair and unequal distribution of and allocation of resources and control, inadequate representation and participation in decision making bodies and poor women's access to social services.

### **Unequal Gender Division of Labour**

Economic occupations of people in SSF's include: the fishermen crew, the fish processors/employees, boat owners and traders. Findings revealed that women were marginalized in SSFs. There were disparities regarding the whole process of fishing whereby all the fishermen crew were male (100%), thus confirming the statement made in the FGD that "*women are culturally prohibited from going into the lake for fishing*". Much as these earned little money, majority of them were youths with no families to care for.

Majority of women (91%) versus 09% male were occupied as fish processors as employees. They earned the least income yet carried out time

consuming tasks as it involves carrying fish from the boats to the drying grounds, scaring birds away as the fish dried and packing it before dispatch to the markets. Boat ownership had more male (75%) than female (25%) just like trading in fish with 85% male versus 15% female.

In relation to economic occupation, respondents bio-data established that the majority of the women were middle aged (38%) between 31 – 40 years, married (50%), with large families (46%) of 6-8 children to care for. In the area of education, 75% female obtained up to primary level compared to men who had 55% with Secondary education. Findings further revealed that such characteristics greatly limited women's chances of getting into skilled labour force or getting involved in serious business activities. Respondents in Focus Group Discussions emphasized that low level of education limited many women to just providing unskilled labour like fish processing, restaurant attendants or market vendors from where they earn less money compared to men who have more opportunities in the employment sector. This is because fishing is a seasonal activity and one has to diversify into other income generating activities, for a living.

Gender disparities in favour of men were also identified in other income generating activities carried out by women and men apart from fishing related activities. These include farming/horticulture (60% males and 20% females), collecting of firewood for sale (13% of male) , selling in the bar/hotels (11% of females), selling charcoal , shop keeping (8% of males and 3% females) market vending and petty trade (12% males and 7% females) and prostitution (5% of females).

At household level, responsibility for household activities like child care, cooking, caring for the elderly and sick also reflected inequality in regard to who is responsible for such domestic work. Culture, nature and tradition have designed and viewed women differently from men. Women have been associated with non-economic activities (domestic work) and men with economically productive ones, Madikana (.2010). Findings revealed that in Uganda majority of respondents (87%) agreed that women were responsible for general cleaning of the home, child care, cooking, caring for the elderly and sick on which they spend most of their time. Only 6% men do assist women in such activities. Seventy percent (70%) men emphasized that men are only bread winners while women care for them and other family members. The main reason given was that culturally women are supposed to carry out such work even though it is viewed as 'not real work'. A key informant expressed that:



*“Most of the gender division of labour is because of social constructions but otherwise anybody can do any work. The problem is that women fear to be labelled a ‘kyakulassajja’ (one who grew up with a man’s character) because of doing what society does not expect one to do”.*

This is made worse by women’s low level of education, inadequate business knowledge and skills; and a negative attitude towards participation in better employment opportunities and trade.

The effect of unequal division of labour on women’s livelihood was expressed by one of the Government Officers who stated that:

*“Household gender division of labour keeps women preoccupied with unpaid domestic work of cleaning, looking for and preparing food, and caring for children, the sick and the elderly which consume their time and energy making them unable to be involved in other income generating activities”.*

All these findings give a skewed significant relationship between gender and economic occupation in favour of men. Majority of men thus were involved in actual trading of fish which has a high multiplier effect on invested funds compared to what women earn. This finding has a negative impact on women’s livelihood since the majority cannot achieve their life goals and aspirations using own financial and material resources, hence denying their families better lives in terms of good health, feeding, hygiene, housing, long life, adequate income and making relevant decisions on gender specific issues.

### **Unequal ownership, access and control of resources**

The section considers unfair and unequal ownership and control of the fishing assets, land, safe water, time, finances, credit and savings. Findings revealed that majority of the boats and other fishing gear was owned by men (76%) leaving women with only 24%. Even then, it was confirmed through FGD’s that most of these women belonged to social groups from where they had been able to collectively save money weekly for acquiring such assets. On the issue of income, majority of men (73%) earned above \$1333 weekly compared to 38% women who earned between \$15 and \$ 29 weekly. Food and other domestic needs were said to consume a bigger percentage of household expense. However, majority of women (82.3%) and minority men (30%) were spending most of their monthly income on household food stuffs. A key respondent revealed that:

*“Most of the fishermen crew and the female workers actually take snacks instead of an actual meal of food because at times they have no money to buy or prepare food for the entire family”.*

Poor feeding was reported by the Director of Kalangala HIV/AIDS Initiative NGO to have resulted into poor health with malnourished children who are vulnerable to disease.

Disparity in income also affected savings whereby only 50% fishermen crew, who earn the least income among men, were able save less than \$13.3 in an entire fishing season, compared to 97% of women fish processors /employees. This implies that the majority of the SSF's can hardly save enough money to acquire personal assets like boats, fish nets and engines so as to expand their businesses nor can they invest in other viable sources of income. Hence, even though plenty of opportunities existed, only a negligible percentage of less than 20% women were found to be engaged in alternative sources of income generation at the landing sites. This negatively affects their livelihood in terms of ability to acquire personal assets like land, houses and other investments which keeps them in the circle of poor livelihoods.

The aspect of capital investment in the fisheries business had only 40% females investing between \$250 to \$ 1750, while 70% male had invested over \$2000. Limited investment by women was attributed to fear to risk to invest their hard earned money in trade. Furthermore, majority of women lacked enough time for involvement in investments because of household burdens/roles as only 20% women compared to 60% men were involved in other income generating activities. Inadequate finance was coupled with lack of entrepreneurship/skills, land or personal houses that could be used as security in case of acquisition of a bank loan.

Resource ownership was also limited for women because of inequitable laws on property, land use/tenure rights, inheritance laws and practices. Legally, a widow is entitled to inherit only 15% of spouse's property leaving the rest to children. Findings revealed that only 19% women owned land and other assets compared to 67% men, making women unable to have control of resources or influence on resource governing laws. Acharya (1999) it was revealed that the existing bank policies in Uganda required consent of a spouse for a woman to be able to obtain a loan, which re affirms the patriarchy theory. This reflects the legally created gender disparity where banks have low confidence in women's ability to repay the loan if not assisted by men in loan management. Such was the main reason as to why a significant percentage of female respondents (67%) had never received any form of credit compared to 34% men, hence keeping them poor.

## **Inadequate Representation and Participation in Decision Making Bodies**

Findings revealed that women were underrepresented and marginalized in decision making bodies in Kalangala district. This was analysed by considering gender membership and involvement in village and group committees at the landing sites. Findings further revealed that both male and female were represented and participated as members of for Beach management units (BMU), Village Local Councils, Environment conservation, health groups, self-help income saving circles.

However, on most of these committees it was observed that women representation was inadequate compared to men. For example only 20% of members of the BMU's at Kasekulo landing site were women, while only 30% and 28% were women members on the Sanitation Committee and Village Local Council 1 respectively as shown in Table3 below.

***Table 3: Representation on Various Leadership Committees by Gender***

	<b>Sanitation Committee</b>			<b>Local Council 1</b>		
<i>Landing Sites</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
Kaaya	07(70%)	03(30%)	10	07(78%)	02(22%)	09
Kasekulo	07(70%)	03(30%)	10	06(66%)	03(33%)	09
TOTAL	14(70%)	06 (30%)	20	13	05 (28%)	18

**Source:** Field Findings.

The main reasons given by men in FGD's for such a disparity were: women fear to stand out in the community, are ignorant of their human rights, lack time due to domestic work load; existence of more men at the beaches than women and the restrictive government policies and regulations concerning membership. Women FGD's on the other hand pointed out hindrances to participation as: hindrance by spouse due to male dominancy, ignorance of the importance of participating in committees, low esteem among women; dictatorship by Committee Chairmen and lack of time due to domestic responsibilities and productive work.

Linda (2005) argues that male perception of a woman's place and role in society creates hurdles in the effectiveness of the elected women representatives on leadership committees. Many women find that they have to continue shouldering domestic burdens, in addition to duties of an elected community leader. This double burden makes it difficult for women to be effective in attending to the community work as required,

without being accused of neglecting the family. In this regard leadership and household work become difficult to balance. UPPA report of (2002) observed that inadequate representation of women on decision making bodies was resulted into:

*'Women's lack of decision making power over land, household assets and income including the existing unequal representation and participation in decision making committees have limited their participation in governance'.*

Non-participation in decision making, resource ownership, access and control therefore, give women no opportunity to work and ensure that relevant policies and intervention in the existing gender disparities are in place.

### **Poor Women's Access to Social Services**

In every society, there are basic social services that are a necessity for each individual. This paper will consider safe water, sanitation, health and education. Ellis (1998) argues that, in Africa, poverty can be explained in terms of location, lack of access to physical women have been labelled as health care givers, teachers and sanitation enforcers. This therefore implies that absence or inadequacy of any of these services becomes costly to both men and woman but more so to the later. Despite being surrounded by water, findings are that Kalangala District has a Rural Safe Water Coverage of 33% and Rural Latrine coverage of 54% (UBOS, 2008). However, only 30-52% of the respondents were using piped water at Kasekulo landing site (at a cost) while 28 – 36.4% respondents relied on boreholes which on many occasions were broken down. The majority of people use water collected directly from the lake and occasionally on the few spring wells which are located at a distance. This situation has negatively affected women's livelihood while carrying out the domestic roles of cooking, washing, bathing, and general cleaning as it has deprived them of money, time, energy and proper health.

The aspect of sanitation has had the community capacity development programme providing some services with regards to increasing safe water by supporting hygiene and sanitation promotion activities through training and monitoring water source committees. However, it was found out that existence of inadequate sanitary facilities still exist in the district. For example only ten (10) stances of public latrine existed at Kasekulo landing site for a population of 702 people where one had to pay money every time he/she visits the facility. This has resulted into majority of people to ease

themselves in the nearby bushes, implying that the hygiene and sanitation among the SSF's is still far below acceptable standards. This has negatively affected people's health, environment and general livelihood.

The subject of health among the SSF's was not any better. Study findings revealed that medical health facilities were difficult to reach, under staffed and inadequate. This was in the areas of space, medical staff, and convenient transport. It was reported that the most common diseases at the landing site are: diarrhoea, fever, typhoid and HIV/Aids and its related diseases, which clearly implied existence of poor livelihoods. Furthermore a disparity existed in caring for the sick which role was majorly left to women amidst their economic and other inabilities as pointed out precisely below that:

*"Usually it is the women who bring the sick for medication but unfortunately most of them never complete the dosage allegedly because of lack of enough money."*

As argued by Kyomuhendo (2005) and Ostergaard (1995) women in social settings were found to be more concerned about the issues of health, sanitation and hygiene compared to men as it directly impinge on their livelihood in terms of finances, time, energy, and concentration on developmental activities.

## **Conclusions, Discussion and Recommendations**

In relation to the effect of gender disparities on women's livelihood, it was concluded that gender equality is relevant on women's livelihood. However, women's livelihood was found to be poor in terms of owned money, resource ownership, time use, energy, proper health and involvement in policy making. The findings of this paper revealed that there was a low effect of gender equality on women's livelihood. The areas that were most affected were: women's occupation and income, ownership and control of resources, participation in decision making bodies and access to social services.

Much as women have a right to equal opportunity in their livelihood as mentioned above, this has not been the case. In this way, the paper therefore recommended participatory approach to have women identify what else they can do as an extra source of income alongside their domestic and fishing roles and how they can do it. Practicing gender mainstreaming would ensure equal participation in and benefit from development initiatives for both men and women.

## **Policy implication for planners and policy makers**

The main theme of the paper was to determine the effect of gender disparities on women's livelihood. A study of women's livelihood among the small scale fishers is important for planners and policy makers who should put in place gender sensitive policies and strategies to address women's specific needs in the SSF. This require building women's capacity to widen their employment opportunities, resource ownership, participation in decision making and access to relevant social services.

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# AWARENESS OF LEGISLATION AND ETHICAL PERFORMANCE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATORS

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## Abstract

*The paper discusses the effect of awareness of legislation on ethical performance of Local Government Administrators in Uganda. This paper was premised on the fact that there were intense complaints about unethical behaviours among Local Government Administrators in the country. This abounds in spite of the numerous laws that were enacted and implemented. The Objective was to analyse the effect of awareness of legislation on ethical performance of Local Government Administrators in Uganda. Using a cross-sectional survey, methods especially self-administered questionnaires; interviews; review of primary documents and secondary literature applied. The findings were that awareness of legislation had a moderate positive significant ( $r(226) = .629, p < 0.01$ ) relationship with ethical performance. Local Government Administrators were aware of the contents of the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda (1995) as the supreme law. This implied that awareness of legislation among Local Government Administrators was important for policy makers, policy implementers, practitioners and the community. So the study recommended that a combination of awareness of legislation and training in moral virtues be offered so as to improve ethical performance.*

**Keywords:** Awareness, Legislation, Performance, Administration

## Introduction

The current paper sought to analyse the effect of awareness of legislation on ethical performance of Local Government Administrators of in Uganda. This paper was premised on the fact that there were intense complaints about unethical behaviours among Local Government Administrators in the country. The unethical behaviour abounds in spite of the awareness of numerous laws that were enacted and implemented.

The role of government is to enforce awareness of legislation using various methods to attain ethical performance from local government administrators. However, this approach of enforcing ethical performance does not seem to have been effective. This is evidenced in the fact that there are numerous and regular complaints and observations about unethical performance of Local government administrators in Uganda. Nambaziira

(2007) reported that residents blasted District Local government administrators in Makindye Division over corruption and mismanagement of funds totalling to UGX300 million from road tolls. The Government of Uganda under the National Public Procurement Integrity Baseline Survey Report (2006) conducted a survey in Wakiso District and found incidences of corruption among district administrators. The report indicated that of the 51 district administrators that were investigated, 47 of them had been involved in many forms of corruption including bribery and embezzlement. Between 2001 and 2009 the IGG handled over 32 cases in Wakiso District ranging from bribery, 'ghost' payments, mismanagement of funds and properties, to questionable recruitment, corruption, forgery, inflation of salaries, false claims, misappropriation and embezzlement.

Earlier researches regarding public administration in Uganda had concluded that Local government administrators were promoting injustice, prejudice, distortions and corruption in public offices (Nsibambi, 1998 and Kanyeihamba, 2002). All the cited instances indicate that ethical performance is still an elusive issue in Uganda.

The objective of this paper was to analyse the effect of awareness of legislation on ethical performance of Local Government Administrators in Uganda. In order to streamline the focus of the paper, a correspondent hypothesis was developed as: "There is no significant relationship between awareness of legislation and ethical performance of Local Government Administrators in Uganda".

Following the objective indicated above, this paper has been organised as follows: the relevant literature to each construct in this work were reviewed and gaps were identified. The paper concept was based on an objective which was meant to reflect the effect of awareness of legislation on ethical performance. The hypothesis was formulated to be tested. This was followed by methods of data collection, measurement of research variables and the quality of research tools as well as the testing of the hypothesis stated. Finally the result of the hypothesis and a conclusion with policy implications are presented.

## **Literature Review**

Review of related literature on awareness of legislation and ethical performance was carried out to effectively develop the gaps and show the relationship between variables. This section therefore addresses the themes of the paper on awareness of legislation and expected ethical performance of administrators in Local Governments of Uganda.

## **The Concept of Awareness of Legislation**

Several writers (Buteera 2010; Bitarabeho 2003; Armstrong 2001; Reynes, 2000; Michalko 1997; Kouzes and Posner 1995; Penson 1995; Bourrie, 1995 and Jefkins 1980) emphasize that the Local Government Administrators are usually aware of the laws governing their functions. Awareness of the laws would equally make one aware of the ethical requirements in the work place. It is presumed that once laws are implemented effectively, Local Government Administrators would carry out their work ethically. The various methods used in enhancing awareness and implementation of legislation in Uganda include: workshops, seminars, circulars, press releases; publicity through mass media, training, investigation and Prosecution. So, the question is, how does awareness of the laws affect the promotion of moral virtues among local government administrators?

Awareness of legislation is concerned with the acquisition of information about different laws. It goes beyond having information about an issue to include appropriation of that information in such a way that it can be applied in various situations. For instance, ethical values that Local Government Administrators are expected to uphold are clearly pointed out in the various laws of Uganda. The Standing Orders (2000) requires Local Government Administrators to have virtues that lead them to maintain a high standard of personal conduct both in carrying out their duties and in their private lives. Local government administrators are further required by the same law to make decisions and implement them in an objective manner without bias or attaching personal interests. In the same spirit, Local Government Act (1997) emphasizes: transparency, fairness, integrity, impartiality, accountability and financial credibility.

Transparency requires activities or actions to be carried out in an open manner so that its scope and limitations are easily seen and understood by all interested parties. Transparency is expected of Local Government Administrators at the district level just as it is also expected at other levels. This means that the activities carried out by the Local Government Administrators for example, allocation of resources, use of funds, promotion of staff, and recruitment should be done in a transparent way. Fairness demands treatment of people according to what they deserve. In this way fairness is similar to justice which implies that people must be given what they deserve or have a right to. This may be in form of treatment, receipt of commodities, or enjoyment of freedoms and this may be beneficial or may be harmful. Fairness or justice is expected of all Local Government Administrators in the conduct of their duties. Local

Governments Act (1997) states that Local Government Administrators make budgets and financial statement, advertise all jobs and tenders. This has ethical implications in that the Local Government Administrators are required to be objective and impartial in their decisions at work place.

The Public Finance Act (2000); Local Government Financial and Accounting Regulations (1998) require district officials to make decisions and account for the funds they get every financial year. The ethical implication of this is that the Local Government Administrators who deal in financial matters of various departments must keep proper books of accounts with integrity, diligence, professionalism and financial credibility. For example they are expected to use the money well without embezzling it; they are expected to supervise all the activities in the district diligently.

The Public Procurement and Disposal of Public Asset Act (2003) require Local Government Administrators to comply with the law. This was intended to promote transparency, integrity and demonstrable value for money. The ethical implications are that the Local Government Administrators must be faithful, trustworthy in procuring works, goods and services which are of value.

### **The Role of Government in Enforcing and Policing Existing Legislation**

Government enforces laws through the following methods: workshops and seminars (Michalko 1997 and Bourrie 1995), circulars (Local Government Act 1997); press releases, publicity through mass media (Inspectorate of Government 2005), training (Public Service Policy 2006: Armstrong 2001 and Baum 1996); investigation and Prosecution (Inspector General of Government Act 2009 and Bitarabeho 2003).

#### ***Workshops and Seminars***

Local Government Administrators need to be trained to enhance their creativity and innovation on how to implement the requirements of laws. They need training orientation through workshops and seminars for creativity, communication, collaboration, conflict resolution (Reynes, 2000), improvisation and humour sessions (Bourrie, 1995). A workshop is a task-oriented meeting organised around a particular topic or activity and can be organised internally or externally by other institutions and civil society organisations. Workshops and Seminars target Local Government Administrators and other stakeholders to inform and solicit opinions on methods of implementing legislation. For instance between 2004 and 2006 workshops on “strategic/ contemporary challenges in the fight against corruption” were organised at regional level throughout the country to

disseminate the findings of the National Integrity Survey (2003) and discussed a way forward against corruption.

### ***Circulars***

In the Local Government Act (1997), circulars are statements of government policy intended to guide local councils in applying clear policies, consistent procedures and effective risk management strategies. Circulars are also used by the Heads of Department/Section for monitoring the performance of Local Government Administrators at the district. They are brief and address only specific matters and as such, are used *to* relay information and promote accountability by public servants.

### ***Publicity through mass media***

Publicity involves awareness raising among the Local Government Administrators and other members of the public using mass media. For instance, programmes using different radio stations and print media, to educate the public about the evils of corruption and their constitutional rights and to access civil services without having to pay bribes or any other extra costs. Further, the public is made aware of their civic duties and responsibilities to demand for accountability of public funds, value for money and report corrupt practices, mismanagement or abuse of public office to Inspectorate of Government (*Inspectorate of Government*, 2005). In Uganda, public awareness programmes were undertaken by Inspectorate of Government using radio and television programmes; publication of booklets, flyers and newspapers to educate the public about the nature and evils of corruption. For example during 2005-2008, the public awareness programmes were funded by African Development Bank through the Institutional Support Project for Good Governance (IG-Report, 2007). Such programmes continue to encourage the public to report unethical behaviour among civil servant and to create dialogue and interaction with IG in promoting public sector accountability.

### ***Training***

In Uganda, the *Public Service Training Policy* (2006) usually addresses several issues by putting in place transparent, fair, cost-effective and realistic systems and procedures in the management of training in the Public Service. The Policy aims at building and maintaining the Public Service as an efficient and professionally competent administrative machinery of Government, capable of originating and implementing Government Programmes. Hence, training is the process of providing learners with specific knowledge and skills to enable them perform specific

public tasks (Armstrong 2001). This is supported by Baum (1996) who points out that training is a systematic process through which enterprises' local government administrators gain knowledge and develop skills by instruction and practical activities that result in improved corporate performance. Training is an educational process which utilises systemic and organised procedures by which Local Government Administrators learn technical knowledge and skills for a definite purpose as required by the laws.

### ***Press releases***

A press release is a means of helping local governments improve services for their constituents, share information internally and across governments nationwide. As governance structures that are closest to the people, local governments are expected to provide essential services to their respective communities. Press releases further offer dashboards for government officials and citizens making operations more transparent and encouraging open, effective government (*Inspectorate of Government Act*, 2005). Press release are normally prepared for local authority of different organisations with identified own needs and problems (Black, 1993). Press releases make the Local Government Administrators of the district to be responsible for ones decisions or actions and to be expected to explain when asked or as a matter of procedure and routine. The expectation of society therefore is to provide an accurate explanation of what was decided upon and done by Local Government Administrators.

### ***Investigation and Prosecution***

Under Paper 230 (1) of the *Constitution of the Republic of Uganda* (1995), the IGG has powers to investigate, cause investigation, arrest or cause arrest, prosecute, or cause prosecution in respect of cases involving corruption, abuse of authority or of public office. Corruption cases are defined in the IGG Act (2009) and include embezzlement, bribery, nepotism, influence peddling, theft of public funds or assets fraud, forgery, causing financial or property loss and false accounting in public affairs. The District Public Prosecutor in collaboration with the IGG does not investigate or arrest but relies on the police for investigations and arrest. Bitarabehe (2003) confirmed that investigation is geared towards providing inaccurate accountability, misuse public funds adequately and providing partial services to the public. Investigations normally arise from different categories of reports for instance, pointing out inadequate capacity in local governments to handle the devolved functions and responsibilities, reducing locally raised revenue in districts and corruption among others.

The Civil Service Standing Orders (2000) state that failure to comply with established legislation by local governments, the District Service Commission shall be the disciplinary authority and is supposed to investigate any charge against a public officer, who is in turn supposed to show cause why one should not be disciplined. If guilty, a public officer is punished either by dismissal, demotion, and deduction in salary, stoppage or deferment of increment, reprimands or recovery of the amount of loss by government against the officer due to his conduct. Where the subject of an investigation is found to have committed a criminal offence, investigations may result into prosecution. Where the culprit is found to have breached the Leadership Code or is involved in administrative malpractice, disciplinary action in varying degrees from a warning to dismissal may be recommended by the Ministry of Ethics and Integrity (2010).

The capacity to exercise discretion well is not merely the result of thinking or wanting to do things well (Arendt, 2003). It involves a prior judgement of what is right that includes an accurate assessment of the situation. As one of the methods used for Local Government Administrators to implement legislation, it is mandatory that failure to comply with established legislation, the disciplinary authority investigates any charge against a public officer, who is in turn supposed to show cause why one should not be disciplined (Civil Service Standing Orders 2000). If guilty, a public officer is punished either by dismissal, demotion, and deduction in salary, stoppage of increment, deferment of increment, reprimands or recovery of the amount of loss by government against the officer due to his conduct (Standing Orders, 2000). All the above methods are aimed at ensuring local administrators internalise the legislation and perform ethically.

### **Ethical Performance of Local Government Administrators**

Ethical performance refers to application of ethical principles or values when carrying out technical performance or work. Ethical performance of Local Government Administrators is assessed using ethical principles like accountability, transparency and integrity.

#### ***Accountability***

In this paper, the concept of 'accountability' is considered to be: providing accurate financial reports, use of resources for intended purposes, giving service to the people, providing accurate communication and responsiveness to people's needs (*Government of Uganda* 1997, 2000, 2005). Ashaba (2000) argues that holders of a civil service office should be



accountable for the decisions and actions to the public and must submit themselves to whatever scrutiny is appropriate to the office. Further, Local government administrators are supposed to make decisions about the funds they get and give explanation to the government every financial year.

Accountability requires defence or justification of one's conduct to an audience that has reward or sanction authority, and where rewards or sanctions are perceived to be contingent upon audience evaluation of such conduct (Buckley cited in Tetlock, 1992). Individuals are held accountable by laws, rules and expectations, the way their behaviour or performance is evaluated (Mitchell, 1993), and by mechanisms of social control, including expectations communicated by salient others.

(Cadain, 2003; Edwards and Hulme, 2003 and Muthein, 2000) contend that accountability is the answerability for one's actions or behaviour. These scholars posit that accountability involves development of objective standards of evaluation to assist in evaluating the performance of duties by individuals and units within organizations. The effectiveness of accountability depends on monitoring performance and incentive system. However, in the civil service, accountability means holding an individual or unit responsible for performance measured as objectively as possible (Aucoin and Heintzman, 2000). Burke and Minassians (2003), noted that public officials are accountable in that they must explain to their constituency their actions and reasons for taking these actions. They are liable, legally and morally, for omissions or commissions of duties entrusted to them. Fox and Meyer (1995) argue that the responsibility of government and its agents towards the public is to achieve previously set objectives and to account for them in public. It is also regarded as a commitment required from public officials individually and collectively to accept public responsibility for their action and inaction. In this case, the burden of accountability rests on each public functionary to act in the public interest and according to his or her conscience, with solutions for every matter based on professionalism and participation (Fox and Meyer, 1995).

Similarly, Government of Uganda under the *Public Finance Act* (2000) – Cap 193 Section 23, and *Local Government Act* (1997) –Section 90 A requires the Local Government Administrators to be accountable, keep proper books of accounts with professionalism, diligence and financial credibility. However, *cases* have been reported many times of senior public officials

embezzling huge amounts of public funds intended to pay staff salaries and allowances, finance projects, repair of government vehicles. This compares favourably with Kisubi (1996) who found out that officials embezzled hospital drugs and equipment, signed inflated purchase and procurement contracts for commissions paid in the overseas bank account. In this case rules on public procurement are circumvented through collusion among public officials and suppliers. This lack of accountability resulted in officials misappropriating public funds with impunity knowing that they would not be asked to account for the money under their control or they could always plead that the documents were looted and therefore missing.

### **Transparency**

With regard to the civil service, transparency means that holders of public office should be as open as possible about all the decisions and actions they take. They should give reasons for their decisions and restrict information only when the wider public interest demands it (Chapman, 2000). Radical transparency in management demands that all decision making should be carried out publicly.

Transparency is widely recognised as a core principle of good governance. According to Kailasam, Geeta and et al (2004), transparency means sharing information and acting in an open manner. Free access to information is a key element in promoting transparency. Information, however, must be timely, relevant, accurate and complete for it to be used effectively. Transparency is also considered essential for controlling corruption in public life. Civic engagement is understood as the active participation of citizens in public life and their contribution to the common good. The level of trust in the government and public agencies is a key factor that determines the extent and quality of civic engagement. Loss of trust can lead to disengagement of citizens and discourage participation of communities as well as the private sector in functions such as public service delivery, or even in democratic processes such as elections.

In essence, transparency is about opening up government's records to public scrutiny, and arming citizens with a vital tool to tell them about what the government does and how effectively. Transparency in government organizations makes Local Government Administrators function more objectively, thereby enhancing predictability of decision-making and ruling out arbitrary decisions. Transparency enables citizens to participate in the governance process effectively. In that sense,

transparency becomes the key to strengthening participatory democracy and ushering in people-centred governance. It empowers the poor and vulnerable to get information about public policies and actions and leads to their welfare (Cook and Wall, 1980).

Responsiveness often holds the key to successful involvement of citizens and the private sector. Local Government Administrators who share their assessments and plans with citizens and seek their views on a regular basis can be far more effective ethical performers in implementing development programmes with participation of stakeholders (Briggs, 2007).

Contrary to the above, public accounting for public expenditure is usually made difficult by a disregard for timely and accurate recording and reporting of transactions, inadequate maintenance of ledgers and asset registers, passing of controls and lack of accountability and discipline. All this has resulted into lack of transparency by Local Government Administrators of Wakiso District in financial management leading to the financial type of corruption which is most rampant as reported by the World Bank (1998).

### *Integrity*

In order to manage the conduct of local government administrators, it entails having in place – among other systems – an overall national integrity strategy, sound human resource management practices, and comprehensive disclosure procedures. The United Nation Development of South Africa (2001) survey observes that although some African countries espouse a national integrity strategy or broad ethics or anti-corruption policies, few seem to have coordinating strategies in place. Similarly, measures for guiding and managing the behaviours of local government administrators require enforcement procedures to be effective. The government, as the employer, must have a way of enforcing minimal standards, not only to punish violations but also to serve as a deterrent for others contemplating similar actions. Essentially, managing the conduct of local government administrators means being able to monitor their behaviour, and being able to detect any systematic failures that allow high degrees of misconduct in order to take prompt remedial action.

Integrity is a primary determinant of interpersonal trust (Yukl, 2002). Integrity refers to the trusted party's reputation for honesty and truthfulness (Den and Koopman, 2002). Indicators of integrity are the extent to which one is honest and truthful rather than deceptive. Another

indicator of integrity is keeping promises. A further indicator is the extent to which a person can be trusted not to indiscriminately repeat something said in the utmost confidence. Integrity also means taking responsibility for one's action and decisions (Yukl, 2002).

True integrity goes beyond loyalty to the power structure. Integrity includes loyalty to the part of oneself that cares about family, service to society and protecting the grandchildren's environment (Pinchot and Pinchot, 1997). Integrity within an organization needs also to be defined. Organizational integrity relates to the human side of the business and reflects the sum total of its people's integrity. The same basic values are shared by virtually everyone in the organization. The local government administrators know, understand and trust each other, because they share same basic values, attributes, norms and standards. Fick (2005) contends that integrity is one of the most important and often-cited of virtue terms. The concept of integrity has to do with perceived consistency of actions, values, methods, measures, principles, expectations and outcome. When used as a virtue term, integrity refers to a quality of a person's character.

Hulme and Sanderatne (2008) assert that speaking about integrity can emphasize the wholeness or intactness of a moral stance or attitude. Some of the wholeness may also emphasize commitment and authenticity. In the context of accountability, integrity serves as a measure of willingness to adjust value system to maintain or improve its consistency when an expected result appears incongruent with observed outcome. Some regard integrity as a virtue in that they see accountability and moral responsibility as necessary tools for maintaining such consistency.

An important indicator of integrity is the extent to which one is honest and truthful rather than deceptive. Another indicator of integrity is keeping promises. A further indicator is the extent to which a person can be trusted not to indiscriminately repeat something said in the utmost confidence. Integrity also means taking responsibility for one's action and decisions (Yukl, 2002).

Integrity can also be developed in a person. People are not deviant in their very nature. Certain circumstances, however, are conducive for the development of factors associated with that kind of behaviour. Some people are more vulnerable than others to influence and change towards deviant behaviour similarly some people are more responsive to corrective action (Fick, 2002). Further on, integrity is about the ethics civil servants are required to maintain while in public office in order to preserve the public

confidence in civil service. Integrity requires Local government administrators to maintain high ethical standards by being honest, trustworthy, frank but unobtrusive, principled and morally upright to avoid bringing discredit upon the civil service (Sadig and Olowu, 1993). To be morally upright, civil servants should not indulge in corrupt activities, which may discredit the service. Moreover, there are institutional morals involving loyalty upwards and downwards, the manners of disagreement and resignation, all kinds of conscience and ethics.

Personal and organizational integrity in business is such an important value to hold a society together. Civil service seems impossible without integrity since an organization is the integration of different actors and factors. A person of integrity in a civil service is an asset to that civil service. It is often easy to recognise a person of integrity. A person of integrity distinguishes oneself by a good relationship with other people, indeed with one's entire environment, whose moral liberty and right are respected (Opio, 1996). However, to command such an integrative power requires boldness to meet and face challenges. This is because integrity entails acting according to principles such as justice, selflessness, truthfulness, even under circumstances which threaten these virtues. Despite such challenges, Ugandan Local government administrators in general, and Wakiso District Local government administrators in particular, need integrity very urgently.

As Opio (1996) puts it, the importance and urgency of integrity within the Ugandan and African context needs no elaboration. It is clear that crimes such as embezzlement, fraud, corruption, etc, stand in sharp contradiction to the demands of justice, fairness, honesty, and more others, as moral principles. However, the transgression of a moral principle or a prescribed code of behaviour would in itself be nothing more than unfortunate, if it were not for that fact that an act of injustice, dishonesty, fraud or corruption impairs the wholeness both of the economic community and of the person who engages in such an activity.

Therefore, integrity in civil service is nothing other than maintaining the wholeness and completeness of a person acting in civil service and of a particular district itself. This means therefore, that Local government administrators have a duty to place district goals in the larger contexts of the goals of life and the interest of society which the district intends to serve.

It should be put in mind that civil services arise from a voluntary choice of employment, rather than from compulsion. As in other forms of employment, civil service is characterized by privileges and obligation basically essential in the conduct of public affairs. By becoming a public servant, a person assumes these obligations which include administering laws to which one's duties pertain, rendering faithful service to effect the aims and obligations of Government, implementing lawful decisions, advising one's political or social master and, above all, serving the public diligently and impartially (Cruise and Brannon, 2002). Impartiality means that staffs of the district are not supposed to serve with prejudice or bias. All Local government administrators are supposed to be seen to be objective and should put the interests of Government above their private interests. This imposes an obligation to be fair, honest and free of conflicts of interest. Local government administrators are supposed to refrain from certain actions and behaviour. But in many other situations in life, conflicts between these obligations and the public servants' private interests and conscience do occur. A public servant, however, is required to reconcile one's private interests and conscience with these obligations.

### **Developing the paper concept**

Basing on the literature reviewed, there are themes on awareness of legislation and civil service but they do not emphasise the relationship between awareness of legislation and ethical performance. For instance (Buteera 2010; Bitarabehe 2003; Armstrong 2001 and Reynes, 2000) emphasis the Local Government Administrators awareness of the laws using various methods; emphasised legislation in civil service mainly without relating it to ethical performance. From the literature review, the contribution of the authors have been put together to conceptualize the relationship between awareness of legislation and ethical performance of Local Government Administrators. The theme of paper was constructed to reflect the relationship between awareness of legislation and ethical performance. The literature accessed did not reflect a coherent relationship that brings the two variables together. For example Bitarabehe (2003) and Armstrong (2001) all emphasized awareness of legislation as a basis for ethical values in public administration. Indeed a number of laws have been enacted and implemented in Wakiso District, Uganda. In spite of that ethical performance has remained a concern as indicated by various issues outlined in the problem statement.

## **Population and Sample Design**

The target population consisted of Local Government Administrators who were categorized by sectors: Finance, Engineering and Construction, Administration, Health Centres and Education. Local Government Administrators in the above sectors participate in providing accountability, distribute resources, provide services; give information; handle resourcing in the district; receive and control public funds. Their selection was motivated by the fact that they were deemed to be in a better position to provide the required data for the paper.

Purposive sampling was used to select specific Heads of Department and the Directors since these sectors were few and known. The heads and directors were the right respondents to give the information from their respective sectors. This is a judgemental sampling whereby samples are picked on the presumption that they would satisfy the research objectives (White, 2002). As the sample involved several issues of awareness of legislation and ethical performance, it can be contented that this purposive sampling was of the homogenous type. It demands focusing on specific groups of people (Sekaran, 2003). There was a deliberate purpose to focus on the specific groups of Local Government Administrators to obtain the data.

Apart from the Heads of Department and Directors, the remaining population of interest consisted of 2,616. Since the sample size was 226 out of 2,616, a simple random sampling was used. Simple random sampling was preferred because the individuals to be included in the sample were to be given equal chance.

## **Research Design and Data Collection**

A cross sectional research design was adopted for this paper. This is where data is gathered just once from a cross section of sources for purposes of answering research questions (Sekaran, 2003). A cross-sectional survey is the most commonly used research method in social research (Amin, 2005) and can produce data which permits the establishment of causal relationships (Sarantakos, 2005). The cross sectional design required one to use a number of data collection methods and collecting information from a cross section of respondent (Sekaran, 2003). This research used a self-rated structured questionnaire as survey instrument to analyse the effect of awareness of legislation on ethical performance of Local Government Administrators in Uganda. Besides the questionnaire, interview guide, primary and secondary document analyses were also used to gather more information from respondents.

This paper used a quantitative approach because it provides the fundamental connection between empirical observation and mathematical expression of quantitative relationship. The quantitative approach also enabled the paper to work out the relationships between variables. The main benefit of quantitative and qualitative approaches is that they allow the strengths and weakness of each technique to be addressed and produce more convincing research findings.

To ensure quality of research validity and reliability, tests were carried out in respect of the scales developed for the paper variables. The content validity index (CVI) test yielded 0.87. The CVI of 0.8 was higher than the popular cut-off point of 0.6 (Amin, 2005). This implied that the questions were valid and measured the paper variables more appropriately. The results yielded reliability levels for seven variables as reported in Table 1

Table 1: Reliability

Variables	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Awareness Legislation	8	.870
Ethical performance	28	.954
<b>Total</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>.911</b>

The average Cronbach alpha coefficient was 0.91. The reliability's Cronbach alpha which is as high as 80% is good because it is above the usually accepted higher level of 75% (Sullivan, 2001). It is further held that the higher the coefficients are, the better the instrument (Sekaran, 2003). However, reliability which is greater than 95% is not desirable because it suggests that items may be entirely redundant. Given the fact that the above coefficients were high, it is appropriate to infer that the scales used in the paper were consistent and reliable.

### Method of Data Analysis

Specifically inferential and descriptive statistics were generated using the SPSS software version 17.0; Pearson's Correlation Coefficient(r) was used to establish the magnitude of the relationship between awareness of legislation and ethical performance.

### Results and Interpretation

The hypothesis (H<sub>01</sub>) stated that "There is no significant effect of awareness of legislation on ethical performance of Local Government Administrators. A simple linear regression matrix was carried out and gave confirmatory results: Adj. R<sup>2</sup> = .392 = 39%. The results as shown in Table 2.



**Table 2:** Regression Model with ethical performance as dependent variable

*Model Summary*

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.629 <sup>a</sup>	.395	.392	8.592

a. Predictors: (Constant), legislations

In order to determine the effect of legislation on ethical performance of Local Government Administrators, a simple linear regression test was done and the model predicted 39.2% of the variance in legislation. The results revealed that legislation a significant predictor of ethical performance of Local Government Administrators. The results further indicated a significant relationship between awareness of legislation and ethical performance of Local Government Administrators in Table 3

**Table 3:** Relationship between Awareness of Legislation and Ethical performance.  
*Coefficient Table*

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 Awareness of Legislation	4.338	2.367		1.833	.068
	8.918	.737	.629	12.097	.000

a. Dependent Variable: EP

As can be read from table 3, the findings of this analysis revealed a moderate positive relationship between legislation and ethical performance of Local Government Administrators. This is shown by the value of the standardized coefficient of beta value equal to .629 while the p-value is less than 0.01 suggesting that ethical performance is significantly dependent on awareness of Legislation.

The relationship between awareness of legislation and ethical performance of Local Government Administrators was a moderate positive one with ( $r(226) = .629, P < 0.01$ ). Awareness of legislation accounted for 63% of the ethical performance of Local Government Administrators. The remaining 37% which is uncounted for is explained by other factors. The effect was significant to the performance of Local Government Administrators. The result is partly explained by the fact that people fear to be arrested, interdicted or fear to act illegally. As a result some activities in

the district are carried out because of fear, which has become a culture. Apparently this fear has resulted into recruitment on merit, advertisement of jobs and provision of accurate accountability among other things. This does not necessary mean that it is their ethical convention and it may require something to be done to enhance the moral virtues of Local Government Administrators.

### **Conclusion, Discussions and Recommendation**

In relation to the effect of awareness of legislation on ethical performance of Local Government Administrators, it was concluded that awareness of legislation is relevant to the performance of Local Government Administrators. However ethical performance of Local Government Administrators is based on fear of the law which means that Local Government Administrators do not perform ethically as required by the laws. This means that there is still need to inculcate moral virtues among Local Government Administrators through training. The findings of this paper revealed that there was a moderate significant relationship between awareness of legislation and ethical performance of Local Government Administrators and that legislation is a major predictor of ethical performance of Local Government Administrators. Much as Local Government Administrators are expected to exhibit ethical performance which is indicated by full accountability, transparency and integrity, there are still unethical tendencies observed among the Local Government Administrators in Wakiso District Uganda, where Local Government Administrators have failed to comply with what the law requires them to do.

The paper therefore recommended training which can help the Local Government Administrators to acquire some of the moral virtues at work. This training would be organised and supervised by the District Personnel Officer while the actual training will be carried out by specialists in ethics and public administration. Training will help the Local Government Administrators acquire and retain some of the moral virtues like full accountability, integrity and transparency. The training programme in ethics for Local Government Administrators will be categorised according to different professions since each group experiences different ethical challenges. The duration of the training will be one to two weeks at the district headquarters. Preliminary training arrangements like identifying the training needs, the particular Local Government Administrators to be trained at a time and specialists in ethics and public administration to carry out training will be done by the District Personnel Officer. A proposed

training programme in moral virtues for Local Government Administrators is shown in Table 3.

**Table 4:** *A proposed training programme in moral virtues for Local Government Administrators*

No	Training programme	Training objective	Content
1	Practical merit application skills for Local Government Administrators.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) To enhance participants appreciation and capacity to apply transparency.</li> <li>b) To provide Local Govt Administrators with the chance for advancement.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) The legal basis of transparency.</li> <li>b) Objectives of transparency.</li> <li>c) Promotion.</li> <li>d) Strategies of practicing transparency.</li> <li>e) Challenges of practicing transparency.</li> </ul>
2	Legal provisions and building responsiveness and accountability in public service.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) To promote transparency, honesty and integrity</li> <li>b) To enhance the usage of public resources and answerability.</li> <li>c) To encourage public involvement in fostering accountability in public service.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Rules and obligations of accountability.</li> <li>b) Salient tips in practicing honesty, transparency and integrity.</li> <li>c) Policy framework for dealing with misconduct.</li> <li>d) Promoting loyalty and handling client's complaints.</li> </ul>
3	Setting and accomplishing work target	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) To sensitize participants</li> <li>b) On the relevancy of self drive legal requirements at workplaces.</li> <li>c) To enhance skills in needs identification, priority setting and time management.</li> <li>d) To develop public servants skills in setting SMART objectives and achievable outcomes.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Understanding legal requirements in relation to integrity in the civil service.</li> <li>b) Relevancy of setting priorities and time management.</li> <li>c) Identification and satisfaction of client needs in the public service.</li> <li>d) Management by walking around (MBWA).</li> </ul>

The method of delivering the training can take different forms, depending on the topic at hand. It can take the form of lectures, case studies, role play and simulation and it can be delivered through guided syndicate group discussions.

The lecture method will provide a conducive learning environment where trainees listen, observe and perhaps take notes thus enabling them acquire specific factual information about moral virtues. In that way Local Government Administrators will be made to understand that the most important requisite for any public servant is to develop an inner sense of professional responsibility.

Training in moral virtues will also involve the use of case studies. These will be used to stimulate situations for making strategic decisions, rather than the day to day decisions that occur in the in-basket. They will require groups of Local Government Administrators to work together to analyze a "case" that has been written on a particular situation or problem so as to find a solution. Case studies will also allow Local Government Administrators to apply new knowledge and skills for solving complex ethical dilemmas.

Similarly, role play and simulation can be used whereby Local Government Administrators who are actors in the role play are provided with the general description of the situation, a description of their roles and the problems they face. The role play process provides Local Government Administrators with an opportunity to explore their feelings, gain insight about their attitudes and concerns and increase problem solving skills. It will further enable Local Government Administrators interpret government policies according to a personal sense of right and wrong, thus practicing one's loyalty towards work.

Group discussion is another training method for Local Government Administrators which encourages interaction between the trainer and the trainees or the trainee themselves. This will provide an opportunity for exchange of ideas and the sharing of experiences on matters pertaining to public service integrity, accountability, responsiveness, transparency, and "customer service orientation". Local Government Administrators using this method engage in a conversation on a specific topic which they had been given well ahead of the discussion time. In this way they will be able to gather the necessary information. This method encourages critical informed questioning from the Local Government Administrators, provides a forum at which individuals and groups could undertake frank

assessments of their personalities, and come to realistic conclusions on the scope and possibilities for character reformation. This will assist the Local Government Administrators to explore and understand more fully the nature of their personal values, as they relate to their public responsibilities.

This variety of training methods will help Local Government Administrators understand ethical issues. Since using circulars, prosecution, press release and workshops alone tends to make people fear to act unethically, training people in moral virtues will change their character to become more ethical. Training is preferred because at the end of it, Local Government Administrators will be evaluated to assess achievement of training objectives. This will be accompanied by self-administered regular target performance appraisals while at work. Evaluation will also be done by the superiors using 'management by walking around' (MBWA) and staff performance appraisals. This is purposed to assess change in Local Government Administrators' character at work resulting from training and to identify any other weaknesses to be addressed in future.

### **Policy Implications**

The main theme of the paper was to establish if there was a significant relationship between Awareness of Legislation and Ethical Performance of Local Government Administrators, in Wakiso Local Government, Uganda. A paper of ethical performance among Local Government Administrators is important for policy makers, policy implementers, practitioners and the community.

### **Policy Implication for Central Government and Local Governments**

The central government and local governments should formulate a policy under which ethics is given as much emphasis as the law. The policy should lead to a comprehensive Code of Conduct to be followed by all Local Government Administrators. It is presumed that a combination of awareness of legislation and training in moral virtues would bring about improved ethical performance especially if they are supported or backed by both national and local government policies.

### **Future research**

Since the research recommended promoting virtues among Local Government Administrators through training, future research could evaluate the impact of training on ethical behaviour of Local Government Administrators using post test designs with longitudinal design. This will

be intended to verify effectiveness of training and to plan strategies of rolling out the activity in other districts as a control measure for ethical performance.

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# BRAND PERFORMANCE SURVEY IN UNIVERSITIES OF UGANDA: DOES UGANDA MARTYRS UNIVERSITY MEASURE UP?

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## **Abstract**

*The growing competition among institutions of higher learning has raised the need to be concerned about brand performance. Uganda Martyrs University (UMU) commits a lot of money towards marketing the University yet there has been concern that the current marketing strategies are not adequate enough to offer them the necessary publicity and awareness that it deserves. This survey was undertaken to understand how the UMU brand is performing within the framework of customer values and against competing brands. The survey adapted the 5As brand measurement system to examine brand performance metrics explained as brand awareness (recognition), acquaintance and association (Reputation), and allegiance and appraisal (Preference).*

*Using a selection of 15 universities, 16 districts in Uganda and a sample of 320 respondents the cross-sectional survey design explored and examined UMU's brand performance on the metrics of recognition, reputation and preference. The findings revealed that UMU is regarded number one as a faith based institution and recognized for high moral standards in Uganda. It is also among the top five Ugandan universities with outstanding academic reputation. We recommend that UMU's Courses, marketing, publicity and networking be adapted to the strength of faith recognition, moral standards and academic reputation.*

**Keywords:** Brand, Performance, Survey, University

## **Introduction**

The National Council of Higher Education-Uganda (NCHE) Report (2011) showed that by 2010, the number of universities in Uganda was twenty nine. Of these, five were public whilst twenty four were private universities. The most recent government statistics show that Uganda has forty five universities (MoES, 2013). These institutions have found themselves in an increasingly competitive environment leading to a 'reputation race', greater diversity and the need for marketing. Uganda Martyrs University (UMU) is one of the leading Universities in Uganda that has made tremendous efforts to build her institutional image. Marketing and communication has enabled UMU to advance her reputation and brand, to encourage community engagement and reinforce the Universities relevance in the lives of key stakeholders.

There is need to let the outer community to know and learn more about Uganda martyrs university. The university has its strength in terms of the graduates who are now employed in various organizations and it has opportunities as reflected in the number of applicants wishing to join the university so as to undertake various courses. However the university should be able to respond to the educational demands of the public, which keep on changing and offer the necessary courses so that it can maintain and improve its role as a development partner to the nation.

This paper provides an overview of the state of Umu brand performance and suggests the suitable strategies to enhance the University Brand. These strategies and actions were determined by evaluating the changing needs of the diverse student body through current research, student survey results as well as past Umu's marketing and awareness activities, experiences and efforts.

### **Background of Umu:**

Umu is a Catholic founded, faith-based, not-for-profit private university established in 1993 and officially opened on 18th October 1994, and owned by the Uganda Episcopal Conference (UEC). Umu received a Civil Charter on 2nd April 2005 from the government of Uganda to legitimize its existence and recognize the fact that it had attained the required university standards. Uganda Martyrs University is fully recognized by the Ministry of Education & Sports in Uganda and its degrees are conferred autonomously.

The present student population is 5,648 including 1,796 who are resident on campus. The other 3,852 are on distance learning programs and part-time postgraduate courses in Kampala and various other parts of Uganda (Umu report, 2013). Umu'S Main Campus is located in Mpigi district, Mawokota County, Nkozi Sub County, about 82kms from the city and 3kms off the Kampala-Masaka highway. It is situated along the Equator with an environmentally friendly Campus; ideal for study, learning and reflection and a beautiful view of Lake Victoria.

### **Purpose of the Survey**

The focus of this research assignment was to examine Umu brand performance in Uganda. Specifically the survey was designed to:

- i. To examine Uganda Martyrs University's brand recognition in different regions of Uganda.
- ii. To analyze Uganda Martyrs University's brand reputation in various regions of Uganda.

- iii. To assess Uganda Martyrs University's brand preference in various regions of Uganda.
- iv. To recommend the necessary adjustments in current strategies and to propose new strategies.

### **Review of Related Literature**

Branding has ceased to be a reserve for business corporations but for all categories of institutions including colleges and universities. Traditionally, a brand can be seen as a 'trademark', a 'logo' or Symbol but this is a narrow and erroneous view (Kotler, 2010). In a more compressive view a brand is 'the collection of features' that make an institution unique. A university brand encompasses what it "is," what it "stands for," and what it is going to be known for, hence the need for precision, consistency and internal commitment to the brand (Wæraas, and Solbakk, 2009). Branding is the process of creating a unique and suitable visual image of an organization, reflecting its purpose and consistently using the visual image in all correspondences (Rosen, 2014). Branding has several components including the "wordmark" - name or shorthand name of an organization, colour schemes, images and mission descriptions often combined to create a logo.

Branding is known for creating instant recognition of an organization's name within target audiences, differentiating an organization from its competitors, promoting the unique purpose of the organization and establishing an emotional connection with current and prospective stakeholders for their trust and support (Rosen, 2014). The success of the highest performing universities globally is directly linked to good reputation due to appropriate branding and closely connected to the value of distinctiveness. In times where parents are financially cautious, universities are being encouraged to create more distinct brand identities. Most universities have not yet figured out how to excel in a marketplace where they all offer the same basic service, i.e. teaching and research. Basically a brand enables a university to achieve its strategic goals through being memorable, authentic, and clear about the value proposition to its stakeholders (Wolfgang, 2013).

University leaders are compelled to re-think about genuine and strategic branding that's ultimately critical to bottom-line revenues, target market engagement, student enrolment and retention, and donor relations. Branding is a source of competitive advantage and helps organizations define their vision and mission. According to Mersino (2013), universities that fail to brand appropriately risk; decreased revenue, internal

misalignment, leadership tensions, continuation of outdated programs and services, and the continuing battle of competing priorities. Brand success depends on how well they focus, define, and have their brand positioning guide all that they do (Thornton and Shannon, 2014).

Given the ever increasing competition, demanding students and compliance requirements, quality education is no longer the only success factor. Survival of universities will largely depend on how well they sell their name (Abbas, 2014). A lot can be learned from the famous Mark Twain's quote according to which "Many a small thing has been made large by right kind of advertisement" otherwise many historic institutions despite training the best graduates, may live for centuries with stumpy reputation. Pull strategies are required to reposition the brand and its awareness in general. However an important factor is to create and sustain customer brand preference. Business leaders are often obsessed with their company's brand image; leaders in higher education likewise are pre-occupied with their school's perceived image and value equation in the marketplace. In many cases, though, educational brand strategy is limited to marketing and advertising campaigns. An effective brand management strategy should have a brand promise and stakeholder commitment to maximize that promise.

However, critics still argue that branding and marketing communications are big business practices having nothing to do with learning and real-time challenges facing university leaders (Wæraas, and Solbakk, 2009). Collegiate ranking methodologies, accused of being flawed, complicate further the task of building an educational brand. Several university leaders have declined participating in ranking surveys, yet others reluctantly conform adding to the misalignment of academic perceptions and brands. Running a university like a business may be considered to be somewhat ridiculous yet the challenge of building a brand is ultimately the same for both. Academics and the student experience are foundational elements of any university and are key elements of its brand promise. Institutions that want to actively manage their education brand must first consider how the marketplace perceives their brand promise. Comparison among educational brands shows varying marketplace perceptions (Lockwood and Hadd, 2008).

## **Methodology**

The study was carried out following a cross-sectional survey design. This was based on questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions.

It involved collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. Data was collected from across the country, especially in areas where UMU has centers. Using the four (4) traditional regions of Uganda (Northern, Eastern, Central and Western), four (4) districts were purposively selected from each region. The East was composed of Jinja, Mbale, Soroti and Tororo. The north was composed of Arua, Lira Gulu and Pakwach. The central was composed of Kampala, Mukono, Wakiso and Mpigi. The west was composed of Kabale, Kanungu, Bushenyi and Mbarara.

Twenty (20) respondents were chosen per district giving a total of eighty (80) respondents per region. Four (4) members of the research team were assigned to administer questionnaires, conduct interviews and focused group discussions in each of the four regions chosen. The people that were involved in the study were selected randomly. However, care was taken to ensure that the people were selected from different areas. Data were collected using a structured questionnaire and an interview guide. The instruments were divided into two sections: 1) Identification particulars; and 2) Factors accounting for brand performance.

### **Procedure**

The research team was divided into four groups and each region in the study area was assigned one of the groups. The team members were each given a letter of introduction and permission to collect data from the areas selected for the study. The team members were each assigned to administer questionnaires, conduct interviews and focus group discussions with various respondents. On returning from the field, the team held a meeting to discuss the individual member's field experiences and preliminary observations. The discussion fed into finalization of the data processing and analysis plan. Thereafter, the data were entered and analyzed and a report drafted. The vigilance of research assistants led to 100% response rate.

Quantitative data captured from questionnaires, interview guides and focus group discussions were entered into spread sheets, and analyzed using percentages and ratio analysis. Qualitative data was also captured and analyzed using content analysis. The study relied on self-reported data. This was grounded on the assumption that the respondents were not only cognizant of the reasons underlying UMU brand performance and publicity but also mixed up the actual identity of UMU with other institutions. There may be need to cross reference the findings (and/ or conclusions) of the study with data collected using indirect approaches like ethnography.

The enumerators disclosed their identity and the goals and scope of the study to their respondents. Subsequently, they secured the respondent's informed and voluntary consent to participate in the study. Anonymity of the respondents was also upheld by ensuring that their identification particulars were not elicited, which means they cannot be identified explicitly or implicitly and that the data collected is reported in aggregates.

### **Presentation of Findings**

The study indicates that UMU brand awareness as compared to other universities in Uganda (both public and private) is highest in western Uganda (43%) and lowest in Northern Uganda (30%) both putting UMU in 6<sup>th</sup> position. UMU is also highly regarded for academic standards (reputation) in western Uganda (40%) followed by Eastern and Central Uganda ranking UMU in 5<sup>th</sup> position on brand reputation both with 33% of the respondents. Northern Uganda on the other hand puts UMU in the 6<sup>th</sup> position by 36% of the respondents.

Further analysis indicates that UMU brand awareness as compared to other private universities in Uganda is highest in western Uganda with 49% of the respondents giving the university the 1<sup>st</sup> position. Central Uganda closely follows with (48%) of the respondents also giving the University the first position. Similarly central and western Uganda highly regards UMU on academic standards with 46% of the respondents in both regions ranking the university in the first position on brand reputation. Northern and Eastern Uganda also consider the quality of UMU's academic standards with 44% of the respondents giving the university the 1<sup>st</sup> position on brand reputation. Like in the case of the comparison of UMU with all Universities in Uganda, the awareness of the university is also lowest in Northern Uganda with only 34% of the respondents ranking it in the 1<sup>st</sup> position among the private universities in Uganda.

UMU's awareness as a faith based University is highest in Western Uganda with 73% of the respondents putting the university in first position on brand recognition. On the other hand awareness of the university as a faith based institution is lowest in Northern Uganda with only 61% of the respondents giving the university the first position. The highest brand reputation (75%) as a faith based university is in western Uganda and the lowest (51%) is in Northern Uganda (See appendix B for details).

## **Proposed Marketing Strategies for UMU**

Given the findings from focus group discussions, interviews and the analysis and interpretation of data from questionnaires, the following recommendations were derived:

1. **Improved Marketing and Publicity:** UMU ranks highest as a faith based university no doubt, but additional effort is required to make it distinct. There is always confusion between Uganda Christian University and Uganda Martyrs. While both of them are Christian/faith founded, they remain distinctive. Particular attention is needed in Northern and Eastern Uganda where UMU's awareness is the lowest.
  - a) **Visiting Potential Students:** These visits can be important especially when candidates are about to sit for their final exams. The PRO and other staff members can visit secondary schools and explain what academic programs are offered and incentives can also be offered to the first students to express their intentions of joining UMU.
  - b) **Internship Offers:** Internship still remains an option at UMU. If UMU can obtain posting for its students in various organizations just like other universities do, it provides them with a competitive edge.
2. **Introduction of New Courses:** The courses offered by UMU are considered limited. The public would like to see the introduction of Law course, more specializations of business courses both at undergraduate and post graduate levels such human resource management, Micro-finance, procurement (MBA), Insurance and entrepreneurship.
3. **Exchange Programs and Partnerships with Sister Universities:** This is a case in which students from UMU go and study for a semester or more in a similar university, while students of that university come to study at UMU. These exchange programs offer exposure and different learning experiences to both sets of students.
4. **Improved Support to Centers:** These centers include Mbale, Masaka, Nyamitanga and others. These lack computers, library books, computer software among others. The main campus should address these issues.
5. **Awards to Students:** UMU has been offering scholarship both partial and full scholarships to students. These schemes should spread to other centres and the selection and competing criteria should be well indicated. This also makes students brand ambassadors for the University.



6. **Public Relations:**

- a) **Partnering with the Business Community:** The business community has always expressed interest in working with UMU. These individuals should be encouraged to construct lecture rooms, guest houses and other recreational facilities besides the hostels.
- b) **Tracking the Alumni:** UMU has a lot its graduates spread locally and internationally. UMU should establish a database of these individuals because each one can find a way of supporting and promoting UMU in various ways.
- c) **Offering Awards to the Public/Stakeholders:** These awards include PhDs and professorship to outstanding and distinguished individuals in society. Such personalities bring a lot of political and economic blessing.
- d) **Designing an Integrity Award:** The university is well known for its integrity stance, therefore the university can offer this award, however small it may be to outstanding individuals e.g. MPs, ministers, managers, executives etc who display and promote integrity.

7. **Social Networking:** Social networking as a marketing strategy for university campuses cannot be denied. Most college students have some form of social networking available to them, whether it is Twitter, Face book or LinkedIn. All of these have different marketing strategies attached to them, but the one thing that they have in common is the desire to make sure that the material they post does seem like they are trying to "sell something."

8. **Making students Brand Ambassadors:** Students should be made responsible for media distribution, including posters, door hangers, flyers, and table tents, ability to enthuse others, passionate, outgoing, and friendly, and be highly networked on and off campus. Such activities help spread information about the University.

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# ANALYZING MANAGERIAL CONTROL OF INCOME GENERATING PROJECTS AND ITS EFFECT ON SUSTAINABLE REALIZATION OF THEIR PURPOSE: THE CASE OF CATHOLIC RELIGIOUS CONGREGATIONS IN CENTRAL UGANDA

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## **Abstract**

*Failure to realize the expected key performance indicators in a sustainable manner has characterized and continues to be a major challenge facing many income generating projects, especially those established by catholic religious congregations in central Uganda. It therefore constitutes concern that motivated the conducting of an empirical study to analyze whether it was caused by the management of the projects or not. The study was conducted as a descriptive cross sectional survey involving a correlation design. Its sample was 92 respondents who included superior generals, project coordinators, treasurer generals and project managers. This paper covers a part of this study that analyzed how the control of the projects accounted for realizing their key performance indicators in a sustainable manner. Accordingly, this paper analyzes (a) the nature of control exercised in these projects, (b) the level at which the projects realize their key performance indicators sustainably, and (c) the effect of the exercised control on the level at which the projects realizes their key performance indicators in a sustainable manner. The paper analyses these issues using descriptive and multivariate regression analysis after reviewing literature on control and performance indicators of income generating projects and explaining the methodology used to conduct the study. Findings indicate that the control exercised in most of the projects is ineffective and its effect on their realization of key performance indicators is weak. The study is therefore concluded by emphasizing the need to improve the control of the projects to effective levels. Consequently, recommendations are made to the top leadership of the congregations and project managers to effectively play their roles in the control of the projects while putting emphasis on ensuring effective supervision, monitoring and provision of feedback.*

**Keywords:** Managerial Control, Income Generation, Sustainable Realization

## **Introduction**

Control is defined as a management function that involves the setting of rules, supervision, coordination, monitoring, evaluation and giving feedback about any undertaking for the sole purpose of ensuring that the undertaking realizes desired results in a sustainable manner (Kayors, 2009; Kotter & Cohen, 2009; Bosch, Tait & Venter, 2006; Chapman, 2004; Dublin,

2002). According to Jean-François (2004), the desired results include attaining the undertaking's key performance indicators. Control can therefore be questioned when an undertaking fails to attain its key performance indicators in a sustainable manner. An undertaking can be anything ranging from a simple course of action to complex enterprises, including income generating projects.

As implied by their very name, income generating projects refer to undertakings established to engender economic returns or gains required to meet the business, welfare or development goals of their initiators that may be governments, communities, organizations or individuals (Mokgotho, 2010; Yourker, 2003; Trollip & Boshoff, 2001). In this paper, income generating projects are defined as all undertakings established by catholic religious congregations in central Uganda to produce economic returns considered necessary to meet the welfare and development needs of these congregations. This definition implies that catholic religious congregations start income generating projects not for the sake of it, but to realize a purpose – which Bryk, Valerie and Holland (2009) specified as satisfying the welfare and development needs of the congregations.

Important to note is that any project effectively achieves its purpose (such as satisfying the congregations' needs) only when it is managed in a manner that enables it to realize its defined key performance indicators in a sustainable way (Yourker, 2003). A project can attain different performance indicators, including employee performance indicators, economic performance indicators, social performance indicators, and environmental performance indicators (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin & Cardy, 2008). However, the ones considered as key performance indicators are only those that measure the degree to which the project's purpose is attained in a sustainable way (Hunt & Killen, 2008).

Catholic religious congregations establish income generating projects for the purpose of making economic returns needed to facilitate the welfare of their members and to meet their development needs. Harrod-Domar income generation theory advances a view that this purpose can be attained only when the initiated projects are managed in a way that enables them to not only cover their capital and operating costs but also make a surplus that can be used for consumption, saving and reinvestment (Cheung, 2013; Prabha, 2013; Sheheli, 2011; Nielsen, 2009). Consequently, these projects' key performance indicators were in this paper considered as a covering its initial capital and operating costs (self-reliance), generating gains needed to facilitate the welfare of the congregations' members

(benefits), and realizing surplus needed to expand the projects themselves or to support other projects in need of support.

Key performance indicators were defined that way because an increasing number of income generating projects established by the catholic religious congregations having been failing and continue to fail to realize each of the above mentioned indicators as expected (Superior Generals' Report, 2009, 2013). It is in fact such failure that caused the author of this paper to be concerned, since it constitutes a threat not only to the welfare of the congregations' members but also to fulfilling the public interest that some of the projects such as schools are intended to serve. Consequently, a study was conducted to analyze whether the failure was caused by the management of the projects. This paper presents the analysis of how control was found to be accountable for this failure. In particular, the paper analyzes:

- (a) The nature of managerial control exercised in the income generating projects of the catholic religious congregations in central Uganda.
- (b) The level at which these projects realize their key performance indicators in a sustainable way
- (c) The effect of the exercised control on the level at which the projects realize their key performance indicators in a sustainable way.

The analysis was carried out based on the literature presented in the forthcoming section.

## **Literature Review**

Various studies have identified control as one of the core functions by which management carries out its work (see for instance Kayors, 2009; Bosch, Tait & Venter, 2006; Keirungi, 2006; Chapman, 2004; Barrett, 2003; Dublin, 2002). A number of studies have also been conducted about how control affects an enterprise's ability to attain its key performance indicators in a sustainable manner (Mondadori, 2013; Ciemleja & Natalja, 2011; Daniel, 2011; Epstein, 2009; Gomez-Mejia *et al.*, 2008; Hunt & Killen, 2008; Perrini & Tencati, 2006; Wisner & Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Manzoni, 2002; Collins, 2001). These studies highlight different indicators of performance, including employee performance indicators (commitment, regularity, productivity, meeting employee targets, and others), economic indicators (enterprise survival, profits, losses, growth), social indicators (provision of employment and serving public interest), and environmental indicators (conserving or degrading the environment).

However, not all these performance indicators were investigated in this paper. Only those that are critical to realizing a project's purpose were considered based on the rationale of Harrod-Domar income generation theory. This theory posits that the main purpose of an income generating project can be attained in a sustainable way only when the project is managed in a way that enables it to not only cover its initial capital and operating costs but also make a surplus that can be used for consumption, saving and reinvestment (Cheung, 2013; Prabha, 2013; Sheheli, 2011; Nielsen, 2009). This implies that the key performance indicators of an income generating project include covering its initial capital and operating costs, generating economic gains and realizing surplus. In this paper covering a project's capital and operating costs was considered as self-reliance and was measured as the ability of a project to operate without any external assistance (National Opinion Research Center, 2010). The project's ability to realize economic gains was considered in this paper as its ability to realize expected benefits (Marek & Mancini, 2007). A project's surplus was considered as the ability of a project to generate income that could be used to expand its operations and/or support other projects (Mokgotho, 2010). These studies were however, not conducted about the income generating projects of catholic religious congregations in central Uganda. Whether their observations apply to these projects or not was therefore necessary to validate.

Specifically, the study of Barrett (2003) indicates that not only does management use the control to carry out the setting of rules, procedures, standards, guidelines required to guide the conducting of planned tasks, roles, activities and operations. It also uses this function to conduct supervision, coordination, monitoring and evaluation of all the activities and operations planned to enable an enterprise to pursue and realize its performance. Chapman (2004) noted that the way by which management develops rules, procedures, standards and guidelines to follow when implementing the planned activities and operations is referred to as prescriptive control. The same observation appears in the work of Bosch *et al.* (2006). According to Dublin (2002), management conducts prescriptive control to ensure that planned business goals and benefits are attained through compliance with the set stipulations. Dublin (2002) observed that without control it is difficult for any enterprise to achieve its performance in an effective and efficient way. Indeed, it is through prescriptive control that management develops a working system deemed fit to facilitate the coordination and harmonization of all the planned responsibilities and

activities of an enterprise, and to ensure that they are all well-linked, conducted and accomplished as expected (Keirungi, 2006).

It is important to note that while the foregoing observations explain what control of a prescriptive nature involves, they do not link what it does to the sustainability which an enterprise is expected to realize, especially in terms of income generation. Indeed, Dublin's concern is about describing control as one of the management functions. Chapman's (2004) interest was in explaining theories of management and leadership yet that of Keirungi (2006) was in analyzing the effect of internal control on service delivery performance of Makerere University. Barrett (2003 concern) was about management and motivation of people in general and how management can use control to encourage and realize desired employee performance in particular. Consequently, this study was needed to analyze how this type of control influences the sustainability of income generating projects, particularly those established by catholic religious congregations in central Uganda.

According to Kayors (2009), supervision means the same thing as concurrent control and it involves the manner in which management not only assigns tasks, responsibilities and activities to staff members but also ensures that all the employees are carrying out the allocated tasks in an efficient and effective manner. With supervision, managers are expected to keep an eye on what is ongoing in an enterprise, moving around, watching and encouraging employees to carry on with their work; it also involves giving directorial assistance to those who seem not to be working properly so as to keep them on course (Rosenthal, 2004). The management conducts what is referred to as detective control by monitoring and evaluating or appraising employee work performance, following up, checking and reviewing the progress made against plans or set standards and targets, giving feedback, and recommending corrective action where modification is deemed necessary (Limburg, 2010). This type of control is carried out to establish not only how an enterprise has been able to attain its goals and benefits through employee performance but also what needs to be done to correct negative deviations, if any, or to improve performance, if the need arises (Criveanu & Iacob, 2011).

As noted earlier, even the above cited scholars described control as just a function that management uses to ensure that employees perform the responsibilities, tasks and activities assigned to enable an enterprise to realize desired goals and benefits. None of them delved into how control

affects the ability of an enterprise to realize its key performance indicators in a sustainable way. This was therefore the gap that the study was intended to bridge using the income generating projects started by catholic religious congregations in central Uganda as a case in point. It should further be emphasized that even the studies that indicate that control affects the performance of enterprises in a significant manner did not cover these projects.

In particular, Mondadori (2013) observed that control enables income generating enterprises to pursue and realize desired performance indicators by putting in place a set of procedures, organizational structures and activities that measure employee and corporate performance in relation to set targets and objectives for the purpose of identifying and monitoring weaknesses, undesirable performance variances and risks, and to address them in a corrective manner. Mondadori (2013) emphasized that for control to promote realization of the desired level of sustainability, it has to be carried out in an effective manner. Is this kind of control carried out in the income generating projects operated in the catholic religious congregations in central Uganda?

According to Daniel (2011), control translates into significant realization of desired results when it is conducted not only by supervising and integrating quality into every job but by also establishing employee performance teams. Daniel (2011) asserted that enterprises that use this type of control form quality teams, process improvement teams and performance reporting teams, all of which deliver sustainable performance. He described a quality team as a group of employees established at every level of an enterprise's hierarchy to supervise and ensure that the set work guidelines, standards and procedures are observed and followed when employees are pursuing the set performance objectives, goals and targets. This scholar however, focused on performance management as a sustainable enterprise, but not on how control affects realization of the key performance indicators of income generating projects. Therefore, as to how control affects realization of these projects' key performance indicators needed to be analyzed.

In support of Daniel (2011), Mondadori (2013) noted that such teams ensure that targets set for each employee are clearly defined and activities by which the targets are pursued are also well-defined. According to Epstein (2009), quality teams ensure that there are control limits in place. A control limit is an activity execution level below which employee



performance is deemed unacceptable and reprimandable, at which employee performance is deemed satisfactory and above which employee performance is deemed excellent (Epstein, 2009; GRI, 2006; Collins, 2001). A control limit sets a mandatory performance level for every employee (GRI, 2006; Epstein & Manzoni, 2002; Epstein & Roy, 2001). Elkington (2004) observed that in a school project, for instance, if a teacher is required to teach 30 lessons in five days every week and to stay at school from 8:00am to 5:00pm everyday, then any teacher who does not satisfy these performance limits has to be reprimanded. However, a teacher who surpasses the 30 lessons, reports for work before 8:00am and leaves after 5:00pm is considered an excellent performer.

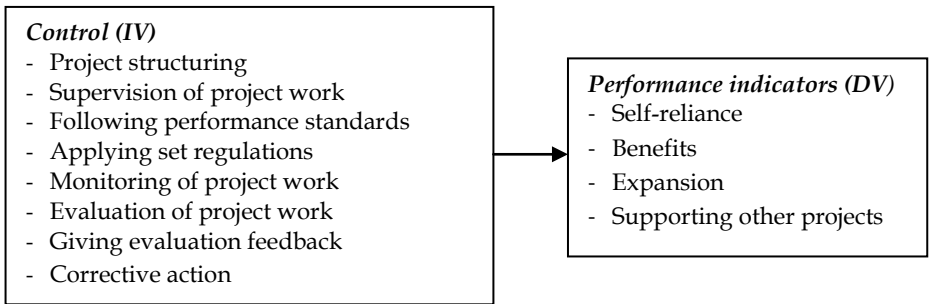
According to Wisner and Epstein (2003), process improvement teams are established to review and provide feedback regarding the core business processes regularly. These scholars observed further that these teams carry out process reviews by meeting regularly following predetermined schedules for reviewing mission-critical business processes. The teams also focus on how to improve employee and enterprise performance, and make process changes that they deem appropriate to realizing desired enterprise performance (Ciemleja & Natalja, 2011). Performance reporting teams are established to track and monitor the performance of each employee and that of the entire enterprise for the purpose of establishing whether performance conforms to the objectives, goals and targets set for each employee and for the enterprise as a whole (Mondadori, 2013). Without performance reporting teams, any enterprise finds it difficult to know how it is performing and the improvement it needs to pursue its key performance indicators, especially in a manner that satisfies stakeholder expectations (Perrini & Tencati, 2006).

Despite making observations that reflect how control affects an enterprise's ability to realize desired performance, none of the scholars cited above covered the effect in the context of income generating projects analysed in this paper. In particular, Epstein (2009) focused on analysis of the drivers and measures of success in high performance organizations. When he was with his colleague, Epstein and Manzoni (2002) focused on performance measurement and management control in general. With his other colleague, Epstein and Roy (2001) focused on examining sustainability in action so as to identify and measure the key performance drivers. In the case of Wisner and Epstein (2003), the interest was in linking management control system choices to environmental performance using evidence from Mexico. Collins (2001) focused on investigation into why

some companies make the leap and others don't while Mondadori's (2013) concern was about the relationship between internal control and risk management system. The study of Perrini and Tencati (2006) was about an investigation into sustainability and stakeholder management with intent to identify the need for new corporate performance evaluation and reporting systems. The study of Global Reporting Initiative (2006) was about developing sustainability reporting guidelines yet that of Elkington (2004) focused on how school projects can operate in a sustainable manner using win-win-win business strategies. Yet Daniel's (2011) interest was in analyzing performance management as a sustainable enterprise.

In general, literature indicates that control has been widely addressed as a management function. It further shows that the effect of control on the ability of an enterprise to realize desired performance has also received a good degree of scholarly attention. The literature indicates however, that the way control affects the ability of the income generating projects of the catholic religious congregations to realize their key performance indicators is not covered at all. This is why this paper was necessary. The paper was developed based on the conceptual framework presented in Figure 1.

*Figure 1: Conceptual framework: Control and key performance indicators of income generating projects*



## Methodology

The study from which this paper was developed was designed as a descriptive cross sectional survey involving a correlation design and a triangulation of qualitative and quantitative approaches to data collection and analysis. As Amin (2005) observed, this design was deemed suitable to facilitate analyzing the nature of control exercised in the income generating projects of the catholic religious congregations and the way it affected the ability of the projects to realize their key performance indicators in a

sustainable manner. The design facilitated this analysis by enabling collection of firsthand self-report qualitative and quantitative data. The data was collected in form of how a sample of 92 respondents perceived the nature of control exercised in these projects as well as the level at which the projects were perceived to attain their key performance indicators.

The sample was selected from four congregations selected purposively from central Uganda, since only congregations with income generating projects were targeted to participate in the study. This sample included 40 community project managers, 40 congregational project managers, four (4) superior generals, 4 treasurer generals and four (4) project coordinators. All the respondents were selected using purposive sampling because only those who were in position to provide required data on the variables of the study were preferred. Quantitative data was collected from project managers using a valid and reliable questionnaire (Content validity index = 0.893,  $\alpha$  = 0.883) containing items that measured the perception of each variable using a Likert scale running from strongly disagree (SD = 1), disagree (D = 2), undecided (UD = 3), agree (A = 4), strongly agree (SA = 5). Qualitative data was collected from superior and provincial generals and project coordinators using a valid interview guide (Content validity index = 0.813). While qualitative data was analyzed using content analysis, quantitative data was analysed using the descriptive, data transformation and multivariate regression methods of the SPSS program version 22.

## **Findings**

*Objective One:* This objective was intended to analyze the nature of control exercised in the income generating projects of the catholic religious congregations in central Uganda. Descriptive findings showing how this nature was perceived by project managers are summarized in Table 1.

**Table 1:** *Project managers' perception of control of income generating projects of the catholic religious congregations in central Uganda*

<b>Control</b>		<b>Percentage of Managers per perception (N = 80)</b>				
<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Specific measures</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>UD</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>SA</b>
<i>Project structuring</i>	Project has a well-laid job structure	0.0	36.3	0.0	60.0	3.7
<i>Supervision</i>	Project activities are well-supervised	0.0	22.5	0.0	41.3	31.2
	All the project's workers are supervised	0.0	17.5	0.0	67.5	15.0
<i>Following work standards</i>	Project's work is conducted following set performance standards	30.0	30.0	0.0	28.8	11.2
<i>Applying set regulations</i>	Efforts are made to ensure that prescribed regulations are strictly observed	8.8	38.7	0.0	42.5	10.0
<i>Monitoring of project work</i>	Efforts are made to monitor all workers with intent to check what they are doing and how they are doing it	21.2	22.5	0.0	45.0	11.3
<i>Evaluation of project work</i>	All employees are evaluated to establish how they have performed	26.5	17.6	1.0	33.2	21.7
<i>Giving feedback</i>	Feedback is given to all evaluated employees in a way that points them to what they should do	50.0	10.0	0.0	30.0	10.0
<i>Corrective action</i>	Efforts are made to ensure that corrective action recommended from evaluation is implemented.	7.4	36.6	0.0	44.7	11.3
<b>Total</b>		<b>16.0</b>	<b>25.7</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>43.7</b>	<b>13.9</b>

The findings in Table 1 show that on average, 41.7% (16% + 25.7%) of the project managers disagreed and strongly disagreed, and they meant that no control was exercised in their projects. Respondents who agreed were 43.7% and these meant that control was carried out in their projects but not as effectively as expected. Respondents who strongly agreed were 13.9% and these alluded to the fact that control was effectively exercised in their projects. These findings indicate that project managers who perceived that there was no control in their projects plus those who perceived that control exercised in their projects was not as effective as expected were 86.1% and were therefore the majority. This suggests that control was not effectively conducted in most of the projects.

Further investigation was carried out about the nature of control conducted in the projects. This involved interviewing superior generals and project coordinators. These respondents were specifically asked to describe the kind of control that was exercised in the income generating projects of their respective congregations. One of the superior generals replied:

*Efforts are made to monitor our schools, other formal institutions and even the projects operating at community or convent level. We monitor them to find out how they have executed the responsibilities assigned to them, and how far they have met our expectations in terms of internal benefits and public interest.*

Another superior general responded:

*Community members at convent level evaluate the progress of their projects and have close supervision of their projects' activities. Committees are also in place to conduct evaluation of the congregational projects' financial performance and progress. These committees conduct evaluation in schools mostly. The challenge however, is that there are no standards to follow when conducting evaluation of most of the projects' performance. Usually, evaluation and monitoring committees rely on what project managers present as performance or progress reports.*

Another superior general had this to say:

*Although monitoring is carried out, it is often conducted at the time when projects have already collapsed. The level of monitoring is quite unsatisfactory. There is lack of accountability systems which implies that monitoring and evaluation of projects is not properly done. In fact, even some of the reports made by project managers are not quite transparent in terms of surplus or loss realized. These reports tend to pass undetected because no professional auditors are usually invited to do professional or technical monitoring. Those put in*

*charge of some projects end up behaving as if the projects are their personal businesses. They tend to harvest a lot of profits from the project without being monitored.*

The above qualitative findings indicate that although congregations carried out control of their projects in form of monitoring and evaluation, the level at which this was done was generally unsatisfactory. As to how such control affected the projects' ability to realize their key performance indicators was also investigated. In the first place, the interviews held with superior generals and project coordinators involved asking these respondents to give their views on this effect. One of the superior generals said:

*Since the monitoring and evaluation of the projects is not satisfactory, it cannot have a big effect on the projects' ability to realize their key performance indicators. I highly suspect that most of our projects are failing to progress well because of our poor levels of monitoring and evaluating those who operate them.*

Another superior general noted:

*The committees that are responsible for overseeing the operation, maintenance and expansion of the projects are in place, but they often intervene when it is too late. Instead of being on the ground, they wait for end-of-year reports prepared and submitted by project managers. Sometimes, the reports do not reflect what is exactly on the ground. The committee has to go there, but they rarely do. They only take action after the projects have started to collapse. That is when they discover that some of the reports submitted by project managers are not authentic. Failure to conduct serious monitoring and evaluation has rendered some of the income generating projects 'sleeping giants'. They have all the resources needed to perform well and even grow, but all the vast resources lie unutilized because of unserious monitoring and evaluation of those in charge of them.*

The foregoing findings suggest that the level of external control that was carried out at the congregational level was not enough to enable the projects to realize their key performance indicators as desired.

**Objective Two:** This objective focused on investigating the level at which income generating projects of the catholic religious congregations in central Uganda realize their key performance indicators. Descriptive findings obtained from project managers are shown in Table 2.

**Table 2:** *Project managers' perception of level of sustainable realization of key performance indicators by income generating projects of the catholic religious congregations in central Uganda*

<b>Key performance indicators</b>		<b>Percentage of Managers per perception (N = 80)</b>				
<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Specific measures</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>UD</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>SA</b>
<i>Self-reliance</i>	Project does not depend on any financial support from donors	2.5	35.0	0.0	51.3	11.2
	Project does not depend on any financial support from government	20.0	15.0	0.0	63.7	1.3
	Project does not depend on financial support from other projects of the congregation	22.5	22.5	0.0	38.7	16.3
<i>Benefits</i>	Project produces the benefits expected from it to support the wellbeing of congregational members	11.2	16.3	7.5	51.3	13.7
<i>Surplus income</i>	Project generates surplus income used to expand the scale of its operations	22.5	31.2	0.0	46.3	0.0
	Project generates surplus income used to fund other projects	30.0	28.8	0.0	30.0	11.2
	Project generates surplus income used to start other income generating projects	2.5	51.3	0.0	35.0	11.2
<b>Total</b>		<b>15.9</b>	<b>28.6</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>45.2</b>	<b>9.3</b>

From the total frequency distribution in Table 2, respondents who disagreed (28.6%) and strongly disagreed (15.9%) implied that their projects did not realize their key performance indicators. Those who were undecided (1%) alluded to uncertainty about the realization of these performance indicators. Respondents who agreed (45.2%) implied that the level of realizing their projects' key performance indicators was low while those who

strongly agreed (9.3%) implied that their projects posted a high level of realizing these indicators. These results indicate that the majority of the respondents (89.3% = 15.9% + 28.6% + 45.2%) showed that either their projects did not realize their key performance indicators at all or registered low levels of realizing these indicators.

**Objective Three:** This objective focused on analyzing the effect of the exercised control on the level at which the projects realize their key performance indicators. The analysis was carried out using multivariate regression analysis. Findings are presented in Table 3.

**Table 3:** *Effect of control on level of sustainable realization of key performance indicators by income generating projects of catholic religious congregations in Central Uganda*

Independent variable: (control of projects)	Statistics predicted on sustainability and its indicators				Level of sustainable realization of key performance indicators			
	Constant	Self-reliance (Beta)	Benefits (Beta)	Surplus income (Beta)	R-Square	Adjusted R-Square	F	Sig.
Project structuring	1.014	.001	.002	.009	.042	.040	0.983	.603
Supervision	7.017	.103	.202	.179	.366	.365	31.319	.000
Following work standards	10.139	.099	.103	.010	.096	.096	1.159	.336
Applying set regulations	1.044	.001	.010	.022	.027	.026	1.060	.089
Monitoring of project work	4.022	.100	.103	.123	.201	.200	7.115	.000
Evaluation of project work	1.600	.002	.003	.023	.032	.032	0.509	.077
Giving feedback	3.075	.075	.101	.002	.106	.105	4.081	.001
Corrective action	0.053	.005	.016	.004	.017	.015	0.707	.093
Control	10.744	.386	.540	.462	.389	.387	39.919	.000

*Pearson correlation coefficient between overall control and sustainability = .624*



The Adjusted R-Square values, F-values and levels of significance in Table 3 show that the control predicted the level of sustainable realization of key performance indicators of the projects of catholic religious congregations in central Uganda by a significant 38.7% (Adjusted R-Square = .387,  $F = 39.919$ , Sig. = .000 < .01). This suggests that the manner in which control was exercised in these projects considerably influenced the level at which they realized their key performance indicators in a sustainable way. The same statistics indicate that only three indicators of control were significant predictors of this level. These were supervision, which predicted this level by a significant 36.5% (Adjusted R-Square = .365,  $F = 31.319$ , Sig. = .000 < .01), monitoring of the projects' work that predicted the level by a significant 20% (Adjusted R-Square = .200,  $F = 7.115$ , Sig. = .001 < .01), and giving feedback which predicted this level by a significant 10.5% (Adjusted R-Square = .200,  $F = 4.081$ , Sig. = .001 < .01). The magnitudes of the Adjusted R-Squares indicate that supervision was the best predictor of the projects' level of attaining their key performance indicators in a sustainable manner. The fact that all the magnitudes of the Adjusted R-Squares were less than 0.5 suggests that the effect of control and all its specific indicators was generally weak.

The Beta coefficients in Table 3 indicate that the level of control that was conducted in the projects influenced their ability to be self-reliant by a positive 38.6% (Beta = .386) and to attain expected benefits by a positive and strong 54% (Beta = .540) and surplus income by a positive and strong 46.2% (Beta = .462). These findings imply that control influenced the different forms of the projects' sustainability in a positive manner. The influence was strong on realizing expected benefits and was mostly contributed by the way the projects supervision was carried out in the projects (Beta = .202).

## Discussion

Findings in Table 3 indicate that the nature of control exercised in the income generating projects of the catholic religious congregations in central Uganda had a significant and positive influence on level of realizing their key performance indicators in a sustainable manner. This implies that control and this level varied in the same direction. It therefore implies that if control was effectively conducted it would enable the projects to realize their key performance indicators in a sustainable way. The reverse is also true. Therefore, the level of the projects' sustainable realization of key performance indicators depended on how their management exercised

control. The findings therefore, support the studies of Mondadori (2013), Ciemleja and Natalja (2011), Daniel (2011), Epstein (2009), and Bonacchi and Rinaldi (2007). Each of these studies indicates that control has a significant influence on the ability of an enterprise to realize its key performance indicators in a sustainable manner.

Mondadori's (2013) indicates however, that for control to enable any project to realize its key performance indicators in a sustainable way, it has to be carried out in an effective manner. This was unfortunately not the case in most of the studied income generating projects. Findings in Table 1 indicate that on the whole, only 13.9% of the project managers reported that control was effectively conducted in their projects. This implies that over 86% of the project managers showed that control exercised in their projects was not effective. In fact, the level of ineffectiveness was so high that control was perceivably not recognized in projects managed by close of 42% of the respondent project managers (Table 1). This explains why despite its statistical significance, control translated into a weak effect on the projects' level of realizing their key performance indicators in a sustainable way.

Indeed, findings in Table 3 show that control influenced the level of the projects' sustainable realization of expected key performance indicators by only 38.7%. This implies that if the target was to realize these indicators by 100%, control enabled the projects to realize it by only about 39%. This suggests that control was weak, since it could not enable the projects to attain over 60% of the key performance indicators in a sustainable manner. The findings therefore, point to the need to improve the level of control exercised in these projects. This improvement is in fact necessary owing to the positive nature of the effect. This effect implies the level of realizing the indicators in a sustainable manner will improve once control is improved. Moreover, the need to make the necessary improvements in control cannot be overemphasized owing to the role that control ideally plays in facilitating any project to realize its key performance indicators in a sustainable manner. This ideal role is clearly discussed in the work of Kayors (2009), Bosch *et al.* (2006), Keirungi (2006) and Chapman (2004). This work indicates that it is control that management uses to ensure that employees perform the responsibilities, tasks and activities assigned to them to enable any enterprise to realize desired results, including the expected key performance indicators.

Critical inspection of the findings in Table 3 suggests that the dimensions of control that significantly and positively affected the projects' level of realizing their key performance indicators in sustainable manner included supervision, monitoring of project work and giving evaluation feedback to workers. Supervision had the most significant influence. This gives credence to the observations made by Mondadori (2013), Daniel (2011) and Wisner and Epstein (2003) that the way supervision, monitoring and provision of feedback are carried out in any enterprise has a significant influence on an enterprise's ability to realize its key performance indicators in a sustainable way. The positive nature of the effect of these three control practices implies that when each of them is improved, it will lead to significant improvement in the projects' ability to realize such indicators, more so when emphasis is put on improving supervision. Moreover, findings in Table 1 indicate that these improvements are critically needed in the studied projects.

As a matter of fact, Table 1 indicates that the supervision of the congregational and community projects' workers and activities was carried out but not as effectively as expected. This implies that the level at which supervision was conducted was below these project managers' expectations. There is therefore need to improve this supervision if the projects are to realize their key performance indicators in a sustainable manner. Improving supervision is particularly needed in view of the critical role it plays as discussed in the scholarly work of Criveanu and Iacob (2011), Limburg (2010), Kayors (2009) and Rosenthal (2004). Each of these scholars considers supervision as a concurrent control practice by which managers take charge of their workers by assigning them jobs and ensuring that the jobs are carried out in an efficient and effective manner. It is through supervision that managers keep an eye on employees as they work, encouraging them to carry on whenever need arises, and giving directorial support to those who seem not to be working properly so as to keep them on course. So, when supervision is not effectively conducted, employees are not effectively watched and kept on the course required to achieve desired sustainability. Therefore, the fact that it was not effectively carried in most of the income generating projects of the catholic religious congregations in central Uganda points to the dire need to improve it.

The fact that monitoring influenced the projects' level of sustainable realization of key performance indicators in a positively significant manner suggests that if monitoring is improved, it will lead to a significant improvement in this level. The findings in Table 1 indicate that this

improvement is needed as a matter of necessity. Indeed, no efforts were made to monitor workers in most of the projects for the purpose of checking what they were doing and how they were doing it. The need is even made more implied by the qualitative findings gathered from the interviewed superior generals and project coordinators. These findings revealed that even the monitoring of the projects by the overall leadership of the congregations was not effective. Not only was it carried out in an unsatisfactory manner. It was also mostly carried out at a time when some of the projects were in already in irredeemable conditions. This explains why some of the projects even collapsed. It is therefore, necessary to improve the monitoring of the projects, if the congregations are to reap its advantages as discussed by Limburg (2010), therefore realizing the desired sustainability of the projects, especially in the area of realizing surplus income.

Equally important is improving the manner in which evaluation feedback is given to project workers. Being a significant predictor of the projects' level of sustainable realization of key performance indicators implies that once it is conducted effectively, it will lead to significant improvements in this level generally and in the realized benefits in particular. Improving the provision of feedback to the projects' workers is particularly needed in view of the findings in Table 1. These findings show that the giving of feedback to evaluated employees was not effectively executed in congregational projects and not at all carried out in community projects. This suggests that all project workers were not effectively informed about their weaknesses and strengths as well as where they needed to improve. This must have constrained the projects' ability to realize desired sustainability, since it implies that employees worked in conditions in which they were not improving in terms of how to do their jobs better. This needs to change, hence the need to improve the provision of feedback to the projects' workers.

It is essential to note that findings in Table 3 indicate that other dimensions such as project structuring, applying set regulations, evaluation of project work, following work standards, and administration of corrective action were not significant predictors of the level of sustainable realization of projects' key performance indicators. These findings did not support Criveanu and Iacob (2011) who identified each of these control practices as significant predictors of enterprise sustainability. The findings revealed however, that the practices were positive predictors. This suggests that

when they are improved, they will make a positive impact on the sustainability of the projects.

In general, findings indicate the influence that control had on the sustainability of the income generating projects of the catholic religious congregations in central Uganda was positive and significant but weak. This influence was mostly as a result of the significant contributions of how the control practices of supervision, monitoring and provision of feedback were conducted. Other control practices like project structuring, applying set regulations, evaluation of project work, following work standards, and administration of corrective action were not significant predictors of the sustainability of the studied projects.

### **Conclusions**

Findings indicate that if the weak but positive and significant influence that control had on the level of sustainable realization of the key performance indicators of the income generating projects of the catholic religious congregations in central Uganda is improved, it will result into significant improvement in this level. The findings also show that when improving control, more attention needs to be put on monitoring and provision of feedback while putting emphasis on supervision. Other control practices like project structuring, applying set regulations, evaluation of project work, following work standards, and administration of corrective action need not to be neglected, since improving them will generate a positive effect on the sustainability of the projects.

### **Recommendations**

The control of income generating projects of the catholic religious congregations in central Uganda should be improved in a manner that will improve the projects' sustainability. This requires the top leadership of these congregations, especially the evaluation and monitoring committees, to improve the monitoring, evaluation and provision of feedback about the performance of the projects and their managers while putting more emphasis on monitoring. It also requires the projects' managers themselves to improve the internal supervision, monitoring and provision of feedback to employees while putting emphasis on supervision. Project managers should also pay attention to improving the conducting of other control practices like project structuring (especially community project managers), applying set regulations, evaluation of project work, following work standards, and administration of corrective action, since improving how these practices are carried out will generate a positive effect on the sustainability of the projects.

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# EFFECTS OF GOVERNMENT LANGUAGE POLICY: THE CASE OF KISWAHILI IN UGANDA

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## **Abstract**

*The main thesis of this paper was to examine the effects of government language policy in relations to the Kiswahili in Uganda. The historical background to the language policy in Uganda is explored. The causes of failure of implement the language policy are discussed. The roles of Christianity and Islam in the language questions are outlined. The colonial perspectives and political role in the language matters in the country are discussed. The paper proposes the training of those who train the young ones so that the Kiswahili language is mastered at an early age.*

**Keywords:** *Language Policy, Kiswahili, Political and Religious Roles*

## **Introduction**

Is the sole responsibility of every sovereign country in the world to have a running language policy its governance? A family, compared to a government is the smallest administrative unit in a country. If the head (government) of the family relaxes on the leadership strategies he himself set up and declared to all family members, then some sectors of the family are likely to keep lagging behind. Those sectors ignored in a family eventually may grow and bear consequences that may kill the whole family setup. The language policy implementation in Uganda leaves much to be desired for no government since Obote I (1962-1970) ever cared enough to put in effect what is described as policy on language. Uganda like many African countries is endowed with numerous minority languages where the natives suffer from lack of coercion hindered by effective language policy. The language of Kiswahili which has always been proposed to take the place of lingua franc little or nothing has been done to promote it.

## **Language Policy for a country**

Language policy, which is part of language planning typically at national level is a statement or written document by the government which stipulates how, when and where language(s) should be used in a society. Language policy should be in line with the political, social and economic aims and objectives of the society where it operates. It is therefore desirable

and possible to plan, effect, modify and systematically change the status of a language(s) within a policy.

The whole idea of a language policy therefore is to solve language problems such as maintenance of one language, which has a superior status compared to other languages in multilingual speech community associated with the communication pattern. Language policy assigns language roles such as medium of instruction in different educational levels, and for administrative and judicial purposes among others in a country.

### **Uganda's language policy**

During the regime of Idi Amin former president of Uganda/ (1971-1979) Kiswahili, the east African lingua franca (Mulokozi, 1995; Kiango 2002), became the second official national language, but lost its official and national status in the 1995 Uganda constitution. The 1995 Uganda constitution states that; and The official language of Uganda is English and subject to clause (1) of this article any other language may be used as a medium of instruction in schools or other educational institution, or for legislative, administrative, judicial purposes as may be prescribed by law (section 6).

In September 2005, the Uganda parliament voted to once again make Kiswahili the second official language together with English. Consequently in 200 the ministry of gender, labour and social development, declared Kiswahili as a second official language of Uganda (UNCP, 2006). Since the time of its introduction, Kiswahili as a language has faced a blockage among the citizens of Uganda. Up to now, its promotion is still a challenge to the government. Kiswahili domains are not stipulated, there are no Kiswahili newspapers, while political meetings are conducted either in English or in other indigenous languages like Luganda and not Kiswahili. Thus the roles of English have always taken precedence over other indigenous groups of languages, Kiswahili included.

### **Historical background**

From June 1894, Uganda began to be administered on a British protectorate according to Ladeforged (1971) the signing of the 1900 agreement known as the Buganda agreement, between the British government and the Buganda kingdom, gave rise and root of linguistic inequality in Uganda. The government favoured some language and marginalized others. For example; Luganda as a language gained prominence and use compared to other languages spoken in Uganda like Runyankole, Rukiga and Lusoga. In many ways, Uganda's language

problems are similar to those faced by many developing countries, especially those in Africa. The existence of many groups (usually referred to as tribes) which speak different languages complicates communication and each tribe agitates its language to have a higher status, which in turn increases the difficulties of political and cultural integration (Nsibambi, 1967).

Like in many African countries, English was introduced in government and public life in Uganda by means of missionary work and the educational system. English has been the medium of instruction from nursery level to the higher institutions of learning, used in public offices, Parliament, in the higher courts of law, the media, and political gatherings among others. During the first decades of the twentieth century, Kiswahili language gained influence as it was not only used in the army forces, prisons and police forces (Mazrui and 1995), but was also taught in schools as a subject. However, the Baganda, who were the majority stakeholders in the government, viewed the introduction of Kiswahili as a threat to their kingdom's political power and partly through their influence they made Luganda the medium of instruction in lower primary classes, mainly in Buganda region. Since then, Luganda was used in news papers and program in Luganda language both on national radio and television among other uses (Nsibambi, 1967). With all these development, English remained the only official language at that time. When Luganda become independent in 1962, English was maintained as the official language, as it was already rooted deeply in administration, media, and education. In addition, Uganda's ethno-linguistic diversity made it difficult to choose another language as the official language of Uganda. Although Luganda was the most geographically spread language, people from both inside and outside Buganda kingdom opposed to having it as a national language, because they felt other tribes, mispronunciation and grammar errors would ruin their language, henceforth, English remained the official language. In addition to this problem was that of promoting Luganda at the expense of other Ugandan languages and making the Baganda proud.

### **Causes of failure to implement language policy**

English is an official language of Uganda yet it is spoken by a small group of people (elites). It is the language of administration, public offices, courts of law Parliament and medium of instruction in the education circles among others. Kiswahili which in (2006) achieved its status of being an official language second of English, is spoken by a small number of population as a second language (L2) due to massive resistance it faced

from the time it was introduced in Uganda (Ladefoged, 1971), but used widely in east Africa as a lingua franca (Mulokozi, 2002).

'O' Grady (1996) provides different variations of language and he asserts that language is a system of communication, medium for thought, a vehicle for literary expression, a social institution, a matter for political controversy and a catalyst for national building. Since language encompasses all the above aspects, it has to be taken into account to be planned and policy formed for implementation. Language policy and planning are intertwined fields that came up as a branch of social linguistics in the 1850s and 1960s. The question of language policy has been a focus to many linguists and language experts in order to analyze and solve problems related to language planning of different countries, especially the developing countries.

Language policy is categorized in two types, namely; exoglossic and endoglossic language policies. According to Adulaziz (1993) and Mekacha (2000) a country is said to operationalise the exoglossic policy when it directs a foreign language to function as a formal, national and official language in that particular country. Abdul-Aziz adds that, very few masses in the entire population can hardly speak it as their first language. Such countries in Africa include Zambia and Uganda (English), Ivory Coast (French), Mozambique (Portuguese) among others.

On the other hand, endoglossic language policy favours indigenous languages within a nation to be used formally, as a national as well as an official language of a given country (Mekacha, 2000). Few countries in Africa with successful endoglossic language policy, include; Tanzania (Kiswahili), Ethiopia and Somali (Amharic) among others. However, Abdul-Aziz points out that, the possibility of promoting an indigenous language in African states is always accompanied by constant threats of rivalry between the various language groups. This is in evidence in Uganda too. The rival between Kiswahili and Luganda might be the blockage of the promotion of Kiswahili as an official language.

For language policies to be well implemented according to Bamgobse (1991) as cited in Karl (1999) series of factors have to be positively considered as listed below;

- Attested language(s) must have a base of potential speakers.
- Existence of political will to enhance linguistic tendencies in the country and

- A country must have a very strong government support to implement language policy decisions.

There are very few countries in Africa, which have fulfilled the above factors, such countries according to Karl (1999), include Tanzania and Somalia. However, those that are a failure include Kenya, Senegal as well as Cong Brazzaville. To attest the above criterion, Uganda as a country has potential speakers of Kiswahili language, the table below exemplifies this.

**Table 1:** Shows percentages of Ugandans able to hold conversations in Kiswahili, Luganda and English

	Kiswahili	Luganda	English
Men	52	51	28
Women	18	28	13
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>79</b>	<b>41</b>

*Source: Ladefoged (1971:25)*

The above figure includes the 16% of the population that speak Luganda as their first language. As a second language, Kiswahili doubles the number of English speakers. According to the data above approximately, 38 years have passed. Bamgbose (1991) last two factors (refer to Bamgbose (1991), Table 1 would be applicable in this context, if language planners and policy makers observed and recommended for implementation of the Ladefoged (1971) findings as shown above. The Kiswahili percentage rate might have even gone higher in Uganda by now, as that of east Africa, due to stigmatization and awareness on the promotion of indigenous language worldwide. Kiswahili has witnessed a rapid growth regionally (Amidu, 1995; Mazrui and Mazrui, 1995 as cited in Ogechi, 2002 and in Mwananchi (9 December, 2009:3) compared to international languages such as English, Spanish and French among others. As shown below;

**Table 2:** Shows percentage of Kiswahili and English in East Africa

Countries	Kiswahili	English
Kenya	80	20
Tanzania	100	10
Uganda	50	20

*Source: Kiango (2002:190)*

There have been in massive promotion programmes of Kiswahili language even in Francophone countries that share borders with Uganda like Rwanda and DRC. This has been evident in Burundi, Kenya and Tanzania.

In spite of what has been outlined above, Uganda's language policy has never had serious implementation while several countries in Africa have stated their language policies clearly and are seriously implementing them. Uganda only stops at constitutional level, and radio announcements. Uganda had no alternative but to take the Endoglossic language policy where a foreign language is taken to serve as an official language. The choice of Kiswahili as a second official language has also come as pressure from the East Africa Regional Cooperation (Nsookwa, 2007), on one hand and Uganda's existence of numerous minority tribal languages on the other. Several reasons hamper the implementation of Uganda's language policy:

### **Christianity versus Islam**

Religion is playing its role very silently in checking the development and implementation of Uganda's language policy. At the very mention of Kiswahili most Christians in high offices relate the language to Arabic. To them anything Arabic is Islam and Islam is taken as an arch rival of Christianity. In this case any planned strategy to spread Kiswahili is silently killed. Some of the high ranking offices are over heard vowing that Kiswahili will be taught to their children on their dead bodies. Since some are in big offices that would implement policy, this is one of the reasons that have made Kiswahili to stay on paper and to be denied entry in schools.

### **Colonial infiltration in government ministries**

The East African Community offices in Arusha asked the member state to form Kiswahili councils in their countries. The name of the council for Uganda would be; Bakiu; Baraza la Kiswahili, Uganda; Bakike, Baraza la Kiswahili Kenya and Bakita, Baraza la Kiswahili Tanzania. Arrangements were made to enable Uganda form this council through the Ministry of Gender and Culture. Commissioners in this ministry involved themselves in several meeting to draft the constitution for Bakiu. All arrangements were made culminating into a committee constituted by representatives, the constitution of the East African Kiswahili council was agreed upon in Nairobi. After that the Ministry of Gender, was supposed to take the constitution for Bakiu to Parliament which would pass a minute to allow the council to acquire offices and spread the language of Kiswahili. Without this council Uganda cannot have a representative in East African Kiswahili commission/council. But to our surprise nobody in the Ministry of Gender wants to hear anything about Kiswahili. The Ministry abandoned Bakiu council and anybody who talks about it is ignored. It is

true there is something sinister hampering the language of Kiswahili in Uganda. "There is a conspiracy with colonialists that is bent to kill the only wide spread African Language." Someone said.

### **Perpetual lack of planning for Kiswahili**

Despite declaring Kiswahili as a national language or second official language to English, there has never been a plan to teach it to the population. The proven plan to spread a language in a country is to teach it in primary schools. Since there has never been, it is illogical to expect the members of Parliament to pass a bill of a language they do not know. To say that Kiswahili is a second official language in Uganda is to make fun of the language. For example, when the politicians go out to solicit for votes, they speak either English or Luganda/or other local languages. There are very few places, may be in the far North, where can be used. Yet still the listeners find it difficult to understand the vocabulary used by the speakers because standard Kiswahili has never been formerly taught to them.

Instead of planning positively for the language and promote it, the education officials plan negatively to kill Kiswahili. When they saw Kiswahili spreading rapidly in secondary schools they distorted the syllabus by putting Kiswahili optional and not among the subjects that would be considered in grading the candidate. This was very serious and it is the last straw that will see Kiswahili out of secondary schools in a few years. Records show that in 2007 the candidates at 'O' and 'A' levels had gone up to over nine thousand but in the recent 2009 exams, candidates dropped to four thousand only. This is the beginning of the decline that will see Kiswahili out of the system.

The primary school syllabus also leaves much to be desired. It promotes only 2 hours of teaching Kiswahili a week. Yet it gives 3 hours for indigenous languages like Luganda to be taught a week. If the teaching of Kiswahili begins in primary schools, will the two hours give the pupils ample time to master the language? The syllabus also is unpredictable. At one instance one hears it must be changed, while others do not support it all saying it has to begin in senior one. With all these ups and downs, it should be noted that Kiswahili is in danger in Uganda.

### **Political corruption**

Uganda Government has more than five small kingdoms operating beneath its power. Each kingdom has its own language which is used as identification for the kingdom. Strong language divisions have persisted

from the colonial era up to today since they have never been interrupted by any strong language policy.

Buganda which is one of the kingdoms uses Luganda as its language. With its central position covering the capital city, the city dwellers had no alternative but to learn Luganda. Traders, who came from all directions of the country, have to learn to speak Luganda as they buy and ferry their merchandise back home. This has made the language so strong and wide spread and now most people term it *lingua franca* of Uganda. A big debate during the time of Idi Amin Dada had always to decide which language between Kiswahili and Luganda would be made the second official language of Uganda. A strange circumstances has for a long time hindered the two languages, whenever Kiswahili and Luganda to enter the fray. In this case all the kingdoms could rally behind Luganda and call Kiswahili a foreign language. Yet whenever Luganda was sighted the kingdoms (except Buganda) would disintegrate and each one asked for its language. (Holger, 1984) to be taken as a second official. It so happens that the Baganda have the biggest population in the country. The politicians then feel that while the Baganda as an ethnic group have the biggest population in the country, to introduce Kiswahili would result in denial of their votes. And for the last 20 years (1990-2010) nothing serious has ever been done to promote Kiswahili. Uganda therefore is responding to political demands of every ethnic group for linguistic recognition (Nsibambi, 1967). There has been a failure to copy a good example from Tanzania and elsewhere. There is no way you can eradicate tribalism in multi-lingual societies if the country does not have a strong policy base.

### **A ray of hope.**

Uganda is a member state of East African Community Regional Establishment. All states have it that for matters of language policy in the region, Kiswahili will be the official language for the East African Community. Since Uganda is a member state, decisions decided on language policy directly affects it too. There are so many Tanzanians, Kenyans, Rwandese and Burundians flocking into Uganda and the languages they use mostly is Kiswahili. This has excited Ugandans and they no longer feel or take Kiswahili to be a foreign language. While at business, different people try to speak Kiswahili and both languages Kiswahili and Luganda exchange words depending on the fluency of the speaker in both languages.



## **Training of Primary School Teachers**

The Ministry of Education and Sports has for the first time made some steps to prepare teachers that will teach Kiswahili in primary schools in about two year's time from now. Already sets of Kiswahili books have been written by different writers and are just waiting for government vetting.

## **Conclusion**

The paper has elaborated what a language policy for a country is supposed to mean for a particular country. The importance of a language policy cannot be over emphasized. The Ministry of Education in any country plays a big role in promoting the spread of the nationally targeted language. When the children at school are taught a language they spread it faster than when it appears only at higher institutions. The Baganda have a proverb which is translated in English; The young trees make the forest thicker.

Table 1 which shows the percentage of Ugandans able to hold conversations in Kiswahili, Luganda and English; and table 2 which shows the percentage of Kiswahili and English in East Africa by 2002, give an encouragement to the government of Uganda that there is a big number of people of Uganda who are already aware of the use of Kiswahili in uniting Ugandans and East Africa as a whole. Implementing the policy actively and spread the language in schools will see Kiswahili catching on like fire.

Yet reliable sources say that Kiswahili would be started in primary schools in Uganda but the snag is that even by now the country cannot have enough teachers that can start the language to run continuously for a reasonable period of time. The start may be done but maintaining the pace that can cope with difficulties like stocking books and resisting them careless talk about Kiswahili; However since the teachers will be scarce, it may take the Ministry another five years to start properly.

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# INFORMATION BEHAVIOUR IN THE CONTEXT OF HIV/AIDS-RELATED EMOTIONS

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## Abstract

*This paper describes the results of an ethnographic which set out to generate in-depth knowledge information behaviour in the context of HIV/AIDS-related emotions. The results of this investigation have revealed that people's capacity to access and use information is greatly influenced by the emotional state. The results of this investigation proved to be a rich source of data illuminating information behaviour in the context of HIV/AIDS-related emotions. The paper has identified new forms of information behaviour, including hysterical information seeking, covert information seeking, hiding, discarding information. Other patterns of information behaviours that emerged from the data included seeking and sharing information. This study suggests that, in the context of a life-threatening illness – HIV/AIDS, information may be discarded as people may be so anxious and distressed to even consider accessing and using any information, or sharing information about their status or understanding the information they are given. Thus strong emotional reactions such as anxiety, fear, and grief can impair people's cognitive ability, making it difficult for them to engage with information. In the light of the above, the paper suggests that information systems and services on HIV/AIDS should be designed to better respond and serve the needs of people experiencing emotional turmoil. Such information systems and services coupled with better information literacy programmes so as to improve the quality of life of PI/A HIV/AIDS. This will require a close cooperation between information professionals and health professionals and PI/HIV/AIDS.*

**Keywords:** *Information Behaviour, Emotions, HIV/AIDS*

## Background

Information behaviour is a term that used to describe the many ways in which human beings interact with information; in particular, the ways in which people seek and utilise information. Information behaviour is also used in Library and Information Science to refer to a sub-discipline that engages in a wide range of types of research conducted in order to understand the human relationship with information (Bates, 2010). Studies on information behaviour were initially referred to as user studies, or studies of information seeking and gathering, or studies of information

needs and uses. The term 'information seeking' was used to include all kinds of research on people's interaction with information. However information seeking suggested only explicit efforts to locate information and did not include the many other ways people and information interacted. This led to use of the term 'information behaviour' in the early 1990s (Bates, 2010; Donald Case, 2007).

The importance of knowledge of information behaviour and its relevance to the design of people-centred information services and products has been emphasised by scholars such as Hepworth (2007) whose paper underscored the value of research on different dimensions of Information Behaviour (IB) in generating insights that facilitate the development of information products and services that meet the requirements of specific groups of people. For example, IB research generated knowledge that was used by information science practitioners and researchers in the development of information literacy standards and guidelines (Armstrong et al., 2005; Hepworth, 2007). In the light of the above, the current paper sets out to explore information behaviour in the context of HIV/AIDS-related emotions. The aim in so doing is to generate rich insights that facilitate the development of information products and services that meet the requirements of persons infected with or affected by HIV/AIDS. This is made possible by discussing the nature of HIV/AIDS-related emotions and providing evidence regarding the ways in which such emotions shape information behaviour.

### **Justification**

Evidence from neurological studies emphasizes the importance of emotions in human cognition and perception (Picard, 2001). However, library and information Science research has paid scanty attention to ways in which HIV/AIDS-related emotion influence information behaviour, particularly from the point of view of persons infected with or affected by HIV/AIDS, (PI/A HIV/AIDS).

### **The aim of the paper**

The purpose of the current study is to map out the information behaviour in the context of HIV/AIDS - related emotions. This is done so as to unearth information behaviour adopted by those affected and infected by HIV / AIDS.

### **Methodology**

The study reported in this paper employed ethnographic approaches so as to understand the information behaviour of the hard-to-reach

population.` These are persons infected with or affected by HIV/AIDS as far as possible from their own perspectives.

Ethnography a field-work approach where ethnographers seek to place phenomena studied in their social and cultural context by immersing themselves in the life of the people they study (Brewer, 2000; Delamont, 2004; Goodley, 2004; Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007; Hammersley, Atkinson, Paul, 1995; LeCompte & Schensul, 1999; Lewis, 1985; Myers, 1999; Pickard, 2007; Van Maanen, 1996). The approach was selected in order to enable the researcher to move beyond the study of external observable behaviour so as to develop an intimate familiarity with the dilemmas, frustrations, routines, and risks that are part of everyday information behaviour of PI/A HIV/AIDS from their own perspectives.

A sample of 40 persons in the UK affected by HIV/AIDS was selected. It included a range of age groups, disease stages, sexual orientations, and educational and ethnic backgrounds. Twenty six were people infected with HIV; six were affected by HIV in other ways; and eight were involved in the provision of information and support.

Respondents were recruited through support workers within an HIV/AIDS support group where the researcher worked as a part-time volunteer for 17 months. The researcher maintained visibility through regular participation in the HIV/AIDS support group activities such as making and serving tea/coffee and dinner, washing pots. Other activities including registering new service users, participating in school outreach programmes, line dancing, Salsa dancing and doing nails during the women's group pampering evenings helped further to build rapport and gain trust with prospective respondents.

Data were generated from March 2010 to May 2011 through informal open-ended in-depth interviews, each of which lasted between 90 and 180 minutes. Interviewees were asked to recount specific experiences. The intention was to understand the world from the respondents' points of view. Information redundancy was employed to determine saturation (Lincoln, 1985). Spradley's analytical model of ethnographic analysis (Gorman, 2005; LeCompte, Schensul, Jean, 1999; Spradley, 1979) was employed for the data analysis. All respondents gave informed consent. Anonymity was achieved by attributing pseudonyms to interview quotations and by anonymising the contents of some quotations to avoid possible identification of individuals.

## **Data Analysis and Theoretical Framework**

The interviews were audio-recorded, and transcribed verbatim. The data were managed using qualitative data management software: NVivo 8™. The generated data was analysed using Spradley's Domain Analysis (Spradley, 1979). This is one of the highly recommended approaches to analyse qualitative ethnographic data.

## **Results**

The interviewees proved to be a rich source of data illuminating information behavior in the context of HIV/AIDS-related emotions. Various patterns of information behaviours emerged from the data. These include not only seeking and sharing information, but also hysterical information seeking, covert information seeking, hiding, destroying and avoiding information.

The interview data also revealed fascinating insights into ways in which HIV/AIDS-related emotions such as shock, fear of people finding out, worrying about infecting others, feeling broken-hearted, hopeless, and worthless, loss of control, worrying about dying, and what family, friends and the community perceptions, shock, 'shame, guilt, 'feelings of loss and grief', loneliness and isolation, 'stress', 'denial', 'embarrassment and devastation, shape HIV/AIDS related information behaviour.

### **Hysterical Information Behavior**

HIV/AIDS related shock and worrying about HIV/AIDS resulted in emotion-focused information behaviour such as hysterical information seeking (in the context of the paper reported in this study hysterical information seeking refers panic-stricken information seeking) as they wanted to know all there is to know about HIV/AIDS in the shortest time possible. Consequently, they overloaded themselves with information and ended up being panicky and being terrified, particularly when PI/A HIV/AIDS associated themselves with all the opportunistic infections and side effects presented in the information. The extract from Ben [Person infected with HIV/AIDS] have been selected to illustrate hysterical information seeking:

"At that time I was wild. I really wanted to know everything as soon as possible. I wanted to know everything I could about it in the space of five minutes. I wanted to find more information about what was going to happen, how long I was going to live, what the medications were going to do, whether I could go ahead with the career that I wanted to do, it was huge. ... The worrying issues that I found were

that I could die from a heart attack I could die from diabetes, I could die because my medications stopped working. I mean there is new information coming. The big thing for me that terrifies me absolutely is developing dementia sooner. I really don't want to be alive suffering from Alzheimers"

### **Discarding information**

The respondents reported that they experienced. The HIV/AIDS-emotions such as shock devastation, grief and loss were experienced by PI/A HIV/AIDS. For instance Monica [person infected with HIV] reported that :

"...he said: 'Oh, you have HIV'; I said: 'Oh Jesus Christ! This can't be right! This can't be right! I didn't ask for that! I haven't been sleeping around!' [Respondent cries]. I have been such a good mom, and it just blew my world apart. This year I have been in the house taking antidepressants. You know, your world falls apart, it's the stigma; you don't know what your children will do ... are they going to be ashamed of me? ... they experiencing the same heart wrenching....you know we have many prejudiced people. The devastation of it, it happened once, for a person that had not had sex for 16 years, and I got it. That broke my heart". "... I went through a period of loss and grieving. It's like a grieving process, you know, like when

The data revealed that people HIV/AIDS-related emotions had difficulty in dealing with information. In some cases the information received was perceived to be because of the timing and the emotional state of the recipient. Such information was more often than not discarded:

"... they gave me information but it wasn't useful, because at the time of receiving a positive result, it is like receiving news that your beloved one is dead. You know when you have been well and then all of a sudden you are diagnosed, and people just calm you down and tell you that everything will be well? ... but all the information I received at that time wasn't helpful". Monica [person infected with HIV].

In other cases negative emotions such as shock, or being upset or confused interfered with the ability to process and engage with information. In some cases this could result in disregarding the information received:

"...I had a phone call: 'you need to come back to the clinic'. I said: 'I have got cancer that is possibly what it can be'. HIV had never crossed my mind. When they told me it was HIV, I nearly died and my life

just fell apart. I felt shell-shocked, thinking how I process this information, what do I do? ...[Silence] I was upset, I didn't look for information. I had just thought to end it". Joel [person infected with HIV].

### **Covert information seeking**

The analysis of data has revealed that people could engage in covert information seeking and hiding information as a result of fear of being embarrassed. For instance, Julius [person infected with HIV], who feared that he would be singled out for reading an HIV/AIDS magazine in the library, shared his experience with as follows:

"In the Library, I saw a magazine; I picked it up and started reading it. But I had this feeling that I shouldn't have picked it up because people were observing what you are reading:' what you are reading about?'. So I have always got some sort of excuse I wouldn't feel comfortable reading it where my colleagues are So regarding HIV/AIDS information in public areas such as libraries or the Internet, issues regarding HIV/AIDS, am not conformable as people can identifying you as a 'case person' [person with questionable character], so it is a bit difficult".

The analysis also revealed that emotions such as shame, denial and embarrassment can not only result in hiding information, hysterical information seeking but also and covert information seeking. For instance Jane who was ashamed after receiving information that she is HIV positive, she engaged in covert and hysterical information seeking:

"...and it was very difficult for me to tell anybody, because I felt ashamed. I went to the library because I said I wanted to know more about all of this. I have got to know what is happening in my life. I went to the library and I just pressed on everything to do with HIV. Just pressed it and printed it. Press and print, [respondent was panicking] I spent about £7-10 in the library, put everything in my bag. I went home and I started reading. And I said: 'Oh my God, I have got this, I have got that and I stared worrying'". Jane [person infected with HIV].

HIV/AIDS-related emotions such as acute fears of the unknown, being worried about an uncertain social life, death and dying, as well as medication, particularly how long the medication would be effective for, as well as the side-effects can result in intense anxiety:



“... it is terribly worrying because, when you are diagnosed, you think I have X number of years to live now, what will my social life be like? Even when the pills worked, we didn’t know how long they gonna work for”. Ben [person infected with HIV].

One of the ways respondents coped with HIV/AIDS-related fear and anxiety was by hiding information about their status and isolating themselves:

“You lock yourself in the house, and you treat yourself as worthless, you don’t want to see people, you don’t want them to look at you, you do not want to see anybody, you lock yourself away, you don’t want to go out, and you don’t want to take on their judgments of you, because you judge yourself enough; that’s where isolating yourself comes in”. Jane [person infected with HIV]

### **Shifting Information Behaviour**

The interview data reveal fascinating insights into the patterns of information behavior that PI/ A HIV/AIDS adopted as a result HIV/AIDS-related emotions. The respondents experiences revealed that HIV/AIDS-related emotions can result into switching between seeking, sharing, hiding, avoiding and destroying information. For instance PI/A HIV/AIDS experiencing positive emotions such as being happy with the progress they are making in terms of health may adopt an information seeking behaviour to inform themselves about HIV/AIDS. However if worrying information is encountered such a person may adopt emotion-focused strategies such as discarding and avoiding information: The extract from Job [person infected with HIV/AIDS] was selected to illustrate shifting information behaviour:

“My ability to process information very much impacted on by my mental health and emotional well-being. If I am not feeling emotionally very well, then I can’t take information in. I really have a variety of emotional states. So there are times when I am more receptive to information, and other times when I am not. Now the fact that I am choosing not to access information at the moment is just as valid as choosing to look for information. These are the kind of wider issues which contribute to me being able to access information. If I am feeling happy within myself then I can choose to access information depending on your emotional state, you can’t sometimes take that information in. Sometimes it is too complicated; sometimes it is too technical and medical; while at other times you have just got a lot going on

emotionally and you are just not receptive to that information. It has actually been to do with me and the state of mind I am in. So there is something about being able to access information when it suits you emotionally. I think you have to be emotionally ready to access information”.

The above accounts illustrate that emotion-focused information behaviour may be adopted to make life more bearable by avoiding realities which might prove to be overwhelming.

### **Hiding Information**

Shame, guilt and self-stigmatisation resulting from incorrect information, conflicting ideas (e.g., what people thought about PI/A HIV/AIDS, lack of information about HIV, fear, prejudice and discrimination), were typical emotional reactions for most respondents. The associated Information behaviours included hiding and discarding HIV/AIDS-related information. Such behaviour was adopted in order to safeguard ones status and dignity:

“I mean, I didn’t tell my family for the first year that I was HIV-positive because I was so ashamed and horrified that I was HIV-positive... I had had the infection that I had known about for 12 months; I didn’t learn anything about it. Talking to the counselor did not change my feelings at all. I don’t think my head was taking in what he wanted me to take in ... Well I didn’t disclose to my children for 12 months. I lived in fear of them finding out... It was 12 months before June last year [2009].”. Jo [person infected with HIV].

Such hiding behaviour was well known to information providers. For example, Claire [information provider] spoke of her observations relating to the hiding of information:

“...We have a service where we send booklets through the post but some clients insist that we put the information in black plastic bag, particularly people who live in shared houses as well as those who have children who don’t know. I also know someone who hides it under the bed after reading it, and another who hides it in a specific tin”.

Information providers can also themselves be hidiers of information on behalf of their clients. In some cases HIV support organisations sought to be as anonymous as possible, including putting no sign posts on their premises:

“ So I think that what we are doing here [HIV/ AIDS support centre], I mean having no signs to show that we are an HIV support group, has made information more invisible because of the stigma, so it’s kind of a circle. The stigma causes someone to hide behind invisibility which causes more stigma. But hiding perpetuates stigma because we don’t tell anybody we are here, so nobody gets the information. If we had a big poster people would not come here. Even when we go out, we don’t wear a badge showing [Name of support organisation]; our building doesn’t have any signs saying ‘HIV support organisation’. When we set up information stands, our big banner doesn’t mention HIV. Joy [information provider];

or assuming a different identity when doing outreach:

“So if we are doing a home visit we have to do it under an assumed identity; e.g., we are church support workers, or we are from social services. We are not from [HIV/ AIDS support organisation], so when we go out of this building HIV is not mentioned”. Luke [information provider];

as well as opting to remain anonymous during HIV campaigns:

“Maybe because you don’t see HIV plastered everywhere, we don’t mention HIV on our big banner, so people come to ask us what we are all about. We at first wondered how people were going to know about us, but it has worked in our favour in a kind of way. This kind of anonymity is a way to get people who wouldn’t otherwise talk about it talking about it”. Claire [information provider] to enable people feel comfortable with coming to the support group meetings and activities.

It is interesting to learn that, although on the surface, hiding information is a negative behaviour, it was actually useful in several ways; for instance, concealing HIV status was a safeguard against discrimination, stigma and abuse. By putting no signs on the HIV support premises, more people felt comfortable access and use the services of the support group; while eliminating big banners attracted people to the HIV stand, who otherwise would not have had anything to do with HIV/ AIDS.

### **Seeking and sharing information**

The paper has also indicated that, as people’s appraisal of the threats, challenges posed by HIV changed over time, so their emotional state changed from negative to positive (Richard S. Lazarus & Folkman, 1987) as they came to terms with their condition and tried to change the troubled environment by engaging in seeking, and sharing information. This kind of

behaviour explained by Lazarus (19 84) whose assertion that the coping process was dependent on the context in which the disease occurred, and would change because people's appraisal of threats also changes over time. This explains why the study reported in this paper revealed that the respondents who were initially ashamed, angry and frightened, and hated anything to do with HIV, including HIV/AIDS information, reported having looked for information when their appraisal of HIV changed. The paper suggests that receiving information from, and interacting with, other people infected/affected can lead to positive appraisal of one's condition (to come to terms with it) and in problem focused coping strategies such as seeking/sharing (as opposed to avoiding/concealing) information. The extracts from describing the experiences of Job and Sarah[persons infected with HIV] before and after coming to terms with HIV/AIDS were selected to illustrate this:

"I can personally read HIV/AIDS information anywhere, I have sat on trains and read HIV literature, such as Positive Nation, Treatment Updates, so it is not something that worries me. I know lot of people who would be extremely unhappy to do that. It is way along the process of people accepting the condition. You know I am 25 years old [living with HIV] so it's not a big thing to me. [Interviewer: Was it a big thing to you?] Oh yes. I mean for many, many years I wouldn't even say the word HIV; it was something I didn't want to talk about at all. Now, I can talk about it in public, it is a very big change over time. With the information I have at the moment I can refute it if someone says something incorrect about HIV. I can say to them no, no, this is wrong. I can explain to them, I can pass on that information to someone else. So it enables me to talk with confidence about the disease that I have, and if you can speak with confidence about something, it does reduce people's prejudice. I found that very, very useful to be able to quote facts and figures and to be able to say to people: 'You know, this is how it is from my point of view'". Joel [person infected with HIV].

The evidence presented so far has illustrated that people's emotional state has a strong influence on the pattern of information behaviour to be adopted. HIV/AIDS-related emotions, such as fear of moralistic judgments from family, friends and the wider community accounted for forms of emotion-focused information-related coping behaviours such as avoiding and hiding information, as well as covert and hysterical information seeking.

## **Discussion and Conclusion and Implications**

The study reported in this paper has revealed that an HIV/AIDS positive diagnosis was appraised as threatening, taxing, challenging and harmful to the well-being of PI/A HIV/AIDS which resulted in various emotions such as shock, grief, denial and shame. The paper has provided evidence that HIV/AIDS-related emotions can greatly influence information behaviour.

The study reported in this paper has not only extended the body of knowledge by unearthing new forms of information behaviour – covert and hysterical information seeking – that have hitherto not been identified in information science research, but it has also applied Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) Stress Appraisal and Coping theory – a useful theoretical framework for interpreting the interview data generated to understand information behaviour in the context of HIV/AIDS-related emotions. Emotions have been defined as states of emotional feeling (Johnson-Laird et al., 1989), as feeling states involving positive or negative affective valence (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988), as states of automatic arousal (Schachter & Singer, 1962), or changes in the activation of action dispositions (Frijda, 1986).

This study suggests that, in the context of HIV/AIDS-related emotions, information may be discarded as people may be so anxious and distressed to even consider accessing and using any information, or sharing information about their status or understanding the information they are given. Thus strong emotional reactions such as anxiety, fear, and grief can impair people's cognitive ability, making it difficult for them to engage with information. The forms of information behaviour identified are not described as positive or negative although some behaviour is deemed more beneficial than others.

The study has extended the body of research by building on findings from studies such as Harris et al. (2010), Hogan and Palmer (2005), Hogan and Palmer (2005), Huber and Cruz (2000), Veinot (2010), and Zukoski et al. (2011), in which HIV/AIDS-related information was repeatedly described as a critical resource for people living with HIV/AIDS by demonstrating that although information is an important resource for people dealing with the problems associated with living with HIV/AIDS, HIV/AIDS-related emotions can hinder effective interaction with information. The paper has showed that showed that in the absence of a known cure or vaccine, (Albright, 2006, 2007; Albright, Kawooya, 2007;

Albright, 2005) it may not enough to provide information. The respondents experiences described above suggest that providing information to PI/A HIV/AIDS may require more than correct, reliable and up to date information. It suggests a need to understand users at deeper levels in order to assist them effectively.

Theories of emotion have been grouped into two main categories: the cognitive and somatic theories. The cognitive theories of emotion argue that the cognitive activity can be conscious or unconscious, intentional or unintentional and take a form of a judgment or a thought – also known as cognitive appraisal (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, & DeLongis, 1986). Cognitive emotions also entail the evaluation of a particular encounter with the environment, as well as the determination of its relevance to one's well-being. The major proponent of the cognitive theory of emotion was Lazarus (1984), who stressed the importance of cognitive evaluations in establishing the meaning of stimuli and the way of coping with it.

On the other hand Somatic emotion theories argue that bodily responses, and not cognitive judgments, cause emotional reaction (Zajonc, 1984).

Since emotions such as anger, guilt, fear, sadness and loneliness – which are difficult to manage may interfere with people's cognitive ability to access and use HIV/AIDS-related information, the current paper has employed Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) cognitive emotion theory to explain information behaviour in the context of HIV/AIDS-related emotions. This choice is based on the premise that emotions play an essential role in social interactions (Russell, Bachorowski, & Fernandez-Dols, 2003; Scherer, 2003; Sander et al., 2005; Lopatovska, & Arapakis, 2010) and facilitate rational decision making and perception (Damasio, 1994).

Lazarus' (1993) definition of coping as on-going cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage (including to master, reduce or tolerate), specific internal and/or external demands and conflicts among them, was useful in generating understanding of the adaptive and/or non-adaptive cognitive and behavioural information-related strategies that people adopted so as to manage (reduce and/or tolerate) the debilitating effects of HIV/AIDS.

Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) Stress Appraisal and Coping theory suggest that coping strategies may be problem-focused or emotion-focused. Both emotion-focused and problem-focused coping strategies were identified in the current research. The emotion-focused information

behaviour identified include: hysterical information seeking, hiding, avoiding and discarding information while problem-focused coping strategies (information behaviour) included sharing and seeking information.

The forms of information behaviour identified are not described as positive or negative although some behaviour is deemed more beneficial than others. This finding is consistent with Lazarus (1993), who observed that there is no universally good or bad coping strategy although some might more often be better or worse than others. The study reported in this paper corroborates Lazarus's (1993) observation that the coping process is dependent on the context in which the disease occurred and would change because people's appraisal of threats also change over time. With respect to HIV/AIDS-related information behaviour, seeking and sharing information typically occurred when people's appraisal of the threats, challenges and harm posed by HIV changed over time, and/or when their emotional state changed from negative to positive.

Emotion -focused Information behaviour were mostly strategy most employed during in instances where people believed information may cause unpleasant emotions or diminish pleasant emotions, and/or needed to maintain hope and manage flawed information. On the other hand, problem-focused coping strategies, such as seeking and sharing information, are closely associated with changes in emotions from negative to more positive.

Lazarus and Folkman's (1984), view of stress as a relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his/her well-being helped to explain the relationship between HIV/AIDS-related emotions and the information behaviour that PI/A HIV/AIDS adopted in the course of living with HIV.

The findings reported in this paper suggest that models of information seeking behaviour which emphasise rational library-based search processes such as those involved in scholarly and work-related information seeking like those of Kuhlthau (1993), Wilson (1999), Ellis (1993) and Foster (2004), focus on information seeking contexts that are not as emotionally distressing as those of HIV/AIDS cannot explain information behaviour in the context of emotional distress.. In addition, the models emphasise information seeking and the benefits of acquiring information, and assume that individuals seek or pay attention to information. However, they do not

consider instances when people may not opt to look for information (Case, Andrews, Johnson, & Allard, 2005; Narayan, Case, & Edwards, 2011). Therefore these models cannot effectively explain information behaviour within an HIV/AIDS context where a wide range of patterns of information behaviour, other than information seeking, occur.

Kuhlthau's (1993) Information Search Process model is based on the premise that uncertainty is a cognitive state which causes affective symptoms of anxiety and lack of confidence in the information search process. Although the model is valuable in illustrating the confusion, frustration, anxiety and vagueness experienced by individuals searching about a specific topic or question, it makes no attempt to show how feelings such as emotional distress, shame, guilt and embarrassment may influence the search process, and also shape information behaviour.

This study has generated insights into the ways in which people's emotional status can enhance or hinder effective interaction with information. While Kuhlthau (1993) posits that people experience emotions at the beginning of a search process and overcome this towards the end of the search process, this study suggests that PI/A HIV/AIDS experience ongoing positive and/or negative emotional processes which greatly influence their interaction with information. Thus information behaviour within the everyday context of a life-threatening and distressing condition may present different challenges, dilemmas and frustrations compared to a search focusing on one topic, question or project.

This paper has revealed PI/A HIV/AIDS seem to be more likely to experience a range of emotional problems, including distress, shame, guilt, loneliness, worthlessness unhappiness, anxiety and depression. It has also showed interaction with information can, to a great extent, depend on one's emotional state. This explains why information behaviour, including hysterical information seeking as well as hiding, avoiding and sharing information may adopted in order to cope with HIV/AIDS. The paper suggests a need for information systems and services that are responsive to the needs of PI/A HIV/AIDS. Such information systems and services coupled with better information literacy programmes should reduce magnitude of HIV/AIDS-related emotional reactions in order improve the quality of life of PI/A HIV/AIDS. This will require a close cooperation between information professionals and health professionals and PI/HIV/AIDS.



These findings further suggest that in order to enhance the impact of information in the management and prevention of HIV/AIDS, a framework that provides for an intimate understanding information service provision in the context emotions is should be put in place. Such a framework will provide a basis for the design and implementation of information-related interventions that are responsive to the needs of information users experiencing anxiety and emotional distress.

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# MARKET CHAIN SYSTEMS AND COMMUTER LIVELIHOODS: A RE-ASSESSMENT OF MARKET CONDITIONS IN UGANDA

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## **Abstract**

*The toughening economic conditions in the developing world in general and in Uganda in particular have compelled many households to diversify their livelihood activities. On the one hand, rural farmers have been drawn to non-farm activities in both the urban and rural areas. On the other hand, urban households have been compelled to seek economic opportunities beyond urban confines, thus engaging in both non-farm and farm activities. These urban-rural interactions are the hallmark of the market chain systems in Uganda. This paper therefore, is a reassessment of market conditions in Uganda in view to establish the influence of market chain systems on the livelihoods of commuters in Uganda. The paper is informed by vast literature on the subject and more particularly by the lived experiences of commuting households in the Bugisu region of Eastern Uganda. The paper has established that commuting is a common livelihood strategy in Uganda although there are a number of inherent challenges to sustainable livelihoods of commuter households in this country.*

**Keywords:** *Chain systems, commuter livelihood, Market conditions*

## **Introduction**

Market chain systems have emerged as increasingly important in the field of business practice. Markets matter for rural and urban households and it has become increasingly clear that in tackling poverty, market-related issues such as access to information, institutions, linkages and trade rules are vital. It is also widely accepted that making markets work better for the poor is integral to pro-poor and broad-based economic development. The toughening economic conditions in the developing world in general and in Uganda in particular have compelled many households to diversify their livelihood activities. On the one hand, rural farmers have been drawn to non-farm activities in both the urban and rural areas. On the other hand, urban households have been compelled to seek economic opportunities beyond urban confines, thus engaging in both non-farm and farm activities.

This paper therefore, is a reassessment of market conditions in Uganda in view to establish the influence of market chain systems on the

livelihoods of commuters in Uganda. The paper is informed by vast literature on the subject and more particularly by the lived experiences of commuters in the Bugisu region of Eastern Uganda.

### **Market Chain Analysis**

Market chain points to the process of production in which the economic actors produce and transact a particular product as it moves from primary producer to final consumer (Banks, 2010). Market chain systems play a pivotal role in influencing livelihood activities undertaken by households. Market chain is composed of activities and services that bring a product from conception to end use in a particular industry (Namazzi 2008). In most cases market chain systems work well. Failure of the market system arises when problems occur in which shocks such as severe drought, floods, major disease outbreaks or civil unrest disrupt market system. In the case of agricultural markets, seasonal factors may affect the market chain system exacerbated by the lag time between farmers observing a price trend or opportunity and being able to respond after making decisions to plant, grow and harvest a specific crop or to rear animals (Lundy et al, 2007). Consequently, changes in market supply conditions in one year can lead to major swings in the supply and demand of agricultural goods in subsequent years. This is sometimes referred to as boom to bust marketing cycles. When such scenarios occur, interventions may focus on improving the enabling environment namely; business regulation or business service provision such as financial services, or take the enabling environment and business service provision as a given and instead just focus on opportunities intrinsic to the market chain such as greater coordination along the market chain (Banks, 2010).

Lundy et al, (2007) further, notes that, in an attempt to avoid problems in food supplies and reduce price volatility in the agricultural market chain, governments may take it upon themselves to regulate the market by setting up support measures such as subsidies, floor prices and quotas for specific commodities in an attempt to match demand with supply. The other option is creating farmers 'capacity to: enhance product quality, standardization, bulking, storage, and value addition for primary products (Tatwangire, 2013). In any particular context there are a wide variety of constraints that influence poor people's livelihoods and incomes. This means, in turn, that there are a wide range of options for governments and donors wanting to assist with improving poor people's livelihoods and income (Banks, 2010).

The general literature therefore, reveals that, there is a close link between market chain systems and livelihood activities often undertaken by both rural and urban households. Access to information, institutional linkages and trade rules greatly influence household decisions in regards to what livelihood activities to engage in. Consequently livelihood activities influence household wellbeing. In Uganda, the link between market chain systems and livelihood activities can best be explained by the commuting phenomenon.

### **Market Chain Systems and Commuting Phenomenon in Uganda**

Commuting has gained pace in many developing countries such as Uganda due to toughening economic conditions and improved transport facilities that have brought rural and urban households closer to each other enabling easy connection between one urban area and another. In this paper, the term commuting refers to the process by which people move to and from along the rural-urban continuum deriving a living in town, while remaining based in rural areas. It also describes a situation where people move from urban to rural areas deriving a living in rural areas while remaining based in the urban. Some people also commute from urban to urban deriving a living in one of the towns and yet staying in another. The first case however, is the most common phenomenon in Uganda. Many households in Uganda have adopted commuting as a livelihood strategy trying to cope with problems of poverty and rising cost of living. Many households traverse the rural-urban continuum regularly deriving a living from the nearby towns or rural areas.

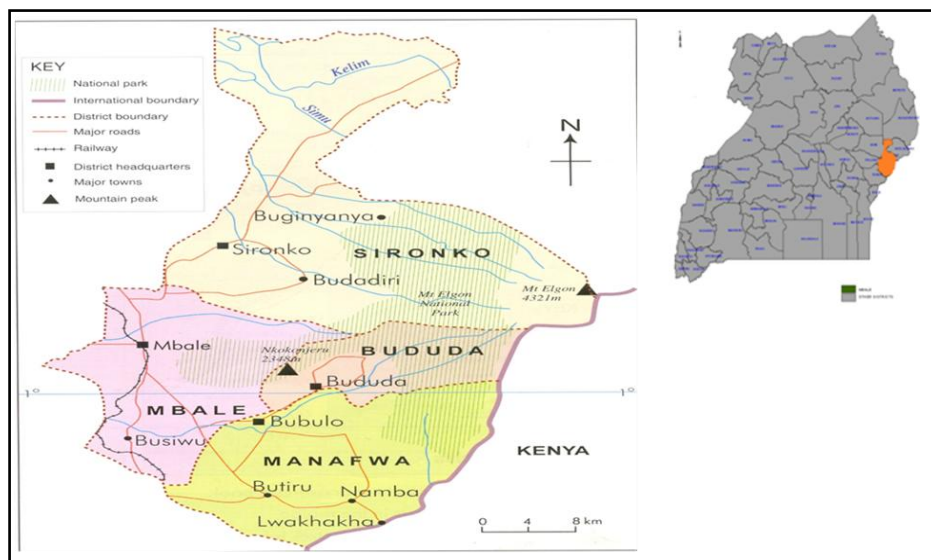
Commuting takes two major dimensions namely; commuting as a form of mobility and commuting as a livelihood strategy. As a form of mobility, commuting takes the form of interaction that exists between rural and urban settings marked by the flows of people along the rural-urban continuum moving along with other flows such as goods from the rural areas to urban and vice versa; flows of capital for investment in the form of remittances by the urban relatives to the rural families; flows of services mostly from the urban to the rural areas. Flows of people (commuting as a form of mobility), constitutes one of the major flows that dominates the interaction between rural and urban areas in the search for livelihoods. These flows of goods, services and people and the livelihood activities undertaken in these flows characterise the market chain systems in Uganda.

Livelihoods refer to the sum of ways and means by which individuals, households and communities make and sustain a living over time using a combination of socio-economic, cultural and environmental resources (Pain and Lautze 2002). A livelihood is a job one does to earn a living. It points to multiple activities households employ to earn a living. Households make a living through a myriad of ways doing formal and informal jobs, farm and non-farm activities, legal and illegal jobs. Strategies adopted by households are more dependent on household's *objectives* and *interests*. Livelihood strategies are further shaped by the prevailing market conditions, the assets available and capabilities of households (Edaku, 2012). Livelihood strategies adopted by households are usually short or long-term or both depending on the shocks and stress caused by poverty, seasonal factors, household's objectives and the assets available.

Short-term livelihood strategies may take the form of budget adjustments to fit expenditure within limited income and high cost of living; the case of the current soaring prices and high cost of living in Uganda. In this case households have been forced to make substantive budget adjustments to fit expenditures within their incomes. In such circumstances households may adjust consumption from expensive items to cheaper ones; move children from expensive schools to affordable schools; and stop obtaining medical care from professionals and start seeing traditional herbalists or buy drugs from drug shops. Such mechanisms are adopted out of necessity as households seek better livelihood alternatives. They are a result of sudden and immediate changes (seasonality such as seasonal shifts in prices, production, food availability, employment opportunities). Long-term strategies are those undertaken to help a household build capacity over time in preparation for long-term life changes. These may take the form of investment in children's or personal education, capital investment such as real estate investment or setting up a business, firm or factory. Commuters usually diversify their livelihoods to cope with high cost of living and multiple socio-economic demands.

### **Commuting Phenomenon and Livelihood Activities in Bugisu Region in Uganda**

This paper is a result of the study conducted in Bugisu region in eastern Uganda covering five districts of Mbale, Manafa, Budduda, Sironko and Bulambuli (See, map 1).



Map 1: Bugisu Region in Eastern Uganda: **Source:** BMK Atlas, 2010

Bugisu region is situated in eastern Uganda and comprises of five districts: Mbale, Manafa, Budduda, Sironko and Bulambuli. It lies approximately between Latitudes 45'N, 1 35'N and Longitudes 34'E, 34 35'E. The region covers a vast area of 2,467 sq km. The Bagisu constitute about 5 percent of the population of Uganda with an average population size of about 1,012,831 people (Uganda National Census Statistics, 2002). The region has the highest population density in the nation, rising to 250 households per square kilometre.

The study considered a sample population of seven hundred and sixty (760) respondents comprising of; five hundred and twenty (520) commuters, one hundred (100) District Local Government Officials, one hundred (100) Urban Authorities, twenty (20) Civil Society Organisation officials and another twenty (20) officials from financial institutions in Mbale.

Purposive sampling was used to select key informants. The selection of key informants was based on their knowledge-ability of commuting patterns and livelihood activities in the selected areas. Cluster sampling, purposive sampling and snowball sampling were used to select the seven hundred and thirty six (736) commuter respondents. The researchers mapped the study areas and classified them into clusters of one rural



village and one urban centre (treated as a village) from which the respondents (commuter households) and key informants were selected from the districts. The use of snowball sampling technique was useful in the selection of respondents. Snowballing was used especially where it was not easy to identify “commuters”. Through snowball sampling, the identification of one “commuter” enabled the identification of others, making the selection easy.

The study relied on primary and secondary sources. It adopted a triangulation of methods of data collection and analysis, combining information from different sources of data collection namely; unstructured expert interviews, focus group discussions, review of secondary literature, use of questionnaires, rapid rural/urban appraisal and observation. Photographs were also taken to capture observable commuting and livelihood activities in the study area.

The study findings indicate that commuting is a key marketing activity and dominant livelihood strategy. As a livelihood strategy, commuting takes the form of activity that characterise the interaction between rural and urban areas as commuters traverse the rural-urban continuum regularly residing at one point and working and or deriving a living from another. Most households have adopted this as a survival strategy mainly out of necessity sometimes diversifying livelihoods as they operate in at least two places. It is common practice to find one having gardens in the village where he/she resides and at the same time taking on non-farm activity in the urban engaged in vending, hawking, “*boda boda*” riding, among other activities.

Commuting in the Bugisu Region is an activity by people of different ages, sex and occupation. Children below the age of 12 commute and account for about, 1% of the total percentage of commuters in Bugisu region. Both males and females commute although males dominate commuting accounting for 60% as compared to 40% for females (Edaku, 2010).

The common livelihood strategies commuter households engaged in are farm and non-farm activities. Farm activities include crop and animal husbandry. Households grow a range of crops such as maize, beans, cabbages, carrots, coffee and bananas for domestic and commercial purposes. The rural commuters rear chicken, goats and cattle though on a small scale due to shortage of land. Non-farm activities are dominantly found in urban areas such as Mbale, Manafa, Budduda, Sironko and

Bulambuli towns which serve as district headquarters. There are other small towns, trading centres and markets in the region that offer opportunities for growth of no-farm activities. One of the major markets in the region is Kamus that draws commuters from within and outside the region. Urban influence in the region has led to increase in scale of non-farm activities in the rural areas. Non-farm activities take the range of activities such as professional and non-professional services such as education, medical care, and equipment repairs. They also include retail and wholesale trade, vending, hawking, construction and processing activities as shown in table 1.1 below. In the rural areas the dominant non-farm activities are brick laying, coffee and maize processing, carpentry, teaching and pottery.

**Table 2.1:** *Some of the Commuter Livelihood Activities in Bugisu Region*

<i>Livelihood Activities</i>	<b>Number of Responses and their Percentages</b>	
	N	%
Hawking	24	8.89
Street vending	62	22.96
Retail/ wholesale	44	16.29
Small manufacturing	20	7.41
Construction	18	6.67
Service	78	28.89
Farming	24	8.89
<b>Total</b>	<b>270</b>	<b>100</b>

*Source: Field Data*

With reference to table 1.1, about 59% of commuter livelihood activities are commercial related taking the form of retail and wholesale trade, vending and hawking. The opportunities in town dictate upon what commuters do and explains why the service sector takes the largest share of livelihood activities accounting for about, 29% of commuter livelihood activities followed by street vending (23%). Street vendors engage in diverse activities taking advantage of every opportunity available that a household can do. In the evenings, traders from the suburbs and nearby villages come to towns to occupy most of the commercial streets and taxi/bus park areas. In the night between 8.00pm and 10.00pm, the commuters go back to their areas of aboard and return to the streets the following morning or evening. Plate, 2.1 illustrates some of the livelihood activities by the commuters.

*Plate 2.1: Some of the Commuter Livelihood Activities in Mbale Town;*



*Source: Field Photos*

An interesting scenario in Bugisu region is the manner in which urban households maintain close links with their rural homes and continue to carry on with farming activities in the rural areas alongside their urban livelihood jobs. Most households integrate rural and urban activities having gardens of coffee, maize and beans in the country side. The farms are managed by relatives in the rural areas. Once in a while (weekly or monthly basis), urban commuters visit their rural homes to check on their investments there. Asked why urbanites have to have farms in the country side rather than concentrate on their urban livelihoods, one of the respondents from Manafa district headquarters (town) had this to say:

*We maintain links with our rural homes for two reasons; to register your presence and to keep in touch with your relatives at home thus securing your social position in the community. This is because when you die or lose a family member, you have to be taken and buried in the ancestral land. The second reason is the need to diversify sources of income amidst hard economic times of today. By having a garden of maize or beans, one can supplement the little earnings with food stuffs from home – making life a little easier than solely depending on earnings from urban job, (Respondent in Manafa Town Council).*

From this statement, we note that commuters often find it necessary to have homes and activities in the urban and also in the rural for purposes of maintaining close relationships with the ancestral origins. They also do it by diversifying their sources of livelihood in which they have farms in the rural areas for food production and to supplement income earned from urban livelihood activities. It can be concluded that in maintaining links in both urban and rural areas, commuter households are able to establish and maintain a market chain system for sustainable livelihoods.

Notwithstanding the numerous efforts by Commuter households to ensure their livelihoods in this region, there are a number of challenges that impose limitations to commuting activities in Bugisu region. These limitations include:

1. Exploitation of rural households by middlemen who offer meagre gate prices for agricultural produce and services and yet charge exorbitant prices for urban manufactured goods and services in exchange is one of the challenges faced by rural commuters. The challenge also lies in the fact that most products from rural areas are exchanged in their raw form and therefore fetch low prices compared to urban industrial products.
2. Poor transport compounds the problem making marketing far beyond local markets difficult. The roads are in a poor shape due to ragged terrain that makes road construction, maintenance and other improvements very difficult. Most rural roads have been affected by the rains making them impassable throughout the year. Most of them are laced with potholes, which makes it difficult for vehicles to get to the farm sites to collect produce. The poor state of roads has led to higher transport costs hindering access to markets and flow of market information. This has led to increase in transportation costs and a rise in consumer food prices.
3. Market instabilities that affect pricing of locally produced goods is one of the challenges faced by commuters especially farmers. The volatility of crop prices has stressed both farmers and farmer institutions. Current market fundamentals centre on demand and supply operations made worse by unscrupulous middlemen whose aim is to extort from farmers in order to make abnormal profits by paying low for farm produce and selling to urban households at abnormal rate. The collapse of cooperative movement and lack of agricultural market information has served to deepen the crisis. This has been made worse by the farmers

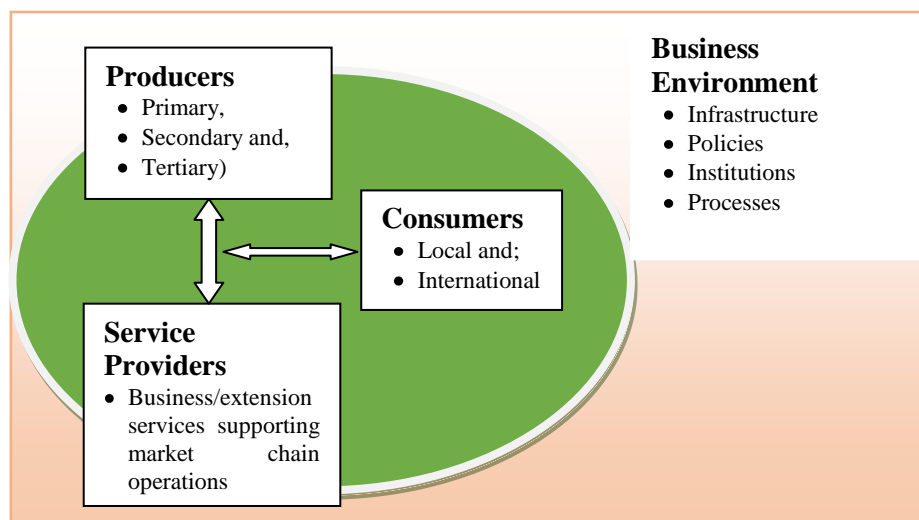
themselves who sell their produce during the harvesting season, the time of bumper harvest bringing prices much lower than ever. During bumper harvest farmers fetch very low prices for their produce because all the surrounding areas of the region, will be supplying the same products.

4. Price fluctuations in the international market have affected the marketing of cash crops such as coffee that depend most on the international market conditions. Farmers dealing in coffee have often reported fluctuation of coffee prices at the international market as a hindrance to their farming activities in the region, affecting their farm gate prices. The average price of commodities fluctuates a lot and this obviously is a major factor determining the level of profitability for producers and, therefore, the value of land used for the production of these commodities. The annual variation in price level, then, will influence the annual variation in profitability. The inter-year variation in prices may also have important implications for decisions relative to pricing annual production.
5. Problems of storage have often affected farmers and businessmen dealing in farmer produce. There is general lack of storage and warehousing facilities such as lock-up stores, silos, barns in which farmers would store produce and sell when prices have appreciated. Very few marketers store produce more over in jute bags and baskets which do not allow storage for a long time before produce goes bad. Insufficient storage facilities often lead to produce loss due to premature germination, fungal and bacteria attack, insects and rodents attack. All these often account for increased marketing cost leading to higher retail prices and reduced marketing efficiency.
6. Theft of crops threatens the ability of households to survive, particularly in times of food shortages. Theft of crops in rural areas is largely related to food insecurity. The problem of theft was stated as having escalated with declining landholdings, poverty and unemployment among the youth. The changing times included prolonged hunger periods, food shortage and the exorbitant cost of food and other essential household items.
7. High taxes on business transactions have had an impact on the production and marketing of both industrial and agricultural products. Taxes range from indirect to direct taxes in the form of fuel prices, trading licenses, market dues let alone rent for operating space. This in

itself has affected profitability of businesses and thus discouraging production and business activities. The failure rate of business enterprises is high, thus affecting commuting activities and the level of interaction between rural and urban settings.

### **Influence of Market Chain System on Commuter Livelihood Activities**

Market chain systems have become central to the analysis and explanation of the level of adaptation and assimilation of households into local and international market systems. Any given market chain is situated within a broader overall market system comprised of three interlinked components namely; the market chain, the enabling business environment, consumers and service providers (Banks, 2010). The four components make the market chain system complete, figure 1.1.



*Figure 1.1: Actors in the Market Chain System*

Market chain constitutes primary actors in the market namely, producers, processors, manufacturers, distributors and consumers, their roles and interrelationships, market channels and trends within the market chain and final sales and market segments. Service providers constitute business or extension services that support the market chain operations. There are numerous actors in market chain system. Such constitute small or large-scale producers or both, input suppliers, traders, processors, transporters, wholesalers and retailers. Isabelita et al (2008) in the analysis

of key actors, prices and value shares in coconut production in Philippines note that the activities performed by the various actors in the chain are the exchange functions (buying, selling, wholesaling and retailing), physical functions (transportation, storage, processing, packaging), and facilitating functions (sorting and grading, financing, market intelligence, and various forms of market promotion). Consumers in the market chain system can be local or international. Mariott et al, (2004) support this statement by arguing that, the fish industry in Uganda operates in two distinct sets of enterprise notably, the local market and export market pointing to consumers being local or international.

The existence of numerous actors in the market chain impacts on the market price especially for the producers who receive low prices for their products and consumers who are often exploited by paying high prices for the products. Mariott et al, (2004) in their study of the impact of globalization on fish utilization and marketing systems in Uganda note that, where the commodity chain is under global forces, the producers become price takers. Munyua et al (2013) also support the fact that the existence of numerous traders in the market chain reduces the farmer's share of the final price. Such low prices sometimes discourage farmers from active production who seek to shift their focus to non-farm activities

The environment constitutes constraints and opportunities in the market chain. Such constraints and opportunities are infrastructure, policies, institutions and processes. All marketing activities for both industrial and agricultural products require a supportive policy, legal, institutional, macro-economic, infrastructural and bureaucratic environment. Arbitrary government policy such as those policies restricting imports or exports or internal movement of goods and services undermine production, supply and marketing process. Excessive bureaucratic tendencies create inadequacies in the market chain that make it dysfunctional.

Appropriate laws often increase market efficiency, reduce the costs of doing business and enhance the development of a competitive private sector. The presence of supporting or functional institutions such as extension services for farmers, supportive private sector foundation or export systems impact variably on the market chain system and often enhance the process of doing business. The availability of good transport systems and networks increase efficiency and reduces delays and prices to final consumers. It also increases payments to producers particularly farmers.

Institutions play potential roles in strengthening markets for commodities produced, bought, and sold by reducing transaction costs, managing risk, building social capital, enabling collective action and redressing missing markets (Torero, 2011). Institutional practices such as corruption create market inefficiencies and increases transaction costs encountered by those in the market chain. Successful market systems however, require learning new skills, new techniques and new ways of obtaining information.

## **Inherent Limitations in the Market Chain System**

### ***Internal Institutional Contradictions***

Although institutions play an important role in the market chain, internal inadequacies such as coordination failure, innovation failure and authority failure create institutions inefficiency (Torero M, 2011). Such internal inadequacies interfere with the normal flow of activities leading to market failures. Government institutions, farmers' and traders' associations require substantial expansion and development to function effectively. Farmers' associations could play an important role in disseminating market information, providing extension services and credit and providing economies of scales both for input supply and the marketing of produce, enhancing the bargaining power of farmers in commodity markets (Namazzi, 2008). The collapse of the cooperative movement in Uganda in the 1980s has denied farmers the services accruing from farmer associations. This in a way now stands as a bottleneck to production and marketing of agricultural produce. On the other hand government institutions that would regulate markets are weak and generally lack resources and credibility to regulate market conditions especially the quality of commodities that come to the market.

### ***Problems Related to Infrastructure Development***

The infrastructure needed for value addition includes energy, transport, communications and physical marketing facilities is lacking. Many parts of Uganda face the problem of poor state of roads. Such poor roads have undermined transportation of goods and services from production areas to market places. The energy sector is not yet fully developed to adequately support production. Power outages and load shedding have enormously affected the production process. Despite the excessive use of mobile phones in Uganda, most farmers lack the required information and knowledge about market conditions. Market information keeps farmers and traders attuned to the demands and changing preferences of consumers; guiding



their farming, marketing, and investment decisions (Namazzi, 2008). Unfortunately, market information system in Uganda is poor characterized by absent or slow information dissemination. Problems of irregular or absent market information that adversely affects farmer market decisions.

### ***The Role of Middlemen***

Middlemen have sometimes posed as obstacles to the market chain system by offering meagre gate prices for agricultural produce and services and yet charge exorbitant prices for urban manufactured goods and services in exchange. The challenge also lies in the fact that most products from rural areas are exchanged in their raw form and therefore fetch low prices compared to urban industrial products.

### ***Market Instabilities***

Market instabilities that affect pricing of locally produced goods have affected the smooth flow of activities in the market chain system. The volatility of crop prices has stressed both farmers and farmer institutions. Price fluctuations in the international market have affected the marketing of cash crops such as coffee that depend most on the international market conditions. Farmers dealing in coffee have often reported fluctuation of coffee prices at the international market as a hindrance to their farming activities in the region, affecting their farm gate prices. The average price of commodities fluctuates a lot and this obviously is a major factor determining the level of profitability for producers and, therefore, the value of land used for the production of these commodities. The annual variation in price level, then, will influence the annual variation in profitability. The inter-year variation in prices may also have important implications for decisions relative to pricing annual production.

The level and magnitude of variability of crop prices have important implications on commuting activities. General level of market prices influences the amount of capital or credit that traders will require to buy an inventory of crops. Higher prices increase capital requirement to own a fixed amount of inventory for a specific length of time. If capital or credit limitations emerge, dealers may choose to own smaller inventories or own inventories for a shorter period of time. Second, the magnitude of volatility in prices within a marketing year will influence the amount of capital or credit needed to maintain margin accounts. For consumers, the most important implication of the magnitude of price volatility is on the timing of purchases. This is especially the case for end users who are not able to

profitably price the end product at the same time that forward contracts for crops are made.

### ***Problems of Storage***

Problems of storage have often affected farmers and businessmen dealing in farmer produce. There is general lack of storage and warehousing facilities such as lock-up stores, silos, barns in which farmers would store produce and sell when prices have appreciated. Very few marketers store produce more over in jute bags and baskets which do not allow storage for a long time before produce goes bad. Insufficient storage facilities often lead to produce loss due to premature germination, fungal and bacteria attack, insects and rodents attack. All these often account for increased marketing cost leading to higher retail prices and reduced marketing efficiency.

### ***High Taxes***

High taxes on business transactions have had an impact on the production and marketing of both industrial and agricultural products. Taxes range from indirect to direct taxes in the form of fuel prices, trading licenses, market dues let alone rent for operating space. This in itself has affected profitability of businesses and thus discouraging production and business activities. The failure rate of business enterprises is high, thus affecting commuting activities and the level of interaction between rural and urban settings.

### **Conclusion**

Market chain systems remain central to livelihood analysis. It also follows that any attempts by government or development partners to address household poverty concerns should focus on market chain analysis. Access to information by households, institutional linkages and trade rules are important benchmarks upon which to evaluate the role of market chain system in influencing livelihood activities.

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# ANALYSIS OF THE HUMANISTIC THEORY OF MOTIVATION IN LEARNING A-LEVEL CHEMISTRY

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## Abstract

*This paper reports findings from a study conducted using 360 students offering a-level chemistry in Uganda about aspects of motivation that can enhance effective learning of chemistry. It was found out that students desired to be self-actualized and were motivated by a teaching environment characterized by an emphasis on the benefits of chemistry. The opinions of students regarding how they should be motivated are given. The gaps in motivating learners studying a-level chemistry as possible causes for poor performance are revealed. The relationship between motivation and performance in a-level chemistry is determined. Recommendations for improving the teaching of a-level chemistry are highlighted.*

**Keywords:** Humanistic Theory, Motivation, Chemistry

## Introduction

Learners come to the classroom with certain needs and expectations which they hope to fulfill. They usually want to make progress in their academic work and perform tasks well. Usually they believe that the schools will help them to meet those goals. A-level chemistry students in particular are projecting into the future at the possible courses they are to offer at tertiary level leading them to their desired future jobs. These students therefore are usually ready to learn and excel in chemistry. However, performance in chemistry at A-level in Uganda is still wanting. Many factors can be attributed to the persistently low grades in A-level chemistry and motivation is one of them.

## The Concept of Motivation for Learners of A-level Chemistry

Pinnington and Edwards (2000) discussed that it is motivation which deals with choices regarding what people will and will not do and also the intensity or effort people put into the activities they choose to perform. Indeed, Walklin (2002) said that if the learners can see some personal gain at the end of the course and the content is relevant to their individual lives, the teacher starts with an advantage.

Motivation is one of the key variables in students' learning processes. The motivational elements include learning self-concept, control, learning goals, interest in learning, external enticements and relevance assigned to

knowledge. Motivation can be extrinsic or intrinsic: Extrinsically students are motivated to learn for grades, to elicit praise, to avoid punishment, or for purposes of social acceptance while intrinsically students are motivated to learn for mastery and knowledge. Self-actualization theory of motivation stresses the idea that an individual has the desire to fulfil one's individual needs. People have strong cognitive reasons to perform various actions and have a need for creative self-expression and self-fulfilment. The question is how far do students feel self-actualized while learning A-level chemistry?

### **Opinions of Students regarding A-Level Chemistry**

In a study carried out in Ugandan secondary schools that offer A-level chemistry, only 28% of the students reported that their most interesting subject was chemistry. This indicates that many students were taking chemistry as a requirement in their combination but not because they were interested in it. Many students confessed that chemistry was a vital subject in the courses they later wanted to pursue at tertiary level. However, Walklin (2002) echoed that there is no such a thing on earth as an uninteresting subject; the only thing that can exist is an uninterested person. This therefore would call for a lot of motivation to sustain perseverance with the subject.

In Uganda the students taking A-level chemistry have no choice in many situations of learning. For example the curriculum and the facilities in the schools are not determined by students. These aspects may not be meeting the needs of the students using them. Below are some of the responses that students gave regarding A-level chemistry.

***Table 1: Opinions of Students regarding A-Level Chemistry***

	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Not Sure</i>	<i>Total</i>
Relevancy of Chemistry to the Needs of Uganda	304	20	36	360
Opinion on whether Chemistry Curriculum Meets Needs of Uganda	201	139	20	360
Job Value of Chemistry in Society	319	22	19	360
Relevancy of Chemistry to school Curriculum	335	13	12	360

From the table above most of the students acknowledged the relevance and job of chemistry to the needs of Uganda today. They supported their views by saying that more chemists were needed in pharmaceutical industries, chemistry could ease scientific advancement and research and was also needed in petroleum industries and manufacturing industries. It is therefore important that teachers underline the long term and short term purposes of learning A-level chemistry. Petty (2001) asserted that without a long term goal for their studies, students become demotivated.

What happens in most of the secondary schools in Uganda is that A-level students are taken to be mature and with a good knowledge of what they are doing. Their needs are not catered for specifically instead it's the demands of the schools, teachers, UNEB and sometimes parents. This usually affects their interest in the subject as reflected in the table below:

**Table 2** *Chemistry Lessons were Interesting*

<i>Chemistry lessons being interesting</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Strongly agree	63	17
Agree	94	26
Disagree	193	54
Strongly disagree	10	3
Total	360	100

These findings reveal that many students never enjoyed the chemistry lessons. However, they expressed a strong desire to have practicals in chemistry. Rana (2000) said that teachers should recognize that for many students, the learning of mathematics and science involves feelings of severe anxiety and fear of failure. They should assure students that they understand the problem and will work with them to overcome it.

### **How A-level Chemistry students are self-actualized**

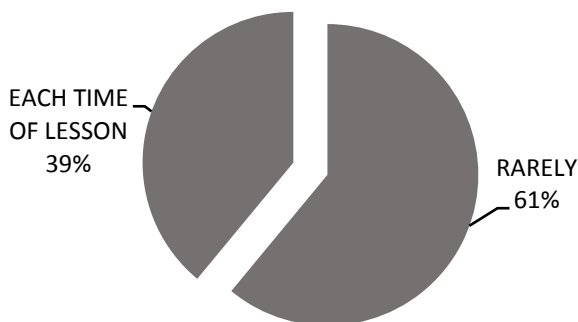
#### *a) Problem solving in chemistry*

The needs of chemistry students basically lie in a desire to perform excellently in the subject and most of them reported that they were given monthly tests however very few chemistry teachers corrected them. Fig 1 reveals that many chemistry teachers did not encourage students in problem solving which left the students to look for questions by themselves and this may not be topical. 39% of the students said that they were having exercises in chemistry each time of the lesson while 61% of them rarely had

exercises (see figure 1 below). Moreover teaching A-level chemistry using illustrations of worked-out examples to show the learners how to solve problems is not only desired by students but can as well be an important approach in an instructional sequence. The teacher should therefore provide a framework of questioning within which desired responses may occur. These can be exercises and assignments which can only be done better if the teacher first demonstrates with similar illustrations.

Figure 1 Frequency of Doing Exercises in Chemistry

### PIE CHART SHOWING FREQUENCY OF DOING CHEMISTRY EXERCISES



#### b) *Receiving Feedback from Teachers*

Consequently, students need an immediate feedback from their teachers in order to consolidate what is correct and discard what is wrong. This way they can seek the correct answers in good time. However, most students in this study reported that their teachers never corrected the assignments and exercises(See Table 3).

**Table 3** *Chemistry Teachers Corrected the Assignments and Exercises*

<i>Responses</i>	<i>Respondents</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative percent</i>
Strongly agree	70	19	19
Agree	45	13	32
Disagree	152	42	55
Strongly disagree	93	26	100
Total	360	100.0	

c) *Relating Chemistry to Real World*

In this study, only 56% of the students reported that their teachers were interesting when teaching chemistry while only 55% of the students were in agreement with the statement that teachers of A-level chemistry related chemistry to everyday life. Students are often motivated when chemistry is related to the work situation or real world, and by indicating the benefit to the students of successfully mastering the subject.

d) *Maintaining a good teacher-student relationship*

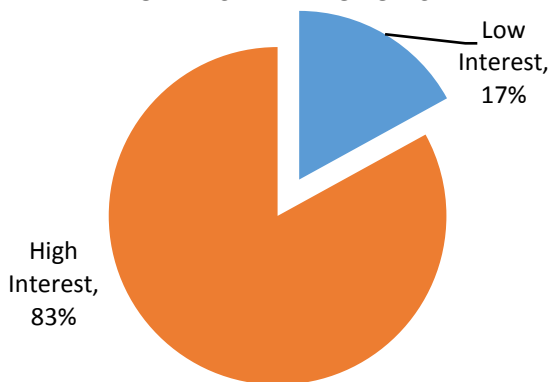
Similarly, A-level chemistry students desire to have a good relationship with their teachers whom they wish to be committed in assisting them to achieve the desired academic goal. Jarvis (2005) submitted that the major element of good teaching is the establishment of a good teacher-learner relationship. In addition, these students desire to have teachers who are knowledgeable, interested in teaching, available for consultations and who teach chemistry with enthusiasm.

e) *Learning Chemistry Practically*

The students also expressed a great desire to have chemistry practicals integrated in their lessons. They wanted to experience what the teachers taught but most teachers taught chemistry theoretically. Most students displayed a high interest in chemistry practicals as shown in Figure 2.

**Figure 2:** *Interest of A-level students in chemistry practicals*

**PIE CHART SHOWING INTEREST OF A'LEVEL STUDENTS  
IN CHEMISTRY PRACTICALS**



Other methods that involve learning chemistry practically involve discovery method, field tours and project method of learning. However, most schools do not have practicals integrated in their lessons.

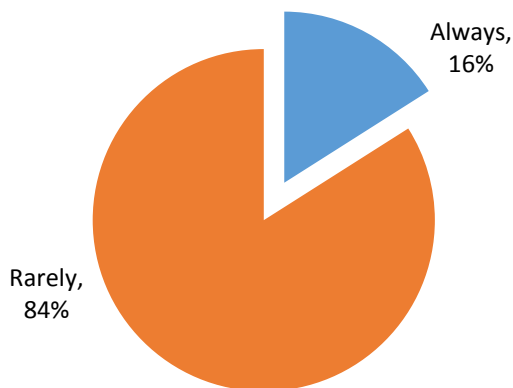


*f) Use of Seminars in Learning A-level Chemistry*

Students expressed a great desire to have more seminars in chemistry. Seminar method is a teaching method that enhances a wide coverage of content through question approach. It is usually a good method that helps students on question approach. Students are usually given opportunity to present their solutions before their teachers contribute. Many times experts in the subject, usually experienced examiners, are invited to facilitate in these seminars which enhances team teaching. In this study the majority (84%) of the Head Teachers reported that the chemistry departments rarely organized chemistry seminars. Only 16% of them reported that chemistry departments organized chemistry seminars as reflected in the pie chart below (Figure 3). The commonest practice was that seminars were organized towards UNEB exams which offered little exposure and experience because of time. However, Petty (2001) construed that different teaching methods develop different skills in the learner. As such the seminar method encourages group work and thus develops the skills of discussion, persuasion and working with others.

**Figure 3** *Frequency of Organizing Seminars by Chemistry Departments*

**PIE CHART SHOWING FREQUENCY OF ORGANIZING SEMINARS BY CHEMISTRY DEPARTMENTS**



*g) Use of Computers in Learning A-level Chemistry*

Different teaching methods develop different skills in the learners. Teacher talk develops the skill of listening attentively, and group work develops the skills of discussion, persuasion and working with others.

Independent learning on the other hand develops the skill of learning how to learn. Notably, students love using computers and many students can benefit from the intelligible interactive content on computers.

#### *h) Use of Discovery Method*

Additionally, the researcher carried out a further analysis to establish whether motivation had a significant effect on the performance of students in A- level chemistry. This analysis was guided by the following hypotheses:

- i) *Ho. Performance in A-level chemistry does not depend on motivation*
- ii) *Ha. Performance in A-level chemistry depends on motivation*

**Table 4: Chi-square Tests**

<b>Chi-Square Tests</b>			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	25.045 <sup>a</sup>	12	.015
Likelihood Ratio	15.878	12	.197
Linear-by-Linear Association	.579	1	.447
N of Valid Cases	317		

a. 13 cells (61.9%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .01.

The above chi-square test showed a p-value of  $0.015 < 0.05$ , this is significant at 5% level of significance. Thus there is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis; we thus conclude that performance in A-level chemistry depends on motivation.

#### **Conclusions and Implications**

Chemistry was viewed as a relevant subject by students of A-level and that it was relevant to the current needs of Uganda.

Very few students were having exercises in chemistry each time of the lesson, yet exercises in chemistry help to enhance learning through practice and discovery.

According to the students, learning A-level chemistry is not self-fulfilling because students are not given opportunity to act on the environment on purpose.

Students can learn A-level chemistry effectively when their needs are fulfilled and when they are allowed to make choices. These students are self-determined and can be creative.

Students desire their teachers to motivate them in the following ways including; relating A-level chemistry to the real world, making corrections of previous tests, organizing practical lessons and organizing chemistry seminars.

### **Recommendations**

There is need for teachers to improve the evaluation strategies of A-level chemistry. Small practical tasks could be given which can be evaluated by the teachers and immediate feedback be given. The chemistry teachers should be encouraged to give exercises to students more frequently to enhance learning of chemistry. The Head Teachers could be tasked to ensure that this happens in their respective schools. In addition, the given exercises should be corrected so that students can identify correct answers to questions and hence avoid repeating mistakes.

Teachers should use more practical approach in teaching A-level chemistry and relate theory to practical. Students need more exposure and practice in chemistry practicals and thus more time should be allocated for practical lessons.

Students should also be put in discussion groups which teachers can monitor. In group work, students' opinions are valued and accepted. The teacher should ensure that the students take responsibility for their work through effective monitoring and by demanding feedback. The use of groups improves rapport between students, giving the class a more trusting and supportive atmosphere. Consequently, group discussions promote a positive attitude towards the teacher and the subject. There is need to make use of computers in teaching and learning of A-level chemistry. Computers can be used as tools, as reference libraries, as teachers, and as a rapid-action postal service. Notably, students love using computers and many students can benefit from the intelligible interactive content on computers.

The reading culture among A-level students needs to be improved. However reading does not guarantee learning. Reading requires that the learner takes responsibility for understanding and learning. The school administrations should put in place schedules for reading managed in such a way that during such time every student must be in class or library reading. Perhaps appropriate punishment can be given to those not abiding

by the set reading regulations. Proper career guidance needs to be given to chemistry students to give them motivation to study chemistry since some of them are of the view that chemistry curriculum does not meet the need of Uganda today.

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# THE THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF COMMUNITY SERVICE IN UGANDA

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## Abstract

*The purpose of this study was to examine the theoretical and practical considerations surrounding community service in Uganda. The examination used document analysis approach in a bid to assess the community service approach and its prospects in Uganda. The study reveals the significance of inter-departmental changes in terms of the community and community oriented goals as well as the role of inter-agency collaboration. The Threatening consequences to community service were equally addressed within the context of the Kampala metropolitan free zone. The study recommends setting out a plan for the Kampala metropolitan areas expected growth from about 3 million to more than 5 million by the year 2015 since major concerns of civil mayhem have to be prioritised just like public safety issues on how to lessen them by using community service principles.*

**Keywords:** Theoretical and Practical Consideration, Community Service

## Introduction

In the year 2000, the government of Uganda introduced community service in order to provide one of the alternatives to imprisonment (Community Service Act (cap 115). According to Odoki (2006), the objectives of the reform were to promote the rehabilitation of the offender, and the reconciliation with the victim and the community, and to decongest overcrowded prisons with petty offenders. "Every effort to clarify and describe the community service faction ought to incorporate wrestling with what the expression "community" is projected to denote in this perspective. Despite the fact that it may at first appear that a straightforward one-sentence description would be adequate, an appraisal of the literature quickly shows that "community" can mean very different things to different researchers" (Trojanowicz, 1990). Therefore, appreciating the term community is a key to checking crime and disorder. After all, social control is more effective on an individual level and has to be an alternative made by the individual in order for social control to be a factor in whichever community. Fessler (1976) argues that rural sociologists defined community as "any area in which people with a common culture share common interests. "The problem with so broad a definition is that it can be applied to anything from "a rural village of half a hundred families" to "one of our major cities". Researchers have noted that, "large cities are

not what we mean when we talk about communities, because the inherent depersonalization that dominates large cities militates against the cohesive logic of community" (ibid). Community in a bigger city basically means our neighbourhood, in which we subsist, reside, work or have fun; it can also suggest a particular custom to which we live our lives.

The family unit which is the next most significant element gratifying social management is actually dominant in the initial pattern of the principles and in the sustained buttressing of the values that sway law enduring performance. The extended family, primarily if they are in close geographic immediacy, as well as neighbours, is also important in sustaining the norms of positive behaviour. Unfortunately, for the motive of the lessening of pressure put forth by neighbours, the complete family and even the family, social control is now more frequently dependent on exterior control which is the criminal justice system, than on domestic self-control.

### **Defining community service**

Community service refers to non-custodial punishment by which after conviction the court, with the consent of the offender, makes an order for the offender to serve the community, rather than undergo imprisonment [S.2 (a)]. A community service order means an order made under the Act requiring an offender to perform work (ibid). Thus community service orders in Uganda are available only in minor offences, which are offences for which the court may pass a sentence of not more than two years imprisonment [S.2 (g)]. Odoki argued that, when an offender has been ordered to undergo community service for a period of more than four months, the supervising officer is required to give a report to the supervising court concerning the offender's performance and general conduct (ibid). In Uganda, community service is supervised by the National Community Service Committee chaired by a judge of the high court assisted by the District Community Service Committees. Community service is a joint effort between a Uganda Police department and the community that identifies problems of crime and disorder and involves all elements of the community in the search for solutions to these problems. It is founded on close, communally valuable ties between Uganda Police and community members. At the centre of community service are three critical and complementary core components: a] partnerships between the Uganda Police and the community; b] problem solving as a technique to spot and resolve problems of concern to the community; and c] change management

within the Uganda Police organization to house improved community contribution.

Community service is a “philosophy” for undertaking Uganda Police work; “problem solving” is the scheme used to solve community problems of crime and decay; and “partnerships” are the means with which the problem solving takes place. “Problem-oriented service” is the approach used to produce long-term solutions to problems of crime or decay in communities. Uganda Police, residents, and other agencies work jointly to make out and locate the causes for neighbourhood crime problems, and then develop responses to the problems based on the causes of problems. Responses are not one-response-fits-all; they are not 100 percent Uganda Police responses. Most of the time, the responses developed through problem-oriented service are joint Uganda Police-community actions, which also entail contribution by organisations such as local governments, urban transport, youth services, and civil society. Many expressions about establishing community service lack the understanding of why crime takes place and therefore are restricted in terms of possible impact by the proposed policies (Friedmann, 1996). Characteristically, these policies are ideologically motivated and if they have any merit, there is a gap between what these programs propose and how they are being implemented (*ibid*). Community service is one such example. Recently touted by Uganda Police officials as a step in the right direction - some even suggest it as a universal remedy for solving crime - community service has been either misunderstood or not well, nor fully implemented. Why is this so and who could be at the back of this disillusionment?

Very little public discussion of what crime is and understanding of why crime takes place can be established. Devoid of understanding what “produces” crime in society, how can any intervention have an impact on it? The legal approach to crime is, for instance, concerned with the very limited focus on the exact point where crime is defined as simply a violation of a written law. This includes the supreme law (national constitution) and other subsidiary legislations. In this intellect, any jurisprudence system (of local or urban government) views breach of the law as a conflict that subsequently needs to be settled between the violator (an individual or a corporate entity) and the violated entity (other individuals, corporate entities, and the state). Here crime is presented as an explicit behaviour that needs to be responded to, reprimanded and optimistically put off. Grounds for perpetrating the crime may be used afterwards in legal procedures when sentencing takes into consideration an

assortment of extenuating circumstances. Nonetheless, away from this moderately thin spotlight, it is reasonable to state that crime is a community produce that pleausurably we need to have a lesser amount of. In the social order that is used to producing more (fragile goods), restricting production (as in smoking, heart disorder, or alcoholism) is for the most part, not easy an assignment that necessitates a broad - not a jumble - approach of a very huge amount. Community service seems to offer the suitable idiom and conceptualization, and bears a guarantee for a healthier prospect. However, it risks the jeopardy of its self-termination if there will be no persistence on a better understanding of the causes for crime and on completely executing a widespread strategy.

Save for presenting crimes as they are reported and tendering vague ranking systems, there is modest public debate of the fundamental causes of crime. There is moreover very little contribution of a validation for why a certain service scheme will trim down crime. Community service, if engaged sincerely, can present such a comprehensive approach to lessen crime. Within this stratagem, law enforcement acts as a channel in a process that changes itself, other social service agencies and the community, in chorus. Bearing in mind the fact that more than 75% of Uganda Police action and response to calls is civil in nature and that Uganda Police can do very little to prevent a crime that is about to take place, the debate then has to centre on a more long-term, practical approach. This stems from the very fact that crime is produced by communal forces that are non-stoppable by Uganda Police. This is spot on both about the nature of crime, such as in crimes of obsession and the amount of crime and its economic appeal, such as drug misuse or hooliganism. If this theory is up to standard, then its consequence is to look at societal control issues as surrounding, in excess of, recognized law enforcement. To a certain extent, normative actions, avoidance of norms, breach of laws and the forces that could lessen them ought to be the heart of every policy with realistic chances for victory.

Any service strategy that adopts hands-on preparation assumes that intervention needs to be focussed to efficiently decrease the quantity of crime produced in as well as by the community. Until public speaking about community service became visible in law enforcement circles in the late 1970s and sprung to early 1980s, it had been thought that crime control in United States was the exclusive responsibility of Uganda Police. This was mostly stressed throughout the "professional period" of the service movement in the U.S which itself developed out of a reaction to Uganda



Police cruelty and dishonesty because of the sense of it being too close to the community. However, with Uganda Police professionalism came along the isolation of Uganda Police from the community and thus the slaughter of helpful acumen and the crucial contacts that breed confidence and affirmative connection.

In the early 1980s community service became a "catchphrase" in the service circle, substituting such terms as Uganda Police-public relations and problem-oriented-service. However, up till now, community service is still an indescribable term meaning different programs and approaches to different Uganda Police departments around the globe. In fact, until 1992 there was not a designation obtainable in the narrative. Notwithstanding the continually increasing fame of the phrase, the closest to a description in the professional literature were two sets of ten principles on community service. The first was offered by Alderson (1979) and the second by Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux (1990). Alderson's ten principles correlated to service under conditions of self-determination with importance on assuring individual liberty and free passage. The principles presented by Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux (1990) have mainly to do with the execution of the concept in a given Uganda Police force. Hitherto in most communities the move to community service was characterized by introducing or, sometimes, re-introducing foot-patrol and the thump officer frequent to the vicinity.

### **The Community Service Approach**

In order to fill this empty space and to help establish a substantial measure or measures of the concept, Friedmann (1992) argues that community service goes as a far more wide-ranging approach than was branded in the literature to date. He observes community service as a policy and a strategy designed to accomplish more valuable and well-organized crime control, condensed apprehension of crime, enhanced quality of life, superior Uganda Police services and Uganda Police legality, through a hands-on dependence on community resources that seeks to transform crime causing conditions. This presumes a need for better responsibility of Uganda Police, superior public share in management, and greater concern for universal rights and liberties.

This practical attitude as held by community service holds a far more all-inclusive perception where prominence is given to realizing more than just crime control; non-traditional issues such as fear of crime, superiority of life, better services, and Uganda Police legality are also integrated.

However, the exit point of this meaning lies not in the greater flavour of its service objectives but in its spotlight on crime producing conditions as the probable prospective basis for reducing crime and achieving the other objectives as well. As a result, this meaning point out that it is vital to focus on the following three elements: (i) intra-departmental changes, (ii) inter-agency cooperation and (iii) the community, its needs, and its resources.

#### *Intra-departmental changes and community service*

In order for Uganda Police to accomplish superior relationship with the community, its departments need to turn into and run more like open systems. This has incredible implications on the departments of Uganda Police. The composition of Uganda Police departments needs to be more decentralized to enable improved deployment in the community and more valuable use of officers and reaction to citizens and in building the complex relations with the general public. It is vital to have a more flat rank structure; this will permit officers to go on with good performance without essentially hopeful for command positions, furthermore, it will advance the quality of Uganda Police workforce in the countryside. The exploit of more residents in back-up and liaison functions will breed closer ties with the neighbourhood as well as free officers to concentrate on the most technical and intelligent Uganda Police work.

In-house communications need to be swapped-over at the subordinate level to fracture the moderately inflexible sequence of command and to pick up the stream of information. Uganda Police management should improve contact between all levels, that is, officer-supervisor and officer-community sequentially to enlarge the spans of conscientiousness of officers. Officers should have greater prudence to allow them in their decision-making and to encourage more elasticity in non-law-enforcement circumstances. This will make Uganda Police work extremely more proficient and will boost performance on the part of officers who are likely to do more in a position of confidence. Uganda Police deployment should be upbeat, pre-emptive and community-oriented, other than, spontaneous service. The most unpleasant inaccuracy that community service advocates can craft is by agitating that it, as hands-on service, absolutely replaces conventional spontaneous service. The two need to be there side-by-side as there are incidents which necessitate instantaneous response. Yet it is crucial for the Uganda Police to be concerned with long-term pre-emptive activities along with other service agencies and citizens in a similar way. Enrolment should lay emphasis on higher educational levels and seek people-oriented, service-centred officers. Up till now, many of the officers

still join the force having in brain exploration and the logic of influence because of the exercise of force. A differential enrolment policy will revolutionize this picture and will improve the self-selection process to improve upcoming Uganda Police employees. It will in addition improve the possibility of Uganda Police to be converted into a cherished profession and also develop the probability that it will be stable amongst other social services.

Training should enlarge on interpersonal skills and be converted into more community-oriented. This is predominantly pertinent as a comparatively small percentage of the officers' training is devoted to such issues. Officers' performance appraisal should highlight quantifiable community-oriented activities such as contacts, harmonization, and support, and the remuneration arrangement should recognize community oriented efforts, present substantial pay raises along with indefinable gratitude for performing in view of that. In the end, it is significant to have community service approved force-wide and not downgraded to exceptional components.

#### *Inter-agency collaboration and community service*

Inter-agency collaboration should promote improved range and echelon of dealings among diverse agency levels and not just between department heads. The Uganda Police and other social services ought to build up a superior consideration as to what composes overall community needs and how they can, by working simultaneously; advance their reaction to those needs. Agencies should have methodical information about the accessibility of resources and build an environment that rewards cross-jurisdictional collaboration and minimizes resistance. It is essential that agencies offer incentives for collaboration at a full level. Previously the concept of the "Super-Agency" was presented where a board-of-directors type group would have synchronizing functions that would boost better delivery of services. This is one of the key constituents in community service as it operates to amplify the sense of joint venture and the understanding that Uganda Police cannot be in charge of crime alone. The value of the Super-Agency is not just in the expansion of joint ventures but furthermore in offering realistic solutions to problems that may by some means not be given the appropriate consideration from the services that are accountable for them. This could be the synchronization of utilities work in a city or the development of an operational description for the recognition of health care need and criminal justice feedback in cases of material, child, or sexual abuse.

This envisaged "Super-Agency" is the community body most liable to successfully harmonize the matching of needs with services. It should operate as a vibrant cooperation between the general public, social service agencies and law enforcement in an endeavour to focus attempts to get rid of crime causing circumstances in the neighbourhood. It is not an added establishment but a coordinating "hands-on" execution oriented body. Only when law enforcement, other social service agencies and the community work collectively, throughout the "Super-Agency" there will be likelihood that these resolute efforts will bring about the results we so greatly wish for.

#### *The community and community service*

The third, and conceivably most significant, constituent of community service is the dependence on the community itself. The recovering of Uganda Police and harmonization among other services to the community could go so distant if not anything changes in the community itself. Social and racial apprehensions that result in cluster crime or immigration hostilities that result in individual crime are but not many examples to the point that even when services are accessible, and that cannot be taken for granted, the fundamental problems in the community go on with generating the conditions that rear illicit behaviour. In order to better handle community issues it is indispensable to enhance the awareness we have on the subject of community. There needs to be superior plotting of crime as well as contouring of neighbourhood populations, systems, problems, needs and obtainable resources. There needs to be far superior dependence on collective institutions such as the family unit, formal education institution, place of worship, in addition to a range of community organizations that will craft involvement in crime less tolerable than it is at present. There needs to be improved hands-on preparation and an environment sympathetic of wide-based synchronization of community-oriented activities.

Community service is thus presented as a philosophy that approves professional approaches, which espouse the planned application of twofold undertakings and problem-solving modus operandi, to proactively deal with the instantaneous circumstances that present a rise in community safety issues such as crime, social disorder, and fear of crime. Some of the Uganda Police stations have embraced indirectly community service for many years, through their community services and school services programs, crime prevention programs (neighbourhood watch), and

decentralized patrol substations. I present community service using three key constituents:

*First*, community partnerships; collaborative partnerships connecting the law enforcement organization and the individuals and organizations they serve to increase resolutions to problems and amplify confidence in the Uganda Police force; other government agencies, community members [or groups], non-profits [service providers], private businesses, and the media.

*Secondly*, is organizational transformation which involves the configuration of organizational administration, composition, human resources, as well as information systems in order to hold community partnerships and hands-on problem solving. Agency management includes climate and way of life, control, industry associations, managerial, premeditated arrangement, policies, organizational appraisals, precision, and organizational composition. Geographic assignment of officers includes de-specialization, supplies and funding. Personnel involve conscription, hiring, and assortment, human resources supervision [or appraisals], and preparation. While Information Systems (or technology); involves Communication [or access to data] and excellence and precision of information.

*Thirdly*, Problem solving involves the procedure of engaging in the practical and methodical assessment of recognized problems to widen and meticulously assess effectual rejoinders. This includes Scanning: classifying and prioritizing problems, scrutiny: investigating what is well-known with reference to the problem, Response: Developing resolutions to convey lifelong cutbacks in the amount and degree of problems, Assessment: Evaluating the achievement of the responses, and by means of the offence triangle to centre on instantaneous circumstances including casualty or wrongdoer or scene.

Community service as a philosophy seeks to promote organizational strategies, which support the systematic use of partnerships and problem-solving techniques, to practically tackle the pressing conditions that give rise to public wellbeing issues such as crime, social disorder, and fear of crime. It is also possibly the most misunderstood and often abused idea in Police management. As such, it has grown to be up-to-the-minute for Uganda Police agencies to kick off community service programs into their department but with modest opinion of what it really means. It should not be a program but instead a value scheme which infuses a Police

department, in which the principal goal is to work and collaborate with individual citizens, groups of citizens in both private and public sector. Furthermore to recognize and decide issues which potentially impinge on the livelihood of the community in which they serve.

An equivalence, even if narrower, account for community service is "an attitude of full-service, personalized service where the interchangeable official rounds and labours in the indistinguishable area on a long-term establishment, from a decentralized position, functioning in a practical relationship with citizens to identify and respond to problems" (Trojanowicz, 1990). Without reservation, this rationalization indicates what one customarily associates with the public service-the participation of the public servant as an active associate of the neighbourhood. Interestingly, there surfaced an approach that neighbourhood service entails that the Police being on non-law obligation duties.

#### *Community-Oriented Service Strategies*

Assuming we are a non-profit organization and all members strive to work towards a safer community through close cooperation and understanding with the Police. Then, our members consist of common citizens, retired Police officers and each one who cares and worries for the wellbeing of humanity. It is our undertaking to make-up graceful connection with the Uganda Police to be acquainted with and prioritize problems of crime and community disorder. We dispense the precision in the development and the accomplishment of hands-on problem solving strategies in the two acknowledged issues.

#### *Goals of community service*

Community service aims to preserve public dignity in the Police department in order to; reduce dread of crime; pay attention to and deal with civilian concerns; bring community resources collectively to respond to problems; impact upon explicit misdemeanour problems; reduce periodic calls for examination; and, train the public a propos its Police department.

#### **The prospect of community service in Uganda**

Whilst it is more and more widespread to have Police departments in the Uganda, espousing neighbourhood service as a policy and as a stratagem, it is imperative to position this in some chronological point of view. Within less than 15 years, Uganda has, for instance, moved out considering community service as a baffling approach to service to having the President and parliament allocating billions of shillings to obliquely

support its development in some parts of the country. In several urban areas across the country, there is a budding recognition that “joint ventures” are to be developed, that it is important to lend a hand to Uganda Police, and that it cannot do service and crime control single-handedly. Projects and policy statements have time and again laid emphasis to this significant and indispensable convenience. Business associations, business advocacy groups, civic groups, and voluntary associations are progressively more enthusiastic to sit as one, plan together and work together in this understanding that crime is too big for any one organization to manage. Nonetheless, this type of climate is merely a few years old and there is no assurance that it will last long if the political environment ceases to be compassionate of it and in Uganda, there are by now signs to that effect. As a consequence, there is jeopardy that within a few years, community service may have turned out to be just a different service style. With this awareness, it is essential to look at community service as presenting a window of prospect to look at crime in a diverse mode than we have been used to and as such to take the maximum benefit of this window sooner than it closes for a long time.

#### *The community service squad*

Within the community service squad, officers will constantly supervise and bring together all community service activities including the operation of all sub-stations. First, the neighbourhood contact officers will be assigned into particular beat areas and organize the neighbourhood service squads to work with neighbourhood groups. Focus will be put to problem solving in the neighbourhoods and how to manage long-term projects such as crime free multi-housing. All neighbourhood contact officers will be designated to work out of these sub-stations. Additional sub-stations can be identified from time to time for upcoming implementation. Community service officers (CSOs) will team each of the sub-stations and offer standard client service hours to the community. The CSOs can attend neighbourhood service squad meetings and assist the neighbourhood contact officers when needed. Secondly, volunteer sub-station staff will contain volunteers having been acknowledged to help staff the substations after certain hours to guarantee that citizens of urban and peri-urban areas are being served at these locations. These volunteers will offer customer service, make victim call backs, and help out where they are required.

Problem-Oriented Service (POP) in Uganda Police departments can be adopted to use the scanning-analyse-response-assess-maintenance technique for problem solving: Under “scanning”, the officer identifies and describes the problem. Concerning “analyse”, the officer finds out how much of a problem is it? When is it a problem? Who is affected? What are the problem's causes? “Response” is based on the two steps above in order to devise an appropriate response to the problem. There may be several responses; they may be done over a long period of time. Under “Assess”, the officer will appraise the results of the responses and if the results are not reasonable, efforts can be made to re-analyze the problem, or to try another response. Concerning “Maintenance”, problem solving is only successful when it produces a long-term solution. A POP reaction may have short-range optimistic results, but it remains a debate as to whether these results can be maintained over a long term, for instance, 1 to 2 years, exclusive of continuous involvement by Police, residents and/or other agencies, in other words, "has the problem been solved?". POP can be used by the Uganda Police along with residents to produce long-term solutions to unrelenting crime problems in communities throughout hot-spot urban centres, resulting in reductions not only in crime rates, but also in the apprehension of crime.

### **The Threatening consequences to community service**

In the adoption of community service, consideration ought to be paid to staying away from certain pitfalls that exceptionally, or altogether, may jeopardize the appropriate implementation of this scheme. It needs to be clear that community service is not merely the same as foot patrol. Whilst officers on foot have the numerical probability of getting faster to the community and meeting more citizens, what's more significant is what the Police department, as a total, does and the specific officers in the undertaking. Foot patrol without the elements of building connections with the community will not amount to a great deal. An officer or two foot patrolling a beat for 8 to 10 hours may not accomplish much if all they do is the walk. Officers have to know what human factors make their beat more susceptible to crime. A few of those they could take care by themselves; for some others they may need the backing and involvement of a range of other agencies, services, and companies in order to create a distinction. The point is that, officers should know about prospective problems well before they turn into crimes.

As one of the explanations and endeavours of community service being the decrease of fear of crime, it is important to note that most Uganda



Police projects or innovative experiments such as foot patrol are perceived optimistically by citizens though they are not reporting considerable reduction of fear of crime. Often, then, the reduction of fear of crime becomes the concrete product of a service project. In some way fear reduction becomes, afterwards, the only substantial result that Uganda Police are able to deliver in a community. This is, to a certain extent, so since crime figures are trickier to manipulate but predominantly these are owing to the fact that we have a tendency to measure Police achievement by crime figures or, in recent times, by apprehension of crime. For community service to become successful in Uganda it needs to be assessed in a different way. In the similar approach that an officer needs to be appraised on the basis of their community service performance than merely by the number of tickets and/or arrests made and then gratifying in view of that. So there is a need for community service to be assessed by the multitude of variables illustrated previously in this commentary and not simply by conventional gauges. In fact, about two decades ago, Rosenbaum (1994) reported numerous studies that considered the triumph of community service by using precisely such non-conventional measures and demonstrated it to have an affirmative impact.

What makes matters worse, to some extent, is the prospect that when a new strategy is launched, it will be victorious and consequently computable pointers will indicate this outcome. It is exclusively promising and even likely that if community service is triumphant, attitudes toward Uganda Police as well as crime itself, will primarily sky-rocket rather than decline. This is realistic to look ahead to because of at least two concerns: first, sensitizing of residents may make them more distressed by crime, and secondly, with the structure of conviction and shifting the liaison between Police and the community, citizens may be enthusiastic to account for crime and public order associated performance more than previous to. If measured aptly with allowance for time interval, crime figures could well mirror this precision. Therefore, committing to an instant decline of crime may perhaps be a very "foolish" thing to make for Uganda Police and/or community leaders. Even when crime is, in the long run condensed, Police and community leaders should be most vigilant on the subject of taking tribute for it because they will be assumed liable when crime figures goes up.

Comments by IGP of Uganda to the effect that crime went down in the country due to antagonistic service known as "result-oriented-service", were reasonably disputed by the Human Rights agencies when releasing

their annual reports of crime rate in Uganda. Community service therefore needs to be there for a long-term, it needs to have a systematic plan and participants have to completely get into it and not just pay “lip service” to it. Along with this long-term scrutiny, it is critical to secure exterior support so as not to leave Uganda Police single-handedly in their encounter with crime.

#### *Kampala Metropolitan Fear Free Zone*

The central concern of Kampala Metropolitan's community service activities ought to be the Kampala Metropolitan Fear Free Zone component. First, it can be established with about 500 or more officers and supervisors, and then enlarged in a year with an additional 400 officers. The component would consist of officers who centre on identifying, evaluating and resolving community crime problems with the support and involvement of community residents. Secondly, the zone officers would be assigned to specific areas or neighbourhoods within Kampala metropolitan catchment, and work directly with both residents and the adjacent police patrol officers also assigned to those areas. Thirdly, the zone officers would set up and uphold day-to-day contact with residents and businesses within their allotted beats, in order to prevent crime sooner than they occur. And fourthly, the zone officers would act as liaisons with other metropolitan agencies, work intimately with schools and youth programs, harmonize gambling-elimination activities, and serve as resources to residents who desire to get back their neighbourhoods from crime and rot.

Concerning the notion “practical and approachable”, it is vital to learn the basics of modern service environment that is looking on the fundamental elements of triumph, such as problem solving, community-Police collaboration, and partnerships. Uganda peoples' optimism and resolve have shaped a corridor towards a superior life. Michael & Francis (2011) examined the role of community-oriented service, including the Police image, public expectations, ethics in law enforcement, community welfare, resident assessment boards, and what the community can do to facilitate decline in crime rate. They considered essential interpersonal skills and how these may be different according to the race, sex, age, and socio-economic grouping with which the officer is relating. Victor & Larry (2008) investigated community service, both as perspective and a managerial approach, which increases the conventional Police command. Similar views were held by Palmiotto & Francis (2011) who argued that community service widens the heart of combating crime to embrace solving community problems, and as a result, the Uganda Police

should shape a shared mission with the people in the community where the regular citizens can have a say to the Police course in exchange over their support and partaking. Kenneth & Glensor (2007) presented service at its largely significant and demanding levels in neighbourhoods and in communities diagonally to the country and outside. Though outstanding in view, their focus was on community service and problem solving and the processes that are being implemented in order to control and thwart crime, mayhem and panic. Practically, they focussed on daily processes and schemes as well as how and why agencies are transforming their customary philosophy and functions. Much of their information on crime focused on the principal city, with emphasis on terror campaign and state safety which could be exploited by the Uganda police.

Wisler & Ihekwoaba (2009) noted that, community-oriented service is a dogma and policy replica championed in the mission statements of nearly all Police forces throughout the world. However, they pointed out that the POP philosophy is inferred in a different way by different countries and Police forces, leading into practices that may, in fact, run far afield of the community-based themes of enterprise, receptiveness, and precision. Rosenbaum (1994) presented the efficacy of community service, covering the entire aspects of community service, from management to implementation and public awareness. He, in his study on "Police and crime prevention matters", summarized the state of evaluative research on American community service projects. His study on Police and crime avoidance matters outlined the state of evaluative investigation on community service projects for the previous decade though very relevant to this decade. Moreover, Skogan & Hartnett (1997) argued that, Police departments across different countries were keenly "recreating" themselves, assuming a new-fangled "community service" approach. This progressive technique of law enforcement involved managerial devolution, new channels of contact with the community, compassion to what the community thinks a department's priorities ought to be, and the submission of a broad problem-solving approach to neighbourhood concerns. They have scrutinized a determined mission by focusing on a city which, having made this changeover, then had the nation's biggest and most extraordinary community service program.

In another study conducted by Rosenbaum (1994) drew a comparison of community service initiatives in four countries; Canada, Great Britain, Israel, and the US and examined related efforts in other countries that had

tried-out this service approach. The study dealt with a variety of important issues, including fear of crime, the attitudes of Police officers and citizens, and persecution, along with others such as Police supervision, fashion, and instruction; how community service is depicted in the press; and the link between the Police and other social services. The study advocated that whilst conventional service celebrated masculine officers as “manly” crime fighters who were rough, unfriendly, and bodily frightening, Policewomen were considered as too flexible and poignant for patrol assignments and were consigned to roles centring on children, other women, or secretarial tasks. Nonetheless, Rosenbaum noted that with the launch of community service, women's professed skills were at long last finding an official place in Police work. Law enforcement arrangements nowadays promote such formerly underrated “feminine” attributes as faith, teamwork, sympathy, interpersonal communication, and conflict resolution.

Morash & Ford (2002) asserted that community service continues to be of enormous attention to policy makers, intellectuals and, certainly, local Police agencies and that productively attaining the alteration from a customary service model to community service could be complicated. Williams (1998), on the contrary, suggested that with a qualitative, non-scientific study plan having focus-group dialogue was used to gather, investigate, and scrutinize the insights and feelings of East Athens inhabitants and community service officers. He analyzed the perceptions of inner-city residents in Athens, Georgia and focused on community service and the co-production of law enforcement together with the suggestions for public administrators helping such communities. McElroy, Cosgrove & Sadd (1993) studied the “Community Patrol Officer Program” that was initiated in New York in 1984, intended to resolve problems at the community level through the neighbourhood patrol officer and found out that the multi- dimensional task the Police officers were expected to take part in required efficacy in executing their new job, the obstacles they met, the feelings of the officers as well as the insights of the community. They merely recommended measures for improving and applying comparable programs but not eliminating them wholly. Umbach & Umbach (2010) stressed that in modern times, community service had transformed American law enforcement showed potential to put up trust between citizens and officers. Nowadays, three-quarters of American Police departments say they have embraced the stratagem, but decades before the slogan was invented, the Police departments had established community based crime fighting strategies. The last neighbourhood cops exposed the

forgotten narration of the residents and cops who faked community service in the public housing complexes of different cities during the second half of the previous decade.

Lab & Das (2003) gave insights on the enormous multiplicity in community service and crime deterrence as they emerged in countries around the globe. By monitoring countries that had launched official, professional Police forces; were in intermediary from colonial eminence to self-rule; or were rising democratic systems faced with the claims allied with key opinionated and social change. And the conclusion indicated the acknowledgment that the public required being concerned with averting crime. Community service was depicted as a modern and, to some, controversial move towards fighting crime, mostly in well-built urban areas (Wilson, 2006). He prepared a broad assessment of the functioning of community service in the US and scrutinized the power of the undertaking and institutional setting on community service operation and considered the connections between managerial arrangement and community service. Wilson offered a hypothetical configuration for community service; recognized domestic/outside factors that aid and/or obstructed implementation; probing executive composition, which represented the success of community service even in the super-power status.

Stevens (2002) interviewed over 2,000 subjects in eight states across the US, and his results demonstrated how community service strategies might be rationalized to react to radical risks and uneven demographics. By supposition, he revealed that community service was, besides, essential for fighting fanatic threats. While Palmiotto (2000) examined the function of community-oriented service, together with the Police picture, public prospects, and ethics in law enforcement, community welfare, resident check panels, and what the community might do to facilitate the reduction crime rates. In addition, he indicated that the critical interpersonal skills and how these may fluctuate on the basis of race, sex, age, and socioeconomic cluster with which the police officer is networking. His views might be practical in order to open new programs in an area, from the preparation process and community participation when dealing with administration and assessing program achievement.

Community service, in this commentary, appeared constantly in trend, yet the critical qualities remained vague (Fielding, 1995). It was discovered that there had been a hurry to appraise community service before critics had got to hold with what community Police officers did which was

unique. As a result, there was need to present a thorough scrutiny of the deeds, occupations, and procedures of community Police officers, and demonstrate how they could collect data on crime from the communities in which they serve, and as well how they could use casual communal control to public disorder situations. Whilst gauging citizen approval with local governmental services and how their deliverance and portion is fundamental in estimating, streamlining, and applying valuable governmental policies. Williams (1998) noted that citizen appraisals offered public officials with essential hints regarding the professed performance of local authorities. This was an imperative aspect in built-up areas where occupants had expressed considerable discontent with the delivery of Police services and as a result, by looking at community service and the co-production of law enforcement, citizen approval could well be re-captured.

In his painstaking study, Oliver (2007) described the notion of community-oriented service and then led us through a logical approach to both its standards and practices by providing a popular equilibrium between assumption and relevance particularly in modern-day societies where urban centres had persisted with growth at un-conceivable extent both in size and population composition. Alpert and Piquero (2000) assembled a set of twenty-four inputs from dons, consultants, and associates, examined the chronological and theoretical structures, recent studies and customs, and the prospect of community service together with a sample of subjects such as building safe neighbourhoods, employee performance costing, the management of crime and confusion, and how officers used up their time with the community with case studies of community service in cities such as Los Angeles, Chicago and Havana. The results of those twenty four inputs, on top of the sampled topics, would be used to establish the worth of community policy in other cities, like Kampala, beyond those in northern America.

Chriss (2010) studied the path of urban service from Britain in the 1830s to its approval and growth in the US. By analyzing the indecisive and rough past development of service, he demonstrated, in vast detail, the practical correlations between urban communities and Police departments. He also considered the expansion of urban service in the American West between 1850 and 1890, which facilitated to position the recent debate of service in the post 9/11 US. With Uganda having gone through a comparable adversity during the 2010 world cup finals at both Kyadondo Rugby ground and Ethiopian Restaurant in Kabalagala, the idea of

community service appeared to suggest superior opportunities for revival and psychoanalysis of communities. Rationalized line-by-line and focusing all through on the twin themes of crisis resolution and community-Police alliance and partnerships, Miller and Hess (2005) gave a career-focused up-to-the-minute look at valuable community service as well as the realistic strategies and necessary skills basic to implement rational, feasible problem solving within communities in our day.

#### *Discrimination in community service*

Community service is a social activity understood ethnically, adjudicated politically, and communicated in an elite form (Baker, 2006). He further noted that the law played a primary role in the reproduction and legitimation of most forms of isolation. He explained the dilemma of how discrimination persisted in terms of power to criminalize through the dissertation of community service. These ideas are decisive and could facilitate in dealing with the problems of cultural discrimination in society through the community service port-folio. This would bring more than 50 years of sensible, managerial, managerial, and decision-making Police experience to an end (Peak, et. al., 2004). Therefore, providing a "real world" fragrance with an extremely wide-ranging dream of Police control and organization, and moreover examined key episodes, tactical operations, patrol problems, officers' rights and moderation, community service and problem solving, moral issues and accountability, and training and appraisal. In general, community service was not clear-cut and so called for high level loyalty amongst different stakeholders.

In his ground-breaking research, Stevens (2001) looked at the occurrences of nine different Police agencies of diverse sizes across America as they performed, prospered and failed, and performed again a community service approach to public welfare. He centred on bona fide community service activities of legitimate Police departments, texting what worked and what hadn't worked, and, similarly key, why it didn't work. Even if his research largely covered community service programs in ten US states; comparable issues could be benchmarked for the same program in other countries like Uganda where policy formulation has remained a thorn in the foot for many police officials. Past trends in Police reform stressed superior contact with the community and, consequently, carried innovative implications for Police roles, operations, and social control (Greene & Mastrofski, 1988). Community Service summarized the major issues facing that movement, and differentiated theory from pragmatism associated with Police force restructuring. Those very issues could be very

significant among community organizations, Uganda Police academy educators, law enforcement officials, as well as all concerned citizens.

Gutierrez (2003), in his "Social equity and the funding of community service", examined the requisition, giving way, and exploit of community oriented service funds in 197 municipalities and explained how excessively unfortunate, crime-shadowed cities did in contrast to affluent, secure cities. He went with a view of community oriented service funds and whether community oriented service funding was used to facilitate put up links for Police-community affairs in cities with soaring levels of diversity. His outcomes could assist Kampala city and other towns in Uganda to obtain considerable fiscal shares and be successful with those shares when executing adjustments in local law enforcement including community service. In a different research, "Applied community service in the 21st century", Stevens (2002) looked at the certainties of service approach and proved that those approaches impeded American neighbourhoods. He applied an impulsive observation on how community service strategies could be adapted to address the latest challenges caused by activist vigilante and traditional changes within the U.S. and beyond. These thoughts could help the Uganda Police explore the most essential models of community service and their link with civilization, communities, and public order in Uganda. This is so because practical community service in the present decade differentiates itself from other service manuscripts owing to its affluence with genuine living prospects of persons who are connected or swayed.

In virtually every logical and wide-ranging script so far on the question of community service, Thurman, et al. (2000) located the sequential growth of American service during the community era of modern times. They initiated the notion of community in current civilization and surveyed adjustments in the role and influence of Police departments by suggesting plentiful tinted remarks from Police constables, deputy commissioners, commissioners, and other practitioners including famous Police academics. These realistic illustrations revealed the efficacy of community policy to all stakeholders who treasured diplomatic communities for everyone. Peak & Glensor (1999) investigated the endeavours of Police agencies across the US and overseas as they employed new techniques to tackle crime and mayhem by revealing how present day Police were moving away from conservative methods for counteracting crime and chaos and growing their established "law enforcement" duty.



Community service as "individualized service" entailed an equal Police officer watching similar areas on a lasting basis, working from a delegated management and operating with civilians to identify and dig up to the base of crime problems (Reed & Pub, 1999). In spite of the persistent public support for Uganda Police department delegation, stable assignments, and the development of citizen-Police affiliations with local communities, the fear remained a debatable one and by itself, community service inevitably called for a broad restructuring of what Uganda Police had customarily done with complete acceptance of community service relating to substantial managerial renovation. This compilation drew together beneath one cover of numerous archetypal critiques that were critical to a sensitive but chronological setting and framework of community service, and that were awesomely highlighted in the scholarly text. Focus on the basis of community service progress with substantial status on the growing philosophy was prominent. However, the writer was not one of the officers in Police and crime prevention unit but relied greatly on secondary narratives of other scholars within and outside in order to share his collection of restricted commentaries pointing out the state of evaluative enquiry on the community service scheme for present-day civilization.

## **Recommendations**

As in many other cities, Uganda has used limited strategies such as foot, motorcar and motorcycle patrols in its effort to establish community service innovations. When the Inspector General of Police (IGP) had his term of office renewed four years ago, one of the utmost managerial platform items was maybe community service. Three weeks after assuming office he stated that crime went down nation-wide by over 25%. While his figures were swiftly critiqued by the media and other civil society organisations as was the prospect of attributing such radical revolution to his very short-term in office, his passion for community service did not falter. He acknowledged his "blunder" nonetheless went on to talk about community service as if it was equivalent to foot patrol. At the same time he encouraged several activities that had public safety elements in them but were seen as being apart from service. It is suggested that a citizen-initiated proposal funded by the government to empower citizens and be given substantial monies in direct support so as to improve the social conditions in the neediest areas.

The Uganda Police Commission needs to set out a plan for the Kampala metropolitan areas expected growth from about 3 million to more than 5

million by the year 2015. Major concerns of civil mayhem should be prioritised just like public safety issues on how to lessen them by using community service principles. The President's grassroots effort known as prosperity-for-All scheme had certainly added an important component to the improvement of neighbourhood conditions and along with it Uganda could witness the growing insight of some of its leading business advocacy groups such as Kampala City Traders Association (KACITA) of the need to treat public safety as their routine than merely a Uganda Police problem. Kampala city catchment areas need to be granted a major government grant that would include different components to offer a widespread approach to dangle through with community conditions leading to crime. One of these components is, undoubtedly, community service and the grant would mandate the provision of community service training to 20 law enforcement jurisdictions in every parish within Kampala metropolitan area. These efforts should include more than 500 officers and training would be provided to officers from the Police constable to the commissioner of Uganda Police level as well as to elected and appointed officials such as mayors, councillors, and technical managers.

It remains to be empirically examined whether these efforts will create a distinction. One statement could be made at a chameleon's tempo. Conventional, grouped and spontaneous approach to crime is crucial but is restricted in what it could do to impinge on crime. Theoretically and logically, it is reasonable to foresee that community service will make a difference. Finally, how is all this significant to Uganda? The significance lies in the societal practices. With the shift attested in Uganda from the early 2000s and frontwards, it will take the country far less time to achieve the crime level of other countries (such as Mexico, Cambodia, and Kazakhstani) if appropriate action is not taken in a timely fashion. Uganda is already witnessing an increase in human assassin and child sacrifice offenses and some unprecedented examples of violent behaviour reminiscent of foreign "style" crime. At the same time, the country's Police have lost the strong grounds they had during the previous decades and now are judged by the services they provide and not by the power they apply.

## **Conclusion**

It is in the best interest of the Uganda Police to plan ahead, predict the potential growth of crime and work out appropriate interventions. As seen in this commentary, the comprehensive approach offered by community

service is an all-encompassing, agency and community shifting course. It is however, indicating an excellent window of prospect to reflect on new service innovations and, at the same time, put into action various requisite structural changes that have to do with recruitment, training, communication, structure, work performance, supervision and rewards as well as building cooperation with other community entities. It may be an unnecessary absurdity that at the time when Uganda Police could demonstrate its exemplary intellect of independence, the utmost community service innovation focuses on developing an increased assurance on and collaboration with the community. It is even a superior irony that when Uganda is starting to walk in this new corridor of independence, the finest advice it could get from abroad is to continue to take care of some of the characteristics it so "logically" held prior to the evolution of community service. Nonetheless, this seems to be a realistic course for planning and action for the current and future decades.

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