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Editorial Note

The Issue 24(1) provides a diverse and constructive insight into contemporary research endeavours across various sectors and disciplines. The studies presented herein showcase the multifaceted nature of academic inquiry and offer valuable insights into the challenges and opportunities facing different fields. ***Branko I. Cavric's*** interdisciplinary project in Botswana highlights the importance of collaboration in eco-tourism planning. It offers a constructive approach to managing fragile ecosystems in semi-arid climatic conditions, focusing on the Dikgatlhong Dam Land Lease Area. Similarly, ***Hannington Businge, Vincent N. Machuki, Evans Aosa and James M. Njihia's*** study sheds light on the critical role of strategic orientation in driving organizational performance within Uganda's insurance sector. Their research methodology employs a cross-sectional descriptive survey to analyse the mediating effect of strategic orientation on board characteristics.

Epiphany Odubuker Picho's study provides a detailed and descriptive account of the crucial link between knowledge sharing and organizational performance in Uganda. The study offers a comprehensive analysis of the impact of knowledge sharing on the performance of National Teachers Colleges, relying on descriptive and inferential statistical analyses to draw insightful conclusions. Furthermore, ***Joseph Kampumure, Nixon Oluoch Omoro and Luther Odhiambo Otieno's*** investigation provides a detailed and descriptive account of the significance of self-efficacy in promoting financial inclusion among working women in Uganda. The study, guided by the social cognitive theory, comprehensively examines the relationship between self-efficacy and financial inclusion, utilizing a correlational cross-sectional design. ***Jackson Omondi Owiti and Tom Kwanya*** propose e-library models in Kenya to underscore the importance of information access for driving public policy and sustainable development. Their research, guided by a systematic literature review, provides a comprehensive examination of the role of libraries in providing credible information for public policy formulation.

Gyaviira Musoke Genza's exploration of informal learning processes among Ugandan secondary school administrators provides a detailed and descriptive account of the need for structured professional development initiatives. The study uses a case study design that comprehensively examines the casual and sporadic nature of management proficiency acquisition among administrators. ***Rosemary Yvonny Nalubega's*** research sheds light on the detrimental impact of intimate partner violence on the performance of police officers in Uganda. The study proposes constructive measures for addressing the problem of IPV, thereby improving police officers' efficacy. ***Nabukeera Madinah's*** analysis of power dynamics within the Kampala Capital City Authority highlights governance challenges and the imperative for inclusive decision-making processes. The study utilizes qualitative content analysis to examine the collision and contestation of power within KCCA, making a clear case for the need for inclusive decision-making processes.

On the other hand, ***Mustafa Kennedy Hussein's*** examination of anti-corruption strategies in Malawi's civil service underscores the complexities of combating unethical behaviour.

Through documentary research and key informant interviews, the study provides a comprehensive evaluation of the role of institutional integrity committees in curbing corruption. ***James Lam-Lagoro and Ronald Reagan Okello's*** study on public financial management in Ugandan universities provides a detailed and descriptive analysis of enhanced transparency, accountability, and strategic resource allocation to optimize institutional performance. The study delves into funding sources, financial management practices, and challenges encountered by public universities in Uganda, providing a comprehensive understanding of the financial management practices in these universities.



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Development of Spatial Planning Scenarios for Eco-Tourism Planning of Dikgatlhong Dam, Botswana

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Abstract

Spatial and environmental planning of the fragile water eco-systems in semi-arid climatic conditions of Botswana and the Dikgatlhong Dam Land Lease Area (DDLA), as one of the country's largest water reservoirs, present a complex task that requires the application of different methods and techniques. These techniques emanate from diverse fields and sub-fields of geography, hydrology, climatology, environmental science, engineering, spatial planning, cartography, tourism studies, etc. For that reason, an interdisciplinary project team has been assembled to embark on the application of GIS-based multi-criteria decision analysis (GIS MCDA) to develop future planning scenarios applicable to different eco-tourism planning zones depicted in the Dikgatlhong Dam Tourism Master Plan (DDTMP). The results achieved through this systematic approach have helped clear the demarcation of individual land use planning zones of DDLA that need to be preserved, developed, maintained, and/or repaired in case of potential ecosystem damage. It is highly expected that a similar approach can be applied in other parts of the African continent where expectations to support the quality of abiotic and biotic life are high for the benefit of today's and future generations.

Keywords: *Environmental planning and design, GIS multi-criteria decision analysis (GMCDA), planning scenario developments, eco-systems, eco-tourism*

Introduction

Botswana is one of the best tourism destinations not only on the African continent but globally as well. Tourism has been identified as a key sector in diversifying the country's economy away from being excessively dependent on diamond mining and cattle farming. As one of emerging economic activities, the tourism sector has become the second major driver of Botswana's growth and has over the years contributed significantly to the country's output. As recent studies have shown, tourism contributed 13.1% of Botswana's GDP in 2019, increasing from 6.3% in 2000. In 2019, travel and tourism together accounted for 8.9% of total employment in Botswana (Chinya, 2021), and efforts are continually being made at progressively developing virtually all tourism attractions and assets in the country.

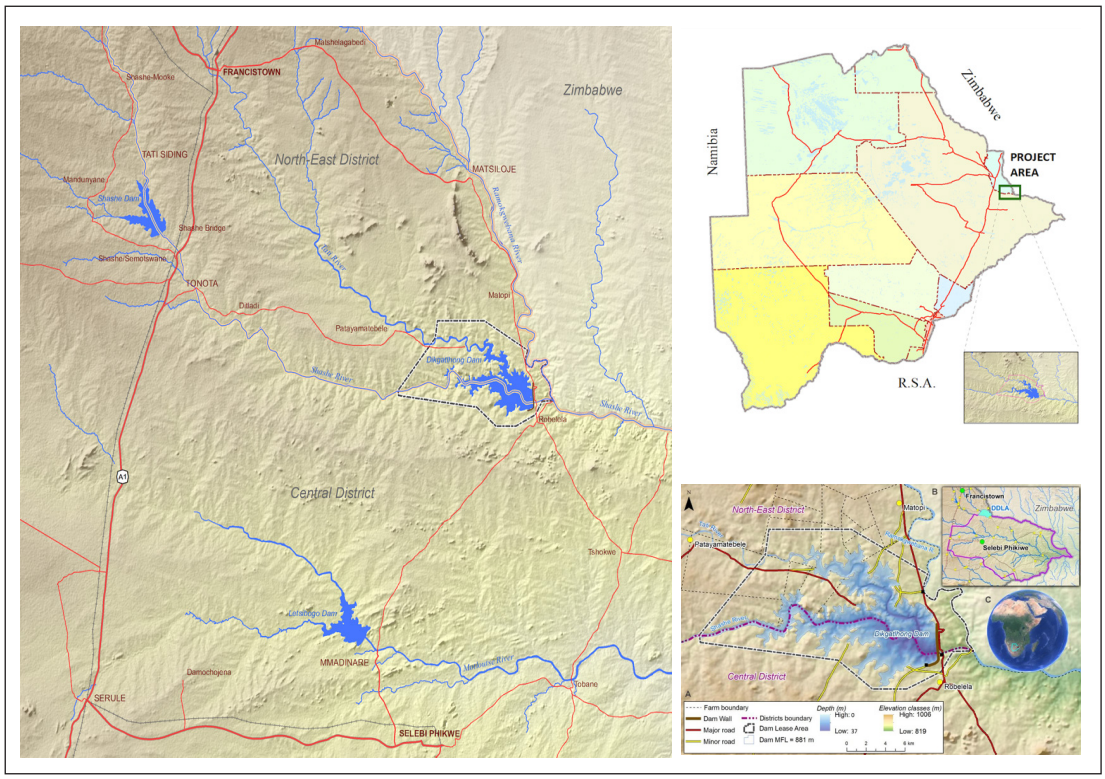
The current situation is that Botswana's tourism is largely wildlife and wilderness-based. It is mostly found in the northern part of the country where the well-known Okavango Delta and Chobe River are situated. This area is endowed with a rich variety of fauna and flora, diverse and dynamic ecosystems, as well as pristine and wilderness character. Consequently, northern Botswana has been the main draw card of Botswana's tourism industry for now. However, apart from wildlife and wilderness-based tourism assets, Botswana has a wide range of other tourism resources in the form of rich cultural heritage sites, archaeological values, areas of unspoiled beauty, and unique and varied landscapes and landforms (Eckardt, 2022).

The challenge, however, is that even though Botswana is endowed with a wide range of tourism assets, which could provide the basis for developing a much more diversified tourism product for the country, they have not all yet been developed to their fullest potentials. To enhance tourism experience in general, and eco-tourism in particular, several Botswana parastatal and government organizations are at the junction where it is now opportune to increase the country's tourism offerings, by packaging these diverse attractions and assets into an adequate tourism product mix that can broaden the traditional tourism destinations. In this way, niche tourism products and markets were created in Botswana, such as Dam Tourism, Agro Tourism, Gastronomy Tourism, Photographic Tourism, Digital Tourism, Heritage and Cultural Tourism, Health Tourism and Sports Tourism.

A special type of tourism linked to water bodies such as lakes, rivers and seas is developing its prospect in Botswana in the form of artificial lakes impounded by man-made dams. These water bodies and their hinterlands referred to as the Dikgatlhong Dam Lease Area (DDLA) represent a good opportunity for tourism diversification especially in the North-East and Central Districts where several larger rivers (eg., Shashe, Tati, Motloutse, Ramokwebana) and their tributaries in combination with shallower aquifers formed ideal opportunities for construction of Shashe, Dikgatlhong, Letsibogo, and Tune dams (Figure 1). One of the most prominent and largest amongst them is Dikgatlhong Dam, where Botswana Tourism Organisation (BTO) in cooperation with Water Utilities Corporation (WUC) and Selebi-Phikwe Economic Diversification Unit SPEDU (eg., SPEDU Region) has embarked on a process of tourism products diversification through the preparation of tourism master plans as the first step in that process. Such initiative is an attempt to unlock the leisure and tourism potential around these water bodies constructed in Botswana Central and North East District in general and SPEDU

Region in particular, which represents a special economic zone with a population of 172,150 people according to the last census (Statistics Botswana & UNFPA, 2022).

Figure 1. National and regional settings of Dikgatlhong Dam



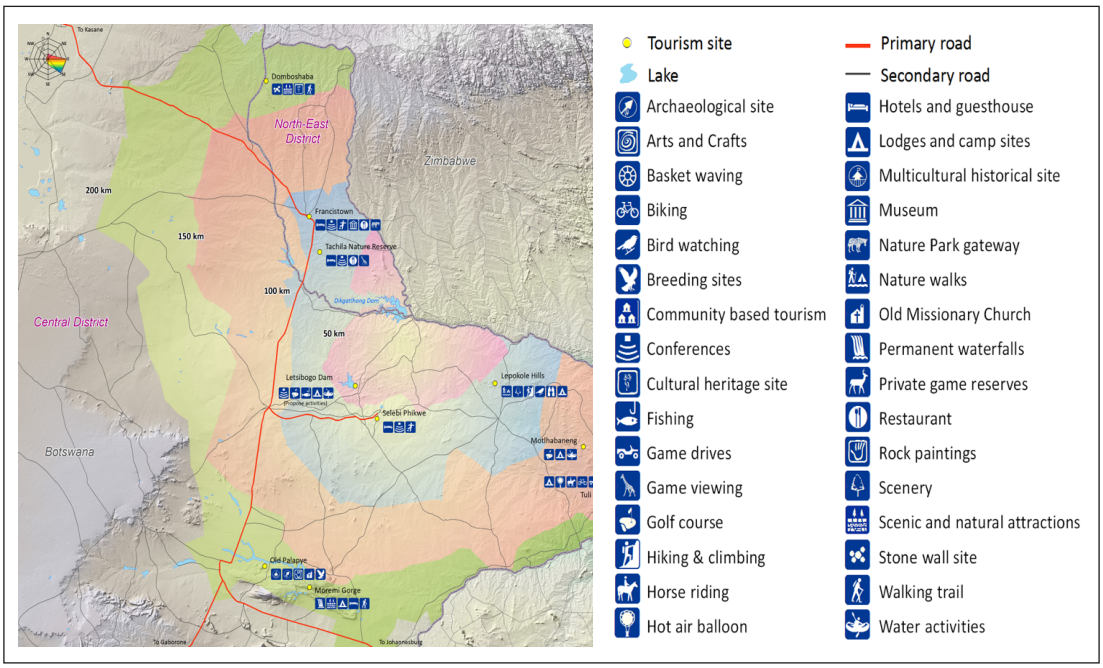
As a sub-region located in Central District, the SPEDU comprises five geographical areas including Bobonong (76,922), Lerala-Maunatlala (33,743), Sefophe (5,913), Mmadinare (13,087) and Selebi Phikwe (42,488). If the population size is factored in for the entire Central and neighbouring North-East District, there is a gravitational triangle of over half a million people (Statistics Botswana, UNFPA, 2022a), whose habitation depends on sufficient quantity of stored water in surrounding reservoirs for which a series of master plans have either been prepared or are on their way.

The Dikgatlhong Dam straddles the Central and North-East Districts, with about 80% of the DLA falling within the North-East District. The DLA covers an area of 13,125 hectares, while the Dam itself is a zoned earth fill structure, 41 metres high and 4.5 kilometres in length. Dikgatlhong Dam, which is the largest Dam in the country, with a reservoir capacity of 400 million $m^3$and a spillway capacity of 11,000 m^3/s. The maximum length of the artificial lake reservoir is about 20 kilometres. The Dam is meant to increase the secure supply of water for Botswana's capital Gaborone, as well as towns and villages along the North-South route, for the near future (GISPlan, BTO, 2016).

In case of its Tourism Master Plan preparation, the major goal, among other things,

was to provide a land use zoning for the DDLA, where tourism activities or products taken into consideration should secure optimal use of land, with a great focus on environmental sensitivity, provision of guidelines and mechanisms that enhance biodiversity and conservation. It is envisioned that with a Dikgatlhong Dam Tourism Master Plan (DDTMP) in place and with tourism activities in its DDLA, there will be increased economic benefits to the local communities (villages) of Robelela, Matopi and Matsiloje, and gravitational zones of Mmadinare and Francistown, in the form of income improvements, diversified job opportunities and more compatibility of tourist destinations within a radius of 200 km. of Central and North-East Districts and SPEDU Region (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Tourism facilities in radius zone of 200km from Dikgatlhong Dam



It is therefore pertinent that all the tourism products, attractions and assets in the DDLA are developed to the fullest with identification, guidelines and regulation of all tourism activity types (commercial, leisure, recreational), their locations and operational methods within DDLA. The DDTMP will thus be both a management and regulatory tool meant to provide the relevant authorities and the future prospective tourism operators/concessionaires, with a guide on how to manage and operate tourism activities in the DDLA, as well as what should be done to maximize the DDLA tourism and recreational potentials, in line with the principles of economic and environmental sustainability.

This article gives an overview of GIS multi-criteria decision analysis (GMCDA) for the development of different planning scenarios, based on numerous bio-physical, environmental, and socio-economic indicators. It also summarises different theoretical planning concepts which are important in the preparation of eco-tourism plans, and they are not relevant and limited only to the DDLLA presented here. These issues lie at the core of the new planning and tourism paradigms developed and utilized around the world, but this time with special focus

on an African case study.

Literature Review

In assembling planning and research literature for this multidisciplinary task the major approach of the project team was to consult different sources of information to establish a sound theoretical and methodological foundation, and to translate tourism planning principles into an operational management document with all elements necessary to guide the future of DDTMP area. This framework and results the DDTMP proposal describes our approach which can be applied in other parts of the African continent where tourism and its impacts are envisioned as important development strategies especially in environmentally sensitive settings. The reason for this is that many spatial and environmental changes in Botswana, where the systems of settlements, rural and ecological areas (e.g. national and natural parks and reserves) have undergone unprecedented urban, socio-economic and environmental changes. The country has experienced the fastest urbanization which greatly affected the type of town and country planning in general, and the development of urban and eco-tourism sectoral planning in particular, where the partnership between tourism and nature becomes essential from a spatial perspective view.

Contemporary eco-tourism planning and design ideas, and subsequent integrated eco-tourism development, have become the most significant socio-economic and environmental phenomena of today, more so in situation where the world is seriously re-thinking sustainability, resilience and designing its future by the rules of nature. In that context, there are numerous physical and environmental planning and design tools which can contribute to the preparation of ecologically more sound plans, management documents, guidelines and strategies, with the major aim of saving natural and man-made resources for current and future generations. With this in mind our project team in preparing the tourism master plan for Dikgatlhong Dam which was meant to inspire and address numerous aspects of better quality of life and experience (of dwellers, tourists and visitors alike), by balancing components of natural, social, economic and political realities of Botswana, with infusion of international practices and levels of their applicability in the case of DDTMP preparation, included the following seven considerations (Table 1).

Table 1. Planning concepts for preparation of the Dikgatlhong Dam Master Plan

No.	Planning Concept/Movement	Applicability for Dikgatlhong Dam		
		Low	Medium	High
1	The Landscape Tradition			
2	Regionalism			
3	Bioregionalism			
4	Environmentalism			
5	Sustainability			
6	Green movement			
7	Marine/Coastal Spatial Planning (MCSP)			

The Landscape Tradition

This concept integrates planning and design for green areas, parks and open spaces and perfectly aligns with trends such as green buildings and infrastructure, green and blue ways, renewable resource independency, and few others. It stresses on provisions of ecosystem services including the regulation of infiltration and storm water runoff, mitigation of the microclimate, reduction of the heat impacts air and water pollution. They also contribute to improve well-being perception by local people and tourists in the restoration of cognitive resources. For these reasons, the amount of forest land per inhabitant is a pivotal efficiency indicator to be considered in the sustainable governance, land management, planning and design of urban areas (Tomao et. al., 2017).

The following factors stand out as the key elements of this concept: (i) the design elements conformation to the natural landscape, (ii) the creation of mixed rural/urban spirit, (iii) the facilitation of escape to nature from stress release of urban dwellers and tourists, (iv) interconnecting green sub-systems into integrated green network, (v) keeping and maintaining green areas in the process of DDTMP area development.

Regionalism

This concept represents the reaction to uncontrolled urbanization, sprawl, overpopulation and discrepancy between different land uses. It calls for the construction of integrated infrastructure, aimed at wider spatial connectivity, relocation of industrial and business activities, work redistribution and "the need for rooting social life in the natural patterns of the landscape and preached the need to plan holistically for ecological region" (APA, 2006). The concept favours the idea of balanced regional development, which is of great importance for Botswana and the SPEDU region, due to the economic gap between the South East and other parts of the country. It follows principles of sustainable development, where human activities should be coordinated with natural and built-up areas carrying capacity. Any deviation from it provokes disproportionate and unforeseeable economic and ecological consequences.

Bioregionalism

This concept is based on the rules of nature and application of environmental appraisal techniques which bring rationality in environmental planning, management and decision-making. These approaches range from threshold analysis, carrying capacity and suitability ratings such as eco-zoning, to more radical ideas (McManus & Haughton, 2006) on environmental matrix found in "eco-footprint" methodology, which consider the impact of humans and cities on natural resources and ecosystems (Huiqin & Linchun, 2011).

The implications of bioregionalism are clearly for political control by local communities, where people are considered as part of a life-place cycle, as dependent on natural systems as are native plants or animals. However, these techniques have not been applied during preparation of spatial plans in Botswana (Cavric and Chephethe, 2019). A large number of physical plans are approved without following out necessary environmental studies based

on "What If Analysis" (WIA)˝, Tourism Environmental Carrying Capacity (TECC), Tourism Ecological Footprint (TEF), Tourism Ecological Capacity (TEC) and GIS-based Multicriteria Analysis (MCA) applied as the principal analysis method in preparation of DDTMP, just to name a few (Cavrić, 2009).

Environmentalism

The concept represents the reaction to super urbanization, uncontrolled urban sprawl and endangering of natural assets by manmade and natural impacts and an increased carbon footprint (Cevik, 2022). For example, wide areas of prime agricultural land and natural vegetation that represent unique habitats disappear under pressure of urbanization. The pressure of uncontrolled urbanization and ambition to be closer to the city or to the sea resulted in forced change in land use worldwide. A similar pattern is approaching Africa and its attractive natural frontiers. Furthermore, the frequency of recent incidents including natural disasters such as drought, floods, bush fires, earthquakes, tsunamis, and difficulties caused by wars and the economic downturn has highlighted the vulnerability of human settlements and makes the appropriate consideration of resilience in the planning for future of natural areas of vital importance. The visionary words of Ian MacHarg (1992), are a clear message to today's planners and developers, as they suggest "the unabashed reversal of the customary relationship between developers and environment, for to design with nature means to privilege the natural environment and to fit development where it does the least harm, not where it is most economical or efficient".

Sustainability

This concept evolved as a response to the declining quality of regional and urban environments all over the world. Planning of cities and territories, as an ongoing attempt to guide their future development and redevelopment, should rest on sustainability premises, and application of an approach, where cities and towns should be treated together with their hinterlands and regarded as the entire ecosystem (Garde, 2004; Glasby, 2003).

In many countries, the implementation of sustainable development and smart growth was based on the following six key principles: (i) future-oriented long-term planning; (ii) planning with carrying capacity and growth limits in mind; (iii) natural and geographic delineation of planning areas; (iv) looking at "means" rather than "end" in the planning process; (v) holistic, interconnected and integrated approach to planning; and (vi) participatory and people-oriented planning.

Sustainable planning and design of the future images of the eco-tourism destinations require unprecedented and simultaneous emphasis on the efficient use of its spaces, based on minimizing the consumption of essential natural capital. Critical links between these specifics sector and ecosystems occur at two levels. First, environmental protection has its raison d'eˆtre in the necessity of maintaining, each year, the environmental capital intact, which represents one of the main sources of profit for local tour operators. Second, the impairment of this natural capital may result in the loss of any tourist attraction, which turns negatively on the

development of the sector (Battaglia, 2012).

Green movement

The green movement stands for the "four pillars" of: ecology, social responsibility, grassroots democracy, and non-violence, which are then translated into principles of (i) community self-reliance, (ii) improvement of the quality of life, (iii) harmony with nature, (iv) decentralization, (v) diversity, and (vi) freedom, equality and democracy (Tokar, 1987). Most recently, the green idea encompassed additional aspects, such as green urban and building design, green infrastructure and green economy, but all of them have been taken holistically. Unfortunately, a larger amount of "greenery", its visibility in tourism landscapes and the built-up areas, effectiveness of the green development control, common knowledge about greening by ordinary people, and large financial consequences of planning decisions, are not so popular with decision makers.

The strong links between property issues and taxes are still not considered as important part of the green agenda, requiring planning agencies to protect open spaces and natural resources. Politics and its developers' flagman ships are usually seen as a seamy and often corrupt, and the more that green planning could be kept out of it, the better (Levy, 2003).

Marine/Coastal Spatial Planning (MCSP)

This is a new concept evolved with main aim to tackle developmental and management issues related to the oceans and seas, coastal areas but it has been adopted by our project team in the case of DDTMP to tackle the issues related to the reservoir, coastal and terrestrial parts. It is therefore considered to be an effective tool in regulating user-to-user conflicts and user-to-environment conflicts taking place at the fragile coastal/shore/marine zones, for some of which the tourism industry is also responsible (Papageorgiou, 2016). It is the fact that these areas are expanding into deeper offshore environments in response to growing consumer demand for fishing, water consumption, tourism, and recreational activities, and many more activities linked to the use of water. Therefore, sustainable development of aquaculture requires quantification and minimization of its impacts through scientifically informed spatial planning which was applied in the case of the DDTMP.

As aquaculture moves into new frontiers, both geographically and technologically, there is an important opportunity to determine where to pursue offshore development in the context of the seas and other water complexes ecological dynamics and the diversity of existing water activities and benefits that could interact with or be impacted by aquaculture (Gentry, 2017).

Ensuring sustainable management of these relationships requires a full understanding of the coastal zone inclusive of water and terrestrial parts, because a lot of activities are taking place in the water, while facilities which support them are mostly located on land and in urbanized areas, interacting with other tertiary sector services which are researched by some authors (Siljeg et. al., 2019). To resolve, plan and manage all these complex interplays, the MWSP concept has the ultimate goal to achieve so-called "blue growth" (Papageorgiou,

2016), which is also expected to take place in the Dikgathlong area. These twin interests arc regarded as closely interrelated, because human demands threaten the environmental integrity of the water resources and capacities. In that regard, an application of the MWSP concept in the case of our project were supposed to bring the following benefits:

- providing a strategic planning framework to guide investment decisions;
- facilitating the sustainable exploitation of natural resources;
- optimizing the use of the water and water shore areas and allocating space in a rational manner;
- promoting a mix of uses that are compatible with each other and the environment;
- coordinating the needs of different sectors and managing potential conflicts;
- ensuring that all water related activities are fairly allocated land (space) to develop;
- improving the consideration of the cumulative effects of different uses;
- identifying, conserving and restoring water and land ecosystems;
- ensuring consistency between land and water systems;
- providing a mechanism for stakeholder interests to be represented and reconciled;
- improving information provision and reducing duplication of effort;
- reducing regulatory (administrative) and compliance costs (Jay, 2009).

Methodology

Background

Anticipated development of several planning scenarios for DDTMP has a strong connection with eco-tourism modelling. Sustainability in the case of the DDLA depends on the relationship between tourism and environment with remarkable evidence in northern, central and southern parts of DDLA. For example, a sustainable planning and management of DDLA geared towards eco-tourism development could be spelled out as one of potential options for conservation and maintenance of the biological richness of the area. It also supports economic improvement of the local people's quality of life. In addition, DDLA eco-tourism can be seen as an opportunity to promote the values in the protected areas and to attract finances from interested investors and developers. In this respect, numerous spatial analyses and evaluation of individual and group parameters applied in DDLA project are all regarded to planning concepts and discussed earlier in literature review. These are basically concepts which could support sustainable eco-tourism based on a carefully selected set of criteria and indicators.

Geospatial Approach

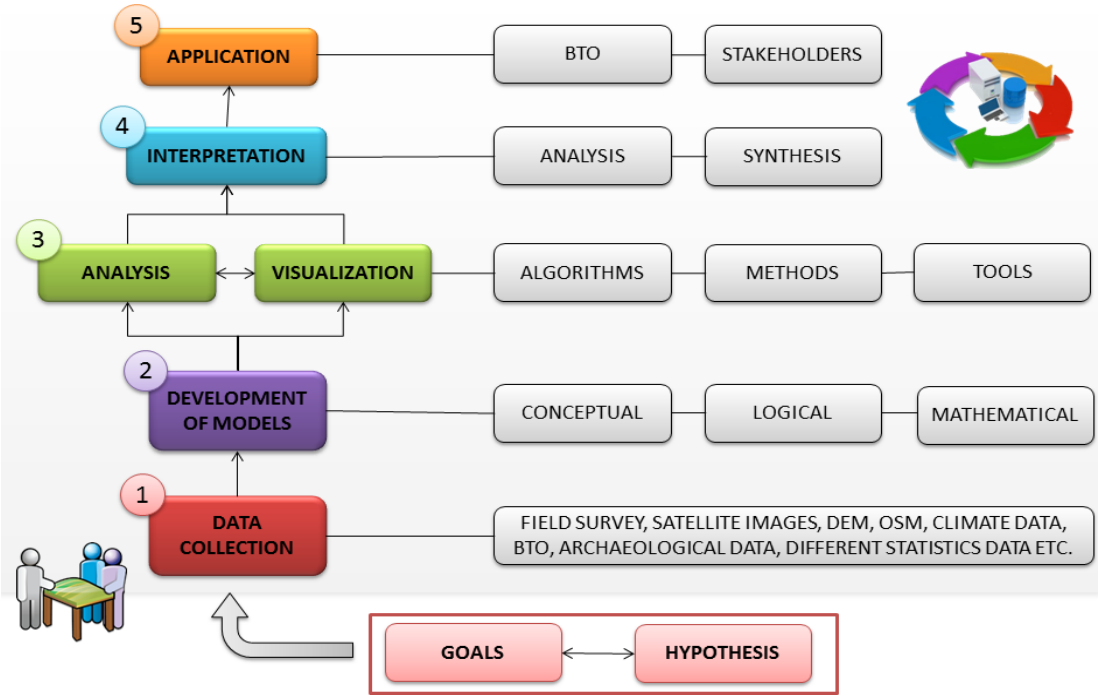
Ideally, the proposed DDLA eco-tourism zones should take care of conservation of biological and hydrological regimes and cultural diversities through (i) conservation development, or alternatively stand on pillars of (ii) sustainable development which takes care of biodiversity with minimal land use/built environment impacts. In addition, the room has also been left for application of business as usual, which is geared more towards (iii) intensive development.

All the three planning scenario directions were derived and enhanced by geospatial approach. Combination of GIS capabilities with MCDM techniques has helped to phase the entire process and apply the planning intelligence support system (PISS), in modelling all sequences of DDTMP project work which is shown in Figure 3. With such integrated approach to eco-tourism development, the *first step* was to identify potential eco-tourism sites. Then *secondly*, to assess the suitability of these sites by matching their characteristics with attributes that are the most appropriate for eco-tourism development and different land use activities. This method has been proven beneficial for supporting decision-making when planning and allocating tourism facilities in different eco-tourism land use zones of DDLA area.

Data Collection

After clarification and acceptance of the above framework, a five-step process was established focusing on (i) primary and secondary data collection; (ii) development of GIS mapping models based on concepts, spatial/environmental logic and mathematical calculus; (iii) GIS visualization analysis of 51 indicators within more than 100 different GIS layers; (iv) interpretation of analytical data and integration into GIS data base and reporting materials; (v) preparation of Scoping Report for client and stakeholders.

Figure 3. Dikgatlhong Dam Modelling and Planning framework



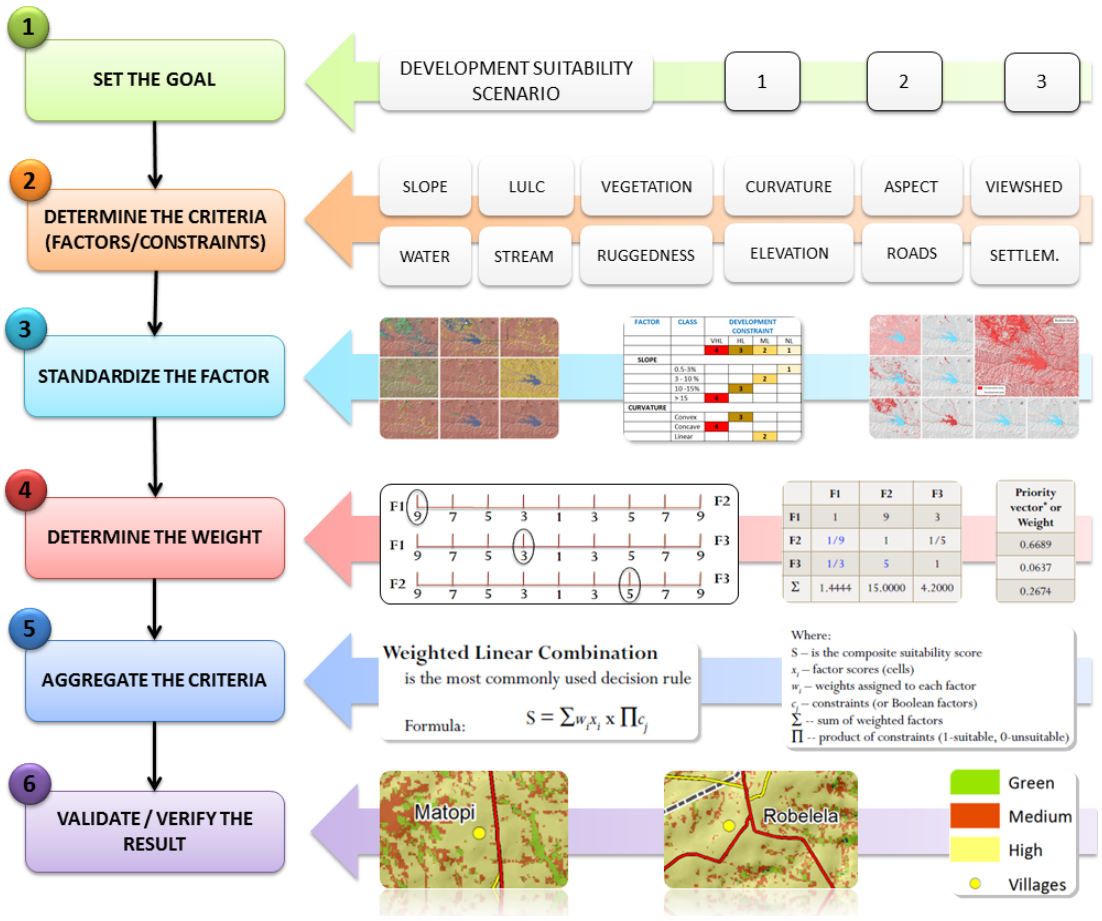
Data used in this report were assembled from a variety of sources. *Firstly*, the primary data from the field survey were collected through interviews and questionnaires answered by experts in the related fields of study to identify important factors in the North-East and Central Districts. *Secondly*, data were collected along with Statistic Botswana, Global Positioning System (GPS) and drone field surveys, and from GIS data sources available locally (DSM), regionally (SADC) and internationally (FAO, UN Habitat, UNEP). Then *thirdly*, the GIS-based land suitability analysis has been applied in a wide variety of situations including sites and administrative boundaries expanding at international, national, regional, district and local levels. However, the large-scale (1: 25,000) suitability scenarios maps have been derived for DDLA and its countryside, including the three closest villages of Robelela, Matopi, and Patayamatebele. The further downscaling of maps has continued once the preferred planning scenario is selected. Then the series of detailed land use maps, landscape model and urban design site solutions were prepared outlining proposal for individual tourism development zones.

Application of Multi-Criteria Evaluation (MCE) and Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP)

As proven in several studies (Jankowski & Richard, 1994; Malczewski, 2006, Charabi & Gastli, 2011; Gigović et al., 2016), GIS and remote sensing tools were used for identifying location suitability and resource inventories according to environmental, socio-economic and spatial planning concerns. A well-known weight evaluation method of the Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) and Multi Criteria Evaluation (MCE) were similarly applied in flood prevention (Fernández& Lutz, 2010), wildfire risk estimation (Kant Sharma et al., 2012), agricultural management (Mendas& Delali, 2012) and energy generation (Abudeif et al., 2015). A few efforts were done to analyse ecotourism potentials as well (Bunruamkaew&Murayam, 2011; Koschke et al., 2012; Gigović et al., 2016; Jeong et al., 2016; Fang, 2017;Çetinkaya et al., 2018; Siljeg et.al., 2019).

The AHP weights were calculated using Microsoft Excel and ArcGIS 10.3 and other software to produce GIS maps showing various levels of land use suitability in accepting diverse tourism activities on particular sites and zones. In general terms, there were four crucial objectives emanating from the major goal of producing the DDLA suitability maps: (i) finding suitable factors to be used in the analysis (ii) assigning factor priority, weight and class weight (rating) to the parameters involved (iii) generating land suitability map for tourism, and (iv) determining potential tourism areas. As can be seen from Figure 4, after goal and objectives settings, the applied method was executed in six major steps specifying the hierarchical structure, determining the relative important weights of the criteria and sub-criteria, assigning preferred weights of each alternative and determining the final score, and at the end validating achieved results.

Figure 4. Dikgatlhong Dam Methods of Multi-Criteria Evaluation (MCE)



Our planning/GIS team has identified a set of 12 criteria and 51 indicators, which have been employed and scrutinized by application of MCE and AHP techniques and then kept as GIS layers. The following factors as indicators of suitability within the land ecosystems of the DDLA context were determined and identified: slope, aspect, ruggedness, basin network density, landform, planar curvature, vegetation, land cover, land use, settlement size, and road accessibility. For example, land cover/land use factor was classified and reclassified from 2015 data obtained from Regional Centre for Mapping of Resources for Development (RCMRD), while the values for landform and ruggedness were aggregated by using geo-morphometric algorithms. Slope factor was classified by degree measurement unit. Distance from roads factor depends on the transport condition by access types and distance from the road types. The settlement size factor was classified by settlement population size and its rank in the National Settlement hierarchy.

Typically, the priority of each factor involved in the AHP analysis was determined by knowledge of experts who were part of our interdisciplinary team and information available from various primary and secondary sources, literature review, historical records, and many more (Siljeg et.al., Cavric 2009 and 2011; GISPlan, BTO 2016). In this process, experts'

opinions have helped to calculate the relative importance of the factors and criteria involved. To ensure the credibility of the relative significance used, AHP also provided measures to determine inconsistency of judgements mathematically. Consistency ratio index (CR) was also calculated and found to be 0.143 (out of 1.00), which is acceptable to be used in the suitability analysis for eco-tourism master planning.

As an ultimate outcome of the entire evaluation process, the three land suitability scenario maps for eco-tourism were created, based on the linear combination of each used factor's suitability score. The AHP method was applied here to determine the relative importance of all selected factors. The total suitability score "Si" for each land unit (i.e. each raster cell on the map) was calculated from the linear combination of suitability score obtained for each factor and criteria involved.

In Multi-Criteria Evaluation (MCE) using a weighted linear combination, the assigned weights were summed up to 1 for each category/subcategory defined. However, each factor in the last layer was classified into 4-5 suitability classes and their suitability scores were presented in the standardized format ranging from 0 (least suitable) to 1 (most suitable).

Discussion

Based on the outcomes of the spatial and suitability analysis which included, amongst others, site characteristics (slopes, aspects, ruggedness etc.), site resources (vegetation, wildlife, birds) and site location, vis-a-vis the whole Lease Area, as well as related tourism and recreational attractions/opportunities identified, the DDTMP project team has produced three alternatives/ scenarios which were evaluated and a preferred alternative (The Master Plan) was chosen. The zones have been established to serve as management units, within which prospective tour operators/concessionaires shall (through open tenders) be granted rights to carry on prescribed or recommended land use/tourism activities for each zone. The management zones thus aimed at classifying uses within zones according to the levels of sensitivity and suitability of each zone. Specific land uses/tourism activities and land use development forms were assigned to each zone, based on the zone type. The areas/zones are ranked from 1 to 4 and described as:

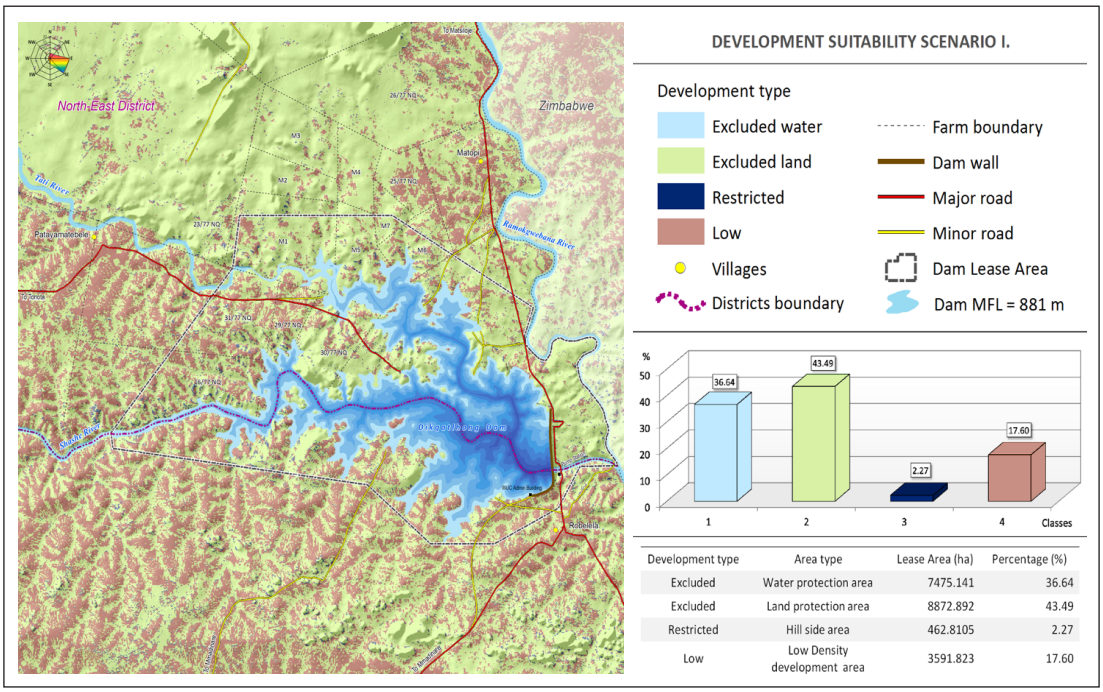
- A suitability ranking S1 indicates minor or no suitability limitations to development.
- A ranking of S2 indicates that such areas/zones present moderate limitation to development.
- A ranking of S3 represents high limitation and suitability for development is low.
- A ranking of S4 indicates extremely high limitations and suitability for development is very low and/or prohibited.

The description of each suitability scenario and the final land use zoning and design is presented as follows:

Conservation Development – Suitability Scenario I

This model was developed with the intention of identifying/establishing those parts or sections of the DDLA with ecological and resource significance and thus important for protection and conservation. Using this model, the functional aim was to conserve valuable natural vegetation areas and protect ecologically sensitive areas within the Dam Lease Area's. Ecologically sensitive areas have included areas with riparian vegetation and areas prone to flooding. The output of applying this model is presented in Figure 5 and Table 2.

Figure 5. Dikgatlhong Dam Conservation Development - Suitability Scenario I.



Development type	Area type	Lease Area (ha)	Percentage (%)
Excluded	Water protection area	7475.141	36.64
Excluded	Land protection area	8872.892	43.49
Restricted	Hill side area	462.8105	2.27
Low	Low Density development area	3591.823	17.60

As can be gleaned from the Figure 5 and the Table 2, there are four suitability classes assigned by the model. The largest is land protection area measuring 8,872.89 ha or 43,49% of the total land area. It is followed by water protection area (the Dam) with the same regime of excluded development accounting for 7,474.14 ha or 36.64 %. The low-density type of development is allowed on 3,591.82 ha or 17.60%, thus placing the focus on conservation and green urbanism solutions. The smallest land chunk belongs to restricted area on hilly sides with 462.ha or 2.27% respectively.

Table 2. Land Use Statistics for Conservation Development - Suitability Scenario I

Development type	Area type	Suitability Class	ha	%
Excluded	**Water protection area**	**S4**	**7,475.14**	**36.64**
Excluded	**Land protection area**	**S4**	**8,872.89**	**43.49**
Restricted	**Hill side area**	**S3**	**462.82**	**2.27**
Low development	**Low density area**	**S1**	**3,591.82**	**17.60**
			20,402.67	**100.00**

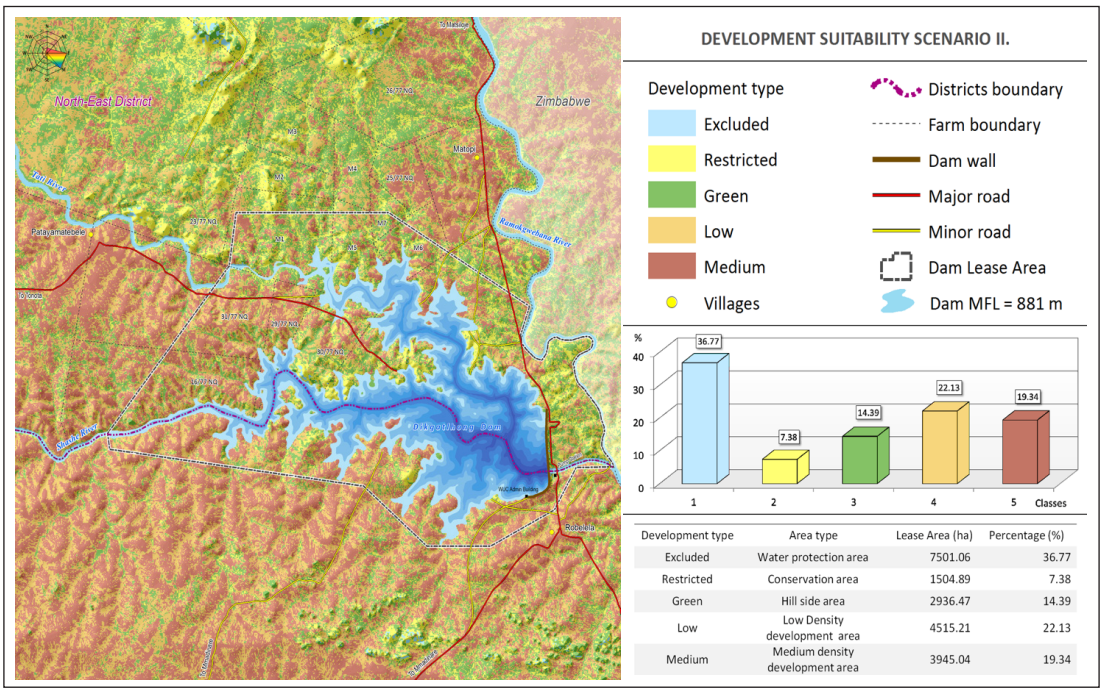
Source: GIS Plan computation, 2015

Zones of valuable natural vegetation and ecological sensitivity, which should be protected and conserved, while not being suitable for intensive development are more suited for recreational uses and wildlife conservation. Conservation efforts should therefore be focused on preservation/regeneration of natural vegetation cover and water points, streams and aquifers, because of their role in sustaining wildlife and recreational values.

Sustainable Development – Suitability Scenario II

This development suitability model considers a set of biophysical (natural conditions) factors as determinants of a site`s suitability for development. The following factors were considered in the application of this model for land suitability analysis: Site slope; slope aspect (exposition), height elevation, ruggedness, and planar curvature. The suitability analysis in this regard, sought to establish the suitability of the Dam Lease Area, using the above factors as parameters. The output of the analysis is shown in Figure 6 and Table 3.

Figure 6. Dikgatlhong Dam Sustainable Development - Suitability Scenario II.



Development type	Area type	Lease Area (ha)	Percentage (%)
Excluded	Water protection area	7501.06	36.77
Restricted	Conservation area	1504.89	7.38
Green	Hill side area	2936.47	14.39
Low	Low Density development area	4515.21	22.13
Medium	Medium density development area	3945.04	19.34

The analysis shows that this model has a higher level of flexibility in terms of allowing more forms of land development. Like model one, the largest area is still under protection including 7,501.06 ha or 36.64% of the Dam water surface. Conservation area occupies 1,504.89 or 7.38% and is restricted for development. Forms of green urbanism development are permitted to take place below hilly sides on 3,936.47 ha or 14.39% of land, and under condition of application of adequate engineering and environmental protection techniques. Low density development is approved in an area of 4,515.21 or 22.13%, while the medium density development can be implemented on 3,945.04 ha or 19.34% of total land mass.

Table 3. Land Use Statistics for Sustainable Development - Suitability Scenario II

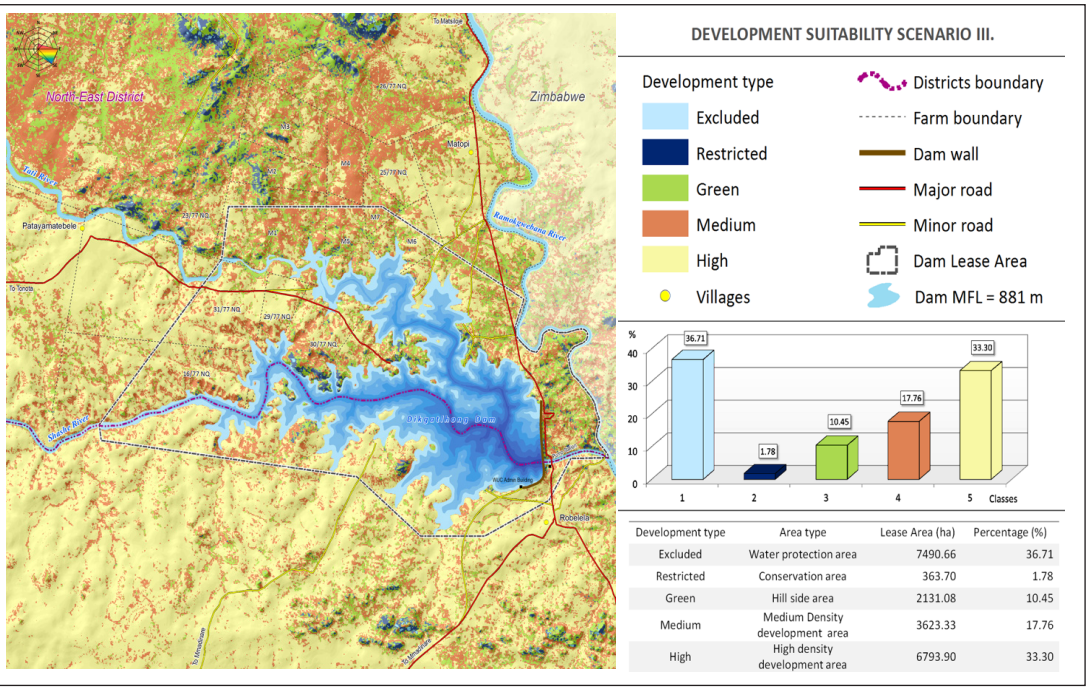
Development type	Area type	Suitability Class	ha	%
Excluded	**Water protection area**	**S4**	**7,501.06**	**36.64**
Restricted	**Conservation area**	**S4**	**1,504.89**	**7.38**
Green	**Hill side area (bottom part)**	**S3**	**2,936.47**	**14.39**
Low	**Low density area**	**S1**	**4,515,21**	**22.13**
Medium	**Medium density area**	**S2**	**3,945.04**	**19.34**
			20,402.67	**100.00**

Source: GISPlan computation, 2015

Intensive Development – Suitability Scenario III

The third model is more favourable for mass tourism and limits the extent of environmental protection and conservation. It allows the introduction of more intensive forms of development spreading over larger portions of land. If not controlled this type of suitability could compromise the basic function of the dam as a water resource of national importance. Also, other valuable ecological elements (e.g. natural habitats, stream channels, quantity/quality of water, landforms), highlighted in previous two models could be endangered and basic tourism attractions can fade away. This model opens the room for built-environment growth and intensive change of land use and land cover.

Figure 7. Dikgatlhong Dam Intensive Development - Suitability Scenario III



One-third of the area in this model still belongs to the water body of the dam. Conservation area is limited to 363.70 ha or 1.78% only. On the other hand, this model anticipates more than 10,000 ha or 51.06% to be designated for different forms of medium and high-density development. More sustainable forms of green urbanism are seen around hilly sides, mostly at their hill steps taking 2,131.08 ha or 10.45%.

Table 4. Land Use Statistics for Intensive Development - Suitability Scenario III

Development type	Area type	Suitability Class	ha	%
Excluded	**Water protection area**	**S4**	**7,490.66**	**36.71**
Restricted	**Conservation area**	**S4**	**363.70**	**1.78**
Green	**Hill side area**	**S3**	**2,131.08**	**10.45**
Medium	**Medium density area**	**S1**	**3,623.33**	**17.76**
High	**High density area**	**S1**	**6,793.90**	**33.30**
			20,402.67	**100.00**

Source: GISPlan computation, 2015

Evaluation of Suitability Scenarios

With regard to specific evaluations of the three zoning scenarios, a Multi-Criteria Evaluation Matrix was used to show how the scenarios were ranked with regard to the checklist of performance criteria presented above. The relative performance of each scenario was evaluated/assessed against the checklist, with ratings ranging from 0-5, where 0 represents a bad performance, while a rating of 5 represents an excellent performance. Table 5 is the result of the multi-criteria evaluation of each scenario showing how they ranked with regard to the checklist of performance criteria and indicators.

Table 5. Multi-Criteria Evaluation Matrix for the Broad Zoning Scenarios

#	Multi-Criteria Evaluation Check List/Performance Criteria	INDICATORS	SCENARIO		
			I	II	III
1	Conservation of biodiversity and natural resources	❖ Total spatial area coverage (ha) designed for conservation/nature base uses ❖ Total area (ha) designed for low impact tourism activities ❖ Number of zones and proposed tourism activities ❖ Intensity of development	5	4	1
2	Alignment with outcomes of suitability and sensitivity analyses	❖ Number of deviations from the development suitability maps in the siting of proposed tourism activities and developments	5	4	3

#	Multi-Criteria Evaluation Check List/Performance Criteria	INDICATORS	SCENARIO		
			I	II	III
3	Provision of good mix of tourism activities that appeal to diverse market segments	❖ Number of tourism activities ❖ Types of tourism activities and developments ❖ Number and types of market segments catered for	3	4	5
4	Assurance of good economic returns on investment for Investors	❖ Anticipated volumes of tourists (Low or High) ❖ Number and types of tourism activities ❖ Types of tourism activities offered	3	4	5
5	Promotion of sustainable tourism development	❖ Depletion of natural resources ❖ Environmental damage and degradation ❖ Water pollution ❖ Ability to sustain tourism in all respects over time	5	3	1
6	Benefits to surrounding communities	❖ Opportunities to conduct tourism business in the Dam Lease Area ❖ Opportunities for commercial fishing	4	4	4
		Totals	**25**	**23**	**19**

Notes: 5=Excellent; 4=Very Good; 3=Good; 2=Fair; 1=Poor; 0=Bad

In terms of the degree to which each scenario promotes or achieves the conservation of biodiversity and natural resources, the evaluation process reveals that Scenario I scored the highest with the maximum score of 5 points, followed by Scenario II, with 4 points. Under Scenario I, a total of 10365 ha or 72.14% of the total Dam Lease Area is devoted to conservation-related or nature-based use activities, while 3063 ha or 21.35% of the total area is for adventure tourism activities. The intensity of development and the number of facilities, as well as the number of zones in scenario I are the lowest among the three zones. With predominantly low volume tourism development in scenario I, biodiversity and natural resources will be much more conserved. Scenario III scored badly with 1 point under the conservation of biodiversity and natural resources criteria. It has the highest number of zones and the intensity of development and the number of facilities and activities to be provided are the highest, which means that the scenario will attract high volumes of tourists and diversified market segments. Scenario II scored 4 points with regard to conservation of biodiversity and natural resources. The Scenario has a smaller number of zones and activities than Scenario III, but with more zones and activities than Zone 1. It strikes a balance between the need to conserve biodiversity and promote tourism development sustainably.

With regard to alignment of the scenarios with the outcomes of the land suitability analysis carried out, all three scenarios performed well in this regard. Scenario I scored the maximum 5 points while Scenario II scored 4 points and Scenario III scored 3 points. With regard to the provision of a good mix of tourism activities which appeal to diverse market segments, Scenario I scored the maximum 5 points, since it provides the highest number and

types of tourism activities catering for all market segments, while Scenario I scored 3 points and caters mostly for the up-market segment but nonetheless caters for other market segments. Consequently, Scenario III thus assures good economic returns on investment for investors, while under Scenario I prospects of good economic return on investments are not as high as in scenarios II and III, since there will be fewer tourism activities and lower tourism volumes. Scenario II scored 4 points on this criterion, which is very good. In terms of the promotion of sustainable tourism development, Scenario III scored poorly, with 1 point, while Scenario II scored 4 points which is very good, and scenario I scored 5 points which is excellent. Scenario III has the ability to sustain tourism in all respects over time.

The communities surrounding the Dam Lease Area stand to benefit economically form tourism activities in all the zoning scenarios, particularly Robelela and Matopi, which are closest to the Dam. This is because there will be craft shops and vending stalls from which residents of these communities can engage in tourism-related business. Furthermore, there are proposals for the establishment of Community Development Trusts in the villages to serve as vehicles for the establishment of tourism businesses in their respective villages and in the Dam Lease Area, such as cultural villages, lodges and guest houses.

Selection of Preferred Scenario and Development of Master Plan Land Use Zoning Proposal

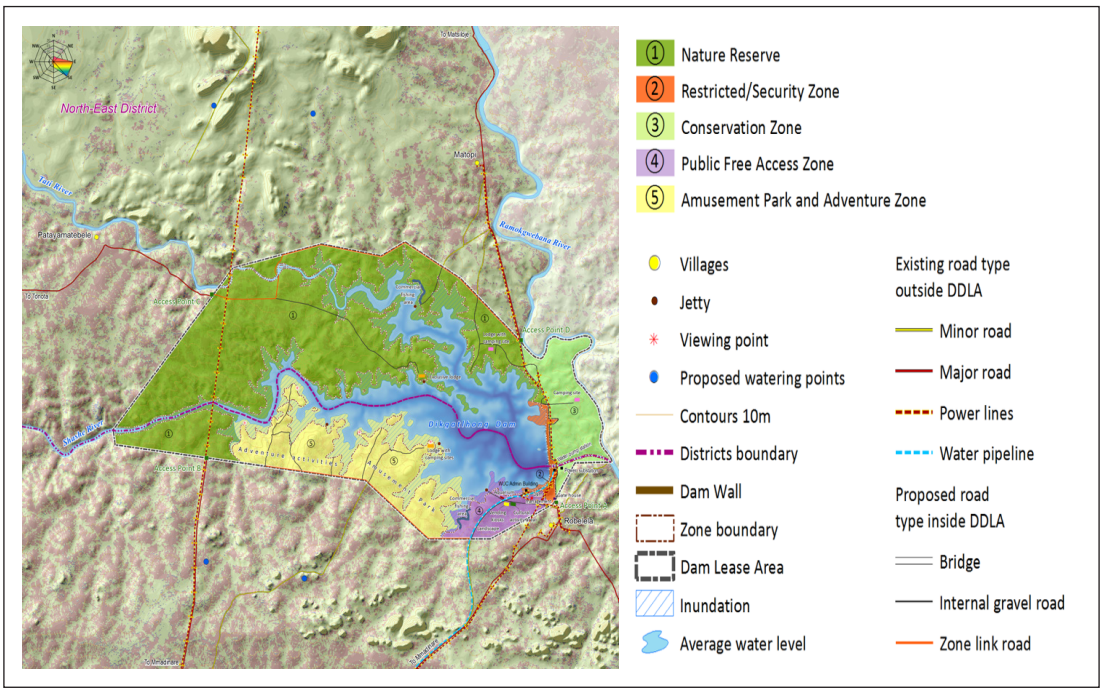
From all the evaluations above, broad zoning scenario I – Conservation Development has scored the highest with a total of 35 points and is recommended as the preferred planning scenario for DDTMP area. This scenario serves as the basis for the development of land use plans for each zone within the scenario, as well as the preparation of detailed development guidelines and management prescriptions dealing with the Tourism Master Plan proposals and recommendations. A composite zoning map of all the five zones in this scenario is shown in Figure 8.The details of each zone's intents and objectives; zone's attractions and characteristics; permitted and non-permitted uses in each zone, are presented under the following sub-headings:

Nature Zone (1)

This zone encompasses the northern and southwestern portions of the Dam Lease Area and the area is characterized generally by dense vegetation cover, with the following specifics: the presence of relatively dense tree stands of different Acacia species; the presence of riparian forest and savannah mixed woodland, comprising Mophane, Mohudiri and Morula; the presence of African Elephant, Kudu, Impala, Steenbok and spotted Hyena. There have been sightings of Leopard in the area; the presence of birdlife. There is availability of forage which is good for browsers such as Elephant, Kudu and Impala. The area has moderate grazing capacity for grazers such as Zebra and blue Wildebeest. The zone is an unmodified natural environment. With the above characteristics, the zone`s attractions thus lie in its potential to offer opportunities for experiencing and appreciating its natural values in pristine and natural settings, while experiencing a closeness to nature and solitude. Consequently, it is intended that the zone be established as a Nature Reserve. The following activities are recommended in Zone 1 (Nature Reserve): Guided Game Drives and Walking Safaris; Bird Watching and Photographic Safaris. It is recommended that a Lodge (36-bed facility) with a camping site,

be developed in the far eastern portion of this zone, which is near the border with Zimbabwe. A lodge facility will be well suited and needed for this zone, given that there will be tourists who will want to spend a couple of days in the Nature Reserve, to appreciate and experience a closeness to nature and fully engage in the activities on offer. While the lodge will appeal to the up-market and mid-market segments, the camping site will appeal to the budget market segment.

Figure 8. Dikgatlhong Dam - Proposed Land Use for Sustainable Conservation Development



Restricted/ Security Zone (2)

This zone stretches from the eastern side of zone 4 which is the free public access zone, up to the Dam Wall area and lies immediately east of Matsiloje-Matopi-Robelela road. The zone covers a total area of 194 hectares, which represents 1.35% of the total Dam Lease Area. Zone 2 houses the water pump station; BPC substation; Dam spillway and other Dam installations; and WUC administration offices. The general intents of this zone are to: Protect and safeguard the valuable and technical equipment that are required for the smooth operation and functioning of the Dam itself, from damage and vandalization or even sabotage Ensure that these asserts are always in good working conditions. Given the security and sensitive nature of zone 2, its entry shall always be restricted and shall only be accessible to staff of WUC and BPC permission for entry may be granted to special groups, such as students on educational tours. There shall be 24-hour security presence in the zone.

Conservation Zone (3)

Zone 3 is located at the eastern end of the Dam Lease Area, with Ramokgwebana River and

Zimbabwe bordering it to the east, Matsiloje-Robelela road to the west. The zone covers a total area of 1319 hectares, which represent 9.19% of the total Dam lease Area. Zone 3 has similarities to zone 1, in terms of biodiversity richness. The zone is characterized by riparian forest and savannah mixed woodland comprising Mophane, Mohudiri, Morula and riparian tree species, including Acacia Eriloba and Ziziphus Mucrowata; and the presence of Elephant, Kudu, Impala, Steenbok and Hyena. Whenever the spillway in the security zone is opened, some parts of the southern portion of zone 3 are flooded, and water is channelled through a diversion channel into Shashe River. As a result, this portion of the zone is most of the time marshy and characterized by a wide area of depression, interspersed with mounds of rock. It is therefore recommended that this southern portion of zone 3 be free of any developments, since it serves in receiving water from the spillway and thus have a unique landscape.With its richness in biodiversity and unique landscape in the southern portion, the intention is for the area to be designated as a conservation zone. It is recommended that a camping site be established in the central part of zone. This recommendation is inspired by the need to have a human presence in the zone, given that it is bordered by Zimbabwe and the possibility of poaching activities cannot be dismissed. The camping site will be targeted at the budget market segment.

Public Free Access Zone (4)

Zone 4 which serves as "the gateway" and main entry point into the Dam Lease Area, is in the southeastern corner of the Dam Lease Area, near Robelela village. The zone covers an area of 726 hectares, which represents 5.06% of the total Dam Lease Area. The area for zone 4 is characterized by the following: relatively open and flat terrain which lies on a generally high ground and thus presents opportunities for leisure and social interactions; sparse vegetation of shrub savannah and fringed by riparian vegetation along the shorelines; low ecological sensitivity, which makes the zone suited for high volumes of visitors envisaged; easy access to the shorelines, with panoramic views of the hills to the northern parts of the Dam and the Dam waters. The Public Free Access Zone will be open to all visitors to the Dam. Given that the zone is easily accessible to all visitors to the Dam and is the first major open area on arrival to the Dam, from Selebi Phikwe/Mmadinare/Robelela and Francistown /Matsiloje/Matopi, it is recommended that the following should be developed in this zone: (i) dam entrance canopy and gate house, (ii) dam management and tourism information centre, housing interpretation centre, arts gallery (iii) exhibition hall, (iv) curio/craft shop, snack/coffee shop, vending kiosks, (v) landscaped lawns, (vi) aquarium, and (vii) viewing platforms. With the above developments, it is recommended that the following activities should take place in zone 4: (i) cultural activities in the form of annual dance and cultural festivals, and (ii) showcasing local dance, art and cuisine of communities surrounding the dam, picnics and wedding events.

Amusement Park and Adventure Zone (5)

Zone 5 lies in the southern part of the Dam Lease Area and is bordered by zone 1 to the west and the Dam waters to the north, and to the east by zone 4. The zone has a spatial area coverage of 3063 hectares or 21.35% of the total Dam Lease Area, and is defined by the

following biophysical characteristics and attractions: relatively open and flat grounds which present opportunities for leisure and active recreation; sparsely vegetated shrub savannah and moderately bare soils; easy access to the shorelines with open views of the Dam waters and hills to the north of the Dam Lease Area, with good locations for the placement of elevated viewing points; low ecological sensitivity, thus suited for high tourist volumes. Given that the zone has large expanse of relatively flat land and with low ecological sensitivities the following activities are recommended for this zone: (i) passive and active recreation, (ii) mountain biking and quad biking, (iii) sport/recreational fishing, (iv) equestrian sport, (v) wedding events. With the above activities, the following developments are recommended in zone 5: (i) amusement park, with roller coaster, joy rides, and slides, (ii) lodge (24 beds) with camping site, (iii) landscaped lawns, (iv) mountain biking trails, (v) quad biking tracks, (vi) vending kiosks, (vi) snack/coffee shop, etc. It is proposed that the preferred market segments for zone 5 will be the budget, mid-market and up-market segments.

Conclusion

With this innovative approach, the DDTMP team has opened the door for a new era in Botswana planning practice, focusing this time on **(i)** the action area planning, and **(ii)** special area planning, which are the major planning fields of BTO interest. The same principles applied in this project are applicable to other planning types currently existing in the country (e.g. settlement, regional, district, environmental, site, and integrated land use and national planning). In summary, it was a combination of GIS capabilities with MVE/APH techniques, and involved the phases of planning intelligence system and choices by project team, BTO and stakeholders.

There are number of ways in which future planning practice and research could strengthen the validity of DDLA land suitability findings that could also be applied in other BTO projects. The findings give concrete information at which DDLA sites, the location of different types of tourism activities and land uses can take place. Furthermore, the applied method reduces subjectivity which is common in Botswana planning arena as a result of weak application of modern tools and technologies, and in many cases influenced by political powers.

The vision for tourism development at Dikgatlhong Dam is the product of shared aspirations and wishes of stakeholders, including community residents, as captured during stakeholders and community consultations, as well as community surveys. Importantly also, the remits of the Terms of Reference as issued by the client (BTO), have informed the long-term vision for tourism development at Dikgatlhong Dam. Vision in this context, is taken to represent a desired future state. Tourism development vision, involves the elaboration of the style of tourism; stakeholders would like to see a particular tourism destination offer, and who the target markets for the destination should be.

The aspirations and wishes expressed by stakeholders and community residents point to the vision of tourism in Dikgatlhong Dam as being leisure, recreational and adventure-based, while at the same time offering opportunities for tourists to experience natural settings in the form of outdoor camping, bird watching, walking safaris/trails and game viewing drives,

all set against the backdrop of spectacular views of the reservoir lake and sunsets. Tourism in the area will therefore offer "multi product" in terms of product mix, which will appeal to high-end, mid-market and low-end (budget) market segments (to be determined by the tourism activity zones). It is envisioned that Dikgatlhong tourism will embrace and embody sustainable tourism in all its ramifications, with conservation of biodiversity and natural resources as a major focus. The Dikgatlhongfuture tourism activities will also continuously benefit the surrounding communities economically, while yielding good returns on investment for tour operators and other investors.

The DDTMP project and its interdisciplinary nature of researching into sustainable eco-tourism through application of GIS MCDA and AHP is a pioneering work in Botswana. It aims at introducing principles of contemporary planning paradigms in combination with the latest technological advancements rooted around geo-spatial technologies and expert planning support systems, which help to avoid subjectivity and wrong decision-making related to environmental land use planning and developments. The DDTMP offers a new model, the one on tourism as the niche of "production of space and construction of place" (Dujmovic and Vitasovic, 2013), where cooperation between scientists, community, parastatals, government and private stakeholders can yield the best possible eco-tourism solutions without compromising the quality of life and quantity of natural resources.

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Does Strategic Orientation Mediate the Relationship Between Board Characteristics and Performance of Insurance Companies in Uganda?

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Abstract

This study aimed to investigate the mediating effect of strategic orientation on the relationship between board characteristics and the performance of insurance companies in Uganda. Philosophically, the study applied positivism and utilized a cross-sectional descriptive survey. Data were collected through a structured questionnaire, administered to a census of 131 licensed companies by the Insurance Regulatory Authority (IRA) in Uganda. The companies were spread across the country, and 108 responses were received, resulting in a 74.7% response rate. The hypotheses were tested using simple linear regression analysis and path analysis to examine the mediating effect. The study's findings suggest that strategic orientation has a statistically significant mediating effect on the relationship between board characteristics and performance. The results provide a contextual overview of the insurance industry in Uganda, highlighting the critical role of strategic orientations in enhancing the stellar performance of insurance companies. The study concludes that strategic orientation mediates the association between board characteristics and the organizational performance of insurance companies in Uganda. The mediating influence of strategic orientation on the relationship between board characteristics and organizational performance accounted for 57.0 percent of the variation in performance. This implies that companies leaning

towards strategic orientations of analysis, futurity, pro-activeness, defensiveness, and riskiness tend to achieve greater performance. However, it is noted that insurance companies in Uganda predominantly adopt a conservative approach (analysis and defensiveness) to strategy rather than an entrepreneurial approach (futurity, riskiness, pro-activeness, and aggressiveness). Despite this, the study suggests that this conservative approach can significantly positively affect organizational performance, considering that most insurance companies in Uganda align with these orientations. In light of the findings, the study recommends that insurance companies in Uganda should consider embracing the entrepreneurial approach to strategic orientation, with a particular emphasis on aggressiveness, to make a more substantial contribution to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

***Keywords**: Board Characteristics, Strategic Orientation, Insurance Companies in Uganda, Performance*

Introduction

Strategic orientation serves as a guideline for an organization to attain its strategic objectives. It encompasses the organization's core values and manifests as a collective comprehension and cognitive interpretation of its external surroundings and internal resources (Selmi & Chaney, 2018). Strategic orientation is studied as a direction taken by the organization to create the right behaviour for achieving superior business performance for the foreseeable future (Uzoamaka et al., 2020; Handoyo et al., 2023). Strategic orientation is described as how an organization adapts to the external competitive environment (Akpa et al., 2020). Strategic orientation is described as the practices, processes, decision-making, and actions that translate into organizational growth (Nasir, 2017). Strategic orientation is seen as what informs and influences the behaviours and choices of decision-makers while selecting a given firm strategy. Although strategic orientation has gained global attention from marketing, management, and entrepreneurship disciplines, prior literature as reflected above, does not indicate a consensus on the definition of strategic orientation. This study adopts the definition as it highlights strategic orientation about organizational behaviour and performance (Gatingnon & Xureb, 1997; Uzoamaka et al., 2020).

For that matter, various strategic management scholars have operationalized strategic orientation in unique ways. Bagire et al. (2014) conceptualized strategic orientation as reactors, analyzers, prospectors, and defenders. Nasir et al. (2017) & Boahene (2018) conceptualized strategic orientation as proactive and reactive. Otache et al. 2019 & Balodi (2020) conceptualised strategic orientation as entrepreneurial and market orientations. Bruneel et al. (2022), Adiguzel & Sonmez (2022), and Handoyo et al. (2023) conceptualized strategic orientation as reactors, analysers, prospectors and defenders. Kagziet et al. (2023) conceptualized strategic orientation as exploitation and exploration. Venkatraman (1989) advanced the measures of analysis, defensiveness, aggressiveness, analysis, futurity, riskiness,

and pro-activeness. These dimensions are categorized into two: the entrepreneurial approach to strategy through variables of futurity, pro-activeness, riskiness, and aggressiveness; and the conservative approach to strategy through dimensions of analysis and defensiveness. On their part, Miles & Snow (1978) identified four strategic postures of reactors, analysers, defenders, and prospectors, along with different problems facing organizations on performance. As the conceptualization debate rages on, for purposes of this study, Venkatraman's (1989) strategic orientation dimensions were adopted and found useful because they were inclusive of both conservative and entrepreneurial approaches to strategic orientation.

By scanning through board characteristics studies, they provide a hint of strategic orientations. Kagzi et al. (2023) on board diversity and strategic orientation in India used a panel data set using secondary data on an effective sample of 126 firms focusing on exploration and exploitation. Findings indicate that increased board diversity leads to more exploration than exploitation. Bruneel et al.'s (2022) findings on outside board members and strategic orientation in Belgium using a cross-sectional survey design on a sample of 170 new ventures reported a positive association. The challenge with this finding was focusing on only new ventures. This study focused on insurance companies that have existed for five years or more. Therefore, scholars like Kanakriyah (2021), who predicted a positive effect of board characteristics and performance, linked his study to what is planned and achieved and his ability to achieve the set goals.

In support of theoretical pluralism, this study adopted the Upper Echelons Theory propounded by Hambrick & Mason (1984). It was complemented by the Agency (Jensen & Meckling, 1976), and Stewardship (Davis et al., 1997) theories. The Upper Echelons Theory postulates that top managers, mainly executive boards with diverse characteristics, present diverse perspectives in decision-making, influencing organizational performance. Agency theory postulates the principal-agent relationship. It further posits that board characteristics should consist of outside and independent directors and separate the Chairman and CEO roles for better organizational performance (Balta, 2008). Stewardship theory predicts that directors act as stewards and are motivated to act in the best interests of the principals as they seek to attain the organization's objectives. This, therefore, matches the upper echelons' characteristics to strategic orientation and external environment.

Organizational performance in this study replicated Hubbard (2009) who, in his conceptualization of performance, proposed the Stakeholder-based Sustainable Balanced Scorecard (SBSC) as an integration of Tripple bottom line (TBL). Elkington (1997) and Balanced Scorecard, Kaplan and Norton (1992) concepts also capture social and environmental performance. Stakeholder-based SBSC focuses on internal processes, financial, customer/ markets, organizational learning and development, CSR performance, and impact on the environment performance. Yet, there is a lack of agreement among researchers regarding the most optimal measurement tools for organizational performance (Bagire, 2014, Handoyo et al., 2023; Bw'auma, 2021). This study adopted the SBSC since it overcomes the challenges of multiple stakeholders' demands on organizational performance. The insurance industry contributes 0.7% of the GDP of the economy and uptake at 1%. The insurance industry is instrumental in savings mobilization, risk transfer, institutional investment, financial inclusion

and deepening. Given the industry's infancy, the board characteristics and performance relationship and what influences that relationship was of interest to this study to form a foundation of governance, strategy, and better performance and contribution to GDP.

Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

The purpose of this section is to examine existing literature regarding organizational performance, strategic orientation, and board characteristics. We do so with the aim of developing a hypothesis and establish a research framework that illustrates the connection between the variables under investigation.

There are many strategic management theories that can anchor and complement the study conceptualization for purposes of ensuring clear definition of relationships among variables under study. The leading anchoring theory for this study is Upper Echelons Theory (Hambrick & Mason, 1984), complemented by Agency theory (Jensen & Meckling, 1976), and Stewardship theory (Davis et al., 1991). Upper echelons theory (Hambrick & Mason,1984) postulates that an organization's performance is a reflection of its top leaders since they make strategic choices which influence outcomes and performance informed by board characteristics. The above three theories provide joint anchorage to performance association among board characteristics and strategic orientation. What follows is the synthesis and convergence of these theories which is critical in literature to give an in-depth comprehension of the study.

Boateng (2021) concluded that agency theory alone is not sufficient in explaining board characteristics and organizational performance nexus. Hence, he recommended theoretical pluralism in board characteristics studies (Midgley, 2011; Jacobs, 2012; Hoque et al., 2013). The upper echelons theory serves as the foundational framework for understanding the relationship between board demographics and performance. According to this theory, the composition of the board, in terms of its demographic characteristics, is believed to have a significant influence on strategic decision-making and the subsequent performance outcomes of companies.

Hambrick and Mason's (1984) study proposed that a firm's board of directors' background characteristics could predict its strategic orientation, organizational outcomes, and performance levels. Specifically, they argued that the board's demographic characteristics, such as age, tenure, gender, and education, could shape board decision-making processes and strategic direction. Additionally, they suggested that boards with diverse backgrounds and experiences could provide better insights and perspectives, leading to improved organizational outcomes and performance. Their study has been influential in shaping the understanding of corporate governance and the role of demographic characteristics on strategic decision-making.

The strategic orientation and organizational performance relationship varies depending on the choice of performance measure used (Voss & Voss, 2000). Strategic orientation has been confirmed to play a mediator role in explaining how board characteristics as an internal structure determine organizational performance (Escriba et al., 2009; Abdulrahim, et al., 2020; Swairef et al., 2021). Researchers use strategic configurations or orientations to examine the

link between firm strategy and performance (Escriba et al., 2009). However, corporations having a pool of board members may enjoy the benefits of multiple orientations. Furthermore, Businge et al. (2023) affirm that board of director's strategic orientations are associated with customer focus as a measure of performance using a sustainable balanced scorecard. This is also complemented by another study by Businge et al. (2023) whose findings revealed that non-financial performance measures are instrumental during decision making by the board members who subscribe to unique and diverse orientations.

Balodi (2014) observed that strategic orientation demonstrates the organization's culture and activities. It is also associated with choices regarding resources to be allocated and opportunities to be exploited. For purposes of this study, Venkatraman's (1989) conceptualization analysis of six dimensions of strategic orientation was adopted because of its grounding in a comparative approach and critical connection with organizational performance. Secondly, Venkatraman's (1989) conceptualization is inclusive of an entrepreneurial approach as well as a conservative approach which is not the case for Miles and Snow's (1978) and Porter's (1980) conceptualizations of strategic orientations. However, Bagire et al. (2014) argue that some organizations' strategic orientation may be uncertain.

Due to the multidimensional nature of strategic orientation, several studies have conceptualized strategic orientation differently in the studies reviewed. Mbithi (2022), using a census and a questionnaire to collect primary data, studied Top Management Team characteristics and strategic orientation of 54 Kenyan insurance companies; the findings were not statistically significant. Nganga (2017) in his study on strategic orientation and performance of the telecom sector in Kenya focused on customer and market orientation and the positive influence was significant. Akpa and Falade (2020) focused on competitors, customers, pro-activeness, aggressiveness, and orientations in their study on insurance firms in Nigeria and the findings were insignificant. Findings by Sarker and Palit (2015), who also focused on learning, market, and entrepreneurial orientations in their study of SMEs in Bangladesh, indicated a positive relationship. This study focused on aggressiveness, analysis, proactiveness, futurity, riskness and defensiveness.

Machuki and Ko'bonyo (2011) dwelt on the strategic behaviour of quoted companies in Kenya and performance focused on nine strategic types whose findings were not statistically significant at all. This study employed Miles and Snow (1978) focusing on analyser, defender, reactor, and prospector orientations, where analyser orientation is associated with superior performance compared to the prospector and defender orientation in a dynamic market (Luo & Park, 2001). Furthermore, strategic Orientation provides firms with direction on key areas to ensure organizations continuously improve their performance (Hitt et al., 2000). The current study's conceptualization was different; the study context was in Uganda and the majority of Insurance companies in Uganda are not quoted-- hence the unique findings that will support the insurance sector.

Sobhan (2021) advocated for board characteristics as a basis for better organizational performance; however, his study was limited by a small effective sample and overreliance on secondary data. Nganga (2017) argues for strategic orientation as a basis for organizational

performance. However, the study on telecommunication companies in Kenya was limited by the response rate. Findings byAkpa and Falade (2020), in their agitation of strategic orientation and profitability of insurance companies, recorded an insignificant effect. The contradictions of the above scholars on the three variables are inconclusive. Therefore, the proposition of strategic orientation mediating the relationship between board characteristics and organizational performance was adopted (Escriba et al., 2009; Addulrahim et al., 2020; Shwairef et al., 2021).

Kagzi et al. (2023) predict that boards have an important role in defining the actions and events that will influence the organization's current or future orientation. Kagzi et al. (2023) further provide arguments for the role of demographic features of board members such as education qualifications, age diversity, and gender diversity, in affecting and influencing organizational orientation. Based on upper echelons theory, it is argued that heterogeneity in demographic attributes of the board influences the strategic orientation of the organization, hence a direct effect on strategic choices and outcomes. The strategic choice paradigm (Andrews, 1971; Child, 1972) has generated a large body of research, examining the influence and control of board members over an organization's future direction.

Past studies both in research and theory posit that strategic behaviour is an important element of organizational performance and success thereon (Shwairef, et, el., 2020). Empirical studies predict that strategic orientation leads to superior firm performance significantly (Kiiru, 2015; Nganga, 2017; Nasir et al., 2017; Otache et al., 2019; Balodi, 2020; Adiguzel & Sonmez 2022). Other scholars predict statistically insignificant findings (Machuki & K'obonyo, 2011; Mbithi, 2022). Board characteristics play a crucial role in determining firm performance by enabling the organization to define its strategic orientation/choice. This focus on behaviour assumes that organizational actors possess the discretion to act on their free will (Hambrick & Finkelstein, 1987). Escribá et al. (2009) posit that TMT plays a significant role in defining events and actions that influence organizations' future and current orientation. Further, they suggest that demographic variables like level of education, age diversity, experience, and gender diversity may be reflected in organization behaviour informing of willingness to take risks, innovation, and creativity when making decisions, reception, and attitude to change, ability and willingness to take risks and choice of information sources.

Scholars have advanced arguments that the influence of board characteristics is critical to organization performance (Abdulsamad, et al., 2018; Vieira, 2018; Bw'auma, 2021; Di Biase & Onorato, 2021). Consequently, board characteristics are most effective when strategy formation capabilities as dynamic capabilities are mediated by the strategic orientation of the board which in the end influences the strategic choices leading to firm performance (Slater, et al., 2006). Whereas, other boards delegate the responsibility of defining the choices and direction of the organization to executives (Useem &Zellek, 2006), this is a result of the limited knowledge of board members in the industry and the part-time nature of their work. The board members who do not delegate to executives advance the argument of lack of trust of executives. Strategic orientation studies emphasize that effective firm performance can be achieved if analysers, defenders, and prospector strategies are properly implemented, also based on internal stability and adaptive cycle three elements (Wyna et al., 2005). Therefore,

it can be postulated that Strategic orientation could mediate the relationship between board characteristics and organizational performance. Thus from the literature reviewed, this study is hypothesized as **H01:** *There is no statistically significant mediating effect of strategic orientation on the relationship between board characteristics and performance of Insurance companies in Uganda.*

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework Adopted by the Researcher

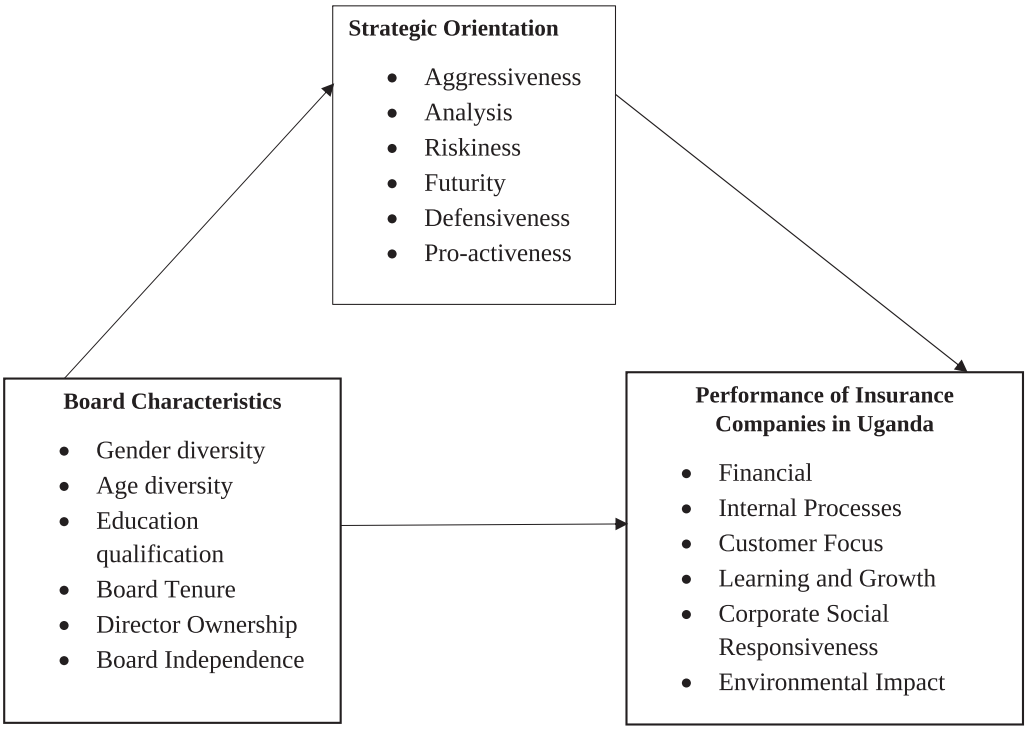


Figure 1, shows the conceptualization followed Venkatraman's (1989) six strategic orientations, Hubbard's (2009) conceptualization of performance using sustainable balanced scorecard and Baron and Kenny's (1986) in determining the mediation effect between variables.

Methodology

The study was guided by the positivistic method by investigating theoretical bases on board characteristics, strategic orientation, and performance of insurance companies in Uganda. The variables were assessed on their relationship and the strength of the relationship determined. The cause of the relationship and the effect of the relationship were also studied. Based on the survey data from primary sources, hypotheses were tested. In an effort to contribute to the field of board characteristics and organizational performance, the researcher was independent from what was being observed and hence the choice of the positivistic paradigm.

The study was a descriptive cross-sectional survey. This was considered the best choice for this study as supported by Cooper and Schindler (2008). It facilitated the researcher to gather data across a number of respondents at a given point in time. Accordingly, the study

was conducted under minimal temporal effect of variables under study and gave meaning to relationships among variables, but also facilitated comparison across different respondents, and came to conclusions. Nachimias and Nachimias (2004) suggest that this research design helps researchers to ascertain whether there is a significant influence that exists among variables at some point in time. Several studies have approved the credibility of results on studies that used cross-sectional design mainly on relationship-based studies (O'Sullivan & Abela, 2007). The target population consisted of all insurance companies in Uganda as at 31st July 2020. According to IRA, (2020) there were 131 licensed companies offering various services in the categories of Life, non-life, Health membership organizations, Bancassurance, re-insurance and insurance loss assessors, adjusters & surveyors companies. A list of all licensed companies was provided by IRA. The unit of analysis was, therefore, the Insurance company. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2013) for a population of less than 200, a census is recommended. Census becomes a choice because the population is small and manageable (Saunders et al., (2007).

Data collection: The Researcher utilized primary data sources on the four variables under study. The data was quantitative in nature with closed-ended questions across the study variables. Primary data was collected using a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed from literature and designed along a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very great extent). The questionnaire survey method and questionnaire as an instrument was administered to various respondents at the same time which made it a preferred method for this study. From Table 1, the study used Cronbach alpha as a measure of reliability. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was: Board characteristics 0.809, strategic orientation 0.957, organizational performance 0.906, indicating a high level of instrument reliability. The results demonstrate that all constructs exhibited strong reliability coefficients. Consequently, all still exceeded the recommended 0.7 cut-off point for the reliability test, as suggested by Creswell and Clark (2017).

Table 1:Test for Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Co-efficient)

Construct	No of items	Cronbach's alpha	Comment
Board Characteristics	21	0.809	Very Good reliability
Strategic Orientation	24	0.908	Very Good reliability
Organizational Performance	25	0.906	Very Good reliability
All Key Variables	118	0.970	Very Good reliability

Source: Field Data, (2023)

Validating the quality of data collection instrument reduces errors during the measurement process. Balta (2008) holds that Validity is about ability to measure the constructs as intended and study findings are exactly about what they appear to be. The KMO index exceeded the threshold of 0.5. From Table 2 Board Characteristics (KMO = 0.756, χ = 772.122, df = 210, and significance level = 0.000), Strategic Orientation (KMO = 0.773, χ = 1341.644, df = 276, and significance level = 0.000), and Organizational Performance (KMO = 0.789, χ = 1616.163, df = 465, and significance level = 0.000), the KMO scores indicated a high level of suitability for further statistical analysis. Additionally, Bartlett's test of Sphericity yielded

a p-value of 0.000, confirming the validity of the data at an acceptable level of significance. These findings establish a significant relationship among the variables and provide a solid foundation for conducting further statistical analyses, including regression analysis on all items of the research instrument.

Table 2: Summary of KMO and Bartlett's Test

Variable	KMO	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		
		Chi-Square (χ)	df	Significance Level
Board Characteristics	756	772.122	210	000
Strategic Orientation	773	1341.644	276	000
Organizational Performance	789	1616.163	465	000

Source: Field Data(2023)

Findings

The objective of the study aimed at establishing the influence of strategic orientation on the relationship between board characteristics and the performance of Insurance companies in Uganda. To establish this mediating influence, we employed the Baron and Kenny's (1986) use of path analysis of four steps that offers a framework for testing the mediating effect in relationships involving independent variables. Baron and Kenny (1986) recommend the presence of both a conceptual model and a statistical model prior to hypothesis testing. Moreover, if all the conditions are met in the anticipated direction, the impact of the dependent variable should be smaller in the third equation compared to the second equation.Top of Form

The hypothesis was tested using the four-step method of path analysis (Baron & Kenny, 1986), which employs regression analysis. In the first step of the analysis, board characteristics were regressed with performance. It yielded statistically significant results; the analysis progressed to the second step. However, if the results were not significant, the process would have been terminated, leading to the conclusion that strategic orientation does not mediate the relationship between board characteristics and performance.

Step One: The Effect of Board Characteristics on Organizational Performance

In step one, Board characteristics was regressed on organizational performance to establish the existence of direct relationship. The results in Table 3 show that Board characteristics accounts for 14.9 per cent of the variation in organizational performance of insurance companies in Uganda. The influence of Board characteristics on organizational performance of insurance companies in Uganda was significant in overall ($F= 13.604$, $p = 0.00$). The beta coefficients ($\beta =0.397$, $t= 3.688$, $p = 0.000$) was statistically significant. Specifically, one unit increase in Board characteristics causes 0.397 units increase in organizational performance, holding other factors constant. Thus, step one was significant, which confirmed step one in testing mediation and we moved to step two.

Table 3:Step1; Regressing Board Characteristics with Organizational Performance

Model Summary									
					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.385[a]	.149	.138	.62029	.149	13.604	1	78	.000

ANOVA[a]						
Model		**Sum of Squares**	**Df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
1	Regression	5.234	1	5.234	13.604	.000[b]
	Residual	30.012	78	.385		
	Total	35.246	79			

Coefficients[a]										
		Unstandardized Coefficients		**Standardized Coefficients**			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
Model		**B**	**Std. Error**	**Beta**	**t**	**Sig.**	Lower **Bound**	Upper **Bound**	**Tolerance**	**VIF**
1	(Constant)	2.471	.337		7.337	.000	1.801	3.142		
	Board Characteristics	.397	.108	.385	3.688	.000	.183	.611	1.000	1.000

Source: Field Data (2023)

Step Two: The Effect of Board Characteristics with Strategic Orientation

Table 4, in step two board characteristics was regressed on strategic orientation. The findings revealed that board characteristics accounts for 43.8 per cent of the variation in strategic orientation of insurance companies in Uganda (R^2 = 0.438). Regression model of board characteristics and strategic orientation of insurance companies in Uganda was significant in overall (F = 60.826, t=7.799, p = 0.00). The beta coefficients (β =0.683, t= 7.799, p =0.000), which indicated that board characteristics significantly influence strategic orientation. Further, the findings show that one unit increase in board characteristics leads to 0.683 units increase in strategic orientation. Step two of mediation was satisfactory, thus we proceeded to step three.

Table 4: Step 2: Regressing Board Characteristics with Strategic Orientation

Model Summary									
					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.662[a]	.438	.431	.50503	.438	60.826	1	78	.000

ANOVA[a]						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	15.514	1	15.514	60.826	.000[b]
	Residual	19.894	78	.255		
	Total	35.408	79			

Coefficients[a]										
		Unstandardized Coefficients		**Standardized Coefficients**			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
Model		**B**	**Std. Error**	**Beta**	**t**	**Sig.**	Lower **Bound**	Upper **Bound**	**Tolerance**	**VIF**
1	(Constant)	1.224	.274		4.464	.000	.678	1.770		
	Board Characteristics	.683	.088	.662	7.799	.000	.509	.858	1.000	1.000

Source: Field Data (2023)

Step Three: The Effect of Strategic Orientation on Organizational Performance

Table 5, Step three regresses Strategic Orientation on organizational performance. The results indicated that Strategic Orientation explained 32.5 per cent of the variation in organizational performance of insurance companies in Uganda ($R^2 = 0.325$). The model of Strategic Orientation on organizational performance was significant overall (F = 37.610, t=6.133, p = 0.00), β=.569, which showed that Strategic Orientation significantly influences organizational performance. One unit increase in Strategic Orientation increases organizational performance by 0.325 units, other factors held constant. Thus step three was satisfactory and we moved to step four for testing the mediation effect. Finally, Step four tested the influence of board characteristics on organizational performance while controlling for the effect of strategic orientation.

Table 5: Step 3: Regressing Strategic Orientation with Performance

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.570[a]	.325	.317	.55215	.325	37.610	1	78	.000

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.466	1	11.466	37.610	.000[b]
	Residual	23.780	78	.305		
	Total	35.246	79			

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.800	.314		5.732	.000	1.175	2.425		
	Strategic Orientation	.569	.093	.570	6.133	.000	.384	.754	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance
b. Predictors: (Constant), Strategic Orientation
Source: Research Data (2023)

Step 4: Regressing Board Characteristics on Organizational Performance while Controlling the effect of Strategic Orientation

Table 6, The fourth step tested the significance of the relationship between board characteristics and organizational performance in the presence of the mediator. The results from Model 1 returned (R=0.385, R^2=149, p = 0,000). This means that board characteristics accounts for 14.9 per cent of the variation in organizational performance of insurance companies in Uganda as previously revealed in Step 1. However, when strategic orientation was added to the Model, the results in Model 2 returned (R=0.570, R^2=0.325, p = 0,000). This means that board characteristics together with strategic orientation account for 32.5 per cent of the variation in organizational performance of insurance companies in Uganda. This means that strategic orientation caused an R Change which was statistically significant. Step four results therefore indicate that full mediation took place since the relationship between board characteristics and

organizational performance changed from R=0.385 to R=0.570 when strategic orientation was added to the model.

Table 6: Strategic Orientation Mediation Effect on the Relationship between Board Characteristics and Organizational Performance of Insurance Companies in Uganda

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.385[a]	.149	.138	.62029
2	.570[b]	.325	.308	.55568

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.234	1	5.234	13.604	.000[b]
	Residual	30.012	78	.385		
	Total	35.246	79			
2	Regression	11.470	2	5.735	18.573	.000[c]
	Residual	23.776	77	.309		
	Total	35.246	79			

Coefficients[a]

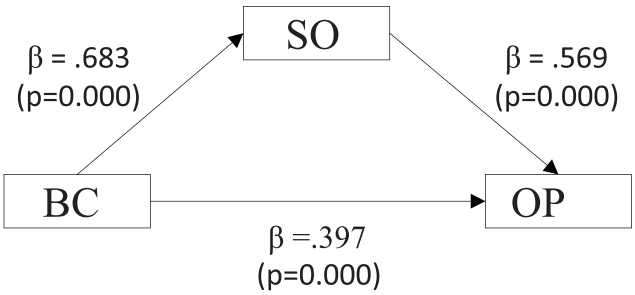
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
	(Constant)	1.786	.338		5.283	.000
	Board Characteristics	.014	.129	.014	.112	.912
	Strategic Orientation	.560	.125	.561	4.494	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance
a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance
b. Predictors: (Constant), Board Characteristics
c. Predictors: (Constant), Board Characteristics, Strategic Orientation
Source: Research Data (2023)

The results in Table 6 show that when strategic orientation was controlled, board characteristics explained only 14.9% of the variation in organizational performance (R^2 =.149), which was statistically significant p=0.000 at 95% confidence level. At model 2, Strategic Orientation added significantly to the organizational performance as the variation increased from .149 to .325 and p=.000. The results reveal that the variance explained by Strategic Orientation was significant (F=13.604, p=.000) and the F-values was increased to (F=18.573 p-value=.000) in the second model.

The results revealed that the regression coefficients for board characteristics increasedfrom .014 to .560 when Strategic Orientation was added to the regression, suggesting that Strategic Orientation exerts a mediating effect. The hypothesis that **H_{01}:** There is no statistically significant mediating effect of strategic orientation on the relationship between board characteristics and performance of Insurance companies in Uganda was therefore not supported. This implies that the attributes of strategic orientation discussed are manifested in the insurance companies of Uganda to the extent of influencing the board characteristics and subsequently the organizational performance.

Figure 2: Mediating Relationship



Discussion

The objective was to hypothesize and examine the influence of strategic orientation on the relationship between board characteristics and performance of Insurance companies in Uganda. Based on the null hypothesis that **H_{01}:** there is no statistically significant mediating effect of strategic orientation on the relationship between board characteristics and performance of Insurance companies in Uganda, the study found a strong explanatory power (R^2=0.325). The model was overall significant (F= 18.573, P-value=000). Mediation took place (ß = 0.560, t = 4.494 P-value = .000). The results of the study provide support on the roles of demographic attributes of board members such as gender, age and education in influencing a company's strategic orientation.

The results concurred with those of Escriba et al. (2009) which confirm that a firm's strategic orientation plays a mediating role in explaining how demographic characteristics determine performance. Board characteristics shape decision making processes and company behaviours in order to successfully perform. The findings were statistically significant. Kagzi et al. (2023) concur with the findings of this study originating from Upper Echelons Theory (Hambrick & Mason, 1984) that heterogeneity in board characteristics influences the strategic orientation of the company. This further confirms that board characteristics have a direct impact on company outcomes based on choices, innovation and performance.

In this regard, the findings further suggest insurance companies in Uganda practice a conservative approach to strategic orientation, as suggested by Venkatraman (1989). The evidence from descriptive statistics shows the highest mean score of analysis at 4.09 and defensiveness with a mean score of 3.51. A combination of these two orientations suggests and confirms a conservative insurance industry. This is further confirmed by the lowest mean score of 1.8 on aggressiveness, meaning entrepreneurial approach is not one of the practice towards strategic orientation. While a conservative, analytical, and defensive strategic orientation can provide a sense of stability and minimize risks, it may also limit the organization's agility and ability to capitalize on emerging opportunities or pursue innovation. It may hinder the organization's ability to take calculated risks and adapt quickly to dynamic market conditions.

A company with a strong strategic orientation tends to have a long-term focus and is proactive in anticipating and responding to changes in the market and industry (Nasir et al., 2017). The findings of this study are in agreement with Machuki & Kobonyo (2011) on

companies tending to lean towards strategic orientations of analysis, futurity, pro-activeness, defensiveness; however this study adds riskiness. It may also prioritize innovation, risk-taking, and continuous improvement in its operations and product development (Nasir et al., 2017). A strategic orientation can be shaped by a variety of factors, including the organization's culture, leadership style, competitive landscape, and customer needs. By adopting a strategic orientation, an organization can more effectively position itself to achieve its goals and maintain a competitive advantage in its market. Strategic orientation refers to the overall approach or mindset a company or organization takes towards its strategic planning and decision-making. It involves aligning the goals and objectives of the organization with the resources and capabilities available, as well as with the external environment and market conditions.

Organizational behaviour is, indeed, receiving increased attention due to the rapidly changing business environment. Each organization has its own unique characteristics and management practices, which lead to different strategic orientations. Understanding why firms adopt different strategic orientations and the factors that influence these decisions is crucial for enriching our knowledge in business, management, and organizations (Peng et al., 2016). Therefore, the concept of strategic orientation is used by many authors to define and explain organizational patterns, practices and values that are embedded in the strategic decision processes of businesses (Escriba et al., 2009).

Furthermore, agency theory suggests that strategic orientation can also play a role in reducing agency costs. A clear and well-defined strategic orientation can help align the interests of management with those of shareholders by providing a shared goal and purpose for the firm. Therefore, agency theory suggests that the relationship between board characteristics and performance may be mediated by strategic orientation. A board with certain characteristics may be more effective in contributing to superior performance only if the firm's strategic orientation is well-defined and aligned with the interests of shareholders. Successful performance of any insurance company in Uganda may depend partly on a proper match between strategic orientation and board characteristics and this match is expected to have a positive impact on organizational performance. Therefore, good strategic orientation in place is very crucial for insurance companies in Uganda in pursuit of their performance goals.

The study's findings suggest that board characteristics alone may not be sufficient for achieving performance of insurance companies in Uganda. Strategic orientations, such as analysis, defensiveness, pro-activeness and riskiness, play a crucial role in facilitating the improvement in performance. This highlights the need for a comprehensive approach that incorporates both board characteristics and strategic orientation to promote performance outcomes. Additionally, the study contributes to the broader strategic orientation literature by demonstrating the potential of strategic orientation as a framework for addressing complex performance challenges of insurance companies. The study's findings provide insights into the practical application of strategic orientation in a specific context and can inform future research and policy development in this area.

Conclusion

The study also concludes that strategic orientation mediates the association between board characteristics and organizational performance of insurance companies in Uganda. Mediating influence of strategic orientation on the association amidst board characteristics and organizational performance accounted for 57.0 per cent of the variation in performance. This implies that this can be explained by the argument that companies that tend to lean towards strategic orientations of analysis, defensiveness, tend to register greater performance. This can play a significant positive effect on organizational performance as most insurance companies in Uganda subscribe to those orientations.

Therefore, for insurance companies in Uganda to survive and succeed, a proper match between strategic orientation and board characteristics is expected to have a positive impact on organizational performance. Consequently, good strategic orientation in place is very crucial for insurance companies in Uganda in pursuit to their performance goals. All the strategic orientations individually were statistically significant using a sample t-test. For that matter, insurance companies in Uganda are highly analytical, moderately defensive, pro-active, futuristic and risk-averse. Using four steps of testing mediation effect, the study found that in the presence of strategic orientation. Therefore, it can be concluded that strategic orientation has a moderating influence on the association between board characteristics and organizational performance.

Recommendations

The study reports that each of the tested variables had an influence on performance either individually or jointly. The results of this study demonstrate that although board characteristics significantly influence performance of insurance companies in Uganda, strategic orientation plays an important role in influencing this relationship. Owners and partners in these insurance companies should therefore recognize this interaction and formulate company policies and procedures accordingly. The managerial practice related to strategic orientation the study advocates for entails a right combination of analysis, defensiveness and pro-activeness since they are the most prominent with high-scale means.

The results of this study reveal that insurance companies in Uganda are more conservative. Surprisingly, this is contrary to what is expected in the industry. The fact that these companies are at infancy in the sector may explain this observation. The study recommends that the insurance companies pursue the entrepreneurial approach with emphasis on aggressiveness in order to make a better contribution to GDP.

While a conservative strategic orientation can provide stability and minimize risks, it may limit the organization's agility and ability to capitalize on emerging opportunities and pursue innovation. On the other hand, a strong strategic orientation, encompassing long-term focus, proactiveness, and innovation can enhance a company's performance and competitive advantage. The study emphasized the importance of understanding the factors influencing strategic orientation, such as organizational culture, leadership style, and customer needs.

Furthermore, the study highlighted the role of strategic orientation in reducing agency costs and aligning the interests of management with shareholders. It emphasized the need for a proper match between board characteristics and strategic orientation to achieve superior performance in the insurance industry.

The findings contribute to the literature on strategic orientation, organizational behaviour, and performance, providing insights into the specific context of insurance companies in Uganda. They suggest that a comprehensive approach considering both board characteristics and strategic orientation is crucial for promoting performance outcomes. The study's implications can guide future research and inform policy development in this area.

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Knowledge Sharing and Organizational Performance in Uganda: The Case of National Teachers Colleges (NTCs)

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Abstract

The role of knowledge as the essential source of competitive advantage in organizations has become critical. This is because of the emerging competitive environment in today's global marketplace, where organizations have realized the need to remain competitive through knowledge sharing. Many companies know that to operate effectively in today's economy, it is necessary to become a knowledge-based organization. However, only a few truly understand what that means or how to implement the changes required to bring it about. This research aimed to assess the impact of knowledge sharing on the organizational performance of NTCs in Uganda. Data was collected using questionnaires in July 2022 from the teaching staff of the five National Teachers' Colleges that train teachers in Uganda, targeting a sample of 141 respondents. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics, which included frequencies and percentages, and inferential statistics, which included Spearman correlation, coefficient of determination, and regression analyses in determining the impact of knowledge sharing as an independent variable on the performance of the NTCs as the dependent variable. It was, therefore, concluded from the findings that knowledge sharing positively impacted the organizational performance of NTCs in Uganda. This study will guide the NTCs to integrate their knowledge assets, including databases, people, experience, and expertise of these people, systems, policies, and procedures during knowledge management for their better performance. Moreover, the results of this research will be used to improve the sharing

of knowledge at the NTCs in Uganda, which may lead to improvement in the way NTCs make themselves relevant to the society in which they operate.

Keywords: *Knowledge sharing, organizational performance, National Teachers' Colleges (NTCs)*

Introduction

Knowledge sharing has been defined as a process through which a group of people exchange knowledge among themselves through various communication methods (Al-Kurdi et al., 2018). The objective of knowledge sharing is about communicating and transferring ideas to help other people better practices towards achieving something (Djangone & El-Gayar, 2021). However, the quality of knowledge sharing is determined by the quality of individual interactions among a group of people (Wang & Noe, 2010). Knowledge in higher institutions of learning is communicated and transferred in various ways that may include documents, collaboration between experts, face-to-face interaction, and correspondence, among others (Kimile et al., 2020).

Knowledge sharing plays a vital role in the performance of higher learning institutions (Aulawi, 2021), such as the NTCs in Uganda. This is because better knowledge sharing allows students and lecturers in higher institutions of learning to broaden their knowledge, which contributes to the extent to which these institutions are assessed in terms of their performance at the national, regional, and international levels (Kimile et al., 2020; Saifi et al., 2018). Therefore, better knowledge-sharing practices are inevitable in higher institutions of learning if they have competed amongst themselves.

In the context of the critical role of knowledge sharing towards the performance of higher institutions of learning, as explained in the previous paragraph, NTCs in Uganda have embraced knowledge sharing (Nerima, 2021a; Nerima, 2021b). These NTCs hoped that doing so would help them improve their performance and compete favourably. Although there has been improvement in the performance of NTCs in Uganda, this has not been achieved as expected (Kyamazima, 2018). This is reflected in the tendency of secondary schools' preference for university degree graduate teachers to the detriment of the NTC diploma teachers (Weteya, 2019). Thus, improving the quality of training and learning in NTCs is a priority. In addition, knowledge-sharing practices in NTCs in Uganda do not seem to be effectively applied. Therefore, It was necessary to conduct this study on knowledge-sharing practices in these institutions to explore the extent of their impact on enhancing their organizational performance. This article consists of the following parts: introduction, theoretical background, hypotheses, methodology, research results, and conclusions, with a description of the study's implications, limitations, and future research ideas.

Theoretical background

Higher education institutions (HEIs) must generate knowledge from internal and external sources to use it strategically to gain and maintain their performance competitiveness around the world (Ouma et al., 2022). Therefore, HEIs perceive knowledge sharing as an institutional strategy used to improve their quality of learning and novelty, to advance better decision-making and improve the performance of their academic staff and students as well as their general performance as HIEs (Wanderage et al., 2021; Amayah, 2020; Wanjiku, 2017). The way this knowledge sharing is conducted determines the extent to which HEIs successfully impart ideas that inspire the discourses of scholars.

HEIs have adopted various approaches and models to improve the quality of academic teaching as well as the academic learning experience of students (Shahzad, 2020). For example, some of the most popular and effective teaching and learning approaches that HEIs utilize include working group presentations, collaborative problem solving as well as online and classroom discussions for sharing knowledge for improved and effective teaching and learning processes (Rono, 2017). Notwithstanding the above process of knowledge sharing, the improvement of HEIs' performance is highly dependent on the behaviour and attitude of each lecturer and student, as well as the technological and scientific innovations that are utilized to engage the knowledge-sharing methods and approaches earlier on explained (Zhou & Li, 2012).

In the context of higher learning, HEIs are considered sources of academic and non-academic knowledge obtained through human effort, research works, and other academic works designed for consumption by various HEIs' stakeholders that include faculty members, students as well the national, regional and international community (Ouma et al., 2022). As maintained by Ramakrishnan and Yasin (2018), to guarantee that HEIs are successful in their educational performance activities, the acquired knowledge is required to contribute to the success of the entire performance of HEIs. Knowledge sharing should, therefore, be seen as an urgent strategy that institutions require to remain competitive and attractive in the national, regional and international academic market. Moreover, acquiring knowledge will likely make HEIs more sustainable in achieving their desired goals.

Knowledge sharing, however, remains a limited research area in the context of HEIs in Uganda. Poonkothai (2016) explained that the success of HEIs' excellence in the world generally focuses on academic classroom performance as the primary method of performance evaluation, and there have been less efforts given to consideration of knowledge sharing. Webster, Hammond and Rothwell (2014) believed that, in general, knowledge sharing should focus more on market fit compared to the current state of assessment and other academic performance measures utilised by many HEIs.

This Resource-Based Theory (RBT) developed by Penrose in 1959 (Sousa et al., 2021) was used in this study to explain how knowledge sharing impacts the performance of NTCs in Uganda. The theoretical assumptions of RBT assume that organizational characteristics are not only modified, but an organization must adjust its direction to succeed and gain sustainable

competitive advantage (Barney et al., 2021). The principal paradigm in impacting an organization's performance proposes that internal organizational factors, such as capabilities and resources, determine the organization's competitiveness. In other words, the RBT asserts that having valuable capabilities and resources gives an organization a golden opportunity to develop competitive advantages over its competitors (Molloy et al., 2011). These competitive advantages can also help the organization enjoy more benefits, especially in the long run. Valuable capabilities and resources are expensive, rare, difficult to imitate and irreplaceable.

As applied in the context of HEIs, the RBT states that knowledge sharing is one of a firm's most deliberately critical assets. Differences in organizational performance occur when they have valuable capabilities and resources that other firms do not have, allowing them to maintain their quasi-monopoly status (Barney et al., 2021). According to Penrose and Pitelis (cited Ahmed, Kristal & Pagell, 2014), RBT was a modern way of analysing the knowledge shared for a lasting benefit to the organization. In this way, the theory has helped explain the internal capabilities and resources of the university, focusing on the ability to formulate strategies for the success of academic performance in a sustainable way. The RBT provides a vital framework for explaining and predicting the underpinnings of organisational performance and competitive advantage. The RBT is considered influential to strategic management as it is widely used as a management framework to determine a company's critical capabilities and resources to gain sustainable competitive advantage.

The seminal work on valuable resources by Barney in 1991 was an essential contribution to RBT, leading to the conceptual transformation from a resource-based view to the theory developed as RBT (Hitt et al., 2016). Traditional RBT, however, does not explain how and why some organizations gain competitive advantage in unpredictable resources but also by developing new capabilities through learning, skill sharing, and knowledge accumulation over time. The logic of RBT suggests that if organizations own capabilities and resources, those who can control those capabilities and resources can generate sustainable competitive advantage (Setia & Patel, 2013). Therefore, organizations can take advantage by continuously combining or configuring various capabilities and resources to create new ways of sharing knowledge to meet market needs (Sousa et al., 2021).

In addition to being used in strategic management, RBT has been accepted and used in other quantitative and qualitative business management areas. To the present day, the use of RBT has been extended to a range of business studies such as entrepreneurship (Molloy et al., 2011), information systems (Setia & Patel, 2013), supply chain management (Ahmed et al., 2014), the economics (Ahmed et al., 2014), operations management (Hitt et al., 2016), and marketing (Kozlenkova et al., 2014). Several studies have examined the connection between RBT and its implementation of various business goals.

Hypothesis development

The research hypothesis tested in this study was, "*Knowledge sharing has a significant positive impact on the performance of National Teachers' Colleges in Uganda*". This study assumed that poor knowledge sharing by NTCs in Uganda would contribute to the poor performance

of NTCs. On the other hand, better knowledge sharing by NTCs in Uganda would contribute to better performance of NTCs. Earlier studies, such as those conducted by Aulawi (2021), have shown that knowledge sharing significantly impacts organizational performance. This study found out if the two sub-variables of knowledge sharing, which include closed-network knowledge sharing and open-network knowledge sharing, significantly impacted the performance of universities in Uganda.The performance of NTCs in Uganda was investigated using three dimensions: impact performance of NTCs, transparency performance of NTCs and excellence performance of NTCs.

Thus, the assumption of this study with two dimensions of knowledge sharing was as follows. Poor closed-network knowledge sharing and poor open-network knowledge sharing by NTCs in Uganda contributed to poor performance of NTCs in Uganda in terms of poor impact performance of NTCs, poor transparency performance of NTCs and poor excellence performance of NTCs. On the other hand, better closed-network knowledge sharing and better open-network knowledge sharing by NTCs in Uganda contributed to better performance of NTCs in Uganda in terms of better impact performance of NTCs, better transparency performance of NTCs and better excellence performance of NTCs.

These hypotheses were confirmed by Aulawi's (2021) study,which was conducted from a positivist philosophical epistemology like that adopted in this study, to examine the relationship, if any, between knowledge sharing and organizational performance. The study found that better knowledge-sharing practices were linked with better organizational performance. Therefore, organizations must invest in ways to share information from people and institutional repositories. If done, this is likely to benefit the organization's performance.

Methodology

The methodological section treats the research design, the approach adopted, the sample and sampling technique used, the data collection method and instrument, data validity and reliability, the data collection procedure, the data analysis, and ethical considerations.

Research Design and Approach

As defined by (Kothari et al., 2004), *"research design is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for collecting, measuring and analyzing data."* A descriptive cross-sectional survey design was used in this study. This design was used because it enabled the researchers to target a group of respondents to obtain information without follow-up of respondents once information was obtained from them (Amin, 2005; Sakaran, 2003). The design was selected since the study was academic and was used to describe the relationship between knowledge sharing and National Teachers' College (NTC) performance in Uganda. This design helped save time and financial resources during data collection. A quantitative research approach was adopted in this study (Creswell, 2009). The quantitative approach was used to permit the researcher to acquire quantified information.

Sample and Sampling Technique

There are five National Teachers' Colleges (NTCs) in Uganda. They are NTC Muni, NTC Unyama, NTC Kaliro, NTC Mubende and NTC Kabale. The NTCs are Higher Institutions of learning that train and produce teachers with diplomas in Uganda. The data was collected from a sample of 141 teaching staff. These included 29 from Muni NTC, 18 from Unyama NTC, 30 from Kaliro NTC, 32 from Mubende NTC, and 32 from Kabale NTC. Each of the lecturers had an equal opportunity to be selected using simple random sampling since not all lecturers participated in this research, except in the case of Mubende NTC; that census was used since the number of teaching staff was relatively small. They are the focus of this study about Knowledge sharing.

Instrument

The questionnaire was created by the authors. It was tested for validity and reliability to ensure that it helped collect the required data as suggested by Amin (2005). Data was collected from the academic staff using a standardized questionnaire. The questionnaire survey was applied to extract a lot of information on knowledge sharing and performance of the NTCs within a short time, hence saving on time as the researcher administered a big number of questionnaires to many respondents at a time. It was free from the bias of the interviewer since the answers were directly from the respondents. Respondents had adequate time to give well-thought-out answers. Large sample sizes were reached and thus the results are more systemic (C.R.Kotari, 2004).

Validity

The researcher subjected the data collection instrument to two raters to determine that the instrument would collect the data that it purported to collect. The results are as in Table 1.

Table 1: Validity of the Data Collection Instrument

Raters	Relevant items	Not relevant items	Total
Rater 1	17	4	21
Rater 2	15	6	21
Total	32	10	42

Source: Primary data

CVI = 32/42 ≈ .762

Amin (2005) recommends the CVI of .70. This means that the instrument used for the data collection could collect valid data.

Reliability

To ensure that the data collection instrument could collect reliable data, the researcher performed a reliability test using SPSS to determine Cronbach's Alpha. The results are as in Table 2.

Table 2: Reliability of the Data Collection Instrument

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Knowledge sharing	.805	10
Performance of NTCs	.743	11

Source: Primary data

The two Cronbach alphas in Table 2 were within the recommended reliability of .70 and above as suggested by Amin (2005). This meant that the instrument used for the data collection could collect consistently for both independent and dependent variables. Therefore, the findings were reliable.

Subjects and Procedure

There are five National Teachers Colleges (NTCs) in Uganda. They are NTC Muni, NTC Unyama, NTC Kaliro, NTC Mubende and NTC Kabale. The NTCs are higher institutions of learning that train and produce teachers with diplomas in Uganda. Collecting the data was done in July 2022, targeting a sample of 141 teaching staff. These included 29 from Muni NTC, 18 from Unyama NTC, 30 from Kaliro NTC, 32 from Mubende NTC, and 32 from Kabale NTC. Each of the lecturers had an equal opportunity to be selected using simple random sampling since not all lecturers participated in this research, except in the case of Mubende NTC. That census was used since the number of the teaching staff was relatively small. The questionnaire was administrated face-to-face.

Procedure of Data Collection

The researcher reached every National Teachers' College involved in the study and sought permission from the Principal of the College and administered questionnaires to the teaching staff of each college in accordance with the study design.

Data Analysis

The results are original in that primary data sources entirely were relied on in this research. These primary data sources involved gathering first-hand information directly from those who participated in this research, unlike secondary data sources that involve gathering information that has already been compiled by someone else (Prada-Ramallal et al., 2018). This implies that the information analysed in this research was originally generated directly from the participants.

Data was analysed using quantitative analysis. Quantitative data was entered into a computer software programme called Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) as it helped analyse large amounts of data in a shorter time, as suggested by Hazarika (2019). The same programme helped in computing univariate and multivariate statistics. Univariate statistics which were in the form of descriptive statistics were performed on each of the variable of this study as explained by various scholars (such as Allen, 2017; Canova, Cortinovis &

Ambrogi, 2017; Zhang, 2016). Descriptive statistics which were in the form of percentages were necessary for understanding how participants in this study responded to statements on the variables. The reason for relying on percentages in this research was that the responses to the items/questions in the questionnaire were measured using an ordinal scale (in other words, respondents selected one discrete response suitable to the item/question) as suggested by Canova et al. (2017). The percentages were followed by multivariate statistics that helped to address the objective of this research as advocated by McQuitty (2018). The multivariate statistics included Spearman Rank Order correlation, coefficient of determination, and regression analyses to determine the impact of the knowledge sharing as the independent variable on performance of the NTCs (McQuitty, 2018).

Results

This section presents the empirical findings. It is divided into two major sections. The first section presents the demographic data, and the second section presents the results on the impact of knowledge sharing on performance of the NTCs in Uganda.

Background Information Findings

The NTCs' teaching staff members were asked about the NTCs employing them as well as their gender, age, and length of time the teaching staff had worked with the NTCs. The demographic data are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Demographic data

Institution Employing Teaching Staff	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Muni NTC	29	20
Unyama NTC	18	13
Kaliro NTC	30	21
Mubende NTC	32	23
Kabale NTC	32	23
Total	141	100
Gender of teaching staff	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Male	128	91
Female	13	9
Total	141	100
Age of teaching staff	**Frequency**	**Percent**
20-29 years	12	9
30-39 years	96	68
40-49 years	19	13
Above 49 years	14	10
Total	141	100
Length of time teaching staff has worked with the NTCs	**Frequency**	**Percent**

Institution Employing Teaching Staff	Frequency	Percent
Less than 5 years	38	26
5-10 years	98	70
11-15 years	5	4
Total	**141**	**100**

Source: Primary data

Findings in Table 3 show that 20% of the teaching staff members that participated in this study were from Muni NTC, 13% were from Unyama NTC, 21% were from Kaliro NTC, 23% were from Mubende NTC, and 23% were from Kabale NTC. The percentages are almost equally represented among the five NTCs. Further, it is shown that more male teaching staff members (91%) participated in this study than their female counterparts (9%). Both sexes were, however, involved. In addition, most of the teaching staff members (68%) were aged 30 to 39 years, followed by teaching staff members aged 40 to 49 years (13%), teaching staff members aged above 49 years (10%), and teaching staff members aged 20 to 29 years (9%). This implied that all the respondents were mature enough to respond appropriately to the items on the questionnaire. Lastly, most of the teaching staff members had worked with the NTCs for 5 to 10 years, followed by teaching staff members that had worked with them for less than five years (26%) and 11 to 15 years (4%). This meant that the majority of the teaching staff, by the time of data collection, had worked with the NTCs for a good number of years that allowed them to know and have the required information.

Impact of Knowledge Sharing on Performance of NTCs in Uganda

It is recommended that descriptive statistics for each variable of the objective investigated in the study should be presented before presenting inferential findings. Therefore, in this section, descriptive findings related to knowledge sharing in NTCs and those related to the performance of NTCs are presented separately. These are then followed by inferential findings related to knowledge sharing and performance of NTCs.

Descriptive findings related to Knowledge Sharing in NTCs in Uganda

Knowledge sharing in NTCs in this study was measured in terms of closed-network knowledge sharing and open-network knowledge sharing. The teaching staff members were requested to respond to a statement on each of these two measures of knowledge sharing with the guidance of a five-response Likert scale ranging from never to very often, as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Descriptive findings related to Knowledge Sharing in NTCs in Uganda

Statement about closed-network knowledge sharing	N	VR	Total	R	O	VO	Total
1. This institution academic community has adequate time to share the relevant knowledge with members within the institution	13%	41%	54%	8%	13%	25%	38%
2. This institution academic community has adequate funds to share the relevant knowledge with members within the institution	21%	52%	73%	3%	11%	13%	24%
3. This institution academic community shares their new ideas with members within the institution for them to benefit from them	23%	42%	65%	1%	20%	14%	34%
4. This institution academic community shares their new understanding of problems of concern with members within the institution for them to benefit from it	16%	48%	64%	5%	11%	20%	31%
5. This institution academic community shares discovered new facts about problems with members within the institution for them to benefit from them	23%	43%	66%	1%	21%	12%	33%
Statement about open-network knowledge sharing	N	VR	Total	R	O	VO	Total
6. This institution academic community has adequate time to share the relevant knowledge with members outside the institution	20%	41%	61%	9%	14%	16%	30%
7. This institution academic community has adequate funds to share the relevant knowledge with members outside the institution	18%	46%	64%	10%	12%	14%	26%
8. This institution academic community shares their new ideas with members outside the institution for them to benefit from them	15%	44%	59%	12%	20%	9%	29%
9. This institution academic community shares their new understanding of problems of concern with members outside the institution for them to benefit from it	20%	44%	64%	10%	12%	14%	26%
10. This institution academic community shares discovered new facts about problems with members outside the institution for them to benefit from them	13%	47%	60%	11%	16%	13%	29%

Source: Primary data

Note: N = Never, VR = Very rarely, R = Rarely, O = Often and VO = Very often

To ease analysis of the results in Table 4, a sum of the percentages for "*Never*" and "*Very rarely*" was computed to indicate teaching staff members who responded "*less favourably*" to the statements. In addition, a sum of the percentages for "*Often*" and "*Very often*" was computed to indicate teaching staff members who responded "*more favourably*" to the statements. On the other hand, the percentages for rarely were left as they are and were treated as teaching staff members who responded fairly to the statements.

Therefore, findings in Table 4 related to closed-network knowledge sharing show that the highest sum percentage range response (that is lowest to the highest percentage response)

on the five statements was that of teaching staff members who responded unfavourably to the statements (54% to 73%). This was followed by sum percentage range response for teaching staff members who responded favourably to the statements (24% to 38%), while the least sum percentage range response (1% to 8%) was for teaching staff members who responded fairly to the statements. Therefore, the interpretation from this analysis is that most of the teaching staff members were of the view that closed-network knowledge sharing was poor at the NTCs, while approximately a third of them were of the view that it was good, and very few of them believed it was fair.

Table 4 related to open-network knowledge sharing shows that the highest sum percentage range response (that is, lowest to the highest percentage response) on the five statements was that of teaching staff members who responded unfavourably to the statements (59% to 64%). This was followed by sum percentage range response for teaching staff members who responded favourably to the statements (26% to 30%), while the least sum percentage range response was for teaching staff members who responded fairly to the statements (9% to 12%). Therefore, the interpretation from this analysis is that most of the teaching staff members were of the view that open-network knowledge sharing was poor at the NTCs, while approximately a third of them were of the opinion that it was good, and very few of them were of the opinion that it was fair.

Descriptive findings related to organizational performance of NTCs in Uganda

Performance of the NTCs in this study was measured in terms of impact (visibility) performance, transparency (openness) performance, and excellence performance. The teaching staff members were requested to respond to statements on each of these three measures of performance of NTCs with the guidance of a five-response Likert scale ranging from never to very often, as shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Descriptive findings related to organizational performance of NTCs in Uganda

Statement about impact (visibility) performance	**N**	**VR**	**Total**	**R**	**O**	**VO**	**Total**
1. The institution has been recognized globally for producing relevant and graduates with the skills and knowledge needed by society	18%	38%	56%	6%	25%	13%	38%
2. The institution has been recognized globally for engaging research/innovations that has been useful to the community	18%	36%	54%	4%	21%	21%	42%
3. The institution has been recognized globally for assisting the country to address developmental challenges	14%	38%	52%	13%	17%	18%	35%
Statement about transparency (openness) performance	N	VR	Total	R	O	VO	Total
4. The institution has been recognized globally for having published works that are accessible	21%	40%	61%	3%	22%	14%	36%

Statement about impact (visibility) performance	N	VR	Total	R	O	VO	Total
5. The institution has been recognized globally for employing international academic staff in various fields of expertise	16%	35%	51%	12%	21%	16%	37%
6. The institution has been recognized globally for enrolling international students in various fields of expertise	13%	42%	55%	8%	12%	25%	37%
7. The institution has been recognized globally for publishing a large of research through various platforms	21%	51%	72%	3%	11%	14%	25%
Statement about excellence performance	N	VR	Total	R	O	VO	Total
8. The institution has been recognized globally for carrying out the best research work in various fields of expertise	13%	42%	55%	8%	13%	24%	37%
9. The institution has been recognized globally for having high teaching quality in various fields of expertise	18%	38%	56%	8%	25%	11%	36%
10. The institution academic community has been recognized globally for winning of Nobel prizes and fields medals	13%	42%	55%	8%	12%	25%	37%
11. The institution academic community has been recognized globally for producing research publications that attract citations	18%	38%	56%	8%	25%	11%	36%

Source: Primary data

Note: N = Never, VR = Very rarely, R = Rarely, O = Often and VO = Very often

Findings in Table 5 related to impact (visibility) performance show that the highest sum percentage range response (that is lowest to the highest percentage response) on the five statements was that of teaching staff members who responded unfavourably to the statements (52% to 56%). This was followed by sum percentage range response for teaching staff members who responded favourably to the statements (35% to 42%), while the least sum percentage range response was for teaching staff members who responded fairly to the statements (4% to 13%). Therefore, the interpretation from this analysis is that most of the teaching staff members were of the view that the impact (visibility) performance of NTCs was poor, while approximately a third of them were of the view that it was good, and very few of them were of the view that it was fair.

Findings in Table 5 related to transparency (openness) performance show that the highest sum percentage range response (that is, lowest to the highest percentage response) on the five statements was that of teaching staff members who responded unfavourably to the statements (51% to 72%). This was followed by sum percentage range response for teaching staff members who responded favourably to the statements (25% to 37%), while the least sum percentage range response was for teaching staff members who responded fairly to the statements (3% to 12%). Therefore, the interpretation from this analysis is that most of the teaching staff members were of the view that the transparency (openness) performance of NTCs was poor, while approximately a third of them were of the view that it was good, and very few of them were of the view that it was fair.

Findings in Table 5 related to excellence performance show that the highest sum percentage range response (that is, lowest to the highest percentage response) on the five statements was that of teaching staff members who responded unfavourably to the statements (55% to 56%). This was followed by the same percentage range response for teaching staff members who responded favourably to the statements (36% to 37%), while the least sum percentage range response was for teaching staff members who responded fairly to the statements (8%). Therefore, the interpretation from this analysis is that most of the teaching staff members were of the view that the excellence performance of NTCs was poor, while approximately a third of them were of the view that it was good, and very few of them were of the view that it was fair.

Inferential findings on knowledge sharing and performance of NTCs in Uganda

The inferential findings were used to address the objective of this study, which was to assess the impact of knowledge sharing on performance of NTCs in Uganda. The inferential analysis involved computing the Spearman correlation, coefficient of determination and multiple regression. Results are presented in the following paragraphs.

The hypothesis that was tested stated, "Knowledge sharing has a significant positive impact on performance of NTCs in Uganda". Results of the Spearman correlation and coefficient of determination for knowledge sharing and performance of NTCs in Uganda are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Correlation and coefficient of determination findings for knowledge sharing and performance of NTCs in Uganda

	Knowledge sharing in NTCs
Performance of NTCs in Uganda	rho = .406 rho^2 = .165 p = .000 n = 141

Source: Primary data

Table 6 shows a moderate positive relationship (rho = .406) between knowledge sharing and the organizational performance of NTCs in Uganda. However, since the hypothesis emphasizes "impact" and not "relationship", a coefficient of determination (rho^2 = .165) was computed to address the objective. This shows that knowledge sharing accounted for 16.5% of the change in the performance of NTCs in Uganda. Testing this finding shows that the significance value in Table 4 (p = .000) was less than the recommended .05. Because of this, this finding was accepted, leading to the acceptance of the hypothesis. Therefore, it was concluded that there was a significant positive impact of knowledge sharing on performance of the NTCs in Uganda. The positive nature of the impact indicated that poor knowledge sharing contributed to poor performance of NTCs in Uganda, while better knowledge sharing contributed to better performance of NTCs in Uganda. The moderate nature of the impact indicated that a unit change in knowledge sharing contributed to a moderate change in organizational performance

of NTCs in Uganda.

The regression analysis was important in this study as it enabled the researcher to determine how the two measures knowledge sharing that included closed-network knowledge sharing and open-network knowledge sharing impacted performance of NTCs in Uganda. Findings are presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Regression findings for knowledge sharing and performance of NTCs in Uganda

Regression Statistics					
R	.406				
R Square	.165				
Adjusted R Square	.153				
Standard Error	2.193				
Observations	141				
ANOVA statistics					
	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Sig F*
Regression	2	131.1	65.6	13.6	.000
Residual	138	663.4	4.8		
Total	140	794.6			
Coefficients statistics					
	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*Beta*	*t Stat*	*P-value*
Intercept	7.51	.76		9.87	.000
Closed-network knowledge sharing	.14	.05	.24	2.87	.005
Open-network knowledge sharing	.15	.05	.26	3.11	.002

Source: Primary data

Table 7 shows a moderate linear relationship (R = .406) between the combined measures of knowledge sharing (closed-network knowledge sharing and open-network knowledge sharing) and performance of NTCs in Uganda. The adjusted R Square (.153) shows that the combined measures of knowledge sharing (closed-network knowledge sharing and open-network knowledge sharing) accounted for 15.3% change in performance of NTCs in Uganda. Testing this finding using ANOVA statistics shows that the significance value (Sig F = .000) of the Fisher's ratio (F = 13.6) was less than the recommended significance value of .05. Because of this, this finding was accepted.

The coefficients statistics were used to determine how each of the measures of knowledge sharing (closed-network knowledge sharing and open-network knowledge sharing) significantly impacted performance of NTCs in Uganda. Findings show that all two measures of knowledge sharing (closed-network knowledge sharing and open-network knowledge sharing) had significant values (p = .005, p = .002) less the .05. This indicated that the measures of knowledge sharing impacted performance of NTCs in Uganda. However, the t-Stat value for open-network knowledge sharing (3.11) was higher, followed by closed-network knowledge sharing (2.87). This indicated that open-network knowledge sharing had the most impact on

performance of the NTCs in Uganda, followed by the impact of closed-network knowledge sharing on performance of the NTCs in Uganda.

Discussion

This study established a significant effect where knowledge sharing accounted for 15.3% of the change in performance of NTCs in Uganda, whereby poor knowledge sharing contributed to poor performance of NTCs in Uganda while better knowledge sharing contributed to better performance of NTCs in Uganda. This result indicates that knowledge sharing matters for NTCs in Uganda that always endeavour to share the latest and updated information that can be transferred to their students and other higher institutions of learning. This finding is supported by various studies. For example, the finding of this study is consistent with Shonubi, Odunlami and Akintaro (2020) who conducted their study in Lagos State, Nigeria. They investigated how knowledge sharing affected the organizational performance of Kresta Laurel Company. Their analysis was almost like that of this study except that they did not perform a Spearman correlation and coefficient of determination during their analysis. Despite the slight difference in their analysis from that used in this study, the effect between the variables that they investigated was significant which was in line with the finding of this study.Shonubi et al. (2020), however, did not present the results of R coefficient, R Square and Adjusted R Square to enable comparing with the findings of this study in this respect.

The findings of this study are also like results by Ngah and Ibrahim (2010) who investigated similar variables among small and medium enterprises in the manufacturing and services sector in Malaysia.The way they measured knowledge sharing, however, differed from this study in that they focused on value of knowledge and social network. In addition, their analysis differed from this study in that they used Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). Their finding was that knowledge sharing significantly and positively influenced organizational performance.

Furthermore, supporting the findings of this study is a study conducted by Aulawi (2021) who studied knowledge sharing in a private Indonesian university. However, the difference of this study from that of Aulawi (2021) is that the impact is on the performance NTCs while that of the latter is on research productivity. In addition, Aulawi (2021) investigated a private university while this study investigated public National Teachers Colleges (NTCs). This study, like Aulawi (2021), targeted higher education and more than that, it used a quantitative approach. Like the analysis in this study, Aulawi (2021) analysed the responses to the questions from 35 participants quantitatively but more to that, followed it with qualitative analysis which involved analysing data from focus group discussions (FGDs), documents and interviews. The sample size Aulawi's (2021) study was small compared to the one that participated in this study; and usually smaller sample sizes tend to produce results that are not significant upon testing. Despite the small sample size, the results of Aulawi's (2021) study were in line with the finding of this study in that it confirmed that information sharing had a positive significant impact on the research productivity of the university.

The finding of this study is like that of Tran (2021) who investigated knowledge sharing,

innovativeness, and organizational performance in Vietnam. One of his objectives was the effect of knowledge sharing on organizational performance. He postulated that knowledge sharing was positively related to organizational performance. His analysis differed from this study as explanatory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and structural equation modelling (SEM) were performed. Despite this, his finding confirmed a significant effect ($\beta = 0.225$, $p < 0.001$) and the is consistent with Song, Park and Kang (2015).

Conclusion

This study was conducted to investigate the impact of sharing processes (closed-network knowledge sharing and open-network knowledge sharing) on performance of NTCs in Uganda. Using a quantitative survey method, the results demonstrate that knowledge sharing positively impacts the performance of NTCs in Uganda.

Recommendation

Educational institution administrators and leaders can use these results to consult with investors about implementing knowledge sharing projects in their institutions. This study also contributes to practitioners as it provides organizations with new insights and findings that HEIs administrators or managers from other industries can use to improve the performance of their organizations. In line with the finding, the study recommends that the NTCs vigorously adopt knowledge sharing, as it will directly lead to their improved performance.

Contribution to science

The major reason for conducting this research was to utilize its findings to propose a new approach to organizational norms and values for the NTCs in Uganda to support their knowledge management which will help in improving their performance. This approach will focus on how the NTCs can integrate their knowledge assets that include databases, people, experience, and expertise of these people, systems, policies, and procedures during knowledge management for their better performance.

Socio-economic effects of research and impact of research results

Higher education institutes play a critical role in facilitating the socio-economic development of a country through various ways such as channelling people who have been equipped with the knowledge to the labour force, contributing to innovations, and conducting research to address societal problems. Such contributions are part of the measurement of the performance of the NTCs. Moreover, the various ways through which NTCs facilitate the socio-economic development of the country are anchored on the effectiveness of knowledge management, with knowledge sharing being one of its dimensions. Thus, the results of this research are likely to be used to improve the management of knowledge at the NTCs, which may lead to the improvement in the way NTCs style themselves relevant to the society in which they operate.

Limitations and future directions of the research

This study had some limitations which may open doors for future studies. First, the study targeted teaching staff members only from the NTCs in Uganda. Further research may also include other employees of higher education institutions, such as members of the administration. Secondly, the study was conducted on NTCs exclusively in Uganda. A study expanded to other developing countries may lead to more insights into the impact of knowledge sharing on the performance of NTCs. Finally, opportunities for more research exist to explore a moderator analysis based on respondent demographics such as position, but also a similar study may make use of a mixed methods.

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Self-efficacy and Financial Inclusion of Working Women in Uganda

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Abstract

Financial inclusion has emerged as the primary driver of inclusive economic growth even in developing countries and women are critical to the financial inclusion strategy due to their numerical significance and typically living longer than men. Though literature supports the notion that self-efficacy in financial matters promotes financial inclusion, little is known as to whether such a link exists among women in a developing country. Guided by the social cognitive theory, this article examines the level of self-efficacy and financial inclusion, and the relationship between self-efficacy and financial inclusion among working women in Uganda. The inquiry used a correlational cross-sectional design, a sample size of 384 from a population of 327,930 working women in Kampala district, Uganda, and a structured questionnaire to obtain primary data. Exploratory factor analysis, correlation analysis and regression analysis were used to answer the study objectives. The results found that the level of financial self-efficacy and financial inclusion among working women in Uganda is 51% and 56% respectively. Additionally, the results confirm that self-efficacy positively and significantly ($B=0.187$, $\beta= 0.232$, $p<0.05$) affected financial inclusion. Therefore, the null hypothesis, 'Self-efficacy has no significant effect on financial inclusion among working women in Uganda' was rejected.

We thus recommend that more empirical work needs to be done to clearly understand those unique factors that enhance financial self-efficacy of women in a developing country so that Government of Uganda and the other stakeholders in financial inclusion can design evidence-based initiatives that strengthen the financial self-efficacy of women so as to enhance their financial inclusion.

Keywords: *Self-Efficacy, Financial Inclusion, Working Women And Uganda*

Introduction

Policymakers in economies, particularly in developing nations are paying attention to financial inclusion which has emerged as the primary driver of inclusive economic growth. Focusing on the demand side, women are critical to the financial inclusion strategy for many countries due to their numerical significance and typically living longer than men (Montford & Goldsmith, 2016). Several scholars have advanced self-efficacy as one way forward of improving performance of individuals, but self-efficacy is task-specific and not generalizable across multiple contexts (Chaffin, 2018). This study focuses on the financial self-efficacy. In the urban and rural areas of Uganda, financial self-efficacy (FSE) is a predictor of financial inclusion among individual financial consumers without segregating them on the basis of gender (Mindra et al., 2017). Sweida and Reichard (2013) amplify that increasing Australian women's high-growth entrepreneurship self-efficacy can increase women's intention to engage in high-growth venture creation, and Farrell et al.(2016) elucidate that financial self-efficacy among the Australian women emerges as a significant predictor of the type and number of financial products that a woman holds. Montford and Goldsmith (2016) show that low levels of FSE among USA women might account for their frequently observed low financial risk taking. Albeit there exists a growing body of proof, mainly from developed countries, that supports the notion that self-efficiency improves financial inclusion, little is known as to how financial inclusion is affected by self-efficacy among women in a developing country.

Working women have been chosen for this investigation for various reasons. First, women in Uganda are the majority working adult population (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2018), yet 23% have remained financially included for five years, from 2013 to 2018 (FinScope Uganda, 2018). Secondly, working women in Uganda, as is in many other countries, generally outlive men (National Population Council, 2018) and as a result will assume financial management tasks when widowed. Thus, in the long term, financial sustainability among women is contingent on their financial inclusion. Moreover, most research on financial inclusion has used either individual (male and female) or heads of household as the unit of analysis without desegregating the respondents for targeted policy formulation. Hence targeting working women is a timely consideration. This study sought to close the identified knowledge gap by examining the level of self-efficacy and financial inclusion among working women in Uganda, and the effect of the former on the latter.

Study Objectives

The specific study objectives were to:

i) Examine the level of self-efficacy among working women in Uganda;

ii) Examine the level of financial inclusion among working women in Uganda;

iii) Examine the relationship between self-efficacy and financial inclusionamong working women in Uganda.

Literature Review

Theoretical orientation

The social cognitive theory as advanced by Bandura (1986) stresses that human inspiration and deed are expansively controlled by forethought, and this cognitive expectant control mechanism is dominated by beliefs of personal efficacy (Bandura, 1995; Bandura, 1999) within a social-cognitive framework, a critical review of research on the motivational impact of different psychological climates in physical activity. Motivational, cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes are considered in sport, school physical education and exercise. We first review laboratory and field studies that tried to manipulate the perceived structures of motivational environments and to examine the subsequent outcomes on participants' cognitive and affective responses. Then we discuss studies influenced by the work of Ames in classroom settings and involving questionnaires to measure individuals' perceptions of 'motivational climates'. The impact of mastery and performance climates on various indices of motivation is narratively reviewed, and statistically estimated effect sizes from 14 studies (n = 4484. The social cognitive theory (SCT) hypothesizes that individuals who distrust their capabilities either attempt less, stop altogether, or go for options that are not the best; but those with a resolute belief in their abilities are resilient, put extra effort to find better methods of overcoming their challenges (Bandura, 1999)within a social-cognitive framework, a critical review of research on the motivational impact of different psychological climates in physical activity. Motivational, cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes are considered in sport, school physical education and exercise. We first review laboratory and field studies that tried to manipulate the perceived structures of motivational environments and to examine the subsequent outcomes on participants' cognitive and affective responses. Then we discuss studies influenced by the work of Ames in classroom settings and involving questionnaires to measure individuals' perceptions of 'motivational climates'. The impact of mastery and performance climates on various indices of motivation is narratively reviewed, and statistically estimated effect sizes from 14 studies (n = 4484. Beliefs in coping efficacy are situational specific, and self-efficacy's predictive power is domain-specific (Bandura, 1986; Amatucci & Crawley, 2011)it is increasingly important to understand the factors which contribute to their success. While entrepreneurship research identifies access to human and financial capital as being important, fewer studies explore the role of sociocognitive factors such as self-efficacy or confidence in one's abilities to perform a particular task. This paper aims to examine gender-related attitudes toward financial management drawing from existing studies

education, cognitive psychology, and entrepreneurship. Design/methodology/approach – The empirical study creates a measure of financial self-efficacy (FSE thus the SCT and the concept of financial self-efficacy are compatible (Mindra & Moya, 2017financial literacy and financial inclusion (FI). Moreover, Bandura postulates that people assess their ability to deal with hard situations relying more on their knowledge, skills and strategies than solely on how much effort they will apply. As a result, SCT serves as an explanation framework to shed light on how much confidence women have in their abilities and how this perceived self-efficacy can prompt their financial inclusivity.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is the belief in one's own capacity to complete a task (Bandura, 1982). Generally speaking, self-efficacy dictates whether or not someone will pursue a particular course of action and how tenaciously they will pursue a challenging task (Bandura, 1986). Chaffin (2018) postulates that beliefs in coping efficacy are situation-specific, and self-efficacy's predictive power is domain-specific. Self-efficacyin the setting of finance, more particularly, financial self-efficacy (FSE) is the level of confidence an individual has on his ability to access, use financial products or services, undertake a financial decision, and deal with the complex financial situation (Noor et al., 2020). The concept of financial self-efficacy is one-dimensional (Lown, 2011). The study adopted the rigorously verified Lown's proposed Financial Self-Efficacy Scale to operationalize self-efficacy. Though some scholars from the developed world have studied the self-efficacy among women (e.g. Calcagno & Monticone, 2011; Amatucci & Crawley, 2011; Farrell et al.,2016; Montford & Goldsmith, 2016), none has assessed the level of financial inclusion among women. This study shines light on the level of self-efficacy on working women in Uganda, a developing country.

Financial Inclusion

The definition of financial inclusion is not agreed upon by academics. Sethi and Acharya (2018), for example, define financial inclusion as an endeavour that integrates many groups into a financial system, especially the underprivileged, low-income earners, and disadvantaged individuals. Truc and Nguyen (2020) postulate that financial inclusion is an endeavour that makes it possible for people to quickly, adequately, and affordably use formal financial services that are readily available, especially for those who are financially vulnerable. This article adopts the definition as proposed by Kasaija and Tumusiime-Mutebile (2017) in the Ugandan National Strategy as having access to and using a broad range of quality and affordable financial services which help ensure a person's financial security. Drawing from the empirical grounding and the fact that this investigation is demand biased, this investigation measures financial inclusion in terms of welfare, usage, access and quality as proposed by Bongomin et al.(2018).

The World Bank's Global Findex Database reveals that 65% of women owned a bank account in 2021 as cited by Financiera (2023), but financial inclusion is not restricted to having a bank account. FinScope Uganda (2018) provides that 77% of women have been financially

formally and informally included from 2013 to 2018. However, the FinScope survey only considered adult women of 16 years or above that were financially included in the period of 30 days prior to the survey. There is a need to extend the knowledge on financial inclusion to cover all adult women (+15 years) who have utilised financial services in the last 12 months as per the guidance of Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2018). This study closes that gap in knowledge using working women in Uganda.

Self-Efficacy and Financial Inclusion

From the classical works of Bandura, the father of social cognitive theory, there is supportive empirical evidence to the effect that self-efficiency improves performance. However, self-efficacy in the financial domain that focuses on women as a research area is relatively limited. For instance, a study by Calcagno and Monticone (2011) determined that in Italy, women's readiness to delegate investment decisions is due to absence of self-confidence in financial matters. This was validated by empirical findings by Amatucci and Crawley (2011) it is increasingly important to understand the factors which contribute to their success. While entrepreneurship research identifies access to human and financial capital as being important, fewer studies explore the role of sociocognitive factors such as self-efficacy or confidence in one's abilities to perform a particular task. This paper aims to examine gender-related attitudes toward financial management drawing from existing studies education, cognitive psychology, and entrepreneurship. Design/methodology/approach – The empirical study creates a measure of financial self-efficacy (FSE which conclude that lack of confidence among businesswomen in the US contributes to their low involvement in financial management, and Farrell et al.(2016) who augment that financial self-efficacy, among Australian women, emerges as a significant predictor of the type and number of financial products that a woman holds. In addition, Montford and Goldsmith (2016)many women invest too conservatively. This finding is of particular concern as women typically live longer than men do, and thus, rely on accumulated savings for longer periods of time. This study extends work in the psychology of investing by examining the relationship between gender and investment risk and the role financial self-efficacy (FSE show that low levels of FSE among USA women might account for their frequently observed low financial risk-taking. Albeit there exists a growing body of proof, mainly from developed countries, that supports the notion that self-efficiency improves financial inclusion, little is known as to how financial inclusion is affected by self-efficacy among women in a developing country.

None of all the above-mentioned scholarly works focuses on women in a developing country. This empirical work sought to expand extant research by incorporating the mobile money indicator as part of the financial inclusion index while focusing on women in Uganda. And since self-efficacy is important in motivating a person to perform (Bandura, 1999)within a social-cognitive framework, a critical review of research on the motivational impact of different psychological climates in physical activity. Motivational, cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes are considered in sport, school physical education and exercise. We first review laboratory and field studies that tried to manipulate the perceived structures of motivational environments and to examine the subsequent outcomes on participants' cognitive

and affective responses. Then we discuss studies influenced by the work of Ames in classroom settings and involving questionnaires to measure individuals' perceptions of 'motivational climates'. The impact of mastery and performance climates on various indices of motivation is narratively reviewed, and statistically estimated effect sizes from 14 studies (n = 4484, the social cognitive theory will help to explain the influence of financial self-efficacy on financial inclusion.

Thus, we hypothesise, H_0*: Self-efficacy has no significant effect on financial inclusion among working women in Uganda.*

Methodology

A correlational cross-sectional design was deployed as it allows for the testing of the hypothesis and works well with questionnaires and ideal for large sample inquiries. Primary data was gathered using a closed-ended questionnaire with a 6-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (6) strongly agree.

From a population of 327,930 working women (+15 years) in all five divisions of Kampala district in Uganda (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2018), a sample size of 384 was obtained using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) at a 5% level of significance. The unit of study and inquiry was the working woman.

The level of self-efficacy and financial inclusion were examined using exploratory factor analysis. The association between the study variables was analysed using correlation analysis. The hypothesis was subjected to empirical validation through the utilization of regression analysis.

Results and Findings Discussion

Demographic Results

The key demographic characteristics of working women in Uganda in terms level of income, and Financial Service used are presented in Table 1 and Table 2 respectively.

Table 1: Level of Income

Monthly net income		Frequency	%	Cumulative %
	Less than Ugx 50,000	26	7.0	7.0
	Ugx 50,000 - Ugx 500,000	192	51.3	58.3
	Ugx 500,001- Ugx 1,000,000	99	26.5	84.8
	Ugx 1,000,001-Ugx 1,500,000	24	6.4	91.2
	Ugx 1,500,001- Ugx 2,000,000	10	2.7	93.9
	Ugx 2,000,001 – Ugx2,500,000	10	2.7	96.5
	Ugx 2,500,001 and above	13	3.5	100.0
	Total	374	100.0	

The expressive statistics detailed in Table 1 show that the level of income after all deductions

among working women was skewed to the right with more than a half of the respondents (51.3%) earning from Ugx 50,000 to Ugx 500,000 per month. A small portion of working women (15.2%) earn more than one million shillings in a month. This net income distribution is not normal, and more needs to be done to bring more working women into the national targeted income per capita under current prices of 954 USD (equivalent of about Ugx 305,000 per month) (UBOS, 2021).

Table 2: Financial Service used

Service	Frequency	Percentage
Bank or Microfinance Institution	162	27.5
Savings and Credit Cooperatives (Saccos)	81	13.7
Mobile Money Service	248	42.0
Insurance Service	43	7.3
Pension Funds (E.g. employment-based pension funds, NSSF, etc.)	18	3.1
Capital Markets	2	0.3
Forex Bureaus	16	2.7
Money Transfer Institutions such as Western Union and Money-Gram.	15	2.5
Other (specify, e.g., savings groups, money leaders and Village Savings and Loan associations)	5	0.8
Total	590	100

Table 2's descriptive statistics show mobile money services as the most popular financial services (42.0%), followed by the Bank or Microfinance Institution (27.5%) and Saccos (13.7%). The more advanced financial services like Insurance Service (7.3%), Pension Funds (3.1%), Capital Markets (0.3%), Forex Bureaus (2.7%) and Money Transfer Institutions (2.5%) are not commonly used by working women. This trend could be due to the not fully developed financial markets in the country and the relatively low levels of income among most working women. In addition, the country has just come out of the 2-year lockdown due to Covid-Pandemic. This could have affected the way working women utilised the advanced financial services.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used to examine the level of self-efficacy and financial inclusion so as to answer objective (i) and (ii).

Examining Self-Efficacy using EFA

The first study objective was to examine the level of self-efficacy among working women in Uganda. The results of the EFA on self-efficacy as detailed in Table 3 show that four factors substantially correlate to each other with sample adequacy KMO of 0.702, determinant > 0 which shows a non-identity of the correlation matrix of the factors /items; homogeneity of factors is confirmed by the Bartlett's test sig = 0.000. Therefore, the sample was suitable for factor analysis.

Using Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Varimax rotation method, 4 items were extracted explaining 51% of self-efficacy as detailed in the component matrix in Table 3. Two (2) items were excluded in the final factor analysis on the basis of not loading well with the other factors with absolute value below 0.50 and Eigen values of less than 1.

Table 3: EFA for Self-Efficacy Component Matrix

Item	Self-efficacy
When faced with a financial challenge, I have the ability to figure out a solution.	.790
I have ability to manage my finances.	.752
I can appropriately use credit to finance the unexpected expenses.	.655
I am confident that I will not run out of money for my future needs.	.650
Eigen value	2.041
% of Variance Explained	51.036
Cumulative % of variance explained	51.036
KMO	0.702
Bartlett's test	App. Chi-square = 236.611, Df = 6, Sig.= 0.000
Determinant	0.535

Source: Research Data, 2022

Examining the level of Financial Inclusion

The second study objective was to examine the level of financial inclusion among working women in Uganda. The results of the EFA on financial inclusion as demonstrated in Table 4 show that the sample was appropriate for factor analysis with KMO of 0.840, determinant > 0 indicating the correlation matrix of 17 items was not an identity. Moreover, the Bartlett's sig. of 0.000 shows homogeneity of the factors. Using principal component analysis (PCA), each component of financial inclusion was evaluated. With Eigen values over 1, the PCA generated three factors. The validity of the items in the instrument were assessed using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA).

From the testing, it emerged that three factors of access to financial services (15%), welfare impact (29%) as well as quality of financial services (12%) accounted for 56% of the overall change in financial inclusion. The EFA outcome revealed that nine items of welfare impact had significant loadings on factor 1 as 0.840, 0.832, 0.796, 0.778, 0.710, 0.696, 0.686, 0.640 and 0.582, which explicated 29% of the change in financial inclusion. Five items of access to financial services had significant loadings on factor 2 as 0.729, 0.726, 0.709, 0.687 and 0.584 that accounted for 15% of the change in financial inclusion. Additionally, three items of quality of financial services had significant loadings on factor 3 as 0.830, 0.810 and 0.804, which accounted for 12% of the change in financial inclusion.

Conversely, a total of 22 items were excluded in the final factor analysis. The items were excluded simply because they could not load well with the other factors with absolute value below 0.50 and Eigen values of less than 1. Among the 22 excluded items were all

the 7 items of Usage as a dimension of financial. As a result, it was determined that welfare impact, at 29%, and access to financial services at 15%, were responsible for the majority of financial inclusion. At 12%, the quality of financial services came in last. According to Table 4, the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) as well as Varimax Rotation Method were used to extract a total of 17 items from three components.

Table 4: Rotated Component Matrix for Financial Inclusion

Item	Financial Inclusion		
	Welfare Impact	Access to Financial services	Quality of Financial services
The services provided by the financial service provider(s) have enabled me acquire more assets.	.840		
The services provided by the financial service provider(s) have improved my housing condition.	.832		
The services provided by the financial service provider(s) have enabled me improve my nutrition.	.796		
The financial advice from the financial service provider(s) has enabled me to reduce my costs and/ or increase my revenues.	.778		
The services provided by the financial service provider(s) have improved my access to amenities like Wi-Fi, health clubs and clean water.	.710		
The services provided by the financial service provider(s) have increased my income.	.696		
The services provided by the financial service provider(s) have improved my access to healthcare services.	.686		
The services provided by the financial service provider(s) have provided me with self-employment opportunities.	.640		
In the last 12 months, I have used the financial advice obtained from the financial service provider(s) to make an informed financial decision.	.582		
I have the documents required by the financial service provider(s) to open an account.		.729	
I find the initial account opening fees by a financial service provider(s) affordable.		.726	
I can easily find an agent of a financial service provider(s) to carry out a transaction.		.709	
I find the cost of making a trip to a financial service provider(s) affordable.		.687	
I can easily make a financial transaction using a mobile device like a mobile phone.		.584	
The loan fees charged (e.g., interest rate) by the financial service provider(s) are fair.			.830

Account related charges such as monthly fees, transaction fees including Mobile money charges are fair to the users of the service.			.810
The cost of sending or receiving mobile money is fair.			.804
Eigen value	4.879	2.487	2.066
% of Variance Explained	28.697	14.632	12.153
Cumulative % of variance explained	28.697	43.329	55.482
KMO	.840		
Bartlett's test	App chi-square = 2430.875 Df = 136, Sig= 0.000		
Determinant	0.001		

Diagnostic tests

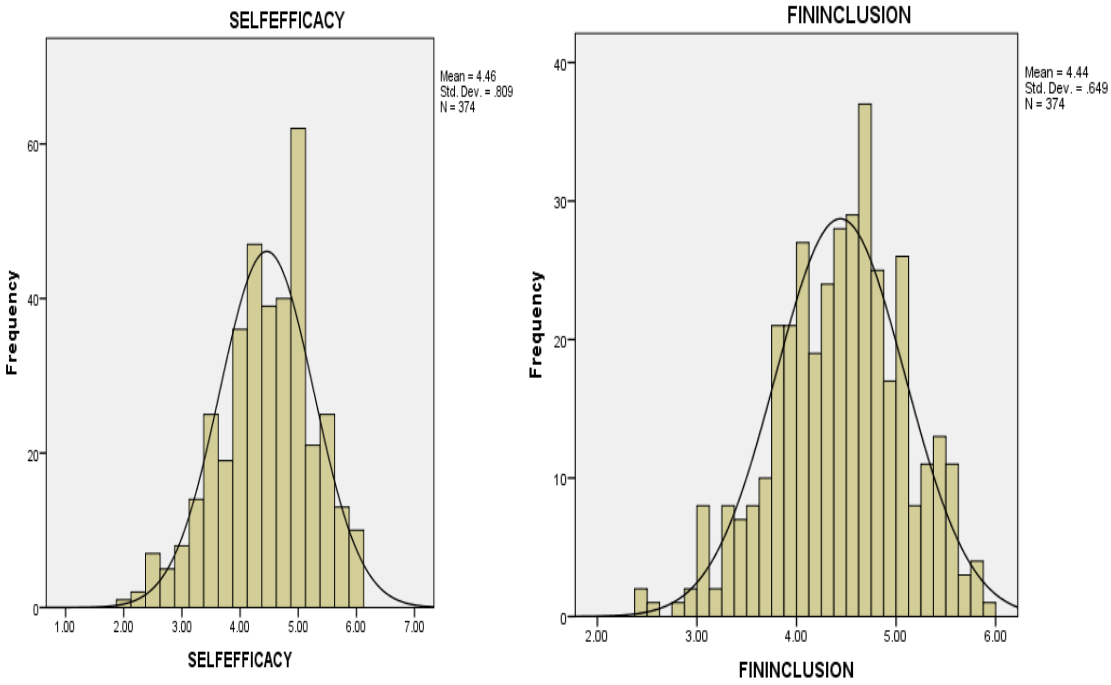
According to Cooper & Schindler (2014a), parametric tests can only be performed if the actual data meets the parametric assumptions. Thus, before carrying our correlational and regression analysis, the variables were subjected to the diagnostic tests on the parametric assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity (homogeneity) as suggested by Davison & Garcia(2019), Schindler(2019) and Cleff (2019).

Normality Test

Normality was assessed using histograms, P-P plots, Skewedness and Kurtosis test, and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test.

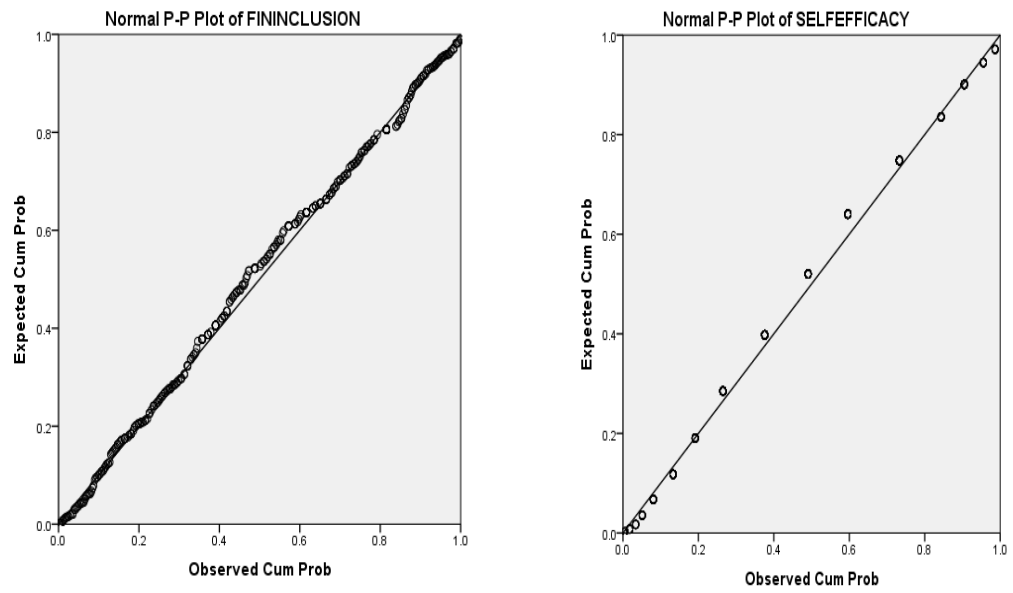
All histograms in Figure 1 showed a fairly normal distribution as most of the area is under the curve in the histogram.

Figure 1: Normality test– Histogram for Self-efficacy and Financial Inclusion



In regard to the P-P plots, the results are in Figure 2. In all the graphs, the line signifying the actual data resembles the diagonal Plot P-P plots having many points on and close to straight diagonal line, thus an indication of a moderate level of adherence to normal data distribution.

Figure 2: Normalitytest–NormalP-PPlot of self-efficacy and Financial Inclusion



In Table 5 are the findings of the statistical test used in the investigation to assess whether the data was skew and kurtosis-free, which shows that the data was. Since SPSS uses a standard kurtosis of zero (Cleff, 2019) and all the values in Table 5, lie between -1 to +1, then there is a proof of a fair normal distribution of data.

Table 5: Tests of Normality, Skewedness and Kurtosis

	N	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Self-Efficacy	374	4.4592	.04184	.80911	-.420	.126	-.103	.252
Financial Inclusion	374	4.4403	.03357	.64929	-.274	.126	-.053	.252

Lastly, Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS)-test was employed to see if the distribution significantly deviates from a normal distribution. The outcome from the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test as detailed in Table 6 attest that each variable has mixed results as to the normality distribution. According to Saunders et al. (2019) and Davison and Garcia (2019) when dealing with considerable sample sizes, significant differences between a sample variable and a comparable normal distribution when actually the differences are tiny are highly probable. As such, Saunders et al. and Davison & Garcia recommend a graph to make an informed decision. Thus, considering the study's very large sample size (374) and results from the histograms (Figure 1& 2) these small departures from normality in the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test would not prevent us from employing parametric statistical methods.

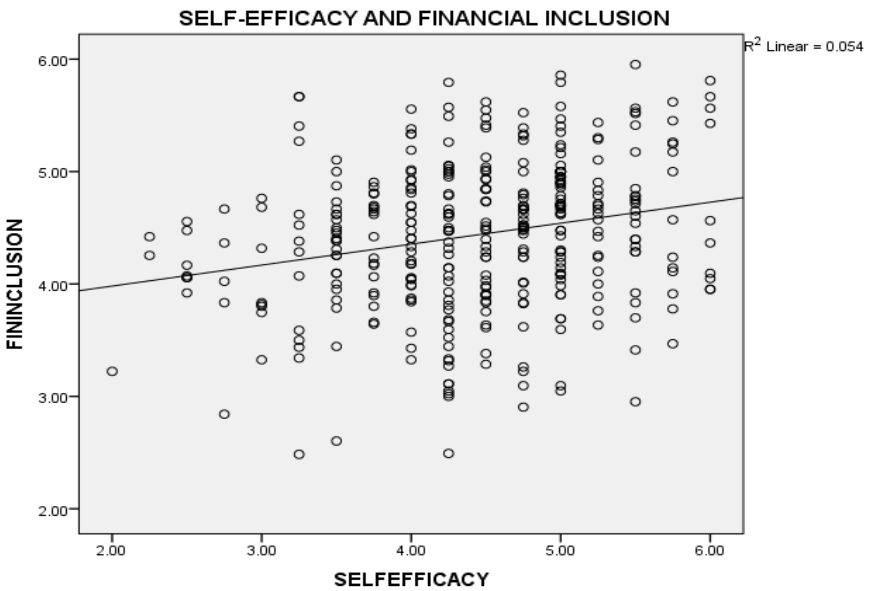
Table 6: Tests of Normality, Kolmogorov-Smirnovtest

	A1	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Self-Efficacy	Makindye Division	.143	71	.001
	Central Division	.085	75	.200*
	Nakawa Division	.129	78	.003
	Kawempe Division	.099	74	.067
	Rubaga Division	.128	76	.004
Financial Inclusion	Makindye Division	.073	71	.200*
	Central Division	.079	75	.200*
	Nakawa Division	.112	78	.017
	Kawempe Division	.074	74	.200*
	Rubaga Division	.059	76	.200*

Linearity Tests

Linearity of the data was evaluated using the probability plots (P-P) and the results in Figure 3 show that self-efficacy and financial inclusion have a linear relationship.

Figure3: Linearity between Self-efficacy and Financial Inclusion



Homogeneity

Homogeneity of variance is hinged on the presupposition that the variances should be the same throughout the data. The Levene test determines how closely their variances match. Since deviations from normality, which is common weakness in regression, less affects the Levene test, the latter is highly recommended (Hair et al., 2014). The criterion mandates that if the Levene's test does not attain statistical significance (i.e. if the p-value exceeds the predetermined alpha level), then a homogeneity of variance assumption is met. The results in Table 7 show that the homogeneity assumption is considered appropriate because it can be inferred from the statistical significance level ($p > 0.05$) that the variances have about equal values.

Table 7: Homogeneity Test of Variance

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Self-Efficacy	Based on Mean	1.354	4	369	.249
Financial Inclusion	Based on Mean	1.002	4	369	.407

Testing the hypothesis of Self-Efficacy and Financial Inclusion

The third objective of the study was to examine the relationship between self-efficacy and financial inclusion among working women in Uganda. Since the parametric assumptions on the data set were upheld, more statistical analysis could be performed using the data. Correlational and regression analysis were used to test the third objective and the hypothesis thereof.

Correlational Analysis

A bivariate correlation study was conducted. The link between self-efficacy and financial

inclusion was specifically established using the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient method. Table 8 gives the results that show that financial inclusion and self-efficacy have a positive and significant relationship (r = 0. 232, p<0.01).

Table 8: Pearson Correlation matrix for Self-Efficacy and Financial Inclusion

Correlations			
		Self-efficacy	Financial Inclusion
Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		
	N	374	
Financial Inclusion	Pearson Correlation	.232**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	374	374
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Regression Analysis of Self-efficacy and Financial Inclusion

Regression was used to test the hypothesis H_o**:** Self-Efficacy has no significant effect on financial inclusion among working women in Uganda derived from the third objective, and to explain the contribution of self-efficacy on financial inclusion of working women andany statistical significance of the relationship. The multiple regression results are in Table 9.

Table 9: Regression Results

	Model	
Variable	B-Unstandardized Regression co-efficient	β-standardised Regression co-efficient
Constant	3.609**	
Self-efficacy	.187**	.232**
R^2	.054	
Adjusted R^2	.051	
F	21.240	
Sig	.000	

Dependent variable- Financial inclusion; ** Sig. value at 0.01

The analysis showed that Self-efficacy can explain 5.4% of the variance in Financial Inclusion. Additionally, the results confirm that self-efficacy positively and significantly (B=0.187,β= 0.232, p<0.05) affected Financial Inclusion. Therefore, 'H_{02}**:** Self-efficacy has no significant effect on financial inclusion among working women in Uganda' was rejected.

The Regression models are:

FI = 3.609 + 0.187 **SE…….Model 1**

FI = 0.232 **SE……...Model 2**

Discussion of the findings

The first objective was to examine the level of self-efficacy among working women in Uganda. Using Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Varimax rotation method, it was found that the level of financial self-efficacy among working women in Uganda is 51%. This means

that, working women believe that they can figure out a solution when faced with a financial challenge. Working women also believe in their ability to 'manage my finances', 'appropriately use credit to finance the unexpected expenses' and they will not run out of money for my future needs. Unlike the previous studies (e.g. Farrell et al.,2016 and Montford & Goldsmith, 2016)many women invest too conservatively. This finding is of particular concern as women typically live longer than men do, and thus, rely on accumulated savings for longer periods of time. This study extends work in the psychology of investing by examining the relationship between gender and investment risk and the role financial self-efficacy (FSE that did not focus on the level of self-efficacy of women, this study brings to the fore the level of financial self-efficacy of women in developing country.

The second objective was to examine the level of financial inclusion among working women in Uganda. From the EFA, it emerged that three factors of access to financial services (15%), welfare impact (29%) as well as quality of financial services (12%) accounted for 56% of the overall change in financial inclusion. Usage of financial services was deleted as it had poor factor loading and this could have been due to fact that the country has just come out of the 2-year Covid-Pandemic lockdown where the economic activity of individuals was highly restricted by the government's policies.

The finding reveals a level of financial inclusion among working women that is lower than that advanced by Financiera (2023) of 65% and the earlier one by FinScope Uganda (2018) of 77%. This could be explained by the adverse economic effect on the country's economy by the Covid-19 pandemic.

Self-efficacy and Financial Inclusion

Examining how self-efficacy influences working women's financial inclusion in Uganda was the third objective of this investigation. The related hypothesis; 'H_{03}:Self-efficacy has no significant effect on financial inclusion among working women in Uganda' was assessed. The study's conclusions pointed out that self-efficacy had a favourable and statistically significant impact on attaining financial inclusion. As such, we fail to accept H_{03}.

This means that improvement to the financial self-efficacy of a working women results into their enhanced financial inclusion. This implies that as a working woman's financial self-efficacy develops, she will access high quality financial services and her welfare will be positively transformed. When a working woman is confident of her ability to manage her finances and appropriately use credit to finance the unexpected expenses, then she will seize the available financial opportunities to better her quality of life. A working woman who believes that she can use her skills to attain certain financial goals lives an improved quality of life. The improved life style of a working woman with belief in her coping financial efficacy will manifest in form of improved access to healthcare services, nutrition, amenities and housing condition, increased income, reduced costs and acquisition of more assets.

This study affords empirical support to the earlier conclusions by other researchers from the developed countries that self-efficacy among women enhances their financial inclusion. For

instance, Calcagno and Monticone (2011) show that with Italy, women's readiness to delegate investment decisions is due to absence of self-confidence in financial matters. This inquiry also validates empirical findings in the USA where it is confirmed that lack of confidence in women contributes to their low involvement in financial management (Amatucci & Crawley, 2011it is increasingly important to understand the factors which contribute to their success. While entrepreneurship research identifies access to human and financial capital as being important, fewer studies explore the role of sociocognitive factors such as self-efficacy or confidence in one's abilities to perform a particular task. This paper aims to examine gender-related attitudes toward financial management drawing from existing studies education, cognitive psychology, and entrepreneurship. Design/methodology/approach – The empirical study creates a measure of financial self-efficacy (FSE;Montford & Goldsmith, 2016)many women invest too conservatively. This finding is of particular concern as women typically live longer than men do, and thus, rely on accumulated savings for longer periods of time. This study extends work in the psychology of investing by examining the relationship between gender and investment risk and the role financial self-efficacy (FSE. Among Australian women, Farrell et al.(2016) find that financial self-efficacy is a significant predictor of the type and number of financial products that a woman holds. This investigation gives strong empirical evidence in favour of the claim that social cognitive theory ably explains how self-efficacy affects financial inclusion among working women in a developing country.

Conclusion

The results of this particular investigation show that the social cognitive theory ably explains the link between self-efficacy in the financial domain and financial inclusion among working women living in a developing country. Individuals draw from their belief about what they can ably do in order to act in a given way (Bandura, 1999)within a social-cognitive framework, a critical review of research on the motivational impact of different psychological climates in physical activity. Motivational, cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes are considered in sport, school physical education and exercise. We first review laboratory and field studies that tried to manipulate the perceived structures of motivational environments and to examine the subsequent outcomes on participants' cognitive and affective responses. Then we discuss studies influenced by the work of Ames in classroom settings and involving questionnaires to measure individuals' perceptions of 'motivational climates'. The impact of mastery and performance climates on various indices of motivation is narratively reviewed, and statistically estimated effect sizes from 14 studies (n = 4484. This empirical evidence aligns with that of Calcagno and Monticone (2011) and Farrell et al.(2016) who present that absence of financial self-efficacy increases financial exclusion of women. In times of a pandemic like Covid-19, the extent of financial inclusion in working women may be reduced.

Recommendations/Implications

More empirical work needs to be done to clearly understand those unique factors that enhance financial self-efficacy of women in a developing country so that stakeholders like Government of Uganda through its Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs), and other stakeholders

in financial inclusion can design evidence-based initiatives that enhance the financial self-efficacy of women so as to enhance their financial inclusion.

There is need to evaluate the gender-based impact of the just concluded National Financial Inclusion Strategy (2017-2022) by government of Uganda on financial inclusion, and then design a new national financial inclusion plan that targets women, among others.

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Modelling E-Library Services for Public Policy and Sustainable Development in Kenya

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Abstract

Practitioners and researchers have alluded to the fact that information is one of the production factors in today's economy and development. Public policy and sustainable development achievement relies on access to accurate, credible and reliable information. Libraries play a pivotal role in the provision of this information since they are credible sources of information. This article models e-library services for public policy and sustainable development in Kenya. It was guided by the following objectives: establish the role of information in public policy and sustainable development in Kenya; examine the factors influencing public policy and sustainable development in Kenya; establish the extent to which library services influence public policy and sustainable development in Kenya; and, propose a model for e-library services for public policy and sustainable development in Kenya. A systematic literature review using the PRISMA model was adopted. Data was collected from Google Scholar and analysed using Microsoft Excel and presented using tables. The search yielded 880 articles of which 41 were relevant for the study. The findings revealed that libraries were offering various e-library services. Importantly, libraries were crucial in the provision of the much-needed information, ideas, innovation and knowledge which support public policy and sustainable development. The findings also revealed a dearth of information on e-library

services. Therefore, the study proposes a model that can be used by e-libraries in the provision of information services which can effectively support public policy to spur sustainable development.

Keywords: *Information Access, E-library services, Model of e-library services, Public Policy, Sustainable Development*

Introduction

One of the fundamental human rights today is access to information. Information is an important enabler of development as it facilitates the advancement of human capacity which is one of the factors of production required for the progress of a country. Information literacy and knowledge empower people to contribute positively to the nation's development agenda (Akpeli, 2019). According to Olubiyo (2022), the application of relevant information ignites and sustains the development of nations. Olubiyo contends that the more citizens of a country are informed, the more it develops. Thus, universal literacy is acknowledged as a crucial pillar of sustainable development. This is reinforced by an increase in access to information and knowledge (IFLA, 2016). The vital role and power of information have necessitated the need to have libraries at the pivot of various sectors of development in a country (Oyinloye et al., 2017)agriculture, health sector and tourism... The realization of the enormous power of information has made Libraries and information resource centres inevitably present in many sectors of the nations development. The level and quality of library participation in a populace such; as education, agricultural activities, tourism, health and commercial activities are paramount contributory factors to the level of national development in Nigeria. This research evaluated the impact and roles of libraries to national development. . The target population of this study comprises the Academic Staff of Bingham University. Sixty (60.

The role of libraries in development cannot be overstated. According to Osuchukwu and Ayeni (2019)it is not very clear on what and how the entire community can be reached, thus denying some groups opportunities to be integrated toward actualization and contribution to the national development. The purpose of this paper is to examine the information activities provided by libraries and librarians in promoting development and social integration through identification of community members, harnessing the output indicators of what, where, when, why and how in engaging the people, investigating the constraints and the implications of the findings to community contribution toward national development. Design/methodology/ approach: The study was designed using Spidergram to incorporate 5Ws and H (who, what, when, where, why and how, libraries provide the foundation to integrate social and economic development issues by acting as enablers and co-producers of information services in a society. Social-economic development is enhanced by libraries and information centres by offering services which stimulate the creation of a knowledge society (Omona, 2020)which require a number of stakeholders to intervene if these challenges must be reduced for the benefit of humanity, and one such stakeholder is the library and information sector. This paper uses insights from the Development and Access to Information (DA2I. Through library and

information services, such as lifelong learning, information literacy programmes, research, and repackaging of information for better use, libraries contribute immensely to national development (Bandoma, 2017). Information services and resources offered by libraries provide opportunities to generate new ideas leading to an innovative community (White, 2012).
With the paradigm shift brought about by versatile technologies, library services have transitioned to an electronic environment (Das, 2021). Gasimova (2017) noted that the creation of electronic resources and electronic libraries infrastructure has spread globally. According to Anyim (2019), an e-library can be defined as a library where information resources and services are offered in digital format and made available to be accessed remotely over the Internet. Anyim listed e-library services, among others, as communication services; online information awareness; online inter-library services; customer care services; database management services; electronic document delivery services; internet search services; email services; and newsgroup databases.

According to Aghoghovwia (2014), library and public policy formulation cannot be separated. Owoeye and Abolarinwa (2016) opine that libraries and information services play a fundamental role in policy-making and thus should be accorded due acknowledgement. This is because library research output and information facilitate access to information that forms the basis for proper planning and decision-making (Umunnakwe et al., 2018). Library information systems provide accurate and timely information for decisions at the point of knowledge. As stated by World Bank and Hatfield Consultants (2022), innovation and knowledge influence policy by generating awareness, opportunities, and new debates. Itsekor et al. (2019) postulated that the highest quality of information should be selected by policymakers in ideal circumstances.

Context and Rationale of the study

The United Nations General Assembly adopted the sustainable development goals (SDGs) 2030 in 2015 intending to leave no one behind in terms of development. The agenda is supported by 17 integrated framework goals (United Nations, 2015). SDGs were meant to reduce global growth inequalities by supporting development through a structured solution framework (Dao, 2017). They substituted Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which were in place from 2000 to 2015. According to Liu et al. (2015), SDGs and poverty reduction are inseparable since SDGs strive to facilitate development to reduce poverty. Policy formulation and implementation work in tandem with sustainable development (Hawkins & Wang, 2013). Kenya is dedicated to the implementation of the SDGs 2030 agenda since it has participated in global, regional, and national adoption processes (Ministry of Devolution and Planning, 2017)yet little empirical evidence exists on the issue. To address this question, we propose a Local Economy-wide Impact Evaluation (LEWIE. According to the Ministry of Devolution and Planning, furthering the agenda of SGDs 2030, Kenya established a development and transformation blueprint intending to be a middle-income country by 2030, known as Vision 2030. The Vision is based on three pillars namely: economic, social, and political governance. Vision 2030 is a multi-stakeholder long-term development plan that involves public participation and engagement (Misati & Mwenzwa, 2018).

According to Mbithi et al. (2019), purposeful citizen participation necessitates meaningful decision-making. Most people rely on the library to provide credible information for decision-making (Putnam, 2018). As reported by the United Nations Environment Programme (2016), creation and access to information are vital for propelling experiences that help in decision-making. Mbithi et al. (2019) noted that development is hindered by inaccessibility of information. Nyama (2013) observed that poor linkage between policies and information access contributes to poor implementation of Vision 2030. Kwanya (2016) noted with concern that Kenya's Vision 2030 understated the role of information as a facilitator of social-economic development.

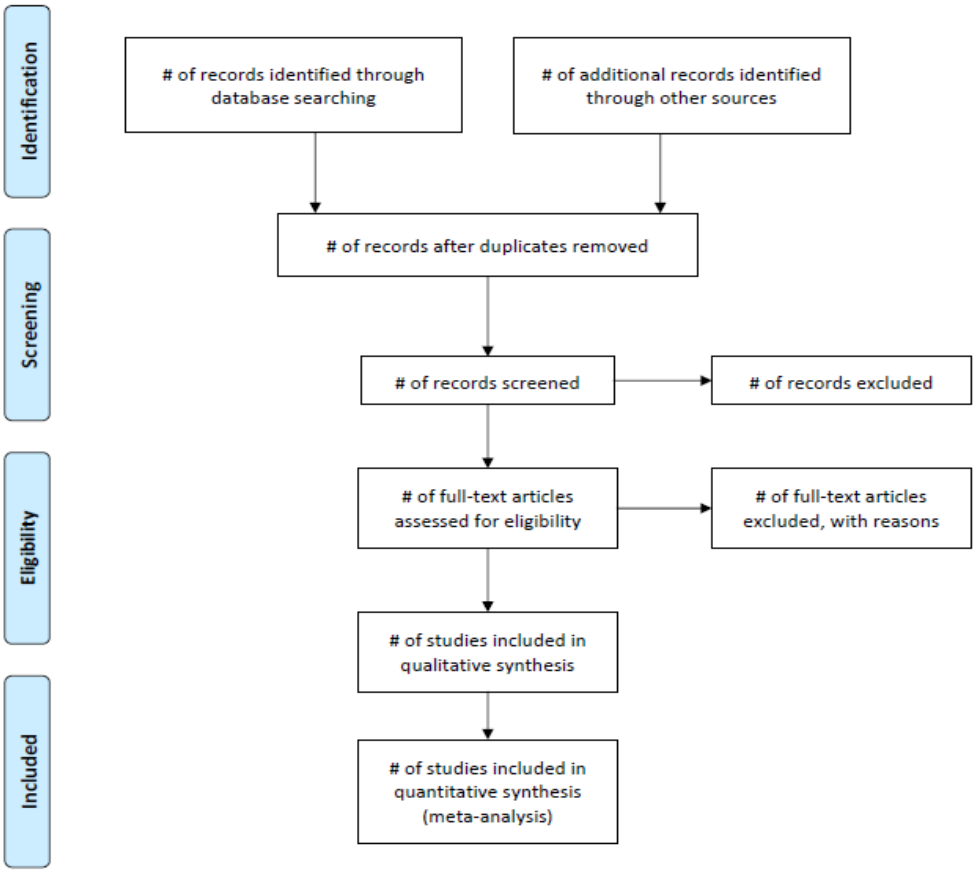
Webster (2005) described a good information ecosystem as one where information must be user-centred, understood, conceptualized, and contextualized before being delivered. He further emphasizes that information should be able to be accessed by multiple users at the same time. These attributes can only be equated to modern libraries which have no physical limitations or walls. According to Kwanya et al. (2012), traditional models of offering services need to be restructured for emerging trends in information service provision. The evolution of the Internet, web-based technologies, and disruptive technologies have accelerated the progress toward electronic library (e-library) services. This requires a specific model that libraries and information centres are rapidly stirring towards offering electronic services for public policy and sustainable development. The study is therefore guided by the following objectives:

i. To establish the role of information in public policy and sustainable development in Kenya;
ii. To examine the factors influencing public policy and sustainable development in Kenya;
iii. To establish the extent to which library services influence public policy and sustainable development in Kenya;
iv. T o propose models for e-library services for public policy and sustainable development in Kenya.

Methodology

The study was conducted as a systematic literature review of e-library services and public policy and development following the PRISMA statement for literature review and meta-analysis. PRISMA procedure set a minimum requirement for the research process for evidence-based, replicable, and transparent research. It comprises the four-phased flow diagram shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: PRISMA 2009 Flow Diagram



Source: Liberati et al. (2009)

The first step involved collecting publication data from Google Scholar. The choice of Google Scholar was informed by the fact that it collates publications across the research spectrum, searches full text and unified search interface (Delgado López-Cózar et al., 2019). The criteria for inclusion/exclusion included books, book chapters, peer-reviewed journal publications, and conference proceedings. All forms of study designs were included. The study considered the following keywords: (1) "E-library services in Kenya" (2) "Information and Public Policy in Kenya", (3) "sustainable development in Kenya" (4) "E-library services and Public Policy in Kenya" (5) "Public Policy and Development in Kenya" (6) "model of e-library services". The search period ranged from 2015 to 2021 given that the Sustainable Development Goals agenda was adopted in 2015. As defined by query rules, the study conducted two rounds of query searches. The first search was on the exact keywords. In the second search, all concepts were collated to narrow down the search.

The second step involved putting all literature references in Mendeley and removing duplications. Finally, the records identified through synthesis were included. The publication search was conducted on 28 August 2022. The publication records identified including journal title, abstract, authors, year of publication, and keywords were exported to Microsoft Excel.

The researchers screened the records' titles and abstracts and the ones which did not belong to Kenya and did not capture the aim of the study were excluded. In a narrative literature review, literature is identified and selected based on the researchers' judgement. This is in contrast to a systematic literature review where the criteria used to search are explained (Pahlevan-Sharif et al., 2019).

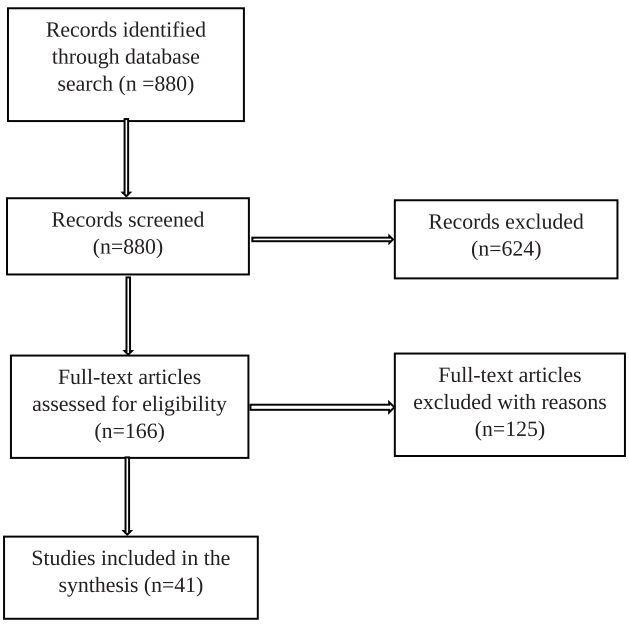
Findings of the Study

Using the keywords from the study, the retrieved research papers were reviewed. Figure 2 shows the publication selection process. A literature search on Google Scholar yielded 880 records; 714 were discarded because they were not relevant to the subject of the study. The remaining 166 abstracts and full texts were screened and 125 were excluded as they were not related to the keywords despite citing public policy and development. In the end, 41 articles remained for use in the study.

E-library Services in Kenya

Out of 41 studies, 22 (53.66%) articles were found to cover e-library services in Kenya. The results showed that 19 (86.5 %) out of the 22 articles were conducted in academic libraries while the rest were in special issues1(4.5%), and public libraries 2(9%). All the libraries were developing and providing access to electronic resources. The finding also showed that the libraries, particularly academic libraries, increased the volume and diversity of electronic open-access resources and services to support distance learning. In addition, the literature established that some libraries were bolstering information literacy services, research support and online reference services. Table 1 shows the list of authors, titles and years of publication of the articles analysed.

Figure 2: Publication selection process



Source: Researchers

Table 1: Articles related to Public Policy and Sustainable Development

Authors	Title	Year
D Nzioka	A Proposed Framework for Digital Librarianship in Academic Libraries in Kenya	2021
RW Chege	Investigating customer satisfaction with library and information services at Management University Of Africa (MUA) library, Kenya.	2021
AA Bamigbola	Web 3.0 tools and knowledge conversion by distance learners	2021
DN Ocholla, J Mostert	Service Quality Gaps and Challenges in The Academic Libraries in Kenya	2021
NE Osadebe, RN Okwor	Research Support Services in Selected African University Libraries	2021
WA Awan, A Abbas	Research publication trends in library management journal: a bibliometric analysis (2013–2020)	2021
GO Adigun, A Tella	User Education and Information Literacy Instruction as Determinant of Use and Satisfaction with Library and Information Support Services at National Open University Nigeria (NOUN)	2021
Klm Wangari	Information Communication Technology Integration and Performance of Libraries in Public Universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya	2021
A MUHAMMAD	Cloud Computing Application and Offline Database Provision as Correlates of Effective Service Delivery in University Libraries in North-West, Nigeria	2021
JN Kanori, PA Odundo, HN Inyega	Bachelor of Education Teacher Trainees' Information Evaluating Ability and Utilization of E-resources at the University of Nairobi, Kenya	2020
JW NG'ANG'A	Analysis of the relationship between information services and students' satisfaction at Kenya school of law library	2020
ME Islam, MA Karim	Use of e-Resources by the Students in Developing Countries: A Review	2020
E Anduvare	eResearch support: an exploratory study of private university libraries in Nairobi County, Kenya.	2019
SMA Burney, N Sehar, SB HIMS, H Tariq	Exploring the Usage of Information Technology for Library Automation	2019
F Okocha	Student Acceptance of E-books; A Case Study of landmark University Undergraduate Students	2016
LM Kilemba	The role of academic libraries in supporting distance education in Kenya.	2016
Bulama, Daud and Mahmud	Relationship between Students Satisfaction with the availability of E-resources and Infrastructure, Staff Commitment and Students Involvement in using the E-resources in Colleges	2016

Authors	Title	Year
O Petronilla B	Awareness and Utilization of Electronic Information Resources by Academic Staff at The University of Eldoret	2016
ZB Pingo	Transition from camel libraries to digital technologies in Kenya public libraries	2015
DO Ogenga	Adoption of Institutional repositories in dissemination of scholarly information in Universities in Kenya with reference to United States International University Africa	2015
J Kavulya	The Emerging role of Digital Libraries in E-learning: A Review of challenges and opportunities	2015
GW Kamau	Access to and Use of Information and Communication Technologies in the Provision of Information to Distance Learners at the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University Libraries	2015

Role of information in Public Policy and Sustainable Development

Out of 41 articles, 10 (24.39%) indicated the role of information in public policy and sustainable development. Of these 10, 6 (60%) implied that libraries were crucial in the provision of much-needed information, ideas, innovation and knowledge. These contributed to effective public policy formulation and participation in sustainable development. Three (30%) of the articles indicated that information plays an important role in decision-making when it comes to public policy creation. One (10%) showed that information facilitates knowledge sharing on issues related to public policy and sustainable development. The findings also indicated that information technology and information are strategic to sustainable development. Other information sources such as the mass media were also recognised for conducting public awareness campaigns and education on public policy discourse. The list of publications is shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Articles related to the role of Information in Public Policy and Sustainable Development in Kenya

Authors	Title	Year
PM Nguyo, MW Kimwele, W Guyo	Influence of ICT on knowledge sharing in state corporations in Kenya: A case of the Kenya National Library Service	2015
J Achieng	Preparedness of University Libraries as drivers for green transformation and sustainable development: the case of University of Nairobi Library, Kenya	2015
A Owano	Strategic Role of the Library in the Public Service Delivery: Information and Devolution in Achieving the Kenya Vision 2030	2017
AI Abdulahi	Sustainable Provision of Digital Information Systems and Services in Academic Libraries: A Case of the University of Nairobi Library System	2017
LJ NG'OSOSEY	The Use Of The School Library In The Development Of A Reading Culture Among Secondary School Students In Nandi Central Sub-County, Kenya	2017

Authors	Title	Year
Kwanya, T	The impact of libraries and information services in shaping Vision 2030 in Kenya.	2016
Amollo, Beatrice Adera;	Strategic pillars supporting the achievement of National Values and Cohesion in National Development	2018
GW Kamau, A Owano	The Role of Libraries in the achievement of sustainable development goals in Kenya	2018
Gitonga, Anne; Moyi, Eliud;	Discussion paper No. 215 of 2019 on The Role of Information Communication Technologies in Innovation in Kenya's Micro, Small and Medium Establishments	2019
Ngare, Marion W;	Role of Media in Publicising Kenya Vision 2030: a Case Study of the First Phase Flagship Projects	2017

Factors influencing Public Policy and Sustainable Development

From the findings, only 5 (12.2%) of 41 publications were found to have relevant information on factors influencing public policy and sustainable development. Of these 5, Media was 2(40%), technology2(40%) and political systems 1(20%).The literature indicated that mass media helps in forming public opinion while technology has been considered a major economic driver in recent times. Table 3 shows the list of publications with citations of factors influencing public policy and sustainable development.

Table 3: Articles related to factors influencing Public Policy and Sustainable Development in Kenya

Authors	Title	Year
Waas, Tom; Hugé, Jean; Block, Thomas; Wright, Tarah; Benitez-Capistros, Francisco; Verbruggen, Aviel;	Sustainability assessment and indicators: Tools in a decision-making strategy for sustainable development	2014
Marume, SBM;	Public policy and factors influencing public policy	2016
Mwangi, Christine;	Media influence on public policy in Kenya: the case of illicit brew consumption	2018
Irwin, David; Kiereini, Njeri;	Media influence on public policy in Kenya	2021
Cadmus, Femi;	Technology, legal information, and access to justice in Africa	2021

In the abstracts, it emerged that Medium (technology and media) had the most occurrence at 14, followed by government and policy makers 7, legal issues and public policy 6, Access to information 4, Decision making strategies 4, Kenya 3, Sustainable development, influence and operations 2. Figure 3 provides a summary of the factors influencing public policy and sustainable development.

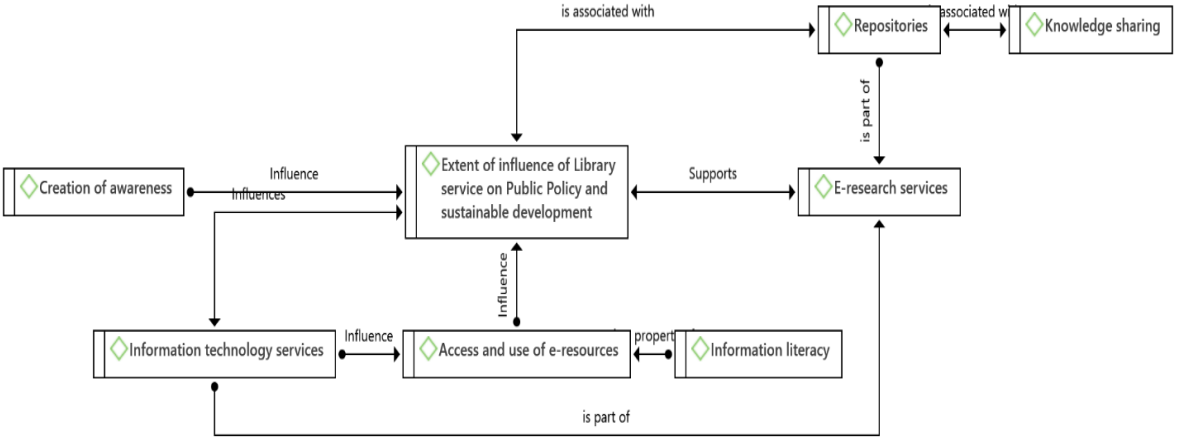
Figure 3: Factors influencing Public Policy and Sustainable Development



The extent to which Library Services influence Public Policy and Sustainable Development

From the 41 articles retrieved, 30 (73.17%) revealed that library and library services influence public policy to a greater extent. Out of these 30, access and use of e-resources made up 15 (50%), information technology services 6 (20%), e-research services 3(10%), knowledge sharing 2(6.7%), information literacy 2 (6.7%), creation of awareness 1 (3.3%) and repositories 1, (3.3%). Figure 4 shows a summary of the same.

Figure 4: Extent to which library services influence Public Policy and Sustainable Development



Models for E-library services for Public Policy and Sustainable Development

The result revealed 4(9.6%) of the 41 articles were related to models for e-library services for public policy and sustainable development. Further inquiry into the literature revealed that there was no specific model discussed for the provision of e-library services. Table 4 below presents the search results.

Table 4: Models for e-library services for Public Policy and Sustainable Development

Authors	Title	Year
Parhamnia F.	Investigating mobile acceptance in academic library services based on the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology Model (UTAUT-2)	2022
Otike F., Barát Á.H., Kiszl P.	Innovation strategies in academic libraries using business entrepreneurial theories: Analysis of competing values framework and disruptive innovation theory	2022
Tella A., Ukwoma S.C., Adeniyi I.K.	A two models modification for determining cloud computing adoption for web-based services in academic libraries in Nigeria	2020
Gómez-Cruz M.E., Harari-Betancourt V., Vergara-Mendoza G.	Quality indicators and user satisfaction in university libraries	2020

Discussion of the Findings

This section discusses the findings of the study based on the specific objectives. These are: the role of information in public policy and sustainable development; the factors influencing public policy and sustainable development; the extent to which library services influence public policy and sustainable development; and, models for e-library services for public policy and sustainable development.

Role of information in Public Policy and Sustainable Development

The findings of the study revealed that information contributes to ideas and knowledge regarding public policy and sustainable development. Specifically, information directly contributes to public policy formulation and enhances participation in sustainable development. This view is reinforced by Sadia (2020) who argued that information brings societal problems to light and inspires the search for ideal solutions to them. Similarly, Hes (2017)explained that access to information rallied the community and involved them in sustainable development activities increasing the chances of success in their implementation. The results also showed that information technology provides strategic support to public policy formulation and sustainable development. This position is echoed by Zeng et al. (2020) who pointed out that information and information systems improve efficiency that links to sustainability. The findings also show that information leads to informed decision-making for stakeholders. Radovic-markovic et al. (2015) investigated the roles of information in decision-making for business success and concluded that precise and high-quality information is the basis for increased quality of decision-making. Similarly, Makori (2021) advocated for leveraging information and knowledge to realise sustainable development goals through superior decision-making. Current research findings are also supported by the UNESCO (2021) report which asserts that access to information is an aiding tool for transparency and accountability and participatory governance as envisioned in the SDGs.

Factors influencing Public Policy and Sustainable Development

The literature reviewed indicated that the mass media and technology are some of the main factors influencing public policy in Kenya. The mass media acts as a reliable source of information for many actors in the country. These findings concur with Bhattacharjee and Khan (2020) who posited that media supports the channelling of information flow, projects the voices of isolated populations, acts as a watchdog for accountability, enables peace-building, and facilitates SDGs localization. The mass media has the potential to reach the people in society regardless of their demographic challenges, such as illiteracy. Cardinal et al. (2019) contend that when the mass media is free and independent, it can influence governing policy and public opinion. Government officials, scientists, activists and industrialists can use the mass media to introduce innovation and reinforce messages on SDGs successfully and fast (Wagh & Ambedkar, 2019). Wagh and Ambedkar asserted that scientific content can be shared through films, audio, documentaries, and advertisement in the mass media. It is worth noting that the influence of the mass media on public policy and sustainable development is majorly anchored on the role of the media as a facilitator of information access.

The literature also pointed out technology's leading role in influencing public policy and sustainable development. ECOSOC Youth Forum (2017) opined that information technology provides a safe space through software and resources to stimulate government and social engagement. Berawi (2017) conducted a study on the role of technology in achieving SDGs. He concluded that technology deployment fosters research, innovations, knowledge and collaborations among national stakeholders. Mallikage (2017) added that technology provides a conducive environment for public policy for the good of the masses. Ingram et al. (2022) agreed and argued that digital technologies contribute extensively to opening access to public services and economic prospects. Similar findings were made by Ndabeni and Rogerson (2016), Vinuesa et al. (2020) and Walsh et al. (2022). However, the current study findings contradict those of Vyas-Doorgapersad (2022) which revealed that despite the impact of information technology in other sectors, it has not had an outstanding influence on SDGs in Kenya.

The extent to which library services influence Public Policy and Sustainable Development

According to the literature, access and use of e-resources and services has the greatest influence on public policy and sustainable development. This is followed by Information Technology services, E-research services, knowledge sharing, information literacy, creation of awareness and repositories. Willems (2022)noted that libraries are ideally placed to have a greater influence on public policy and development through the offering of these services. Access to information services is an enabler to the offering of services by the government strengthening knowledge society, empowering people and life-long learning (Omona, 2020). Similarly, White (2012) established that libraries have a greater influence on sustainable development even to the next generation since they ensure reliable knowledge gathering by the past generation.

In contrast, Kussey et al. (2022) in their study in Bangladesh found that shortage of funds, poor planning, and lack of awareness by policymakers derail libraries' ability to

influence public policy and sustainable development to a larger extent. Jaeger suggests that for libraries to have a greater influence on matters of public policy and sustainable development they need to be politically prepared to communicate their value to funders, stakeholders and policymakers. In a similar line, Kwanya (2016) on the impact of libraries and information services in shaping vision 2030 concluded that information providers need to be firm and active in social economic development to improve their stand on the national stage.

Models for e-library services for Public Policy and Sustainable Development

The dearth of research on e-library models in Kenya is striking, considering that only four articles could be identified. Similar views are shared by Kwanya et al. (2012) who posited that the literature on library service models is inadequate. Kussey et al. (2022), in their study of a conceptual framework for a smart e-library management system at Ibrahim Babangida library, noted that libraries today still use old-generation frameworks to offer services to users whose needs require intelligent and advanced systems. Kwanya et al. (2012) also noted that no single model of information service can be used to provide information services in all environments. Musangi et al. (2019) noted that the library services setting has changed thus compelling libraries to shift from the conventional library service models to a new service model. In contrast, Lessin (1991) explored how libraries in United States universities were employing new service models for remote users and recommended the use of a decentralized information service model for off-campus students. To address the paucity of research on e-library models in Kenya, several measures are recommended.

Recommendations

From the finding, the study recommends the following:

a) Collaborations: Collaborations and partnerships provide a holistic approach to services offered to users. They enable libraries to upgrade their services. Through collaboration, there is a potential of sharing best practices on the provision of information. It is imperative from this study that government and other partners should invest in and support the library to drive socio-economic development.

b) Proactive libraries: Libraries and information centres need to be actively involved in national matters. Rigour enhances the likelihood of policymakers, stakeholders and partners trusting their involvement in promoting public policy and sustainable development. They should demonstrate the capacity of contributing to public policy and development.

c) Training: Library staff should be trained to be better equipped for providing electronic information access for support to public policy and sustainable development. This facilitates the design of information services that have a direct influence and accomplishment of the goals.

d) Public Awareness: A coordinated public awareness campaign through seminars, workshops, and publications should be organized by libraries.

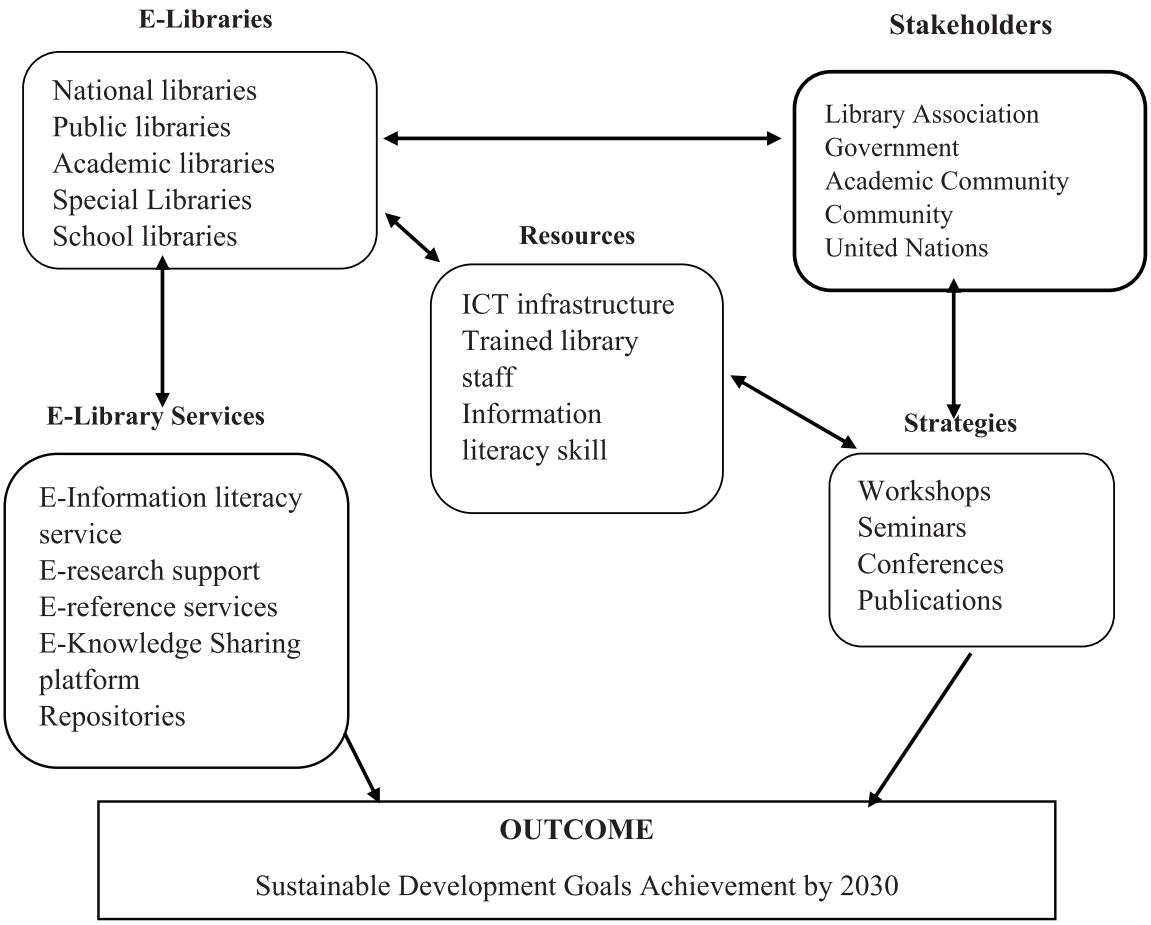
e) ICT Infrastructure: Libraries should employ the use of technology actively since it

facilitates and provides an enabling environment to offer services effectively. Library staff should be continually trained to vitalise their ability to use technology.

Proposed e-library model for Public Policy and Sustainable Development

The study recommends a new library service model for providing electronic library services which support public policy and sustainable development.

Figure 3. Proposed e-library model for Public Policy and Sustainable Development



Libraries can collaborate with different stakeholders including library associations; government agencies such as the Ministry of Devolution and Planning; the academic community including staff and students; the international community and the United Nations to hold conferences, workshops, and seminars, produce publications and carry out awareness and information literacy campaigns concerning public policy and sustainable development. Given that the United Nations developed the SDGs development agenda, it has a responsibility to ensure that public policy aligns with the goals of the agenda. In this context, the UN can support initiatives that advance e-library models in Kenya. The government also has a key role in facilitating

the libraries to play their part in facilitating sustainable development through the creation of public policy that favours the offering of digital library services such as free or subsidized digital resources and services, transparency and open access to government information and the Internet.

Furthermore, there should be a strong working relationship between different library typologies. This can help to form a consortium for mobilizing large-scale resources to support progressive information services such as e-information literacy service, e-research support, e-reference services, provision of knowledge-sharing platforms, and digital information repositories. The services should encompass collection, organizing and providing easy access to information that enables life-long learning for better decision-making. Through such consortia, libraries can be able to provide a vast amount of publications through open access.

This study considers information technology infrastructure as a major resource in enabling the provision of information which support public policy and sustainable development. Relevant information literacy skills enable users of such systems to be able to identify the requisite technological tools that are beneficial to e-library services and enhance the strategies for creating public awareness of public policy and sustainable development.

Conclusion

The findings from the literature suggest that information and information access play a major role in public policy and sustainable development in Kenya. It emerged that libraries provide services and an atmosphere to research; create, organize, store, provide access; and disseminate information that is clear, up-to-date, reliable and accurate. This information empowers individuals to make a good decision. It has also emerged that libraries influence public policy and sustainable development to a greater extent and are very essential. The reviewed studies showed that literature on information service is scarce and that libraries are using the traditional model of service provision.

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Learning Management by Gambling? An exploration of how New Secondary School Administrators gain Management Proficiency in Uganda

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Abstract

Like most African countries, Uganda does not require secondary school administrators to have done specialist Education management training prior to appointment. Without management training beyond the general teacher education pre-service programme, how do new school administrators cope with the management demands of their offices? What local strategies do they leverage to accelerate development of management ability? These questions sparked off the study. Its aim was to explore how new secondary school administrators gain management proficiency in Uganda despite absence of specialist management training as a prerequisite. The study used a tripartite case study design with school administrators as the key participants. It also utilised individual and group interviews as well as thematic analysis. The study discovered that new school administrators learn management rather casually and sporadically. It concluded that, in Uganda, acquisition of management proficiency involves much gambling to the detriment of effectiveness.

Keywords: *School Administration, Educational Management Preparation, Management Proficiency*

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Introduction

The importance of school management for school performance cannot be overstated. School management does not only create a conducive environment for learner and staff performance (Bayar, 2016; Manaseh, Mislay & Ngalomba, 2022), but also operationalizes the school vision (Bush & Anania, 2023; Sepuru & Mohlakwana, 2020). As Barber, Whelan and Clark (2008) posit,"the performance of a school almost never exceeds the quality of its leadership and management" (p. 21). With proficient school management, there is collaborative goal setting, teamwork, regular instructional supervision, and support for teacher development (Tedla & Kilango, 2022; Pont, Nuschem & Moorman, 2008; Peter, Okendo & Lyamtane, 2021)."Better management can be a low-cost strategy for improving learning outcomes" (Crawfurd, 2017: 26). Without such 'better' (or 'proficient') management among school administrators, "government initiatives aimed at building world-class education systems are unlikely to succeed" (Eacott & Asuga, 2014: 919). Of all school-related factors, administrative management is believed to be second only to classroom instruction in influencing learner achievement (Leithwood, Harrisn & Hopkins, 2008).Thus, having proficient or non-proficient administrators makes a critical difference in the realization of school goals (Okoko, 2018; Memon et al., 2006).

However, in Uganda, the administration of many schools is reported to be characterized by maladministration as indicated by such practices as unfair application of sanctions (Ajuna, 2019; Lubega, Aguti & Genza, 2022), covering up of reckless teachers (patronage) (Ssempala, Ssenkusu & Mitana, 2021), mismanagement of staff appraisals (Crawfurd, 2017), and staff dismissal without following due processes (Government of Uganda [GoU], 2021). Many headteachers have also made it the norm to absent themselves from school, with their absenteeism standing at 19.4 per cent (Ministry of Education and Sports [MoES], 2014). Stakeholders blame such unreasonable actions and inactions on administrators' lack of specialist management training beyond the general pre-service programme (Okoko, 2018). Without such extra training, how do school administrators learn school management? There was need of a study to interrogate these issues for better practice.

The study was justified by the need for research on what might work in school management preparation beyond general pre-service teacher training programmes (Okoko, 2018; Memon, Simkins, Sisum & Zubeda, 2006; Bush, 2008; Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010; Revesz, 2011). What local resources and strategies are school administrators leveraging to sharpen their school management capacities in African countries like Uganda? What are the current management preparation practices, and what policy directions accrue to them? The study sought answers to such questions.

The term 'management preparation' refers to "the process of grooming potential candidates in terms of knowledge, skills, and attitudes required for sound educational management leadership [sic]" (Manaseh et al., 2022: 32). In the current study, management preparation refers to all avenues organized by different stakeholders to enhance secondary school teachers' capacity for running schools (Manaseh et al., 2022; Sperandio et al., 2010).

This 'running' consists of five essential tasks that school administrators carry out. The

five are planning, organizing, staffing, controlling, and leading (Koontz &Weihrich, 2003). The way one carries out these tasks mirrors one's level of management proficiency, which, in a school setting, aims at enhancing school system wellbeing in general and teaching and learning in particular (Genza, 2022). In this line, Leithwood et al. (2004), as cited by Sepuru et al. (2020), describes management proficiency as being "characterised by the principal's ability to give direction, develop other people and redesign the organisation for improving student learning" (p. 2). Borrowing from Uganda's Education Act 2006 (GoU, 2006), Peter et al. (2021) and Sepuru et al. (2020), the current study conceptualized management proficiency in terms of the way a head teacher / deputy head teacher carries out routine school procedures (such as meetings) and handles finances, learners, staff, parents, and other stakeholders. The management preparations that a teacher undergoes before assuming a management office are critical to his/her eventual practice as an administrator. Nevertheless, different nations have different preparation schemes for their prospective school administrators.

Assuming school administration in the Western world and in Africa

By the end of the twentieth century, the Western world had realized that school "headship is a specialist occupation that requires specific preparation" (Bush, 2008: 26). England, Singapore, France and much of the USA started requiring aspiring school principals to acquire a leadership / management qualification. For this purpose, in the year 2000, the UK opened a National College for School Leadership (NCSL) – the largest national school leadership centre in the world (Bush, 2008; Pont et al., 2008). In the UK, one cannot serve as a headteacher unless one holds the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH), or its equivalent, among other requirements (Department for Education, 2023; Sepuru et al., 2020). Most other Western countries without specialist leadership centres have at least developed national leadership standards such as the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) in the US (since 1996) (Canole & Young, 2013). Some of the US states further require a Master's degree in educational administration, as well as certificates in such pertinent fields as counselling and cultural diversity (Eacottet al., 2014).

Even then, some European countries such as Denmark, Sweden and Spain have no mandatory requirements for a particular formal qualification in education leadership or management before appointment (Pont et al., 2008). For Sweden, school principals attend a national head teachers' training programme only after about two years in office (Pont et al., 2008). However, exceptions notwithstanding, acquiring a particular qualification in school management before assuming headship remains the norm in most Western countries. Experience has taught the West that general pre-service teacher training programmes are incapable of providing proficiency in such key school management aspects as human resource and financial management, as well as networking beyond the school border (Revesz, 2011).

Yet in Africa, there is no formal management-training requirement for aspiring head teachers (Eacott et al., 2014). Teachers are appointed as school heads based on their general pre-service qualifications and teaching experience (Sepuru et al., 2020: 1). There is an assumption that these are sufficient for school leadership (Bush, 2008). However, how does teaching ability, however exceptional, translate into management ability?

With the growing complexity of what the school administrator goes through in Africa (Medford & Brown, 2022; Mestry, 2017; Sepuru et al., 2020), the importance of particular preparation for headship becomes even more necessary. In Africa, the administrator "play[s] a panoply of roles…and make[s] a myriad of decisions to ensure student learning" (Kaahwa & Buregea, 2017: 2). These are roles and decisions related with dismal physical infrastructure, financial and human resource management, work overload, student violence, legal issues, and, sometimes, negligent school boards (Medford et al., 2022; Bayar, 2016; Sepuru et al., 2020; Peter et al., 2021; Pont et al., 2008; Okoko, 2018). There is also responsibility "for strategic planning, budgets, managing industrial relations, procuring resources and facilitating marketing and public relations" (Starr, 2009 as cited by Mestry, 2017: 1). Bush (2008) posits that in this context,

> *Requiring individuals to lead schools…manage staff and care for children, without specific preparation, may be seen as foolish, even reckless, as well as being manifestly unfair for the new incumbent (Bush, 2008: 30).*

As Oduro (2009) and Mestry (2017) opine, specialist management training might be the missing link in the effective delivery of education in Africa. If there is no particular management preparation for the management role in Africa, how do new school administrators cope with their new offices? How do they acquire management proficiency to run schools effectively?

Practices in South and East Africa

Some African countries have started taking specialist school management preparation more seriously, though not without regressions and contradictions. The first example is South Africa (SA).Although at the beginning of 2007 SA was among the countries "that do not require a compulsory and specific qualification for principalship" (van der Westhuizen et al., 2007: 421), by the end of the same year she had launched an Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) for the principalship. This was a "practice-based two-year part-time course addressing the professional development concerns of head teachers, by providing opportunities for both current and aspiring head teachers" (Eacott et al., 2014: 927). Unfortunately, in 2009 the course stopped – after running for only two years (Sepuru et al., 2020).

Five years later (2014), SA professionalized her national education governance standards by creating a mandatory qualification. "Aspiring school leaders must obtain the National Professional Qualification for Principals (NPQP) to qualify as a school head teacher candidate [sic]" (Eacott et al., 2014: 927). This was a promising development on the African continent. However, due to logistical constraints, many new school heads still went without formal preparation beyond the pre-service programme. In a study done three years after 2014, "the participants unanimously agreed that they were appointed as principals without having any professional training or formal preparation for their principalship" (Mestry, 2017: 7). A more recent study concurs, revealing that beginner principals have not been "prepared and trained for leadership and management before and after appointment" (Sepuru et al., 2020: 6).

The second example is Kenya (E. Africa). Kenya does not require one to have a specialist school management qualification before appointment. Even after accession, the few available

bits of preparation (induction) arrangements are said to be piecemeal and sporadic, hence of questionable effectiveness (Okoko, 2018). However, there are some promising developments. In 2011, the country developed a particular institute for school management support– the Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI) whose mission is to enhance educational leaders' management competences and bring about a paradigm shift among educational administrators (KEMI, 2023). KEMI's courses include a one-year Postgraduate diploma in education leadership and management (for principals, headteachers, deputies, and heads of department) (KEMI, 2023).

There are conflicting reports about the impact of KEMI so far. One study indicates that, even with KEMI's input, school management preparation in Kenya remains "ad hoc, haphazard, and not responsive to the needs of current and aspiring principals" (Eacott et al., 2014: 925). A more recent study reports a strong positive correlation between KEMI's capacity building programmes and head teachers' competences in teacher and infrastructure management, as well as curriculum supervision (Ongori, 2021). Perhaps, with time, Kenya's interventions have begun to bear fruit in terms of principals' management proficiency.

Tanzania (E. Africa) offers another interesting case. In 2001, the country established a semi-autonomous institution mandated to train education personnel in educational leadership, management and administration. It is called ADEM: Agency for the Development of Educational Management. "ADEM is the only agency where after being appointed, secondary school heads are usually trained" (Peter et al., 2021: 80). Among the courses there is "a one year Certificate in Education Leadership, Management and Administration (CELMA), [and] a two-year Diploma in Education Management and Administration (DEMA) [sic]" (ADEM website, https://www.adem.ac.tz/welcome). However, nearly a decade after the founding of ADEM, research indicated that "the education system in Tanzania was being managed at all levels by non-professional education administrators, using only their classroom teaching experience coupled with trial and error administrative experience" (Sabimbona, 2010: 10). More recently ADEM' s services have again been criticized for being ad-hoc, inequitably accessible, and limited in their impact on practicing educational administrators (Manaseh et al., 2022). However, when it comes to enhancing administrators' communication skills, ADEM is reported to be successful (Peter et al., 2021). These are promising developments on the continent, even though to-date Tanzania does not require prospective school administrators to have specialist management qualifications.

School headship requirements in Uganda

Uganda does not require prospective school heads to have undergone particular formal training in school leadership / management. The country's Education Service Commission (ESC) which is responsible for the appointment of administrators in government and government-aided schools (ESC, 2021), indicates that the requirements for appointment are only academic qualifications for teaching, registration as a teacher, teaching experience, and service at a previous rank. ESC appoints about 300 primary and secondary school head and deputy head teachers annually (ESC, 2021).

Table 1: Requirements for secondary school headship

	Office	Academic qualifications	Teacher registration	Teaching experience	Service at a previous rank
1	**Head teacher**	Master's degree in education; Bachelor's degree in education (or Bachelor's degree with a Postgraduate diploma in education).	Registration as a Graduate teacher with the MoES.	Twelve (12) years teaching experience in a Government owned/aided secondary school.	Three (3) years at the level of a substantive Deputy head teacher
2	**Deputy head teacher**	Bachelor's degree in education or Bachelor's degree with a Postgraduate Diploma in education.	Required.	Nine (9) years teaching experience in a Government owned/aided secondary school	Three (3) years at the level of a substantive Education Officer

Source: Education Service Commission (2021)

Table 1 shows that the requirements to become a head teacher (school principal) do not include specialist school leadership / management qualification. The Master's degree required is not necessarily in education leadership, administration and/or management. Any Master's of education degree (from a recognized institution) suffices. I consider teaching experience of 12 years to be long enough to acquire school-wide experience. However, do the three years as Deputy headteacher also provide reasonable administrative experience for full headship? I sought answers from the study's key participants.

A secondary school head teacher's duties and responsibilities in Uganda are themselves telling. Apart from being in-charge of overall administration and management of the entire school plant, the head teacher is also expected to plan for the school's physical development, teaching programmes, and staff professional development and appraisal (ESC, 2021). There is also accountability for all school activities and resources; co-ordination of school board functions; and direction of student admission and welfare (ESC, 2021). How does the ESC expect the head teacher to have proficiency in each of these areas without specialist management preparation? Perhaps from experience as a deputy head teacher! How much mentorship do deputy head teachers in Uganda actually receive from their supervisors?

Table 1 further reveals that for deputy headteachers, there is also no requirement for a specialist school leadership / management qualification. The teaching experience of nine years looks long enough for a person to acquire general knowledge in the affairs of school life. However, how much management preparation do the three (3) years as a substantive Education Officer (secondary school teacher) give a person in view of the deputy headteacher's office?

The deputy headteacher's responsibilities are enormous. S/he does not only assist the Headteacher in the overall administration of the school, but also supervises non-teaching and support staff, maintains school records and material resources, and enforces discipline (ESC, 2021). There is also curriculum implementation and management of exams. Some of

these responsibilities are understandable, for example discipline and exams management. For overall administration, since the deputy is only assisting the head teacher – a presumably more experienced officer – it is also understandable. However, how much proficiency does the deputy have on assumption of office to enable him/her to supervise non-teaching and support staff professionally? Should a (human resource) management qualification perhaps be required?

Literature review

How can one gain management proficiency other than by acquisition of academic qualifications in Education management? Literature highlights different avenues by which school administrators may acquire management competences. However, it does not attach the same kind of value to each of them. The avenues range from "formal pre-service and in-service cohort programmes…to less formal opportunities such as professional development workshops and seminars, mentoring, coaching, internships, inductions, use of consultants, online provision, and job rotation" (Okoko, 2018: 2). Pont et al. (2008) categorises such isolated avenues into three, namely, pre-service / preparatory training (before becoming a teacher); induction training (for those who have recently taken up positions); and in-service training (for already practicing principals).

Pre-service teacher preparation is largely through course units in Education management and leadership, curriculum and psychology, among others (Memon et al., 2006; Oduro, 2009). Literature disagrees on the efficaciousness of such pre-service modules in equipping prospective administrators with school management proficiency.Some studies report that with such modules, trainees focus more on achieving accreditation than on gaining skills for school management (Eacott et al., 2014). Others posit that the pre-service curriculum "does not specifically prepare candidates to lead schools; it appears to cover general and theoretical issues in school management" (Sabimbona, 2010: 230). Bobar (2009) (as cited by Sepuru et al., 2020) concurs, arguing that school administration "requires skills and competencies not included in principals' initial training as teachers" (p. 1). However, the studies are silent on what skills and competences these are.

Nevertheless, there are studies that extol pre-service training. In Kenya,school administrators reported that "coursework in educational administration, curriculum development, and psychology provided foundational competencies for their leadership positions" (Okoko, 2018: 4). Does it perhaps depend on the exposure of those instructing on such courses? "Instructors with both academic and field experience in school leadership" (Okoko, 2018: 9)are reported to be preferable.The question remains: what is the real value of pre-service training in preparing teachers for administrative roles as head teachers / deputies?

According to literature, teaching experience also constitutes a key avenue for school management preparation (Oduro, 2009; Sepuru et al., 2020). During their years as classroom teachers, strategic individuals are reported to spontaneously involve themselves in management tasks at their workplaces. They "derive consciousness of the nature of headship tasks from the personal experience they gain from voluntarily assisting their former headteachers"

(Oduro, 2009: 144). This is close to Australia's apprenticeship model, where aspiring school administrators are said to gain the necessary administrative skillset on-the-job gradually as they move up the ranks (Drysdale & Gurr, 2011). Sperandio et al. (2010) views this volunteering tactic as a kind of self-positioning mechanism, and contrasts it with simply assuming that academic qualifications and long service suffice. However, how pervasiveand how helpful are such volunteering opportunities? Some literature indicates that, however important teaching experience is for advancing school headship, it "does not prepare them [teachers] for the challenges awaiting them in their jobs as principals" (Sepuru et al.,2020: 1).

Next is induction, also called induction training, which those that have recently taken up school management positions undergo. Induction is usually in form of a few days' workshop (non-formal tra ining) (Okoko, 2018; Oduro, 2009; Bush, 2008). Longer workshops also exist. They last months, however uncommon and unpopular they are due to school heads' work and family preoccupations (AKU-IED, 2014;Bush, 2008; Canole et al., 2013). What kind of induction opportunities do new school administrators receive in Uganda, and how helpful are they? Literature reports that induction programmes imposed from above are less effective (Bush et al., 2023). Also Memon et al. (2006) avers that to be effective, induction ought to focus less on dissemination of a given body of knowledge, and more on administrators' particular professional and personal needs. So how helpful are induction programmes in Uganda in equipping new school heads with requisite competences?

There is yet a different but common form of induction. This is mentorship induction of new administrators by senior colleagues (Okoko, 2018). Newly appointed principals do not depend solely to their personal experiences garnered during pre-principalship (Medford et al., 2022; Sepuru et al., 2020: 2). During mentorship, novices keep "close contacts with current [senior] leaders" (Révész, 2011: 114), and interest themselves with "observing their activities and experiences" (Oduro, 2009: 143-144). One wonders how this 'observation' or 'close contact' is done. Is it with formal prior arrangement or only casually? Since mentorship should be contextualized to mentees' needs (Sepuru et al., 2020), how effective is such casual mentorship? However, cases of lack of mentorship and coaching opportunities for novice administrators are reported to be many, for example, in Guyana (Latin America) (Medford et al., 2022). In the case of Uganda, how much mentorship do deputy head teachers get? How available are senior school heads to give mentorship? What mentorship opportunities are available?

There is one more (school headship) preparation avenue, called 'trial-and-error' (Birkinshaw, Gudka & Marshall, 2022; Oduro, 2009). To run schools, many administrators report relying on "trial and error administrative experience" (Sabimbona, 2010: 10).This avenue is also known as 'learning by gambling', 'on-the-job experience', and reliance on 'common sense' (Birkinshaw et al, 2022; Sepuru et al., 2020). Among the different avenues discussed in literature, trial-and-error is reported to take the lion's share of prevalence in school administrators' preparation (Birkinshaw et al., 2022; Medford et al., 2022; Memon et al., 2006). Do these studies suggest that trial-and-error experience accounts for everything? Why should experience not go in tandem with mentorship and formal training? How does uninformed trial-and-error reconcile with the formal accounting role of school headship?

Available literature does not attach the same kind of importance to each of the avenues highlighted. For example, Sabimbona (2010) posits that the most effective avenue for providing newly appointed school heads with management proficiency is not trial-and-error but mentoring and coaching.Yet for Okoko (2018), the process of moving through the ranks gives administrators hands-on exposure that no other mode of management preparation can give. Perhaps Birkinshaw et al.'s (2022) position is more pragmatic, whereby proficiency enhancement programmes are made iterative (back-and-forth), experimental, embedded in day-to-day work, supported by coaching, and hybrid in delivery (both virtual and in-person). However, the current study still wanted to get the opinions of school administrators on the relative importance of different management avenues in enhancing their proficiency. For example, how valid is Okoko's (2018) assumption that a hybrid is better than either mode?

Assuming that school administrators in Uganda acquire management proficiency through avenues, which are similar or related to those highlighted by existing studies, I sought answers to the following four key questions.

1. How do new secondary school administrators gain management expertise in Uganda?
2. What particular post pre-service management preparation opportunities are available in Uganda?
3. How do new school heads navigate the demands of the offices for which they have probably only received remote / pre-service?
4. What is the relative importance (usefulness) of the different management preparation avenues in the Ugandan context?

The study's final goal was uncovering implications of existing management practices for school administrators' preparation in a developing world context such as that of Uganda.

Theoretical Underpinning

I premised the study on Thorndike's theory of learning by trial and error (Aliakbari, Parvin, Heidari & Haghani, 2015; Behlol & Dad, 2010). The theory holds that organisms acquire "knowledge or ability through the use of experience" (Behlol et al., 2010: 233). For Thorndike, this 'experience' is acquired through reflective involvement in solving given challenges by applying one alternative after another (Behlol et al., 2010). Such involvement ('trial') often results in mistakes ('errors'), partial successes and, eventually, mastery. The theory views such errors as "a natural by-product of attempting challenging learning tasks and they may, in particular, provide learning opportunities" (Tulisa, Steueran & Dresela, 2016: 13). However, mistakes become opportunities for growth only when "learners are able to deal with them in an adaptive and reflexive manner" (Tulisa et al., 2016: 12).

As applied to the current study, the trial and error theory expects novice school administrators to involve themselves actively in administrative challenges; otherwise they will not acquire management proficiency. They should not fear making mistakes. In mistakes subsist invaluable opportunities for administrative maturity. The theory 'allows' administrators to make mistakes, as long as they continuously learn from them (Qu, Hu, Jiao & Jin, 2021) –

practice makes perfect. The theory expects administrators "to persist after setbacks, to correct the error at hand, and to reflect on the underlying misconceptions" (Tulisa et al., 2016: 12-13). In problem-solving situations, which are common in schools, the theory expects administrators to keep trying one alternative after another until they get to a solution (Aliakbari et al., 2015). However, school administrators should not make these trials mechanically as extremist behavior uristspostulate (Behlol et al., 2010).

Methodology

The study used a narrative tripartite case study design, focusing on three school administrators purposively picked from three government-aided secondary schools in two districts of Uganda. To realise a richer constellation of management preparation experiences, I went for participants from districts of different ecological settings. I targeted those that had assumed headship in the last three to five years (between 2017 and 2022). This span was long enough for the participants to have gained considerable school headship experience, and yet short enough for recalling critical preparation incidents in their management preparation trajectories. I focused on how the administrators interpreted their lived management experiences in retrospect (Boyland, 2019). Whereas two of the three administrators were operating in urban schools in Wakiso District (Central Uganda), the third was administering in a rural school in Kamuli District (Eastern Uganda). Administrators from the two urban district schools comprised a Head Teacher (HT) and a Deputy Head Teacher (DHT-1). The rural district school administrator was a Deputy Head Teacher (DHT-2).The trio formed the study's key (primary) participants (Table 2).

Table 2: Key participants' bio-data

	Participant	Gender	Highest degree	Designation	Years as teacher	Years in office	School location
1	Naluk (DHT-1)	F	Master's	Deputy HT	13	3	Wakiso
2	Mitego (DHT-2)	M	Master's	Deputy HT	10	3	Kamuli
3	Ndagire (HT)	F	Bachelor's	HT	15	5	Wakiso

Secondary respondents were two MoES officers – one District Education Officer (DEO) and one School Inspector (SI). The DEO was female, 54 years old, with six years' experience in office. The SI was male, about 42 years old, and with four years in office. The five participants were adequate since data saturation was realised(Guest, Namey & Chen, 2006). Qualitative authorities suggest five to 25 participants for such a narrative case study (Creswell, 2012).

I catered for the study's quality by ensuring credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Yin, 2011; Creswell, 2015; Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2013) (Table 3).

Table 3: Study's quality protocols

	Quality issue	Actions taken
1	Credibility	▪ Establishing the interview guide's content validity (CVI = 0.9). ▪ Pilot testing the interview guide. ▪ Double-checking interview transcripts with audio recordings. ▪ Subjecting the data transcriptto independent peer debrief. ▪ Including participants' differing views in the study.
2	Transferability	▪ Revealing details of the study's research regime&participants' bio-data. ▪ Presenting rich data descriptions (for purposes of relative transferability (Miles et al., 2013).
3	Dependability	▪ Respecting qualitativecase study protocolse.g. purposive sampling and researcher positionality.
4	Confirmability	▪ Sharing data transcripts with study participants for crosschecking.

I ensured ethics by preceding the signing of informed consent forms with full disclosure of what the study was about. I also informed participants of their right to withdraw from the study at any time, or to decline to answer a given question if they thought it provocative or 'private. For each participant and school,I used pseudonyms (Miles et al., 2013).For positionality, I am in this study only a scholar interested in discovering new knowledge on school management preparation with a view of informing my Educational leadership and management teaching as a university lecturer. I did not carry out this study with any personal interests.

To enable the school administrators to think through their lived experiences before interview, I sent them the four questions (seen above), which would be the focus of our interactions. I did this two days before each one's interview. I analysed data thematically (Creswell, 2015).

Finally, Vygotsky's (1934/1986) social constructivism furnished the study with its basic methodology. Social constructivism encourages knowledge creation through documentation of participants' first-hand experiences (Sepuru et al., 2020).Participants "tell their story in their own terms – a story of reality as it is lived: from moment to moment, day to day, week to week, year to year" (Boyland, 2019: 32). This kind of epistemology enabled me to attentively journey with the school administrators as they 'narrated' their lived management experiences. My role was to seek to understand the school administrators' world as they themselves both experienced and understood it (Sepuru et al., 2020). This was 'conversational knowing' (Boyland, 2019), hence individual interview as the main data collection method, supplemented with small-scale group interview (Amin, 2005).The study's final goal was uncovering implications of current practices for school administrators' management preparation in developing-world contexts such as Uganda's.

Findings and Discussions

Here I present the findings participant-by-participant to enable a holistic appreciation of each case. For ethical reasons, I used pseudonyms to hide participants' identities.

Participant 1: Naluk (Deputy Head Teacher-1 [DHT-1])

On the question of '*How new secondary school administrators gain management expertise in Wakiso District'* (where she works), Naluk (DHT-1) revealed that,

> *"New administrators gain expertise through private arrangements. Each one struggles on her own or his own. For example, they pay attention to the institutional culture, which shows them how things are done in specific institutions. They also learn through mentorship from various power centres of the school e.g. PTA and BOG [Parents and Teachers' Association / Board of Governors]. Others gain expertise by say benchmarking [colleagues] to borrow a leaf from what happens in other institutions. We also learn from [national] policy guidelines and legal frameworks in place e.g. Public Standing Orders. We have [also] internal school policies / rules and regulations that guide [us]. There is also the induction and orientation program for newly appointed Deputies, which [for my group] took place at Jinja Civil Service College, where administration and management talks were offered. It was a three days' workshop, marathon though, with various presenters from the Ministry" (Interview, DHT-1).*

The sharing shows that according to Naluk, secondary school administrators in Wakiso gain management expertise largely through study of the school culture, as well as benchmarking colleagues / peers and policy guidelines. There is also board's mentorship and some formal orientation by the Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES). These findings mean that both personal initiative and externally arranged fora are key.

Naluk's account was silent about mentorship from her immediate supervisor (the HT). Upon further probing, Naluk observed that,

> *"Head teachers prepare you but not much. They don't have much time. As a new deputy, you have to put in your personal effort to consult others [colleagues]. Head teachers also live a consultative life. They are also consulting others" (Interview, DHT-1).*

Being a Master's degree holder, perhaps Naluk is so self-efficacious that instead of consulting her supervisor, she prefers consulting policy for guidance. She then supplements policy with peer consultations, which appear to play a critical role in administrators' acquisition of management expertise in Uganda.

Another sub-theme that was not apparent in Naluk's narrative is 'trial and error'. I asked Naluk what she thought about it. She said that,

> *[With trial and error] "You may do serious mistakes. Why trial and error when legal frameworks are there? They matter more than trial and error, e.g. the Public Service Standing Orders, and the minimum standards policy" (Interview, DHT-1).*

From Naluk's experience, 'trial and error' is not one of the avenues by which new school administrators gain management expertise in Uganda.

For the second question (*What particular post pre-service management preparation opportunities are available in Uganda?*), Naluk said that what is available are,

> *"Seminars and workshops. I have attended quite many, all [of] which are improving my management skills e.g. handling students with disabilities, coping and dealing with difficult people, financial management programs etc… These are one-day workshops organized by the district and other organisations like Crane and Raising Voices in collaboration with the Ministry" (Interview, DHT-1).*

Thirdly, on how Naluk '*went about meeting the demands of the Deputy Head teacher office for which she had probably received only remote / pre-service preparation'*, she explained that,

> *"First, I studied the institutional culture. It gave me good guidance about how things are done in this school. Then came orientation at school and national levels. I also consulted stakeholders here e.g. the Head teacher, teachers and board members" (Interview, DHT-1).*

These views point to the potential importance of the guidance offered by school culture, orientation, and stakeholder consultations.

Finally, I asked Naluk what, from her experience, is '*the relative importance of different management preparation avenues'* in accounting for the management expertise she now has.

> *"Induction and orientation greatly worked for me. These were at both school and national levels. They were very nourishing administratively. At the national level, our orientation lasted three days. Marathon with a variety of presentations. Once or twice a year also the district organizes one-day workshops for both primary and secondary school administrators. Also mastering policy guidelines and legal frames continually guides me. For whatever I do, I ask myself the question, 'What does the policy say?' I didn't find benchmarking all that useful. Schools have different setups, geographically, financially and culturally. Benchmarking is like copy and paste. Administration does not work like that" (Interview, DHT-1).*

For Naluk, induction / orientation (workshops) are the single most important management preparation avenue, followed by mastery of policy guidelines. Induction of new appointees appears to be of critical importance. Less important is benchmarking other schools due to existence of different contexts. Benchmarking seems to require adaption, not adoption.

Participant 2: Mitego (DHT-2)

On '*How new secondary school administrators gain management expertise in Kamuli District*'(where he works),Mitego revealed that,

> *"Individuals that become head teachers are officers who have been Deputy Head teachers at least for 3 years. They have been exposed to management related duties for a long time. This is true with those that assume offices on promotion for example Head*

teachers who are appointed on promotion from Deputy. They have experience having worked as Deputies. However, this is dependent on the character of the head teacher under whom this officer worked. A newly appointed deputy who is lucky and he/she is posted in a school where the head teacher is positive and experienced, the officer will be helped to improve. But there are those [Head teachers] who do not want to expose their juniors [to new skills and opportunities]. These are not helpful. Another exception is that of lucky individuals who just land into things as Head teachers after serving as caretakers in Seed schools for a few months. They have no experience. So not everyone assumes [the Head teacher] office with the necessary management preparation" (Interview, DHT-2).

Mitego's sharing implies that an administrator's experience as a Deputy Head teacher gives him/her adequate preparation (mentorship) for playing the Head teacher's role, the two exceptions notwithstanding. Besides, Mitego saw other ways by which new school heads acquire management expertise. These help to counter the two wanting scenarios above.

"Some administrators take on formal courses in management when they are serving [as Head/Deputy head teachers]. They do Master's [in education management] or certificates in Administration law. Other officers get expertise through try and error [sic] by gambling. The lucky ones succeed with it, while the unlucky ones get resentment from staff, students and even parents. This is learning by doing things as they come. For example, the ministry [MoES] transfers five of your 30 teachers without any replacement. What do you do? You try one solution after another until one of them works (Interview, DHT-2).

Mitego is a Master's degree holder (Education management). He can easily see the difference such upgrading added to his management expertise.

On the second theme (*'particular post pre-service management preparation opportunities available in Uganda'*), Mitego's story had the following (Table 4).

Table 4: Particular management preparation opportunities available in Kamuli District

	DHT-2's interview responses(verbatim)	Subthemes deciphered
1	*"Deputy head teachers learn from Senior Head teachers. This is true with schools that have existed for a long time especially traditional schools like Catholic and Church of Uganda schools. They do it through their succession plans".*	Mentorship by senior administrators.
2	*"Some schools have strong systems and cultures and policies that it's up to the new entrant to fit in. Their systems are in such a way that there are clear duties for every individual and a certain mode of operation. This is very true with schools having a strong old student network or religious alignment".*	Mentorship from a strong school culture.
3	*"For new schools (Seed schools) where all the staff appointed are fresh appointees including the head teacher and deputy, they gain expertise as they work. Many of them come from private settings and just change slowly and accordingly".*	Practice (trial and error).

4	*"Sometimes ASSHU Kamuli organises tooling and retooling workshops to train school administrators in certain management areas like finance and human resource management. The workshops are not regular. They are like once a year and last only about two hours. I found them somehow mean on content coverage"* [ASSHU: Association of Secondary School Headteachers in Uganda].	Workshops

Table 4 indicates that the management preparation opportunities available in the rural district of Kamuli are mentorship, trial and error, and workshops. Mitego's critique of the content of ASSHU workshops might be informed by his Master's degree qualifications.

Thirdly, Mitego indicated *how he went about meeting the demands of the Deputy Head teacher's office for which he had* she had probably received only remote / pre-service *preparation*. He reported that,

> *"I did several things. I consulted senior colleagues like my Head teacher and more experienced friends in other schools. The orientation given by my senior colleagues was very helpful. Some of these were not even substantive [Head teachers] but were more knowledgeable [than me] having either upgraded to better academic levels than their substantive counterparts or had had more practical exposure. There is also gambling or try and error [sic] and benchmarking from colleagues in other schools. Eventually I went to Makerere University for MEEM [Master of Education in Education Management]" (Interview, DHT-2).*

These revelations mean that a novice Deputy head teacher navigates the demands of his/her office by consulting supervisors and more experienced peers in other schools, trial and error (learning by doing), and benchmarking 'best' practices elsewhere. Mitego's Masters qualifications did not deter him from consulting others, including peers. This suggests that even with upgrading, consultations remain key. The first study participant's low regard for consultations might be explained by other reasons (including character), not necessarily upgrading.

Lastly, Mitego gave the following as '*the relative importance of different management preparation avenues'* (theme 4).

> *"Mentorship and upgrading were the most useful to me. Upgrading enabled me to get training from management experts [at Makerere University] let alone the other skills like computer, research skills, public presentation and speech that can be used to complement management. You don't get such competences during workshops, which are most times money making. Other opportunities like try and error [sic] are risky. They lead to gross image damage to the victim and big losses to the institution should they backfire" (Interview, DHT-2).*

This sharing highlights the importance of both mentorship and upgrading. Of less value are workshops and trial and error (gambling), even though – in practice – these avenues exist.

Participant 3: Ndagire (Head Teacher [HT])

On how new school administrators gain management expertise, Ndagire reported that,

> *"They gain expertise by mentorship and sometimes [by] chance. Mentorship, the head teacher guides on what should be done or you learn from what the head teacher does. You consult by [phone] calling [your supervisor] about an issue or you use face-to-face during breaks. When I was deputy, my supervisors [head teachers] gave me very good mentorship. They gave me their time. Peer mentorship was also instrumental. Friends give practical help" (Interview, HT).*

Ndagire's experiences highlight the importance of supervisor and peer mentorship in the acquisition of management expertise. To this, she added what she referred to as 'chance of trial'.

> *"Something happens, like two or three teachers repeatedly coming late or absenting themselves from work. You wonder what to do. You decide to try warning them. It doesn't work. You reach them through their friends, and it works a bit. As an administrator, you accumulate expertise that way. It is like learning by chance of trial or learning by doing" (Interview, HT).*

On *the particular post pre-service management preparation opportunities that are available in her district*, Ndagire shook her head and said that:

> *"I am not aware of any management preparation opportunities organized by Wakiso [District]. May be for primary school administrators. For us in secondary schools, the ministry [MoES] is the one responsible for us. When I was appointed Deputy Head teacher, the ministry gave us a two-day induction training. For groups that came after us they got five days of induction. We went through many things but being amateurs, we didn't even understand them [at that time]. We understood later in the field when incidents came up" (Interview, HT).*

According to Ndagire, there are no management preparation opportunities organized by the district for secondary school administrators. However, the national level organizes induction training sessions for newly appointed school heads (annually). Ndagire's failure to understand content during induction may be attributed to her being a novice administrator (at that time); but also to her Bachelor's degree level of education. Perhaps a Master's degree is needed.

Ndagire shared another management preparation opportunity, which she had experienced.

> *"WAKISSHA [Wakiso Secondary School Head teachers' Association] organises a meeting at the start of each term. Some issues on management may be raised there. Although ASSHU also organizes annual national workshops, it is expensive for us [Head teachers] to raise funds for transport, accommodation and feeding. The ministry sometimes sends someone to address us during these workshops. ASSHU's motto is 'United for professional and quality school leadership'"*(Interview, HT).

On how Ndagire practically went about meeting the demands of the Head teacher's office for which she had probably received only remote / pre-service preparation, she explained that,

> *"I consulted my supervisors and friends in my network. I asked colleagues who were head teachers how they handled particular issues" (Interview, HT).*

This narrative also points to supervisor and peer consultations (mentorship) as the coping mechanism adopted by school heads in navigating the demands oftheir new offices.

Finally, on *the relative importance of different management preparation avenues, she noted that*:

> *"The single most instrumental platform that gave me management exposure was my work as Deputy Head teacher at… [S. S. in Kampala]. The school had a lot of confusion and conflicts. No order. I learnt a lot through the disorder. I had to be alert and creative. I would try this and that and see how things turn out. It was like gambling. You don't know if it will work. You try it. Where there is disorder there is more learning" (Interview, HT).*

Ndagire's experiences suggest that one's tenure as a Deputy head teacher is the most important management preparation avenue. The challenges one goes through as deputy, including trials, errors and gambles, make a critical difference. They constitute the problem-solving situations that Thorndike's theory espouses for grooming school administrators.

For workshops, Ndagire reports getting little value from them. However, she reiterates peer consultations as being of great help:

> *"Workshops did not help me much. They are very formal and impersonal. But during tea and lunch break interactions [in workshops], I learnt much from the experiences of colleagues that freely shared information. One colleague taught me that if having dialogue with teachers who dodge lessons doesn't work, then withhold their transport allowance. If it doesn't work, meet them formally as admin team. If that fails, write to them, and then report to the district if no change comes. The district usually withholds their salary until the teachers get focused" (Interview, HT).*

To get a broader view of how secondary school administrators gain management expertise, I now put together the subthemes emerging from the separate experiences of the three key participants.

Table 5: Participants' thematic convergences and divergences

	Theme	Participant 1: Naluk	Participant 2: Mitego	Participant 3: Ndagire
1	**How new school administrators gain expertise**	• Private arrangements e.g.benchmarking policy • Board's mentorship • Formal orientation	• Previous administrative experience. • Upgrading in management. • Trial and error / gambling.	• Supervisor and peer mentorship • Learning by chance.
		• **Convergence**: Board and peer mentorship (participants 1 & 3); chance / gambling (2&3). • **Divergence**: Orientation; previous administrative experience; upgrading...		

	Theme	Participant 1: Naluk	Participant 2: Mitego	Participant 3: Ndagire
2	**Available post pre-service management preparation opportunities**	• Seminars and workshops.	• Mentorship by seniors and school culture • Trial and error (gambling). • Workshops.	• Induction training. • Peer mentorship. • WAKISSHA workshops.
		• **Convergence**: Workshops; mentorship. • **Divergence**: Trial and error (gambling).		
3	**Navigating the demands of a new office**	• Institutional culture • Stakeholder consultation • Orientation.	• Supervisor/peer consultation • Gambling (trial and error). • Benchmarking elsewhere.	• Consulting supervisors and peers.
		• **Convergence**: Consulting supervisors and peers (mentorship). • **Divergence**: Orientation; institutional culture; gambling (trial and error).		
4	**Avenue/s found most important**	• Induction (national). • Policy mastery.	• Mentorship • Upgrading	• Gambling as deputy head teacher.
		• **Convergence:** None. • **Divergence**: Induction, policy mastery, mentorship, upgrading, gambling.		

According to Table 5, first, the separate sharing by the three key participants (on *how new secondary school administrators gain management expertise in Uganda*) converges around two subthemes. One is mentorship (by board and one's peers). The other is 'learning by chance' (gambling).These discoveries suggest that new administrators acquire expertise largely informally – by consulting their 'significant others' (supervisors and senior peers) and by 'trying doing', i.e. by carrying out administrative business with a 'try and see what happens' kind of attitude. This aligns with Thorndike's learning by trial and error theory, which expects administrators to keep trying one alternative after another until they get to a solution (Aliakbari et al., 2015; Tulisa et al., 2016).

Mitego's identification of previous administrative experience as a key avenue for learning management corresponds with Okoko's (2018) view that the process of moving through the ranks gives administrators hands-on exposure that no other mode of management preparation can give. Thorndike's trial and error theory also values such exposure, as long as there is reflective involvement in solving given challenges (Behlol et al., 2010).

During group interview, the two education officers (DEO & DIS) noted that in the absence of management academic requirements for school headship in Uganda, school boards should be the ones to guide novice administrators.

> *"In Uganda, no qualification is required to become a head teacher. Being a head teacher is only a promotion, not a qualification. However, Board of Governors [BOGs] have powers and responsibility to guide green head teachers and deputies.*

For example, they [BOG] make priorities for any government-aided secondary school and approve or change budget allocations" (Education Officer, Group Interview).

The second officer was quick to add that,

"It is still a challenge because members of BOG are [themselves] not experienced and do not possess qualifications and this sometimes depends on the strength of the foundation body" (Education Officer,Group Interview).

Education officers' views suggest that, in many schools, novice school administrators find themselves left to struggle on their own – largely along lines of trial and error/ gambling. These findings imply that most new school administrators struggle alone on their own to learn school management. This agrees with Medford et al. (2022: 2) that "newly appointed principals suffer in silence", struggling to make sense of their newly acquired roles.That is why Birkinshaw et al. (2022) and Medford et al. (2022) report a preponderance of trial-and-error schemes in many administrators' school management practices.

The finding that in Uganda no formal qualification (beyond pre-service training) is required to become a head teacher reflectsthe MoES's (2014: 3) report that "Head teachers are selected on the basis of their classroom experience and therefore generally lack leadership and managerial skills". The finding is also in line with Bush (2008: 70) that "many nations still appoint their principals on the basis of a teaching qualification and teaching experience alone without regard to their leadership knowledge and skills". KEMI disagrees with such a practice, arguing that "as valuable as prior college training is, it can never be driven fully towards training education personnel for specific positions within education management". These considerations suggest that absence of formal management preparation prior to school headship negatively affects administrators' performance.

Table 5 further reveals that the only post pre-service management preparation opportunity reported to be available by each of the three key participants is workshops. This means that management preparation workshops still exist in Uganda, however irregular. This finding agrees with MoES (2014), Oduro (2009) and Okoko (2018) that workshops and seminars are some of the capacity strengthening initiatives that are available to school administrators. Workshops aside, there are "limited opportunities for leadership development in the East African region" (Okoko, 2018: 4).

However, none of the participants reported workshops to be the most influential avenue in their own management expertise acquisition. I found this interesting. It might be due to the content of the workshops that some of the same participants reported to be quite theoretical; or due to the expenses involved (for transport for example). Education officers explained why workshops are only sporadic.

"We do not have many [management preparation] opportunities because the government promises money for training, but it doesn't provide it. But we always organize workshops for them at list (sic) once a term and tell them about government policies" (Group Interview, Education officers).

For the third theme, the key participants individually agreed that novice administrators navigate the demands of their offices mainly by consulting supervisors and peers. This finding concurs with the finding on theme one (Table 5), where participants' voices converged around supervisor and peer mentorship. These findings point to availability of management mentorship in Uganda. This finding disagrees with Medford et al.'s 2022) assumption that opportunities for novice administrators' mentorship and coaching are few.

However, the three key participants disagreed on the real role of formal orientation, institutional culture, and gambling (trial and error) in assisting new administrators to navigate the demands of their offices. Supervisor and/or peer consultations seem to give new administrators only a bit of the guidance they need, leaving many thirsting for more (guidance).They decide to utilise other avenues such as institutional culture (tradition) and gambling for further guidance. According to Mestry (2017), new administrators behave that way "partly because they are inadequately prepared for their leadership position" (p. 1).Sepuru et al. (2020: 1) agrees, arguing that most novice school heads lack proficiency "in the areas of curriculum, human resources, school finance, stakeholder relations and interpretation of legislation". These areas deserve more attention during management preparation workshops.

The education officers lamented that many new school administrators prefer trial and error to reliance on official MoES policies.

> *"Many keep on gambling in doing their work. They depend much on their thinking and many have done errors. They should follow the Education Act 2008. Sometimes they fail due to lack of reading culture. Most of them don't read the act. Education officers like inspectors usually remind such administrators but…" (Group Interview, Education officers).*

This means that the officers are also aware of existence of management by gambling practices although they disagree with them. Their position aligns with that of Mestry (2017) that "acquiring expertise can no longer be left to common sense and character alone" (Mestry, 2017: 2). Yet according to Birkinshaw et al. (2022) and Medford et al. (2022), trial-and-error gambling takes the lion's share of prevalence in school administrators' preparation. How effective is such preparation?

Lastly, Table 5 shows that no management preparation avenue is commonly agreed upon as being the most important. Each of the three key participants identified a different avenue. Whereas one highlighted induction and policy mastery, the other underscored mentorship and upgrading; and the third found gambling most helpful. These experiences imply that whereas mentorship is necessary for management preparation, it is not sufficient. New administrators supplement mentorship with gambling, policy guidelines, and/or formal upgrading. These views agree with Okoko (2018) that management proficiency is a hybrid of different kinds of experiences (avenues). In this line, Birkinshaw et al. (2022) suggests that proficiency enhancement programmes should be iterative (back-and-forth), experimental (trial and error), embedded in day-to-day work, supported by coaching, and hybrid in delivery.

The two education officers agreed on the importance of upgrading, including the need for

postgraduate qualifications in education management.

> *"There should be a Master's degree requirement to reduce existing management confusion in schools. If we have degrees for Head teachers in primary schools, for secondary schools head teachers should have a Master's degree in management. However, we should also remember that sometimes management [ability] is inborn" (Group Interview, Education officers).*

These views confirm the saying that grace (education) builds on nature, hence the importance of both heredity (nature) and education (nurture) in one's management proficiency acquisition. A Master's degree in education leadership or management looks necessary but it does not negate the importance of other management preparation avenues such as mentorship. For upgrading, van der Westhuizen et al. (2007) remind us that administrators' postgraduate qualifications in educational leadership / management can only make a difference if they form part of a national qualification policy.

Conclusions

First, in Uganda, new secondary school administrators gain management expertise largely sporadically and casually. Most of the (post pre-service training) opportunities discovered by the study are available to new administrators by chance. These are opportunities such as workshops and peer mentorship. New administrators often find themselves navigating the demands of their offices by a kind of trial-and-error akin to gambling. If they eventually acquire management proficiency, it is largely by chance depending on each one's school context as well as his/her supervisor's exposure and goodwill. Although no single crosscutting preparation avenue was reported to be the most important, a need for regular induction workshops and mandatory specialist management training beyond the general pre-service programme was clear. Management proficiency is so important in school administration that leaving its acquisition to chance is to miss the point.

Second, the way trial and error manifests itself among school administrators in Uganda makes it ineffective in preparing administrators for their school management roles. Like the scientific method in general, trial and error is effective only if it is practiced by knowledgeable people. This implies that, before their appointment as school heads, administrators-to-be first undergo specialist management education and training under formal settings, such as Faculties of education. The knowledge and skills they acquire from there enable them to carry out trial and error in an informed way. In contrast, the largely uninformed way in which school administrators carry out trial and error in Uganda is tantamount to gambling (chance). Such is not the kind of trial and error advocated for by Thorndike's theory.

Recommendations

The MoES should require postgraduate education and training qualifications in Education administration, leadership and management for everyone interested in accessing school administration at the secondary school level. The minimum qualifications should be a

Master's degree (for Head teachers) and a Postgraduate Diploma (PGD) (for deputies). The qualifications may be given by UNITE (Uganda National Institute of Teacher Education) and/or other accredited tertiary institutions. Since in Uganda it is becoming mandatory for every classroom teacher to have a Bachelor's degree, it is reasonable that administrators have Master's and PGDs among other requirements.

The MoES should organize formal induction workshops for newly appointed school administrators before they assume office. This will help to give theadministrators up-to-date management preparation instead of leaving training to chance or to the mercy and exposure of their supervisors. The workshops should be bi-annual, take place in the four different regions of the country (to reduce transport costs), and each last for at least one week for greater impact.

Contribution and further research

The study unveils the different avenues by which secondary school administrators actually learn to run schools. It also suggests policy directions to take in school management preparation. However, as is common with all case study research, this study is limited by a lack of external validity (for generalization). More so, this case study's basic methodology was poised on social constructivism, which limits itself to "local rather than universal meanings and practices; focusses on provisional rather than essential patterns of meaning construction" (Boyland, 2019: 31). There is need for wide-ranging survey research to take up the management preparation narrative from where the current study has dropped it. The survey research (positivist) together with the current case study (post-positivist) will be reinforcing each other, for example by employing an exploratory sequential design.

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Impact of Intimate Partner Violence on the Performance of Police Officers in Uganda

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Abstract

The study investigates intimate partner violence (IPV) among police spouses in Uganda, focusing on both police-to-police and police-to-civilian relationships within police barracks. It explores the nature, prevalence, causes, and impacts of IPV on the performance of police partners at work. Using a mixed-method approach including surveys, interviews, and focus group discussions, the study reveals extremely high rates of IPV in Nsambya and Masindi police barracks, negatively affecting the efficacy of officers. Despite education and economic opportunities, younger female officers are at higher risk, influenced by cultural norms and conflict settings. IPV manifests in various forms including physical, sexual, and economic violence, and even cyber-stalking post-relationship. Limited access to resources and education exacerbates the situation, impacting job performance. To address this issue, the study suggests implementing and enforcing specific laws, providing free counseling services, adjusting deployment policies to consider family ties, improving remuneration, and supporting spouses financially. Additionally, it recommends enhancing healthcare services in police barracks and calls for further research to inform policy-making.

Keywords: *Intimate Partner Violence, Uganda Police Force, Police Officer*

Introduction

Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) poses a significant challenge within law enforcement communities worldwide, and Uganda is no exception. In recent years, attention has increasingly turned towards understanding the impact of IPV on the performance of police officers, particularly in a context where such violence occurs among individuals within the same profession and the confines of police barracks. According to Mitchell (2016), Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) is a form of domestic violence by a current or former spouse or partner in an intimate relationship against the other spouse or partner. In addition, the World Health Organization, (2012) defines Intimate Partner Violence as any behaviour within an intimate relationship that may lead to psychological, physical, economic and/or sexual mischief in a relationship inclusive of acts tending to physical aggression, sexual coercion, psychological mistreatment, economic abuse and controlling behaviour.

The National Center for Injury Prevention and Control (2021) defines Intimate Partner Violence as abuse or aggression that occurs in a romantic relationship. This refers to both current and former spouses and dating partners. The vice varies in how often it happens and the level of severity. This ranges from one episode of violence that has lasting impact to chronic and severe episodes over years. A uniform definition derived from Breiding MJ (2015) states that Intimate Partner Violence refers to physical violence, sexual violence, stalking and psychological aggression inclusive of coercive tactics by a current or former intimate partner such as a spouse, boyfriend/girlfriend, dating partner or sexual partner. This issue is of paramount importance as it affects the well-being of individuals and families and has profound implications for the effectiveness and efficiency of law enforcement agencies. Against this backdrop, this paper delves into the specific dynamics of IPV among police officers in Uganda, examining its prevalence, forms, underlying causes, and most critically, its repercussions on the job performance of those tasked with upholding law and order.

Forms Of IPV Among Police Families

IPV takes the form of Physical, Sexual, Psychological and Economic violence. According to Breiding (2015), *Physical Violence* refers to the intentional use of physical force with the potential for culminating into injury, harm, disability and/or death. This is manifested through acts such as scratching, pushing, shoving, and slapping, among others. This form of IPV also encompasses coercing another to commit or aid in the perpetration of the above-mentioned acts.

Secondly, *Sexual Violence* is defined by Breiding (2015) as unwanted sexual advances or acts committed or attempted by one person towards another without the consent[1] of the latter. This is manifested through rape, defilement, body shaming, sharing of intimate images or experiences, forced prostitution, forced abortion, female genital mutilation and performances or acts that compromise the integrity of one's sexual and reproductive health.

Thirdly, *Psychological Violence* is defined as any acts of aggression that compromise

1 Words or overt actions by a person who is legally or functionally competent to give informed approval, indicating a freely given agreement to have sexual intercourse or sexual contact

the mental soundness of one by another. According to Dokkedahl (2019), this form of IPV can also refer to any behaviour which causes psychological harm to the partner or former partner. It can be manifested into two major types i.e., emotional abuse and controlling behavior. Emotional abuse refers to insults, belittling, constant humiliation, intimidation, threats of harm. Controlling behaviour refers to isolating a partner from their social groups such as family and friends, monitoring/tracking movements, restricting access to resources, employment, education, medical care, and recreation, among others. It is on this basis that the European Institute of Gender Equality (EIGE) argues that psychological violence is better understood from a perspective of caused harm.

Lastly, the EIGE defines *Economic abuse/violence* as an act or behaviour that instigates financial stress, loss, or manipulation to an individual by another. This may be manifested in forms such economic negligence, damage of property, restriction of access to a source of livelihood, failure to provide, denial to work/employment, among others (EIGE, 2022).

Intimate partner violence is globally acknowledged as a basic human rights violation and a fundamental obstacle to the achievement of gender equality. It exists in all races, genders, social economic classes, ages, religious affiliations, and environmental backgrounds (Dobash & Dobash, 2012).

Violence between intimate partners includes women's attacks on men as well as men's attacks on women, although women are by far the majority of the victims and are more likely to be injured (Johnson & Ferraro, 2000; Blackwell, 2009). It is worth noting that although gender violence is usually perpetrated more by men on women, it is not a universal feature of male behaviour. The majority are not involved in perpetrating violence against women and may seek to intervene to protect women as well as other men from gender violence (Engel, 2009).

According to the Rape, Abuse & Incest National Network (RAINN), a Victim of IPV is one who has recently been affected by the crime; on the other hand, a survivor is one who has successfully gone through the healing process and recovered from the physical, emotional, economic, and psychological wounds caused by the incident. In psychotherapy, the term survivor is used more often, as it is a better expression of empathy with the affected person.

It is imperative to note that both men and women are victims/survivors and perpetrators of IPV. Though one gender is depicted to be of more powerful than the other, the current change in social norms and gender roles has proven that both genders can fall victim of IPV.

In abusive relationships, violence arises out of the need for power and control of one of the partners over the other. The abuser will employ various tactics of abuse such as physical, verbal, emotional, sexual, or financial in order to establish and maintain control over the partner (Azumar, 2017). Men usually use violence to establish power hierarchies. The batterer often wants to show the woman that he is in control or may want to prove to other men that he controls her (Engle, 2009). Abusers' efforts to dominate their partners have been attributed to low self-esteem or feelings of inadequacy, the stress of poverty, hostility, and resentment toward women (misogyny), resentment and hostility toward men (misandry), personality

disorders, genetic tendencies, social cultural influences, and unresolved childhood conflicts, among other factors (Azumar, 2017).

Intimate partner violence must be understood within wider contexts of power and meaning. It is critical to understand that violence between individuals is a dimension of violence by states, communities, and institutions, and that those who routinely use violence in their lives, such as police and soldiers, tend to use it interpersonally as well (Blackwell, 2009). Lindsey (2009) found that the same police who were responding to domestic abuse disputes and keeping victims safe were ignored as perpetrators, yet some were themselves "batterers with a badge".

These findings agree with those of Blackwell (2009) who asserts that police and military in the USA use violence against their partners at far higher levels than in general population. The women's movement of the 1970s spurred research on violence against women, but little attention was paid to the family lives of officers who were called to intervene in family disputes (Johnson, 2005). Literature indicates that IPV is two to four times more common in police families than in other families. At least 40% of police families will experience IPV compared to 10% of American families in the general population (Breiding, 2015). These studies were, however, conducted in the USA.

IPV is a health, legal, education, economic, development and a human rights issue. IPV is a global epidemic that kills, tortures, and maims physically, psychologically, sexually, and economically. It denies the victims security, dignity, equality, and self-worth (Kamusiime, 2009).

On the side of the women, IPV has been linked with unintended pregnancy, miscarriage, still birth, intrauterine haemorrhage, nutritional deficiency, abdominal pain as well as non-communicable diseases such as hypertension, cancer, and cardiovascular diseases. Survivors are at a higher risk of getting addicted to alcohol, drugs, and contracting HIV/AIDS or other STIs due to forced intercourse or prolonged exposure to stress (National Coalition against Domestic Violence, 2015).

Before 1970, intimate partner violence was a problem that had no name; it was invisible and raised little public concern until it was named and publicized by feminists through the women's movements. Intimate partner violence was simply looked at as an unfortunate event, the outburst of an out-of-control husband or a response to a nagging wife, and men believed it was their right as men to beat wives who disobeyed them (Root, Wittner & Blakely, 2009). Violence within marriage is historically linked to a legal definition of the family that made it acceptable for a man to exercise his authority over his wife by beating her. From ancient Greece and Rome to Europe in the Middle Ages, men could beat or kill their spouses with impunity.

As late as the 19th century, British law books stated that the husband could exercise his power and domination over his wife by beating her, although the beating was not to be cruel and violent (Lips, 2005). However, this raises a question as to whether there is any form of beating that is not violent since IPV ranges from pushing, scratching, grabbing to use of a gun.

Moreover, by allowing a man to beat his wife, the law had given more powers to men, thus promoting inequalities between husbands and wives, which fuels violence.

Having one or more guns in the home puts a woman at a higher risk and makes her 7.1 times more likely to be murdered by her husband (Breiding, 2015). Female victims of IPV in police families may fear to report the abuse because the abuser has access to a weapon. Firearms are used to control, terrorize and intimidate victims and survivors of intimate partner violence (National Coalition Against Domestic Violence, 2016).

This situation makes female victims of IPV in police families uniquely vulnerable to abuse and it constrains their access to justice. The researcher intends to examine the IPV survivors' experiences in police families, in a Ugandan context and establish how this impacts on their work performance plus recommend ways of how they can access justice.

Nature of Intimate Partner Relationships in the Nsambya and Masindi Barracks

The study paid particular attention to key concepts such as the Victim Vs Perpetrator, Gender, and level of education, employment status, and designation, level of responsibility and work, Police officers' rank, Intimate Partner Relationship status, Partners' designation, Partners' level of responsibility at work, Partners' rank, Relationship status and duration, residence. This information provides an overview of the foundations of the sample space that may determine the possibility of being a victim or perpetrator of the IPV. It further examined the extent to which the persons in the barracks are indeed aware of the vice, as discussed below.

It is important to note that 57% of the respondents were male and 43% female. Eighty per cent (80%) of respondents were aged 30 and above; 11% of the respondents were aged 25-29; 8% of the respondents were aged 20-24; and only 1% of the respondents were aged 10-14. This is supported by the police manpower strength audit conducted in 2022 which indicated that the male police officers totalled 37,066 against a total number of 8,929 female police officers. This indicates that male police officers are more than the females in Uganda Police Force.

The majority of the respondents were educated, represented by 46% who had a UCE qualification, 38% with a UACE qualification, 12% with Bachelor's degree, 2% with PLE qualification and only 2% with a Master's degree. The majority of the respondents were employed: 87.8% by an organization or business, 6.7% were unemployed and only 5.6% were self-employed. Over eighty-one per cent (81.1%) of the respondents were Police officers and 18.9% were employed as civilians.

The nature of intimate relationship was also a matter of investigation. Seventy per cent (70.0%) of the respondents were married, 5.6% were cohabiting, 7.8% were single, 5.6% were dating, 5.6% were divorced, 4.4% were separated and only 1% were in complicated relationships that could not fall anywhere.

The duration of these relationships was also a matter of discussion: 61.1% of the relationships had lasted between 4 and 5 years; 13.3% of these had lasted between 2 and 3 years; 10.0% of these relationships had lasted between 3 and 4 years; 8.9% had lasted 1-2

years and 5.6% had lasted less than 6 months. Fifty-six per cent (56%) of the respondents were residing in the barracks with their partners while 44% of them were residing separately from their partners. Sixty-four per cent (64%) of the respondents had their partners residing constantly in the barracks while 26% resided outside the barracks. Hence this means all were existing relationships.

For those employed as civilians, 40.0% were at low management level, 33.3% were at middle management level, 17.8% of these were at entry level and only 4.4% were at senior management level. For those employed as Police Officers, 70.0% were categorized under other ranks, 18.9% were non-gazetted officers, only 5% were gazetted officers.

Ranks in the Uganda Police Force are structured, the highest being the Inspector General of Police and lowest being special police constable. Classification is in four categories namely: senior officers above the rank of Assistant Superintendent of Police (gazetted officers), inspectors and assistant inspectors (inspectorates/commissioned), sergeants and corporals (non-commissioned officers) and the fourth category of constables and special constables (officers of other ranks). This structure stipulates the roles and duties of each officer.

The statistics above provided an overview of the construction of relationships in the barracks. Based on this, it was observed that most of the respondents were aged 30 years and above. These were mostly male by gender, held a UCE qualification, were employed as Police officers in lower management positions categorized under other ranks (constables and special constable) and were married.

Their partners were employed by civilians at low and middle management roles. For those with Police partners, the majority were categorized under other ranks; their relationships had lasted between 4 and 5 years; resided within the barracks together with their partners. This qualifies the definition of Intimate Partner Violence as an act or pattern of acts that necessitate an intimate relationship for the crime to occur.

The above analysis also shows key aspects of relationship that formulate the nature of IPV factors such as presence of two different gender identities, age of partners, level of education. Employment status, designation at the workplace, level of responsibility at work, Police officer's rank, status of the Intimate relationship, designation of the partner, partner's level of responsibility at work, partner's rank (in case of police partners), residence, whether partners reside in the same premises. Being a representation of the status in both rural and urban settings, it is safe to say that it is representative of the composition of Intimate Partner Relationship. This reaffirms Wong's (2014) definition of an Intimate Relationship as an interpersonal relationship that involves emotional and physical intimacy.

It is important to note that the frequency or existence of sexual activity was not examined but this does not affect the social construction of the relationship as quoted by Ribbens (2012), its common understanding for an Intimate Relationship to be considered commonly as a sexual relationship, but the absence of such intercourse might not necessarily nullify its existence, as reaffirmed by Verone (2013).

The aspects of the individual Intimate Partners and those commonly shared by the partners in the relationship provide an understanding of the intimacy between them and factors that contribute to the nature of the intimacy. As discussed by Mashek (2004), the composition and depth of intimacy varies within and between relationships. Anthropological studies indicate that intimacy is the ultimate product of successful seduction.

This is a vital process that involves building of rapport, which triggers potential partners to confidently disclose confined thoughts and feelings within and between each other. This process is affected by key concepts examined by the study such as level of education, employment and its associated concepts, among others, these aspects are a key basis for intimate conversations which become the foundation for "confidences", also referred to as secret knowledge, that create a bond between people, as discussed by Moore (1985).

Residing together or constant contact between intimate partners contributes to the longevity of a relationship. Nurturing intimacy for a long period of time involves well-developed emotional and interpersonal awareness. It calls for the competence to be both separate and together as participants in a relationship. This is affirmed by Murray Bowen who referred to this as "self-differentiation" which leads to a connection that involves as range of robust conflict and intense loyalty (Aronon, 2003).

Changes in factors that contribute to self-differentiation lead to imbalance in robust conflict and intense loyalty. This imbalance can create a situation where an intimate relationship thrives on intense loyalty with minimal conflict. On the other hand, a relationship can experience robust conflict with minimal loyalty. This variation contributes to the occurrence and forms of Intimate Partner Violence. Thirty-five (35) respondents interviewed were aware of the occurrence and magnitude of intimate partner violence in the barracks out of whom 28 strongly agreed that indeed intimate partner violence exists in the barracks. How this vice manifests itself in the barracks is discussed below.

Physical violence

Twenty-six (26) respondents strongly disagreed to have ever been beaten or physically assaulted by their intimate partner. Fifteen (15) respondents decided not to disclose whether they had ever been beaten or physically assaulted by their partners. Eleven (11) of the respondents strongly agreed to have been beaten and/or physically assaulted by their partners. A minority of 8 respondents strongly agreed to have ever beaten and/or physically assaulted their partners while a majority of 28 respondents strongly disagreed to having ever beaten and physically assaulted their partners. This statistic indicated an occurrence of physical violence among intimate partners in the police and as well concealing IPV as the 15 respondents failed to disclose.

A respondent from Masindi was quoted saying:

> *"One day I checked my husband's phone and that's the day violence erupted. I uncovered a lot of other relationships my husband was involved in. When I asked him, he instead out of shame beat me for checking his phone. When I went to work my colleagues laughed at me because I had bruises, I felt ashamed."*

Another respondent from Nsambya was quoted saying:

> *"My husband drinks and he got another woman in his group. This woman always came home saying she is a friend and even would propose that we cook together. I later on realized something was not right. One day I fought with her and when my husband came back, he started beating me for ashaming him and chasing away the visitor".*

Sexual violence

A total number of 40 respondents agreed to have ever been sexually assaulted by their partners; 20 respondents disagreed; and 30 respondents strongly disagreed. Therefore, the majority of the respondents indicated that they had ever been sexually assaulted by their intimate partners. When asked whether they had ever sexually abused their partners, 31 respondents strongly disagreed, 25 disagreed, and 23 were neutral. This statistic indicated an occurrence of sexual violence among intimate partners in the barracks. It is in line with a definition by the American Psychological Association (2018) which considers such acts to be part of sexual abuse. According to its definition, any sexual behaviour deemed to be abusive by one person upon another, often perpetrated using force or by taking advantage of another is considered to constitute sexual abuse which is a form of Intimate Partner Violence.

A respondent from Nsambya was quoted saying:

> *"I face a lot of forced sex; I am married to a medical doctor but I am forced to have sex every night and then he doesn't care even if I am in my periods. This corresponds with the harmful cultural practice among the Batooro where they say that "omusajja tanyangwa", meaning that you can't refuse a man". This indicates that police officers come from the wider cultural setting and so they are also culturally intoxicated by the harmful cultural practices.*

Another respondent from Nsambya was quoted saying:

> *"I have been married to my partner for a long time and we have two children, but my wife has been denying me sex for two years now. I failed to get help, so I left home. It took me more than a year to leave. Before that she first started listening to my phone calls with my workmates and kept on saying that they are my girlfriends, this annoyed me, and we started having problems until when I decided to leave the home."*

A respondent from Nsambya was quoted saying:

> *"I am civilian, and I work away from home, one day I came back home and caught my husband with another woman having sex We quarreled and he left the home."*

Economic violence

The majority of respondents (29) agreed to have been economically neglected by their partners

and 28 respondents strongly disagreed to have economically neglected their intimate partners. It is important to note that the above scenarios are actual manifestations of economic violence among police spouses. This was affirmed by Adams (2008), who defined economic abuse as: "A form of abuse when one intimate partner has control over the other partner's access to economic resources, which diminishes the victim's capacity to support themselves and forces them to depend on the perpetrator financially."

This is further related to financial abuse, as argued by Carnot (2004) who says that:

> *"Financial abuse may occur when a partner engages in an act which is the illegal or unauthorized use of a person's property, money, pension book or other valuables (including changing the person's will to name the abuser as heir), often fraudulently obtaining power of attorney, followed by deprivation of money or other property, or by eviction from own home. Financial abuse applies to both elder abuse and domestic violence."*

A respondent from Nsambya was quoted saying:

> *"I stayed in a relationship for 23 years, but it has not been easy since my husband doesn't support me financially and instead, he takes my money. Whenever I refuse to give him my money, he says I am disrespectful and when we buy property, it was not in his names and I sign as a witness despite the fact that I have contributed money."*

On the contrary, a male police officer was also quoted saying:

> *"I lost respect from my wife since I do not earn much. She always says I am not man since I do not give her money that she wants but then she knows that I earn little. She left me for another man who is a civilian. She does not like my work and always complains that I stay away for long. She has a good job but she does not want to share her money and always wants to develop her parents' home and does not care about our home."*

This is supported by social values, myths, and perceptions regarding Gender Based Violence. For example, in Rwanda and DRC, it is believed that a man has both final and sexual power over a woman and also should be a sole provider for the family. This escalates violence in cases where women are well positioned and earn more than their spouses and so the men do not contribute to family demands.

Emotional violence/psychological violence

A minority of 15 respondents strongly agreed to have harassed their partners based on access and utilization of their phone and social media. The manifestations above indicate an occurrence of emotional/psychological violence. As argued by Dutton (1994) and further emphasized (2000) in his book section on psychological abuse in violent domestic relations, he states that:

> *"It is often associated with situations of power imbalance in abusive relationships,*

and may include bullying, gas lighting, and abuse in the workplace". The respondent's voices indicated presence of emotional violence among police officers as a result of extra-marital relationship, failure to apologize, distance transfers causing suspicion, false accusations and cyber stalking. Psychological abuse, often called emotional abuse, is a form of abuse characterized by a person subjecting or exposing another person to a behavior that may result in psychological trauma, including anxiety, chronic depression, or post-traumatic stress disorder.

A civilian respondent from Masindi was quoted saying,

"Our 12 years marriage had been moving on well not until my husband got another woman outside wedlock. He was so unapologetic and made the issue seem so minor that I had to live with the new situation" (accept my co-wife), he started having less time for me and not providing. I was emotionally affected and from that time, our marriage has been experiencing conflict, which has so far lasted, for 3 years".

Another respondent said:

"I experience many false accusations in my relationship. My workmates used to tell my partner that I was in love with my boss. By then we were working at the same station. My husband made my life hard at work and he reported me to our commanding officer based on these accusations. This led to my transfer, and we have never been at peace."

A respondent from Masindi is quoted saying:

"When my wife left to a nearby district for work, she got into a relationship with another man; this man started calling my number all the time. Even after my wife lost the job and returned home the man kept on calling me and threatening me".

Post-relationship Violence/ Cyber Stalking

Although 34 respondents disagreed to have ever harassed their former partners when the relationship had ended, 6 respondents disclosed to have harassed their former partners upon completion of their relationship and 11 respondents strongly agreed to being harassed by a former intimate partner after the relationship had ended. This indicates occurrence of post-relationship violence among intimate partners in the barracks. A respondent from Masindi was quoted saying:

"He keeps stalking me to know my movements even asking friends my whereabouts all the time. Sometimes he uses boda bodas (motorcycles) to follow me up. Am not safe he at times speaks to the children in privacy to know more about me".

The different experiences discussed above indeed indicate that the majority of the police families are aware of the existence of Intimate Partner Violence which is manifested in all its forms including Physical, Sexual, Economic, and Psychological and Post-relationship violence.

Causes of IPV among Police Families

According to WHO (2012) IPV is a form of Gender-Based Violence; and cognizant of this, it is safe to argue that the root causes of GBV as a general phenomenon are applicable to IPV; these include Unequal power relations and Gender inequality. Unequal Power Relations can be best understood from a power distance perspective. Geert Hofstede (2010) defines Power distance as the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations expect and accept that power is distributed unequally. This is exhibited in institutions such as family, school, community and workplaces, among others. Power distance is categorized into High Power distance and Low Power distance.

An institution that gives great reverence to a person of authority is one with high power distance and one that values the equal treatment of everyone is considered to have low power distance. Geert Hofstede (2010) Further explains that inequality is seen as a basis for societal order in a high-power distance institution; on the other hand, institutions with low power distance see inequality a times as necessary, that is think of a Parent-Child relationship, but the more that relationship can be equalized the better for everyone. The author further notes that in a family setting, all persons are born into a family. It is from this institution that their mental software is acquired immediately after birth. This is passed down from the elders in whose presence they are raised. Children often model themselves after the examples set by the elders in the family (Geert Hofstede, 2010).

According to Mafumbate (2019), the African society has a sense of respect for authority and elders are an essential tool for soldering and smoothening social relations amongst members. Head of families, village or community are accorded deep respect in their capacity as leaders by legitimacy or constituted authority. This is reechoed through an old Igbo saying that, "He who listens to an elder is like one who consults an oracle". In an African setting, the oracles are considered to portray the truth, their words and instructions are heeded to for the promotion of good behaviour among the young. According elders their due respect guarantees maintenance of custom and tradition (Mafumbate, 2019).

Based on this, it is further argued that the Ugandan and African culture at large has raised men to be the heads of the family and their decisions, aspirations, plans, and rules are considered conclusive and followed religiously by all members of the household. In most circumstances there are mild to severe repercussions in moments of defiance (Engle, 1997). In reference to power distance, the African families and communities at large have raised women and children to expect and accept that men in the community are more powerful and should portray this in all ways. Hence, power is distributed unequally in the family and the less powerful accept it and expect it. This emphasized by sayings such as '*Omusajja tayangwa* (you cannot refuse a man) and – *Empaka ennemeremu; zikubyamukyawe* (Prolonged arguments earn the disliked a beating) (Ssetuba, 2002).

In addition, other causes of IPV can be classified into (1) individual factors which include: young age, low level of education, witnessing or experiencing violence as a child, harmful use of alcohol and drugs, personality disorders, acceptance of violence (e.g. feeling it is acceptable

for a man to beat his partner) and past history of abusing partners (Heise L, 2002). In addition, there are factors consistently associated with a woman's increased likelihood of experiencing violence by her partner(s) across different settings which include exposure to violence between parents, sexual abuse during childhood, acceptance of violence; and exposure to other forms of prior abuse (Abramsky, 2012).

Heise (2002) further noted relationship factors such as conflict or dissatisfaction in the relationship, male dominance in the family, economic stress, individual(s) that have multiple partners and disparity in educational attainment, i.e., where a woman has a higher level of education than her male partner does. The scholar also argued community and societal factors such as gender-inequitable social norms (especially those that link notions of manhood to dominance and aggression), poverty, low social and economic status of women, weak legal sanctions against IPV within marriage. Lack of women's civil rights, including restrictive or inequitable divorce and marriage laws, weak community sanctions against IPV, broad social acceptance of violence as a way to resolve conflict, armed conflict and high levels of general violence in society, as also being key causes of IPV (Heise, 2002). The study discovered nine major causes of IPV among police families as discussed below.

Dominance and control of the relationship by one partner (power imbalance)
When asked whether dominance and control of the relationship by one partner over the other is a cause of IPV, 31.1% of the respondents strongly agreed, 38.9% agreed, 13.1% were neutral, 10.0% disagreed, 6. 7% strongly disagreed. A majority of 35 respondents agreed that dominance and control of the relationship by one partner causes Intimate Partner Violence; a minority of six respondents disagreed to this being a cause.

This agrees with Geert Hofstede (2010) who explained the role of high-power distance and its relation to acceptance of dominance and control. The scholar states that in families with high power distance, the head of the family is expected and accepted by their subordinates to use their power in ways that assert the dominance.

Infidelity and lack of trust
When asked whether infidelity or lack of trust is a cause of IPV, 53% of the respondents strongly agreed, 24.4% agreed, 11.1% were neutral, 4.4% disagreed, 6.7% strongly disagreed. A majority of 48 respondents strongly agreed that infidelity and lack of trust is a key driver of intimate partner violence in the barracks. Ten respondents were neutral and a minority of six respondents strongly disagreed. This was manifested in ways under which spouses' phones were checked as a way of monitoring the people they relate with at workplace as well as who calls at what time.

One respondent said,

> *"She at times gets phone print outs to monitor me. For me I think it is an abuse of office. Since she has access to information and can get a call data from any network". "I always live under fear and threat because of her lack of trust".*

This agrees with Heise (2002) who argues that relationship factors such as conflict or

dissatisfaction in the relationship often instigate IPV starting with emotional or physiological forms of violence.

Cultural norms and expectations

When asked whether Cultural or Societal norms and expectations are a cause of IPV, 21.1% of the respondents strongly agreed, 43.3% agreed, 21.1% were neutral, 8.9% disagreed, 5.6% strongly disagreed. A majority of 39 respondents agreed to cultural, social norms and expectations being a cause of Intimate Partner Violence. A minority of five disagreed. This is agreement with Engle (1997) who states that:

> *"In the Ugandan and African culture at large men are raised to be the heads of the family and their decisions, aspirations, plans and rules are considered conclusive and followed religiously by all members of the household".*

Economic stress

When asked whether economic stress is a cause of IPV, 43.3% of the respondents strongly agreed, 37.8% agreed, 11.1% neutral, 2.2% disagreed, 5.6% strongly disagreed. A majority of 68 respondents agreed that economic stress is a cause of IPV. A minority of five respondents disagreed to this being a cause. This agrees with an article by National Institute of Justice (2009) which states that:

> *"Financial strain may keep women in abusive relationships. A review of census and survey data revealed that women at greatest risk of intimate partner violence tend to be those in relationships where the couple has few economic resources, high subjective stress about finances, experience higher unemployment and live in proximity to economically disadvantaged neighborhoods. The choice to stay or leave violent relationships may be based on the decision that a partner's economic contribution to the relationship outweighs the risk of violence. It also may compel women to live with men's violent behavior rather than seek help or take other steps to leave the violent relationship".*

This goes both ways for women and men, in a situation where one partner is more financially empowered than the other, conflict is often brewed between the couple. The risk of leaving the relationship over losing source of livelihood compels many to stay in an abusive relationship thus contributing to the prevalence of domestic violence in the barracks.

Differences in occupation/ ranks

When asked whether differences in occupation, i.e., being a police vs civilians is a cause of IPV, 34.4% of the respondents strongly agreed, 31.1% agreed, 15.6% were neutral, 10.0% disagreed, 8.9% strongly disagreed. A majority of 31 respondents strongly agreed that there is a difference in occupation where one partner is a police officer and another a civilian. A minority of eight respondents disagreed. This is agreement with one of the respondents who mentioned that;

> *"My wife doesn't trust me because I am a police officer and I spend a lot of time at work with my fellow officers, she thinks that all officers sleep with each other."This*

bothers me and makes me not want to go home and as well I can't settle at work; I have even lost my social friends as I can't interact with them freely."

This was emphasized by CP, Dr. John Kamya, who stated in an interview that:

"Some officers face a lot of stress arising from their jobs and sometimes their partners are not able to cope with the stress. Rather manage or address these issues like any other civilian through extensive arguments and prolonged conflict. Since officers have access to weapons, some of them lose control and end up discharging their weapons in response to such situations instead of understanding that Police officers and Civilians have different life stressors that need to be carefully managed in relationships with the help of professionals in acute situations. We have some officers who are in prisons as a result of misuse of guns due to IPV."

Ignorance of Intimate Partner Violence and its associated effects

When asked whether Ignorance of intimate partner violence and its associated effects is a cause of IPV, 24.4% of the respondents strongly agreed, 32.2% agreed, 26.7% were neutral, 7.8% disagreed, 8.9% strongly disagreed. A majority of 80 respondents agreed to have this as a cause of IPV. A minority of 10 disagreed. This agrees with the submission of D/ASP Lydia Nambusi, a focal person at the Sexual and Children Related Offences department at CID headquarters when asked about the causes of IPV. She stated that:

"Most Police officers are aware of the law but at times fail to implement their mandate at home. As officers we are called to prevent, detect and respond to crime but in some cases, officers fail to sensitize themselves and their community members of laws relating to crimes against the person such as IPV." For this reason, many Police families tolerate and accommodate crimes relating to physical, psychological, economic and sexual violence because they believe that some of these crimes are normal until acute manifestations such as grievous bodily harm, family neglect, trauma induced psychosis and/or loss of life and property are instigated. These could be avoided if one knows that even the "small" manifestations of IPV like constant quarreling necessitate police intervention most especially in the barracks to avoid acute situations. This is the reason our officers commit suicide at times. How long can someone tolerate psychological violence?

Poor communication

When asked whether poor communication is a cause of IPV, 36.7% of the respondents strongly agreed, 37.8% agreed, 16.7% were neutral, 6.7% disagreed, 2.2% strongly disagreed. A majority of 68 respondents agreed to have poor communication as a key contributor to IPV in their families. A minority of 22 respondents disagreed. The majority of the respondents qualified this to be a key contributor to IPV. This agrees with the submission of D/ASP Lydia Nambusi who stated that:

"Some of the cases that are reported and sometimes resolved at Police level are basically instigated by poor communication. This could be due to the constant misunderstandings and misconceptions among couples. You find that a partner stops

providing for the home because they don't understand how funds are spent but when you dig deeper you realize that the less dominant partner also contributes to the little resources available, but their efforts are never recognized. For this reason, none of the two is willing to express himself or herself without anger or judgment and this is when violence erupts. With some mediation, guidance and counseling some of these police families realize that the problem was with poor communication and they both had the best interest of the family at heart."

Anti-social and aggressive peers

When asked whether association with anti-social and aggressive peers is a cause of IPV, 26.7% of the respondents strongly agreed, 40.0% agreed, 18.9% neutral, 8.9% disagreed, 5.6% strongly disagreed. A majority of 85 respondents agreed to have this as a cause of intimate partner violence. A minority of five respondents disagreed. A majority of the respondents qualified this as cause of violence. One respondent stated that:

"I have a very good wife she goes to work and comes back home in time to cook and prepare hot water for bathing, she doesn't gossip and only talks to a few of our neighbors, I have never had issues with her cheating but when she gets angry, she says so many hurtful things even from years ago. I think if she spends time with her friends and talks to other women, she will find a way of reducing some of the pain she has in her heart and we will be able to have less painful fights. She brings back things we did even before we got married. Her friends could even advise her on how to be better in bedroom issues."

Secondary trauma from work

When asked whether Secondary trauma from work is a cause of IPV, 30.0% of the respondents strongly agreed, 36.7 % agreed, 18.9% were neutral, 6.7% disagreed, 7.8% strongly disagreed. A majority of 76 respondents agreed to have this as a cause of IPV at home while a minority of 14 respondents disagreed. This outcome showed that the majority of the respondents agreed that secondary trauma from work is a key contributor to IPV. CP. DR. John Kamya, the Commissioner Human Resource headquarters stated that:

"Officers work in high stress settings and they sometimes don't take off time to relax or rehabilitate their minds and bodies. This stress usually piles up and causes many to exert it on their partners. This is a key cause of emotional violence among couples. Most officers don't utilize their leave days, which would help them rejuvenate and build stronger bonds with their families by spending more time at home away from case files".

Performance of Police Officers at Work

The duties of a police officer are based on the mandate of the force and the specific objectives of the directorate, department or unit they have been attached to. Fundamentally, a police officer is mandated to protect and serve. Their execution of these duties determines is regulated by appraisals based on their Key Performance Indicators at unit level embedded in their officer's

job description.

Beauchamp, Bray, Eys, and Carron (2002) argue that work performance is a measure of an individual's effective execution of a task assigned to them by a supervisor. For police officers, this may include the duties assigned to them by virtue of the office/position they occupy, instructions from their commanding officer or a superior officer (orders from above).

University of Washington Human Resources (2022) explains that good performance at work is based on an individual's quality of work which is manifested in accuracy, thoroughness, and competence. Quantity of work is manifested in productivity level, time management and ability to meet deadlines. Job knowledge is manifested in skills and understanding of work. Working relationships are manifested in ability to work with others and communication skills. For purposes of this article, the linkage between IPV and Job performance shall be based on the above parameters i.e., quality of work, quantity of work, Job knowledge and working relationships during execution of police roles and duties.

Effects of IPV on Work Performance of Police officers

Compromises Quality of work: The University of Washington Human Resources (2022) defines quality of work as the measure of an individual's accuracy, thoroughness, and competence in executing their work. In most cases, IPV at home contributes to poor execution of tasks and ultimate transfer due to inefficiency. The psychological violence in form of trauma is extended to clients who come to seek for justice at police, thus compromising the quality of work.

Compromises Quantity of work: The University of Washington Human Resources (2022) defines quantity of work as the measure of an individual's productivity level, time management and ability to meet deadlines. Economic forms of IPV such as restricted access to resources and physical forms such as injury limit an officer's mobility and diligence in the line of duty. In situations where an officer cannot access resources to enable him/her to execute his/her work or when an officer has become physically incapable to execute commands, he/she is ineffective and thus unproductive. This also slows down their turnover at work which contributes to poor time management.

Deters victims from improving their Job knowledge: University of Washington Human Resources (2022) defines job knowledge as the measure of an individual's skills and understanding of work. In situations where officers are distressed and unmotivated to work due to the emotional impact of IPV, manifested through poor service delivery and absence from work, officers are excluded from working on sensitive assignments because they might not be competent enough or have the right attitude to execute the task with efficacy. This deprives them from gaining on-job experience and skills that are essential in their career development. This affects promotions and deployment in "wet" positions due to limited skills and understanding of the job.

Compromises working relationships: University of Washington Human Resources

(2022) defines working relationships as the measure of an individual's ability to work with others and foster positive communication skills. IPV manifested in forms of sexual deprivation compels many officers to engage in sexual relationships at the workplace. This is evidenced in some cases where partners are accused of spending a lot of time at work and others are known to be favoured in promotions and deployment due to the role of these relationships. It is important to note that such intimate relationships at work compromise the chain of command and effective communication in the unit.

Recommendations

The victim protection law to supplement the Domestic Violence Act: The study conducted by Kathryn Wilkes, Lisa Churcher and Applied Research Bureau (the Consultants) in 2019, on the implementation of the Domestic Violence Act 2010 (DVA) by the Ugandan public justice system indicated underreported reported cases of Domestic Violence and over a half of victims had never disclosed the violence to anyone despite the presence of the DVA. The report indicated that police and prosecutors are increasingly aware of the law, however, the prevalence of domestic violence was still disturbingly high and significantly underreported and the recommendation was to supplement the law with the Victim protection law to ensure victims of their safety. This was the same recommendation among the intimate police partners.

Deployment policy: The deployment should consider married couples to be deployed close to each other to be able to meet their family obligations. Yet single parents/mothers should be deployed close to their families to take care of their children. Distance Deployments were considered as major cause of IPV due to suspicions, failure to return home and cited increased rate at which officers were becoming polygamous putting their spouses at risks of infections (STDS) and STIs. There should be a fair deployment policy that also considers technical capacity and special skills and knowledge

Create awareness on IPV among Police Families on individual effects of violence: To inform officers of the available justice mechanisms (referral systems) and as well discourage them from abuse of the law to subject their partners to violence (misuse of guns and securing court documents to deal with violence like court orders to get phone printouts to track their spouses). Many police officers are aware of the laws on IPV but sometimes they do not use them to prevent violence or seek justice or they misuse them to deal with their partners.

Establish partnerships with key stakeholders: Further findings reveal that there was an urgent need to create partnerships with key stakeholders including civil society organizations that provide services in relation to IPV. This will enable police victims' access response services such as medical care, psychosocial support, and economic support. This way, victims will be supported to follow through the justice procedures, confident there is a neutral service provider to support them follow up their cases as well as restore their former state.

Empower IPV change agents: It was also noted that there are focal persons empowered by the barracks administration to manage cases of IPV, starting with the officer in charge barracks (OC), senior officers' committees, and a gender focal person, among others. These

have made progress in addressing these issues, though they are often hindered by limited knowledge and skills in addressing these matters. Train these focal persons to prevent, protect and respond to cases of IPV within the police barracks to address IPV at the grassroots level. These committees should also be tasked to monitor and provide feedback on the efficacy of interventions put in place.

Strengthen the Sexual offenses, Child and Family Protection and Community Affairs Departments of Uganda Police Force: There is need to establish focal persons in each department to only focus and deal with intimate violence among its officers. In this way, victims shall have an institutionally recognized team that shall focus on addressing their own issues and ensuring access to justice since charity begins at home.

Enhance access to psychosocial support: Counselling services should be provided free to potential victims of IPV among the police to avoid escalating further violence to both clients and their family members. Each barracks should have an attached professional counsellor that victims go to at their own and seek counselling services. If violence is managed at initial stages, the grave impact may be solved before incidents happen like preventing victims from committing suicide, misuse firearms to kill spouses, deserting, among others, that negatively impact on their work performance.

Economic empowerment and support: The spouses to the police officers should be supported **f**inancially through Sacco's and other financial institutions that can give access to low-interest loans to support their businesses that can enable them contribute to family demands. This wil reduce on financial stress and cases of failure to provide for their families. This will enable officers to concentrate and perform their duties diligently and as well reduce on corrupt tendencies due to pressure to meet daily family demands.

Enhance access to basic medical services: The hospitals/health facilities in police barracks should be able to provide free medication to police officers and their immediate families including free medical examinations and maternity services to mothers and as well offer free medical examinations and fill the police assault forms (PF3, PF3A) used as evidence in courts of law against perpetrators. The health facilities should be able to also provide Post-Exposure Prophylaxis (PEP), emergency contraceptives, free HIV testing and counselling, treatment to STDS and STI and maternity services to mothers.

Continuous research and capacity building: The Welfare Department should conduct research on IPV among police officers as a result of Economic Violence. The study recommends continuous capacity building to officers to understand the forms of IPV, causes, effects and remedies to the problem.

Conclusion

IPV has severe effects on everyone, and does not spare law enforcement officers and their intimate partners.The affects extend to individual, immediate family members and the general public. Police officers are exposed to all forms of violence common to the general public according to these research findings and this negatively impacts on their professional service

delivery. It is very rare to detect the psychological effects of IPV and this puts the whole institution at a great risk which in turn can spoil its image to the general public. It is very risky for armed police personnel presumed to prevent and respond to IPV to be also facing the same. Chances are high that a police officers who are suffering IPV, may extend the same violence because of the psychological trauma they are facing to another victim who comes to report a case at police, or fail to listen and at times judge a case based on past experience. Uganda Police Force should address IPV as a general problem starting with supporting enactment of the victim protection law, creating awareness among its officers on how to access justice and available support services, apply a deployment policy that protects the police families, offer free psycho-social support services to victims, financial empowerment to officers, partner with NGOs to support its efforts, and above all, conduct further research to recommend more solutions to the problem.

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Collision and Contestation of Power in Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA)

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Abstract

This article describes the collision and contestation of power in Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA). Power collision and contestation in KCCA have been known for a decade since the inception of the KCCA Act 2010. The draft of the Act was to have a better city; however, the implementation resulted in sharp conflicts, and since it broke at the center of power, it left a lot to be desired. Qualitative content analysis was used; articles were downloaded from various newspapers online and analyzed. Results indicate that the Act referred to the Lord Mayor as a political head in KCCA, not the political head of the Authority It was weakened because it reduced the legislative powers of the Lord Mayor to the Speaker and hence making the Mayor accountable to the Council; the Ministry of Kampala in consultation with the Ministry of Lands and Local Government shall coordinate the planning of the City and proposed an establishment of an executive committee appointed by the Lord Mayor on matters of legislation. The patronage approach cannot overtake the powers of the people and belittling the powers of elected leadership will only create more problems than the Government can solve.

Keywords: *Kampala Capital City Authority, Act, Power, Political and Technical leadership, Service delivery, Council, Uganda*

Background

Cities are regarded as complex multidimensional social players because they are associated with diverse controls to centralized administration, public Authority, decentralized administration, civil society, the private sector, professional bodies, and other stakeholders (Florida, 2003). Cities have been linked to bigger state bureaucratization (Tilly, 1992); therefore, the investigation of power struggles as a contemporary phenomenon could contribute to a clear understanding of leaders in Kampala Capital City Authority.

For the last decade, there has been interest in the National Resistance Movement (NRM) regime to wrestle control of the City's political leadership from the opposition. The draft of the KCCA Act 2010 (GoU, 2010) and its implementation were meant to have a better, cleaner city. However, the implementation of the KCCA Act brought several turf conflicts that later resulted in altering the powers of the Lord Mayor, Executive Director, and Minister for Kampala (Sabiiti, 2019). There was an urgent need to bring order to the city by creating harmony among the three Authority wings: political, technical, and executive. Since its creation in 2010, the Authority has been in the limelight over fights between the Lord Mayor and the Executive Director on issues related to the management of KCCA. This was followed by the impeachment of the Lord Mayor, blaming him for misconduct, incompetence, and abuse of office, which led to extended legal battles between KCCA and the Lord Mayor (Eyotaru, 2016). The Mayor later petitioned to dismiss the appeal and challenge the unpaid salary worth 500 million (Agaba, 2019; Ainebyoona, 2016; Barbra Kabahumuza, 2017; Kigongo, 2019).

Problem statement

There was continuous foster fight between the technical and political wing in KCCA -- between the Minister, Lord Mayor and Executive Director (Kazibwe, 2018b). The Minister was accused of quietly manipulating the KCCA budget with new Executive Director to save money for the ruling NRM to fund its electoral activities and support strategies to turn Kampala in favour of the ruling party (Takabasa, 2019).

According to the Mayor, KCCA was being managed as a one-man affair (Nankuulu) Draku (2019); the organs were not operating well due to interference from the Executive Director (ED). The Council claimed that they were unable to pass several ordinances, strategic plans in line with the drainage master plan, model transport plan, education plan, market construction plan to decongest the City, street lights, and sanitation plan including buying 20 garbage trucks. Central Government could not release money for implementation until the Council sitting with minutes, and accountability reports were not presented by the ED[1].

Given the Mayor's understanding, he exposed fraud in the legal department in the name of consent judgements. This led to the Director of Legal Affairs resigning since KCCA lost 50 billion and their account was frozen (Draku, 2019). The continued collision in KCCA was related to huge sums of money tapped by different individuals, power contestations since the Minister assumed to be the day-to-day administrator of mayors in the City; the

1 In this article elected Lord Mayor of Kampala herein referred to as Erias Lukwago, Executive Director Ms.Jennifer Semakula Musisi and Minister for Kampala Hon. Olivia Betty Namisango

Minister summoned meetings without including the Lord Mayor and resolve policy decisions; Council meetings were declared illegal (Waiswa, 2018b); Minister attended all functions, commissioned markets; met matatu operators; resolved administrative issues that fell under Mayor's jurisdiction rather than handling policy-related issues nationally; defended the KCCA budget in Parliament; supervised and guided operations (Kazibwe, 2018b).

One of the division Mayors promulgated himself as chairman, and rose to the level of Mayor; he would meet the Minister directly, pass resolutions, and start implementing them without the knowledge of the Council (Draku, 2019). The business in KCCA was managed unusually. There was no KCCA PAC, 700 staff on temporary appointment, and over 80% were handpicked and recruited, which led to duplication, hence affecting performance, causing loss of morale, and consequently, job dissatisfaction; over 700 staff recruited worked under unclear circumstances; the KCCA laws (Ngwomoya, 2019a), contracts were irregularly renewed; and staff acted beyond six (6) months which was against public service standing orders (Kazibwe, 2018b).

There is no Kampala City Service Commission because many powers were given to the president to appoint staff in KCCA (Draku, 2019). The City Service Commission should be responsible for appointing other positions beyond Ministers, Executive Director, ten Directors, and their deputies and Resident City Commissioner and Deputies. Some powers to appoint should be delegated to other agencies to avoid putting KCCA staff on tester hangers of patronage due to lack of job security (Draku, 2019). The president took time to appoint substantive staff to replace those who had left, yet there was high turnover in KCCA, which paralyzed business, resulting in poor service delivery (Reporter, 2020).

Objectives

a) To establish what changed in the 2019 KCCA Act and how this affected service delivery;
b) To explain the causes of power collision in KCCA;
c) To assess the achievements and challenges faced by KCCA during service delivery.

Literature Review

The transformational leader of ED was tasked to instil and reinforce discipline and integrity in staff, retire old KCC staff, kick vendors off streets, build markets, build a new taxi park, settle ownership controversy and leadership chaos in markets, carry out evictions of Ugandans in government houses of those who occupied them illegally and bring trade order in the City (Asiimwe, 2018).

Further, she was required to develop infrastructure, streetlights and improve public health service delivery, register motorcyclists commonly known as boda boda, bring about new taxes for taxis and motorcycles. She was supposed to re-build the city from deserted places into the Gardens of Eden, and symbolically and fearlessly incorruptible with determination clean up the City (Asiimwe, 2018).

This resulted in hate mail, death threats, escape poisoning, and media criticism, which resulted in character assassination of her as arrogant and offensive. The suspicions, threats, accusations, and personal attacks came as a result of the scope of her job. "It took decades for Kampala to degenerate. There was a need to go through pain to transform it" (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Bamwanga, 2014; Judge & Bono, 2000; Stewart, 2006; Vaculik, Prochazka, & Smutny, 2014).

The ED brought hope as some dwellers believed in her as a transformational leader since they cleaned daily and Kampala was lighting. The businessmen benefited in the former dirty City. Hence, natural resistance to return to the status quo frustrated her efforts (Antonakis & Robert, 2013; Bass, 1996; Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1994; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Margach, 1979).

Despite the challenges, the ED achieved a lot in her leadership; she received numerous awards, both national and international, i.e., she wore the Quality Leadership Award in December 2014, organized by the European Society for Quality Research (ESQR), for outstanding leadership as an individual for having taken some steps to advance and improve development quality. She received and won the Golden European Award in Public Administration (WBC) organized by leaders in Rome (Mulera, 2014), Innovative Price in Public Administration to benefit citizens, Grand Award for Integrity and Excellence in Leadership from Global Leadership Institute (BigEye3, 2015; Kitubi, 2018), Uganda Revenue Authority Award for demonstrating high integrity and excellence in public service and for transforming Kampala city into a model of governance and infrastructure development (Asiimwe, 2018; Bass & Avolio, 1993a, 1993b; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Kabuye, 2019; Tichy & Devanna, 1986).

Maintaining city order needed forceful measures since the populace in Kampala was vandalizing government property, street lights were uprooted, flowers and road signage were stolen, and garbage bins and man-holes were stolen, which resulted in expensive service delivery (Bass, 1996; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

The impounding of commuter taxis off the illegal parks, heavy-handed law enforcement officers punished over torture and manhandling suspects, demolition of the Kiseka market, working without respecting borders and boundaries, hence usurping the Mayor's powers, her belief that brutal actions were part of her mission to create change in the Kampala for the best (Bass & Avolio, 1993b; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

The ED largely succeeded in the transformation of the City even though she did not have any political background but transformed the landscape of service delivery in public service in Kampala City (Bass & Avolio, 1993b; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011; Kanungo & Mendonca, 1996).

However, the ED never took into consideration the sensitivity of the populace in Kampala, which resulted in her downfall. There was no need for meetings between the people of Kampala and its leadership (transactional) (Burns, 1998). The leadership in Kampala should have focused on self-development and intellectual stimulation. This would enable them to change individual interests into collective goals (transformational) (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

In Uganda, regulations to govern street vending are underway, but they still operate in strict and undefined circumstances (F. Asiimwe, 2016). They work in open spaces with no shelter, which exposes them to bad weather conditions during the rainy season, yet they lack storage facilities. Some areas of operation lack park yards and have inadequate toilets, while big markets like Usafi, with over 100,000 traders, now have limited toilets. Garbage collection is done ineffectively, and a few available are left to overflow due to a lack of enough garbage trucks coupled with irregular collection by KCCA and private companies. In Kenya, heeps of garbage welcome you as familiar sights around crowded streets and by the roadside, which areas are available for street vendors to operate as they look for income (Mitullah, 2003).

The growing urbanization in African cities has attracted foreign and local investors searching for markets across the world. City authorities in Africa are doing their best to revamp their cities in order to attract investment that will later create jobs, reduce unemployment, and improve the standards of living (Côté-Roy & Moser, 2019; Howard, 2003).

Theories underpinning power struggles

Karl Marx defined power as the ability to achieve goals without populace support. He explained how it is distributed through the community's economic structure. The economic system describes the structure of society. Society must shape ownership of means of production. The ruling class was made up of royalty and nobles, and real power was vested in the populace that was rich and owned property. People with low incomes need control over the means of production. The decadent political ideology prevails and alters. They impose beliefs and values on society. He warned on developing class consciousness to avoid revolution (Burris, 1987; Wolin, 1981). Power concentration in the hands of one ruling for 32 years was given to a class of people who determine the leadership of public institutions.

According to pluralists, power is distributed among many different groups, i.e., unions, coalitions of like-minded people, professional bodies, think tanks, and lobbyists. The composition of these groups is very small, but the public acts as bystanders in the pluralists' power model. In KCCA, with the amended Act, the elected Mayor is permitted to appoint a deputy Mayor and establish an executive committee, political action committees, professional bodies, grassroots activism, and labour groups (Anton, 1963; Manley, 1983).

The power of the elite model centres on the idea of power concentration among the rich. It is believed that power is in the hands of the wealthy people, e.g., the military, businesses, and Government. The people at the grassroots cannot be heard (Dahl, 1958; Mills & Wolfe, 2000). This theory was commonly used in the KCCA administration, where the town dwellers were never considered in decision-making regarding policies designed to affect their day-to-day lives.

Methodology

This study used an exploratory design because the problem under study has few or no earlier studies to be referred to. The aim was to gain insight and familiarity for later investigations

since the problem under study was in the preliminary stage of its investigation (Schreier, 2012). The study sought to establish an understanding of how best to proceed to understand what caused the collision in KCCA[2].

The research eddid not aim at generation but gaining insights into the phenomenon under study. With its flexibility, it allows content analysis of thirty seven (37) articles from newspapers in Uganda that covered the power struggles of KCCA.

Table showing source of information

	Name	Title	Source
1	Agaba, R. (2019)	Court allows former KCCA ED Musisi to attach Lord Mayor's salary	https://www.pmldaily.com/news/2019/06/court-allows-former-kcca-ed-musisi-to-attach-lord-mayors-salary.
2	Ahabwe, C.(2019)	Trouble for Lukwago as Museveni assents to new KCCA Act.	https://www.pmldaily.com/news/2019/12/trouble-for-lukwago-as-museveni-assents-to-new-kcca-bill.
3	Ainebyoona, E. (2016)	Lukwago issues new era notice, demands pay	https://www.monitor.co.ug/News/National/Lukwago-issues-new-era-notice--demands-pay/688334-3217716-auuvhj/index.
4	Asiimwe, B. (2018)	Jennifer Musisi, Doris Akol Receieve African Virtuous Women Award	https://www.softpower.ug/jennifer-musisi-doris-akol-receive-african-virtuous-women-award/
5	Asiimwe, G. (2019).	Lukwago, Kamya clash over Councilors' decision to summon Musisi	https://chimpreports.com/lukwago-kamya-clash-over-councilors-decision-to-summon-musisi/html, retrieved, September, 2019.
6	Barbra Kabahumuza, H. N. a. J. W. (2017).	Lukwago drags Kamya, Musisi to court over salary	https://www.newvision.co.ug/new_vision/news/1448585/lukwago-drags-kamya-musisi-court-salary/html, retrieved, March 2017.
7	BigEye3. (2015).	Abryanz Hands over Award to KCCA's Jennifer Musisi	https://bigeye.ug/photo-abryanz-hands-over-award-to-kccas-jennifer-musisi/html, retrieved, December, 2019.
8	Draku, F. (2019).	Lukwago: I have issues with Kamya but infighting at KCCA has reduced	https://www.monitor.co.ug/SpecialReports/Lukwago-Kamya--but-infighting-at-KCCA-has-reduced--/688342-5232842-15pol8g/index.html, retrieved August, 2019
9	Eyotaru, O. (2016).	Fights At KCCA Were Inevitable	https://ugandaradionetwork.net/story/tumwebaze-the-fights-at-kcca-were-inevitable,html, retrieved 24 May 2019.
10	GoU. (2010).	The Kampala Capital City Act, 2010	https://www.kcca.go.ug/uploads/KCCA_ACT_2010.pdf, retrieved, December, 2019.

2 KCCA-Kampala Capital City Authority, ED-Executive Director, LM-Lory Mayor and MK-Minister for Kampala

11	Himbaza, S. (2018).	Mayor Lukwago shuns Beti Kamya, Jenifer Musisi peace talks	https://theugandan.com.ug/mayor-lukwago-shuns-beti-kamya-jenifer-musisi-peace-talks/html, retrieved, July, 2019.
12	Independent, T. (2018).	K amya praises Musisi for changing the face of Kampala	https://www.independent.co.ug/kamya-praises-musisi-for-changing-the-face-of-kampala/html, retrieved, October, 2018.
13	Issa, H. (2019).	Kamya, Lukwago Disagree on How to Implement Council Resolutions	https://ugandaradionetwork.net/a/story/kamya-lukwago-disagree-on-how-to-implement-council-resolutions/html, retrieved, September, 2019.
14	John, L. (2018).	Jennifer Musisi Finally Resigns From KCCA	https://newslexpoint.com/jennifer-musisi-finally-resigns-kcca/html, retrieved, October, 2019.
15	Kabuye, K. (2019).	Kalungi's Lens: One year after Jennifer Musisi	https://www.newvision.co.ug/new_vision/news/1512766/kalungis-lens-jennifer-musisi/html, retrieved, December 2019.
16	Kazibwe, K. (2018a).	Lukwago Accuses Minister Kamya of Buying Time As She Plots To Become Kampala Political Head	https://nilepost.co.ug/2018/06/11/lukwago-accuses-minister-kamya-of-buying-time-as-she-plots-to-become-kampala-political-head/html, retrieved, July, 2019.
17	Kemigisa, J. (2018).	Lukwago, Musisi, contradict over city law enforcement	https://parliamentwatch.ug/lukwago-musisi-contradict-over-city-law-enforcement/html, retrieved, March, 2019.
18	Kigongo, E. K. a. J. (2019).	Lukwago seeks to block KCCA appeal on his pay	https://www.monitor.co.ug/News/National/Lukwago-seeks-to-block-KCCA-appeal-his-pay-/688334-5375020-ffow6n/index.html, retrieved, December, 2019.
19	Kugonza, D. (2019).	Mayor Lukwago faults minister Kamya for allegedly frustrating his work	http://www.kfm.co.ug/news/lukwago-faults-minister-kamya-for-allegedly-making-his-work-difficult.html, retrieved, October, 2019.
20	Mboowa, N. (2018).	Lord Mayor Lukwago jubilates Musisi's departure	http://www.sunrise.ug/news/201810/lord-mayor-lukwago-jubilates-musisis-departure.html, retrieved, October 2019.
21	Mulera, M. K. (2014).	Kampala's fate not in Jennifer Musisi's hands	https://www.monitor.co.ug/OpEd/columnists/MuniiniMulera/Kampala-s-fate-not-in-Jennifer-Musisi-s-hands/878676-2143596-4r59h7z/index.html/retrieved, January, 2019.
22	Muneza, S. (2016).	Musisi welcomes Lord Mayor Lukwago back to City Hall	https://eagle.co.ug/2016/06/06/musisi-welcomes-lord-mayor-lukwago-back-to-city-halllord-mayor-lukwago-councillors-swearing.html, retrieved, June,m 2019.

23	Nangonzi, Y. (2019).	Lukwago: I'm happier, busier without Musisi	https://observer.ug/news/headlines/60303-lukwago-i-m-happier-busier-without-musisi/html, retrieved, April, 2019.
24	Ngwomoya, A. (2019a).	Fresh fight erupts over KCCA staff recruitment	https://www.monitor.co.ug/News/National/-fight-KCCA-staff-recruitment-Public-Service-Ralph-Ochan/688334-5158080-mv0ov2/index.html, retrieved, June, 2019.
25	Okello, G. (2018).	Why the excitement? Kamya warns Lukwago against 'destabilising' KCCA staff as Musisi quits	http://www.pmldaily.com/news/2018/10/why-the-excitement-kamya-warns-lukwago-against-destabilising-kcca-staff-as-musisi-quits.html, retrieved, October, 2019.
26	Parliament. (2019a).	Amended KCCA law strengthens office of Lord Mayor	https://www.parliament.go.ug/news/3644/amended-kcca-law-strengthens-office-lord-mayor,html, retrieved, March. 20. 2019.
27	Parliament. (2019b).	Lord Mayor gets back his powers in New KCCA Amendment Bill passed by Parliament	https://www.pmldaily.com/news/2019/08/parliament-passes-kcca-amendment-bill.html, retrieved, August. 2019.
28	Reporter. (2018a).	Jennifer Musisi hands over KCCA office to Beti Kamya	http://dispatch.ug/2018/12/14/jennifer-musisi-hands-kcca-office-beti-kamya/html,retrieved, November, 2019.
29	Reporter. (2018b).	Lukwago: I'll work with new KCCA boss in this sinking boat	https://edge.ug/2018/12/26/lukwago-ill-work-with-new-kcca-boss-in-this-sinking-boat/html, retrieved, December, 2019.
30	Reporter. (2020).	In absence of substantive Executive Director, KCCA's budgetary process hangs in balance	https://www.softpower.ug/in-absence-of-substantive-e-d-kccas-budgetary-process-hangs-in-balance/html, retrieved, January 2020.
31	Sabiiti, J. B. a. J. (2019).	Why Museveni might not sign new KCCA law	https://www.independent.co.ug/why-museveni-might-not-sign-new-kcca-law/html, retrieved, 12. September. 2019.
32	Ssenyonga, J. W. a. A. (2012).	Uganda: City Bus Operations Illegal - Lukwago	https://allafrica.com/stories/201203131111.html, retrieved, March 2018.
33	Waiswa, J. (2018a).	Kamya orders Lukwago to organize council meetings	https://www.newvision.co.ug/new_vision/news/1484777/kamya-lukwago-organise-council-meetings/html, retrieved, August 2018.
34	Waiswa, J. (2018b).	Lukwago council meeting flops	https://www.newvision.co.ug/new_vision/news/1486829/lukwago-council-meeting-flops/html, retrieved, October 2019.

35	Wesaka, A. (2018).	Lukwago sues Minister Kamya for blocking his foreign trips	https://www.monitor.co.ug/News/National/Lukwago-sues-minister-Kamya-blocking-foreign-trips/688334-4301980-77iqpgz/index.html, retrieved, February 2019.
36	Yasin, M. (2018).	KCCA Organizes A Meeting To Discuss Jennifer's Abandoned Position	https://newslexpoint.com/kcca-organizes-meeting-discuss-position/html, retrieved, October 2019.

While prior studies focused on bureaucratic structures, transformational leadership, opposition politics, and service delivery, this research identified causes of power collision and contestation and its effect on service delivery. The study was guided by the research question: What causes power collision in KCCA? Additionally, this study examined how the power collision affected service delivery using content analysis of newspapers. The theoretical and practical implications were discussed after the causes of power collisions had been identified in the newspapers (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). The sampling technique used was a census, thus requiring the research to use all the obtained articles since they were within the required limit of a single sample as guided by qualitative methodology (Marshall, 1996).

Conventional qualitative content analysis ensured the qualitative evaluation of the selected newspaper articles. The focus was on the underlying line of reasoning of each heading of the newspaper articles and the paragraphs in order to evaluate the critical discourse about the causes of collision and what really changed in the 2019 KCCA Act to understand whether media content is "a reflection of the phenomenon under study as the situation was viewed" (Toennesen, 2014; Christian Toennesen, Simon Hodgson, & Francis Mimmack, 2013a, 2013b; C Toennesen, S. Hodgson, & F. Mimmack, 2013).

Content analysis methodology is recognized to be the most helpful tool in studying media agendas because it focuses on the space or time dedicated to a specific topic of interest to enable understanding of the relevance of media agenda, specifically on how the topic of power collision and what changed in KCCA Act 2019 is presented in selected material (Mayring, 2004). This methodology was selected because it analyses the textual material from a wide range of options in line with communication matters in various formats. It is a thorough method that included coding (Dearing, Rogers, & Rogers, 1996). The first step was defining the material, selecting the material that answers the research questions, analysing the material, putting into consideration the situation in which materials were produced, and characterization in terms of details on how the content was documented under categories obtained under the theoretical models, defining the direction of the analysis of the chose text and newspaper materials and this outlines what the researcher intended to interpret from the collected data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

Validity and reliability were used to ensure a dictionary or contextual translation rules by use of selective reduction, specific words or patterns that are indicative of the questions under study (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The theoretical approach used was cognitive science, which created decision maps (relationships between ideas, briefs, attitudes, and information

available to make a decision within the text) and mental models (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). This article covered the period from 2011 to 2019 because it was characterized by the collision of power between ED, the Lord Mayor, and the Minister for Kampala.

Results

What changed in KCCA Act 2019?

Section 6 of the Principal ACT

1. inserted the ward council.
2. section 6 of the principal Act was amended to Council of the Authority and notes were defined as;

a) council, the governing body of the capital city

b) membership of the Council allowed councilors to represent the elderly persons and workers, eliminating the councilors representing the professional bodies.

c) inserted a new section (function of the Council) section 6(A)

New sections 8(A) 8(B) and 8(D)

a) section 8 ward authority was replaced with Council

b) The Lord Mayor and Mayor shall be ceremonial in regards to powers since they shall be in the hands of the Council speaker making a decision

c) The new appointments of speaker and deputy

d) Election of the speaker

e) Functions of speaker and deputy

f) removal of the speaker

g) section 9 of the Principal Act was replaced.

h) the new law wanted to weaken the mayors

i) the lord mayor and other mayors have no decision-making powers in the Council

j) The attorney General advises the appointed Minister within 60 days and not 90 days

The Act was weakened because it reduced the legislative powers of the Lord Mayor to the Speaker and the Council, making the Mayor accountable to the Council since he is required to prepare the budget and submit it to the Council for approval (Ahabwe, 2019). The new KCCA Act created a position of Minister for Kampala appointed by the president and reduced the powers of the Director of Kampala Capital City Authority since He/She reports to the Minister, yet in the 2010 Act, the Director KCCA was reporting directly to the president. The ED exercised too much power, which later ended up in egotism and recurrent wars between the political and technical wings (Mboowa, 2018).

Parliament granted the Lord Mayor the responsibility of managing the KCCA budget with the support of the Director KCCA. This implied that the powers of the Executive Director were reduced to simply giving technical assistance to the Lord Mayor (Parliament, 2019a;

Sabiiti, 2019), hence reporting to him in some instances.

The Act referred to the Lord Mayor as a political head in KCCA, not the political head of the Authority, which was denied on grounds that Kampala City enjoys special status awarded in the Constitution of Uganda under Article 5(4), which placed the City under the administration of central Government (Parliament, 2019a). The Act further gave the Mayor the Authority to enjoy executive powers to appoint a deputy and two other members to serve in his office on a full-time basis, and there will be "a state of the city" to address the public on the state of affairs. The new KCCA law seemed to give the Lord Mayor more powers and explained why the president sent it back several times to Parliament, a situation that created anxiety due to its timing and attitude of the president over the sitting Mayor, something many voters thought the president would never approve (Sabiiti, 2019).

The Ministry of Kampala, in consultation with the Ministry of Lands and Local Government, shall coordinate the planning of the City. Clause 3(2) of the Act allowed the scrapping of academic qualifications for members seeking councillorship but retained advanced-level qualifications for Lord Mayor and Deputy Lord Mayor. Clause 6(a) of the Act created two positions (a) speaker and (b) deputy speaker for KCCA, and this development meant that the Mayor has lost powers to preside over KCCA Council sittings (Parliament, 2019b).

The legislators warned not to change the mode of elections from adult suffrage (voters) to the Electoral College of councilors because it could easily result in anarchy in a porous political Kampala city. Why would a voter in Mbale district vote for a mayor but one in Kampala be denied the chance? This can lead to profound anarchy in the City. One wonders why the Government was interested in pushing piecemeal amendments rather than preferring to make the Omnibus Act for all newly created cities in the country. Political headship of KCCA being awarded to the Minister for Kampala would make the position non-functional given the number of duties to be performed as a minister as well as a political head, and given the nature of Kampala politics, it would be a very subjective time bomb.

The Act proposed the establishment of an executive committee appointed by the Lord Mayor within the pool of councilors, and their role is to lay matters that call for legislation, an indication that President Museveni would not like the reversal of powers from central Government to the Lord Mayor (Local Government). The Mayor can still influence legislation through roundabout committees since he is the appointing Authority.

Implication to policy and practice

The genesis of the Act started as a means of aiming and clipping the wings of the current Lord Mayor Ssalongo Erias Lukwago after the Government failed on two counts, i.e., kicking him out of office using universal adult suffrage a good section of NRM MPs advised to use reform of the Act and have Division Councillors elect their Mayor on a hypothesis that NRM will have most division councillors and, secondly, the law should clearly state that the Mayor is not the Political Head of the Authority but rather the Minister hence creating a Metropolitan

Authority to handle some government business in the City. The failure of the NRM plot ended in personal disagreement, attitude towards the Act, and ego.

According to the Mayor, the ministerial position is redundant and, therefore, must be scrapped since the Act has placed the Mayor in the top management position of KCCA. He warned that if people are not upheld, they will act since the Constitution has given them their powers.

The Act separated the office of the Lord Mayor from that of the Council. The power of the Minister is in Section 79 of the KCCA Act 2010. The challenge is the Minister is interested in the rejection of the decisions of the Lord Mayor and the Council even when they are not in conflict with the ambition of the central Government. The management of the City is about promoting good policies that foster development, not demonstrating Authority (Sabiiti, 2019). The Act also achieved separation of powers since the Mayor does not chair the Council, thus avoiding conflict of interest. It provided the opportunity for better city management.

The KCCA Act was not ambitious on where power belongs between the Lord Mayor, Minister for Kampala, and the Executive Director. The challenge in KCCA was related to power struggles, which were inevitable because the institution was new and lacked clearly defined roles among the three key figures. This led the Lord Mayor to put political pressure on the operational management of the City, i.e., the Lord Mayor refused the Executive Director from presenting the budget, claiming that the budget ignored capacity building, community development, city welfare, lack a clear strategy for the City and the Executive Director did not publish quarterly reports on procurement and disposals (*Independent*, 2019).

Causes of collision and contestation of power in KCCA

a) The KCCA Act 2010 did not define the roles of the three top officials well; this resulted in a conflict of roles, which caused a crossing of the boundaries of power among the Lord Mayor, Minister for Kampala, and Director KCCA.

b) The endless disagreements on how to implement Council resolutions meant that correct procedures were not followed, and baseless information was rumoured out of council meetings by some councillors (G. Asiimwe, 2019; Issa, 2019; Kugonza, 2019).

c) Conflicting government interests to wrestle control of the City's political leadership from opposition politicians. This caused a flight from opposition to retain the political position of the City, which resulted in operational difficulties in implementing the day-to-day management of KCCA.

d) The patronage approach used by the Minister for Kampala to manage KCCA ended up in political and technical operational conflicts that resulted in the defiance approach of the Mayor that ended up frustrating business management in KCCA.

e) The political leaders incited the public against law enforcers (cruel, heartless, and inhuman), which was perceived as an act of hooligans, false allegations by political leaders and media to tarnish KCCA's goodwill among the public.

f) The attitude and desire to please the appointing Authority and orders given in the decree

forms by the Minister and the ED. This increased power struggles as the Mayor stuck to the law and kept fighting for what he believed belonged to him.

g) The unceasing bickering between the political and technical wings of KCCA (Kazibwe, 2018b) brought about increased tension and power struggles. This resulted in the resignation of the Executive Director and her Deputy from the position, which later resulted in high employee turnover.

h) The management of illegal operations in KCCA, i.e., bus services: Pioneer Easy Bus operated without a license and no number plates, and the operations were not legalized by Parliament (Ssenyonga, 2012). Recruitment in KCCA was not done according to Public Service Standing Orders. This ended up with the demotivation of staff and increased attrition, which definitely affects service delivery.

i) The egoism and damaging attitude among the three top officials of KCCA, coupled with failed negotiations to harmonize the management of KCCA business between the Minister, Executive Director, Lord Mayor, and councillors (Kazibwe, 2018b), affected service delivery.

j) Demeaning Mayors in Kampala and their duties: it was alleged that the Executive Director was building private territory at the expense of the voters.

k) They were implementing both a decentralized and centralized system of governance in KCCA. The KCCA Act 2010 approved a centralized system of administration with the objective of better managing the City.

l) Failure to respect the Constitution and KCCA Act 2010 that gave powers to the Lord Mayor as a political head of Kampala. Section 11 of KCCA 2010 states that the head of the institution is the lord Mayor; therefore, the systems and rule of law were supposed to be respected.

m) Lord Mayor's defiant attitude that resulted in failing to attend all reconciliation meetings called by the Minister for Kampala caused continuous bickering to the level that the Minister was quoted as having said that the Mayor was frustrating her business and management of Kampala City. Since Council was not sitting to pass an ordinance for Government to fund this resulted in delayed service delay and failure to achieve the key performance indicators (Kazibwe, 2018a; Wesaka, 2018).

n) Political difference between the members of the ruling party and the opposition groups within KCCA: The opposition politicians had their own manifestoes that needed to be fulfilled in order for the Mayor to seek a second term in office, yet the Government was interested in a double win from the people to popularize the ruling party and a clean and modern city.

o) Continuous frustration by the technical and executive staff of KCCA angered the political wing due to continuous failure to execute their duties that delayed development programmes and strategies for the development of the Capital City. Section 11 of the KCCA Act 2010 was clear that the Lord Mayor was the political head, a role he claimed the Minister took on illegally (Kazibwe, 2018a).

Achievements of KCCA

KCCA registered a number of achievements according to The Independent (2018), the ED's transformation of the face of the Uganda's Capital, the former dirty and dark city was turned into a lit city, pioneering the setup of KCCA from a sorry state to modern place.

Kampala released improved sanitation in the city, took vendors off the streets of Kampala, formulated a number of ordinances in line with administration and management of markets to address the leadership crisis.

The sewerage and faecal sludge management for sanitation improved, National Water and Sewerage Corporation installed sewer lines across Kampala, pit latrines and septic tanks were emptied regularly to avoid private providers overcharging Kampala residents.

The green infrastructure was implemented in line with climate change action plan by installing air monitoring equipment; asking those owning land to plant trees on private land before their plans were approved; regulating street vending in Kampala to avoid harsh measures used and massive evictions by gazette streets.

KCCA limited the number of vendors with licenses after acquiring kiosks from the Gender and Legal Directorate and physical planning; management of treatment centres; installation of close circuit television (CCTV) cameras on commercial buildings; finalizing Kampala Infrastructure Development Project -- KIIDP (Nangonzi, 2019).

Kampala looked like a real city during ED's tenure in office although it was cosmetic improvement; tough administration which was result oriented commonly referred to as "a tough cookie"; City was cleaned up; paperless system of administration; middlemen were dealt away with; she handled the corrupt officials and forced them out of KCCA.

The ED discovered one hundred fifty (150) different accounts no one knew about with forty five (45) billion shillings; she created trade order; recovered KCCA properties from Major Generals of the ruling party (National Resistance Movement) and when they refused to hand over they were evicted.

The ED increased revenue collection beyond what KCCA could collect; she introduced cashless system where nobody lined up at KCCA offices to pay taxes, everything was done remotely; due to transparency many donor bodies picked interest to work with KCCA in many funded projects for Kampala i.e., Kingdom of Netherlands, World Bank, Agency of France Development, JICA, Bill and Melinda Gates, European Union, and African Development Bank Group (Kabuye, 2019). Since the ED resigned on 21st January, 2021, a leadership crisis haunted KCCA until Engineer Andrew Kitaka was appointed as Acting ED (Ngwomoya, 2019b) then substantive ED, Ms Dorothy Kisaka, was appointed.

Challenges of KCCA

According to The Independent (2018), the unceasing bickering between the political and technical wings of KCCA (Kazibwe, 2018b) brought about increased tension and power

struggles, inadequate political support to the technical wing in their efforts to transform the City, which consequently made KCCA unable to meet the expectations of the public as well as Government.

Due to inadequate funding (Reporter, 2018a), budget limitation caused many staff to be on temporary terms which resulted into demotivation and high turnover (John, 2018; Reporter, 2018a; Yasin, 2018), reconciling the competing interests between political standpoints and strategic plans of KCCA technical team, thus it became increasingly difficult to achieve the key performance indicators.

Poor service delivery due to non-sitting of the Council as a result of technical wing which was a raw nerve to policy formulation and all business in KCCA (Waiswa, 2018a). There was failure for the ED and Lord Mayor to harmonize business at KCCA, ego and negative attitude among the three top officials of KCCA.

Failed negotiations to harmonize the management of KCCA business between the Minister, Executive Director, Lord Mayor and councillors (Kazibwe, 2018b); staff not appointed according to Public Service standing orders; developed political differences with the executive which could not enable continue performing to her expectations.

Bringing order in the City cost the ruling party NRM Kampala seat, hence ED became responsible for election defeat in the City centre following the aftermath of 2016 which caused ED loss of interest in her job hence resignation in 2018 (Okello, 2018).

The illegal structures in City Hall under KCCA involving illegal staff appointed by the ED; disagreements on how to implement Council resolutions; correct procedures were not followed and baseless rumours out of council meetings by some councilors (G. Asiimwe, 2019; Issa, 2019; Kugonza, 2019; Waiswa, 2018b) led to conspiracies which affected service delivery.

The failure of the enforcement unit called militia for not being held accountable for their actions: although it was inherited by KCC, it operated illegally alongside police (Kemigisa, 2018); political leaders incited public against law enforcers (cruel, heartless and inhuman) which was act was considered to be hooliganism.

The false allegations by media to tarnish KCCA's goodwill, internal bickering and its related risks on budget management and implementation resulted into spillovers that tarnished the good image of KCCA.

Lack of teamwork affected service delivery, hence failure to achieve the objectives; dishonesty among the KCCA officials; KCCA broke at the centre of power which left a lot to be desired; each centre of power had excessive powers -- the Mayor a legislator and a judge; ED appointed by the president hence reporting to two centres of authority, and the Minister possessed executive powers (Kemigisa, 2018), hence belittling Mayors and their duties which resulted into internal conflicts that affected service delivery.

Building personal empire in KCCA at the expense of the voters: KCCA had been turned

as showoff hyped by press and everything was left to one person as if she was super-human or Alpha and Omega; and treating over 260 political leaders as if they do not matter in KCCA (Nangonzi, 2019); hence a disabled decentralized system that did not want to account for resources and consequently denying the political wing the right to play their supervisory role.

The refusal to appreciate that the head of KCCA was the Lord Mayor: In Section 11 that the head of the institution is the lord Mayor therefore the systems and rule of law should be respected; hence the minister for Kampala should not have taken away what belonged to the Lord Mayor (Nangonzi, 2019).

The unending court battles in KCCA between the Mayor, Minister and ED; illegal operations in KCCA i.e., bus services Pioneer Easy Bus was operating without a license, buses had no number plates and their operations were not cleared by parliament (Ssenyonga, 2012).

Frustrating reconciliation meeting where the Mayor continuously refused to attend meetings called by the Minister for Kampala to end the bickering with KCCA (Himbaza, 2018) and concentrate on service delivery.

The extortion of money from street vendors by KCCA law enforcement officers (Nangonzi, 2019), the negative attitude and desire to please appointing authority and orders were given in a decree form, created a defiant approach by the Mayor which frustrated business in KCCA (Muneza, 2016; Nangonzi, 2019; Reporter, 2018b).

The lack of effective communication, coordination, coalition, and unwillingness to share power between city administrators and the Council; unclear lines of responsibility, partisan politics in the city administration and unnecessary central government interference (F. Asiimwe, 2016). This consequently resulted into tension among staff and confusion among KCCA leadership in relation to their power roles.

Conclusion

There is a need for the Government to allocate adequate resources into all KCCA projects in order to improve the lives of the town dwellers. The patronage approach cannot overtake the powers of the people; belittling the powers of elected leadership only created more problems than the Government could solve since the Constitution clearly states that power belongs to the people.

Appreciating individual weaknesses and strengths with the spirit to support them can enable teamwork to prevail for a better Kampala City. For KCCA to succeed in its mandate, there was a need for goodwill and desire to secure the backing of the central Government, with the ruling party not playing politics by contradicting the legal decisions of the City leaders as passed by the Council.

All key leaders in KCCA should keep in their lanes while implementing decisions since the new KCCA Act 2019 has clarified the roles between the Minister for Kampala, Lord Mayor, and Executive Director.

One person, the ED, could not revamp Kampala City. It is a collective effort of all residents, all civil servants, and political and technical leaders for Kampala. A joint effort is needed in the neighbourhood to prevent or report pollution, instal and maintain a common good implement, and partisan advocacy.

Boda Boda riders are political tools for the ruling party, and this makes it a challenge for KCCA to regulate their operations. They are handy to presidents during political campaigns; some could be rendering intelligence services which explains their usefulness; hence care should be taken when regulating them(Kabuye, 2019; Mulera, 2014).

The Central Government should take the responsibility of enacting aggressive policies and programmes to encourage outward migration and reduce the influx of people in Kampala. There is a need to decongest Kampala. The Government is required to plan and relocate the City following a debate by all concerned stakeholders. The ED was entirely blamed for the poor performance of the ruling party in the 2016 elections in Kampala and hence the downfall of the ED. The writings were on the wall, and she jumped before being pushed out (Kabuye, 2019).

Recommendations

For KCCA to achieve its set goals, there is a need for collaboration among the city management agencies in order to achieve sustainable development in Kampala. When achievable solutions are designed and approved, this improves the quality of life among stakeholders.

The president took time to appoint substantive staff to replace those who have left, yet there was high turnover in KCCA, which paralyzed business, resulting in poor service delivery.

There is a need for collaborative leadership if cities in Africa are to develop. The city leadership needs to engage with the populace and ensure that they participate and are engaged in policies that will affect their operations in the city.

The NRM government has over the years put in place strong institutions including the judiciary systems. Therefore, the rule of law should be respected, the minister's will to take away what belonged to the Mayor by law was not being fair to the Mayor and was actually illegal.

There is need for effective communication, coordination, coalition, power sharing between city administrators and the Council to avoid confusion in service delivery.

To avoid collision there is need for clear lines of responsibility, the planning, organizing, staffing, coordinating, reporting and directing (POSCORD) functions should well spell out to smoothen service delivery in KCCA.

For the KCCA model to work across the country there is need to avoid partisan politics in the city administration and unnecessary central government interference this will give some level of autonomy hence improved service delivery.

The key ingredient to a thriving City is leadership that creates teamwork to achieve organizational effectiveness. Thus, cities need collaboration among leaders and their structures to create a united and motivated effort in order to improve service delivery.

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Assessing the anti-corruption strategies in Africa– the case of Institutional Integrity Committees (IICs) in Malawi's Civil Service

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Abstract

This article examines the anti-corruption strategies adopted by Sub Saharan Africa countries to combat corruption. Particular attention is given to Malawi's Institutional Integrity Committees (IICs) in the civil service. Political transitions from undemocratic regimes to democratic governance in Malawi gave hope for a corruption-free civil service. However, corruption has emerged as a major impediment. The central argument in this article is that much as the attainment of efficiency and effectiveness in the civil service is a function of many factors, the promotion of ethical behaviour by institutional integrity committees is critical. Based on documentary research and key informant interviews, the article contends that the role of integrity institutions in the fight against corruption is increasingly recognized by both public officials and political office bearers. However, despite the institutionalization of integrity committees, the fight against unethical behaviour-- particularly corruption -- is complicated by political interference, ineffective leadership, legal constraints, inadequate capacity, ineffective coordination and the lack citizen engagement. The article concludes that comprehensive policy and legal framework, effective leadership as well as strategies which improve capacity, employee motivation and citizen participation are necessary to strengthen the anti-corruption mechanisms for the effective fight against unethical behaviour, particularly corruption in the civil service.

Keywords: *Institutional Integrity Committees, Anti-corruption, Civil Service, Ethics*

Introduction

This article examines the anti-corruption strategies which most countries in Sub Saharan Africa have adopted to combat unethical behaviour. Political transitions from undemocratic regimes to democratic governance in most countries in Africa gave hope for ethical civil service and development characterized by integrity, efficiency and effectiveness. However, unethical behaviour is one of the greatest challenges which undermines good governance, distorts public policy and allocation of resources and harms private sector development and the poor (TI, 2019). Thus, addressing unethical behaviour, and specifically corruption, has emerged as a major concern of public officials and development partners, not only in Malawi but also at regional and international levels. In this analysis, particular attention is given to the role of Malawi's institutional integrity committees in the elimination of corruption in the civil service.

The National Anti-Corruption Strategy (NACS) was launched by the Malawi government in 2009 with the aim to provide a holistic approach to the fight against corruption in the country. Among others, the Strategy requires that all Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) establish and operationalize Institutional Integrity Committees (IICs) to spearhead the fight against corruption within their respective institutions. In 2010, the Chief Secretary to the government issued a circular directing all MDAs to establish and operationalize IICs. In September 2017, the Anti-Corruption Bureau (ACB) issued a circular addressed specifically to all District Commissioners (DCs) and Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) of Councils to establish IICs and operationalize the fight against corruption within their jurisdictions. To date, almost all Councils have established IICs (Katundu, 2019).

However, despite the establishment of IICs, and the undertaking of various initiatives such as the passing of anti-corruption laws and creation of institutional frameworks, the country is still mired in high levels of corruption from both politicians and public officials. For example, for the past six years, the Capital Hill Cash-gate Scandal has been the reference point of unethical behaviour and corruption in Malawi's public bureaucracy. The scandal involved over 70 individuals including high-level politicians, civil servants and public contractors in grand corruption (Strasser, 2016).

Therefore, the prevalence of unethical behaviour, particularly corruption in the civil service while various anti-corruption initiatives and reform measures are underway, stimulate debate regarding the effectiveness of such initiatives. Therefore, this study assesses the effectiveness of anti-corruption strategies with particular attention paid to IICs in the civil service.

This article is divided into six parts. It starts with the introduction in part one. It is followed by a review of the conceptual underpinnings in part two. Part three presents an overview of the fight against unethical behaviour in Malawi's civil service. The methodological approach adopted for data collection for this study is outlined in part four. In part five, the opportunities

and challenges facing the IICs are analysed. Finally, conclusion and recommendations for an efficient and effective fight against unethical behaviour, particularly corruption, are presented in part six.

Literature Review

Theoretical and Conceptual Underpinnings

This section clarifies the key theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of this analysis, namely, ethics, ethical behaviour and corruption, since these concepts have been accorded different meanings and interpretations especially among social scientists.

Ethics

The term 'ethics' has various definitions, some more technical and precise than others (Cooper, 2012). Some of the technical definitions are that ethics is what makes actions to be good or bad, and 'the collection of moral principles, norms, values and obligations that serve as rules to be observed by officials' (Ssanko, 2010). In the context of public bureaucracy , ethics is defined as the 'determination of what is right, proper and just in decisions and actions that affect members of the public, the principles, standards and rules of moral conduct for public servants outlined in official documents, codes of conduct and public service regulations' (Kuye & Mafunisa, 2003). In Article 22 of the Charter of Public Service in Africa, ethics is defined more comprehensively as 'the standards which guide behaviours and actions of personnel in public institutions and a sound culture based on values and principles such as honesty, accountability, openness, courtesy, responsiveness, respect of rule of law, excellence, efficiency and economy, equality, neutrality, continuity, integrity, skillfulness in the exercise of one's duty, professional discipline, dignity, equity, impartiality, fairness, public spiritedness, in the discharge of the public duties'. Therefore, ethical behaviour in this analysis is interpreted as the conduct of public officials which reflects societal values and equated to obeying law since social standards are defined by law.

Corruption

Ethics is an antidote to corrupt behaviour in its various forms. The basic elements emphasised in most definitions of corruption are that it involves the abuse of publicly entrusted power for private gain (CPI, 2000); a deviant behaviour and an illicit form of influence associated with private gain exacted at public expense (Johnston, 1989); and any conduct or behaviour of public officials which violates their duties and responsibilities (CPA, 1995). Corruption boils down to the behaviours which defy the norms and regulations binding public office holders. It includes unethical behaviours such as misuse or abuse of power and public office, immorality, self-seeking behaviour, disregard of integrity and virtue for selfish and personal gains, embezzlement, maladministration, nepotism, discrimination, dishonesty, fraud, bribery, conflict of interest, intolerance, negligence of duty and sexual harassment (Chapman, 2000). According to Hutchinson (2005), unethical behaviours that border on corruption include

manipulation of policies, institutions and rules of procedure in the allocation of resources, extortion, transferring of public funds to foreign countries, patronage, nepotism, speed money, payments to 'ghost' workers, duty evasion, embezzlement and bribes in the bidding and implementation of large-scale government projects. Despite the differences in the definitions and conceptualization, ethical behaviour in the civil service is in essence about compliance with the fundamental principles, values and norms that govern the conduct of public servants.

Sources of Ethics in the Civil Service

Ethics for civil servants emanates from several sources and vary from country to country. However, there are several common sources of civil service ethics. Firstly, civil servants derive ethical standards from the Weberian bureaucratic principles such as efficiency, legitimacy, rationality, and meritocracy (Fredrickson & Ghere, 2013, Secondly, good governance and democratic principles give rise to ethical principles such as fairness, accountability, efficiency, transparency and participation (Lawton, Rainer & Lasthuizen, 2013). Thirdly, ethics for civil servants also emanate from the fundamental human rights which place a duty and an obligation on civil servants not to act in ways that undermine people's rights, such as indulging in corruption. Finally, administrative law defines the power, limits and procedures of administrative agencies and the right of civil servants to the due process of the law.

Therefore, the fight against corruption in the civil service entails addressing unethical behaviour manifested by the abuse of discretionary powers in the use public resources and any deviation from the norms and regulations which bind the public bureaucracy. However, the prevalence of unethical behaviour, particularly corruption, in the Malawi's civil service amidst the various initiatives including the establishment of the Anti-corruption Bureau (ACB) stimulated this assessment of the anti-corruption strategies with a focus on institutional Integrity Committees in Malawi's Civil Service.

Overview of the Fight Against Unethical Behaviour in Malawi's Civil Service

There is no single organizational form or approach which is capable of entirely eliminating unethical behaviour and particularly corruption. The fight against unethical behaviour involves diversified approaches. In Malawi, several initiatives, approaches and strategies have been put in place to fight against unethical behaviour specifically corruption in Malawi's public bureaucracy. The study established that the major instruments used to fight against unethical behaviour in Malawi are the legal and policy frameworks and the institutional and administrative systems. These are explained below:-

Legal and Policy Framework

The adoption of legal and policy safeguards and protocols is a major mechanism by the government to combat unethical behaviour. At the international level, Malawi ratified the United Nations Convention Against Corruption (UNCAC) on 4 December 2007, the Africa Union Convention on Combating and Preventing Corruption (AUCCPC) on 26 November 2007 and the SADC Protocol against Corruption on 2 September 2002 (OSISA, 2015).

The common aspects of the international instruments seek to promote and strengthen anti-corruption mechanisms, facilitating international cooperation on corruption prevention and developing and harmonising policies to prevent and combat corruption (NACS, 2022).

At the national level, Malawi seeks to combat unethical behaviour through, among others, the Constitution and various laws (legislation), regulations and the Code of Ethics and Conduct. For instance, section 12(iii) of the Constitution provides that public trust must be maintained through open, accountable and transparent government. Similarly, section 13(o) requires the State to establish mechanisms that guarantee accountability, transparency, personal integrity and financial probity to strengthen public trust and good governance. Safeguards against unethical practices by high-level public officials are also provided in various laws. In Malawi, the laws and legislation include the Public Service Act No. 19 of 1994, (Corrupt practices Act) Public Audit Act, Ombudsman Act, Corrupt Practices Act, Corrupt Practices Act (2004); Public Procurement and Disposal of Assets Act (2017); Public Audit Act (2003); Financial Crimes Act (2017); Public Officers Declaration of Assets Liabilities and Business Interests Act (2013); Public Finance Management Act (2003) and National Anti-Corruption Strategy; Malawi Public Service Regulation (MPSR), the Code of Ethics and Conduct for the Malawi Public Service and the Malawi Public Service Charter.

Section 25 of the Corrupt Practices Act No. 18 of 1995 (as amended in 2004), for example, provides for the protection of whistle blowers and encourages the reporting of corrupt practices. The Act also criminalizes attempted corruption, extortion, active and passive bribery, bribing a foreign official, and abuse of office. Sections 3 to14 of the Public Service Act No. 19 of 1994 provides that public administration must be guided by principles of efficiency and effectiveness, impartiality, independence, integrity, meritocracy and equal opportunity. Other important laws that guard against corruption include the Anti-Money Laundering Act No. VII of 2010 (as amended 2016), the Ombudsman Act No. 10 of 1996, the Public Audit Act No. 6 of 2003, the Public Procurement Act No. 8 of 2003, the Public Finance and Management Act No. 7 of 2003 and the Declaration of Assets, Liabilities and Business Interests Act No. 21 of 2013. The Corrupt Practices Act was enacted in 1995, the Anti- Corruption Bureau (ACB) was established in 1996 and the National Anti-Corruption Strategy (NACS) was launched in 2008.

However, it is the Code of Ethics and conduct for the Malawi Public Service (2012) which comprehensively set out standards for correct behaviour expected of Public Officers. It draws on the Public Service Act and complements existing legislation and rules. It applies to all permanent, part-time, casual, temporary and contractual public servants. It covers Principles and values relating to Work ethics, Personal behaviour, Obligation to government, Political neutrality, Responsibility towards the public, Conflict of interest; acceptance of gifts; Use of public resources; and Human rights and Sexual harassment.

The role of the Integrity Committees (IICs) in fighting against unethical behaviour

The fight against corruption in Malawi is seen as the primary responsibility of the Anti-Corruption Bureau (ACB).The ACB institution was established in 1998 to be the lead

institution in the fight against corruption in Malawi under the Corrupt Practices Act No. 18 of 1995 in line with section 13(o) of the Constitution, which requires the state to establish mechanisms to guarantee accountability, transparency, personal integrity and financial probity to strengthen public trust and good governance. Section 10(1) of the Corrupt Practices Act mandates the ACB to prevent corruption in public and private bodies, receive complaints, reports or other information on suspected corruption and to investigate and prosecute persons suspected to be involved in corrupt practices The national framework for tackling corruption in Malawi has revolved around the development of the National Anti-Corruption Strategy (NACS) in 2008; introduction of initiatives aimed at strengthening the fight against corruption particularly the establishment of the National Integrity System (NIS) meant to involve all sectors of society in Malawi in the fight against corruption. The National Integrity System aims to institute anti-corruption reforms and promote ethical culture in all sectors of the institutions and economy by promoting integrity, transparency and improving service delivery, promoting public involvement in the fight against corruption and intensifying prevention of corruption (NACS, 2008).

As a way of fostering the National Integrity System, government Institutional Integrity Committees (IICS) are being established in all Ministries, Departments and Parastatal Organizations including Councils comprising at least five senior officers in 2010 (Memo Ref.15/02/15). In most ministries, the Institutional Integrity Committee has two committees -- the main committee which comprises all directors at the Ministry headquarters and sub-committees which are set up in all the Ministry's cost centres comprising head of sections at the cost centres. The Ministry's main committee is coordinated by the Administration department which is also the secretariat of both the main and sub-committee.

The Anti-Corruption Bureau (2021) further stipulates that the Institutional Integrity Committees have been set up in an effort to promote institutional empowerment and capacity to deal with corruption issues, mainstream anti-corruption efforts and ensure the decentralization of responsibility. The Institutional Integrity Committees are mandated to: develop institutional corruption prevention policies, develop, implement and review Anti-Corruption Action Plans, liaise with the Anti-Corruption Bureau in reviewing work procedures and systems, organize training on integrity and ethics for IC and other members of staff, develop and publicize client charters and ensure adherence to service standards, receive, consider and provide redress on all complaints emanating from within and outside the organization relating to ethical issues and maladministration and to recommend administrative action to management on issues of maladministration and unethical conduct (Memo Ref.15/02/15).

The enforcement of the Institutional Integrity Committee has re-emerged with the 2020 government as a mechanism to combat the deep-rooted corruption in the country's public sector. These Institutional Integrity Committees have been mandated to carry out developmental functions -- develop and implement corruption prevention tools, capacity building functions; organizing sensitization to staff and key stakeholders on corruption and fraud issues and enforcement functions; monitoring procurement processes within the institution on quarterly basis (ACB, 2021). With technical support from the Anti-Corruption Bureau (ACB), almost all IICs have undergone orientation to equip them with the necessary skills on how they discharge

their duties.

The Anti-Corruption Bureau has been working in collaboration with other institutions such as the Office of the Director of Public Officers Declaration and the Financial Intelligence Authority so that IICs discharge their mandate (OECD, 2008). Funding for these Institutional Integrity Committees is to be allocated from each MDA, 1% from their annual Other Recurrent Transactions (ORT) budgets as mandated by the Secretary to the Treasury in 2014. However, unethical behaviour, particularly corruption, prevails in the public bureaucracy despite the various anti-corruption initiatives. This raises questions relating to the factors that contribute to the persistence of corruption in the public bureaucracy.

Methodology

The research methodology, which was adopted for this study, was qualitative. This involved a systematic analysis of content, identification of patterns and themes and collating the empirical evidence relating to ethics and factors that militate against the IICs in their fight against unethical behaviour, particularly corruption. A systematic review of literature attempts to collate all empirical evidence to answer a specific research question. It uses explicit, systematic methods that are selected with a view to minimising bias and thus, providing more reliable findings from which conclusion can be drawn and decisions made (Cochrane, 2003). According to Mulrow (1994), a systematic review of literature is appropriate in identifying, appraising and synthesizing research-based evidence and presenting it in accessible format. This methodology was supplemented by purposively selected informants among the integrity institutions specifically the IICs and ACB.

Findings and Discussion

The Opportunities and Challenges facing the Institutional Integrity Committees (IICs) in Malawi

The study established several opportunities offered by the IIC and ACB relating to aspects such as anti-corruption legislation and institutional policies, nurturing Civil Society initiatives, capacity development and increases of public institution's budget and promotion of effective leadership and political will to fight corruption. However, there are major barriers to IICs' effective delivery of their mandate of combating unethical behaviour, particularly corruption. These include political interference, ineffective leadership, legal constraints, inadequate capacity, and ineffective coordination and citizen engagement. These factors are discussed below:-

Opportunities

The establishment of Institutional Integrity Committees in government ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) is a major initiative by the ACB in efforts to effectively fight unethical behaviour, particularly corruption. These IICs provide an opportunity to, among other things, strengthen anti-corruption legislation and institutional policies, develop private sector

initiatives against corruption, and to nurture Civil Society initiatives against corruption. There are opportunities to increase attention towards capacity development in public institutions to fight unethical behaviour within their institutions. There is also a great potential to instituionalize a percentage of public institution's budget for programmes aimed at fighting unethical behaviour by among others promoting leadership by example through unwavering political will to fight corruption, and through improved, efficient and equitable provision of civil services.

A number of civic education activities are implemented by the ACB since its establishment. These have contributed to the raising of awareness about the evils of corruption, and encouraging local people to report, resist and reject corruption. For example, the National Anti-Corruption Strategy (NACS) which was launched by the ACB in 2008 has underlined the zero tolerance policy and accountability from duty bearers (NACS, 2008). The activities carried out include placing bill boards in strategic places in urban areas, running radio programmes, conducting workshops and setting up anti-corruption clubs in schools and universities. In addition, the availability of institutions and infrastructure for strengthening professionalism, ethics, integrity and accountability through training and development is a major opportunity. These include the Malawi School of Government (MSG, the University of Malawi's (UNIMA), Department of Management and Leadership Studies and Mzuzu University, among others.

Despite the existing opportunities explained above, there are factors, dilemmas, and controversies which tend to militate against the fight against unethical behaviour, particularly corruption in the civil service. The underlying common challenges identified during the study included the following :- failure to enforce existing laws, policies and regulations due to politicization of the civil service; inadequate political will; laxity of senior leadership and management in the civil service in enforcing professionalisms, ethics and integrity; lack of knowledge of code of conduct, professionalism and ethics; lack of lack of personal integrity; lack of discipline; greed and ambition to get rich; low salaries and poor working conditions and socio-cultural and relationship issues and peer pressure as the least in the causes. However, for the purposes of this analysis, these factors are synthesised into political interference, legal constraints, ineffective leadership, capacity constraints; poor coordination and weak civic engagement. These are discussed in the section below.

Political Interference

The battle against unethical behaviour, particularly corruption and abuse of state resources is complicated by political influence. Institutional Integrity Committees are faced with political and donor influence in promoting ethical competence (MNISAR, 2013). The patron-client relationship and official hierarchy characterizing the public bureaucracy interferes with the operations of the IICs (Anders, 2021). Donor influence acts as a double-edged sword in the sense that the pressure exercised by the international development partners motivates law enforcement efforts to establish the Institutional Integrity Committees. On the contrary, the influence inhibits the effectiveness of the IICs due to their withholding of the financial and technical support (Chingaipe, 2017). The weaknesses of the IICs emanates from the monopoly of power and strong patronage networks. Kainja (2016) argues that the root cause of corruption

is the centralized political structure which lacks clear demarcation between the ruling party and the Executive branch of Government. Thus, politicians manipulate the state apparatus, including the IICs and the ACB, for their own particular ends. The patrons create opportunities for favouritism in appointments, award of contracts, self-enrichment and aggrandisement and nepotism. The terms such as 'neopatrimonialism' or 'patrimonialism' are used in referring to political authority characterized by patronage or rule based on personal prestige and clientelism (Leonard & Straus, 2003). By being vulnerable to removal from their posts upon political consideration, most civil servants tend to serve in public institutions including IICs in a manner that affords more rights and support to politicians, particularly in the ruling party.

Legal Constraints

The dilemma facing the fight against corruption by IICs and the Anti-Corruption Bureau (ACB), emanates from legal and policy framework constraints as well as the laxity in their enforcement (GoM, 2012). For example, in most Ministry Headquarters (IICs) are not operational as their composition in terms of number is unclear in the policies. The ratio of women representation versus men in the Ministry's Institutional Integrity Committee is queried due to few women in director positions with a few more that are heads of sectionat the Ministry (MOA, 2021).

Furthermore, the Corrupt Practices Act of 1995 gives the president of the country the appointing power of the Director of ACB and also gives power to the Director of Public Prosecutions (DPP) without whose consent corruption cases cannot be taken to court. As a result, the ACB lacks full independence to deal with high-level corruption cases effectively. The ACB Legal Officer remarked: "There is weak enforcement and selective application of anti-corruption laws as they only target small fishes." The ACB leans on government directives and as long as the president has the powers to appoint the director of the ACB and cases go through the office of DPP to be prosecuted, the ACB will not be independent and effective. Although the existing legal and policy which includes the Constitution, laws and regulations, code of conduct and ethics tend to be adequate to fight against corruption, in practice, they do not serve as a powerful deterrent of corrupt practices. The legal and policy environment is not sufficiently conducive to the effective punishment of offenders and the fight against corruption as public officials indulge in corrupt practices without fear of sanctions. In short, there is lack of strict enforcement and sanctions which impede the effective fight against unethical behaviour in the civil service.

Ineffective Leadership

The type of people running the government is more crucial than the social system and structure in the promotion of ethical behaviour. The lack of professionalism, prevalence of unethical behaviour and corruption are partly due to weak leadership and management in enforcing the existing legal, policy and institutional frameworks. The major controversy is about the extent to which the leadership is exemplary and acts as role models that enhance any form of unethical behaviour. The perception is that ACB is only serious in prosecuting petty corruption cases and leaves out serious ones and that it tends to favour the rich and penalise the poor. The existing measures for strengthening ethical behaviour in Malawi's civil service are ineffective

due to the weak efforts by senior management to enforce ethical behaviour. This is evident in poor supervision, negligence, complacency and laxity in enforcing the existing measures, and failure to effect penalties and punishments to offenders.

According to GoM (2012), there are serious leadership and management skills gaps in the civil service which have led to erosion of ethical values, morality and accountability at all levels. The situation is attributed to inadequate preparation of civil servants to fight corruption and promote ethical behaviour partly due to the stalling of induction programmes over the years and treatment of training in ethics and accountability as a luxury and discreet event. Furthermore, the lack of financial capacity in most training and education institutions and the absence of training plans result in irregular, irrelevant and unsystematic development and delivery of training programmes on matters relating to corruption, ethics, accountability and professionalism.

Institutional and Individual Capacity constraints

Another dilemma that negatively affects the performance of the IICs is capacity constraint in terms of quantity and quality of human and financial resources.These elements are explained below:-

Inadequate skills and competence: The operations of Institutional Integrity Committees (IICs) are limited by lack of sufficiently trained staff since the orientation on the IICs by the Anti-Corruption Bureau was only given to directors at the Ministry Headquarters level. The committees at the lower level of the Ministries do not have in-depth understanding of how these committees are supposed to work (MOA, 2021). In most public institutions, including the civil service, there is lack of competence to develop corruption prevention tools and reporting mechanisms. As such, most institutions have not yet started receiving and handling suspected corruption complaints. There is also controversy relating to contributions made by training and management development programmes towards the fight of corruption and enhancement of ethical behaviour in the civil service. Cooper (2001:301) argues that training is a most powerful means for capacity development, behaviour modification and legitimization and claims to ethical behaviour. The shortage of personnel in terms of quantity and quality also negatively affects IICs' capacity in complaints handling and investigations; coordination between the IICs and Management as well as among IIC members; and heavy work overload by members result into limited concentration on integrity activities. The IICs are considered a toothless bulldog that do not bite because they lack adequate people with the required technical skills in areas of investigation and prosecution of corruption cases.

Shortage of financial resources: Another dilemma which contributes to the weak institutional capacity in the Institutional Integrity Committees (IICs) relates to the lack of adequate financial resources. It was noted during interviews with senior civil servants that although IICs were developed action plans to fight corruption, very few Anti-corruption activities were actually implemented due to shortage of financial resources. It was also established that the requirement that 1% of the monthly funding which is to be allocated to the Institutional Integrity Committee operations was not adhered to. Therefore, the absence of

a system to ensure that 1% of the funding is utilized on anti-corruption initiatives results into low funding which undermines the functionality of IICs.

The shortage of finances constrains the IICs' ability to regularly meet and discuss issues regarding the implementation of the action plan as per requirement of the National Anti-Corruption Strategy (NACS). It was also noted during interviews with senior public officials that civil service Controlling Officers and management teams were not adequately motivated to support IIC initiatives. Scholars such as Hope (2000) and Agere (1992:52) argue that there is a correlation between, on the one hand, adequate remuneration and in the incidence of corruption and seeking extra sources of complementary income. According to Agere (1992:52), adequate remuneration of public employees contributes significantly to motivation, boosting of morale and improved performance and deterring corrupt practices by civil servants.

Poor coordination and weak civic engagement

The failure to fight corruption in the civil service effectively is attributed to poor coordination among the stakeholders and weak civic engagement (Phiri, 2018). For example, the integrity committees are unable to deliver their mandate of combating corruption owing to disjointed efforts, absence of regular meetings, lack of external monitoring and evaluation activities. Although members of the public have a role in the fight against corruption through the demands for better or improved services from duty bearers, citizen engagement is weak. The majority of respondents agreed that there is low awareness among citizens regarding anti-corruption mechanisms including, how and where to report corrupt practices and existing policies, procedures on corruption. In short, ineffective coordination of the multiple interests of stakeholders and weak citizen involvement are major challenges facing the fight against unethical behaviour, particularly corruption.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Despite the adoption of several anti-corruption mechanisms, including the establishment of IICs, corrupt practices persist in most public bureaucracies, particularly in Malawi's civil service. The effectiveness of the IICs in Malawi's Civil Service is undermined by several factors. These include weak enforcement of policy and legal frameworks, ineffective leadership, weak institutional and individual capacity which is compounded by inadequate physical, human and financial resources. There are also administrative inefficiencies, characterized by ineffective coordination of the multiple interests and weak civic engagement.

Therefore, there is a need for a multi-pronged strategy directed towards combating corruption effectively. The strategy should emphasize strict compliance and enforcement of anti-corruption enforcement of policy and legal framework. The ACB should monitor adherence to anti-corruption laws, rules and procedures and regulations including the code of conduct and mete out appropriate punishment and sanctions for the errant civil servants.

It important that ethical political and bureaucratic leadership should be nurtured in the civil service. Therefore ethical values should be inculcated in all civil servants through

effective induction, training and management development programmes. Leaders at all levels should act as role models and strengthen public accountability. The policy makers and implementers should pay attention to the institutional and individual capacity development by, among others things, providing adequate physical, material, equipment and human resources to support IICs in the civil service. The training and education institutions such as the Malawi School of Government (MSG), University of Malawi's Department of Management and Leadership Studies and watchdog bodies that offer leadership, administration and management programmes should be supported technically and financially for effective capacity building programmes in relevant aspects of integrity, ethics, accountability and professionalism.

The reward system has an impact on ethical behaviour in the sense that poor rewards provide fertile ground for corrupt practices as some civil servants indulge in corrupt practices to seek extra income to supplement their meagre salaries. There is need to improve the reward system packages for civil servants, especially for the least paid to make it less desirable for them to engage in unethical behaviour. The pay structure should reward honest efforts based on feedback and clear performance standards.Thus, adequate remuneration of civil servants contributes significantly to boosting of ethical behaviour and integrity, morale and motivation for improved performance.

The active involvement of the citizens in the fight against unethical behaviour should also be promoted by, among other things, giving guarantees of anonymity and easy access hotlines to encourage the reporting of corruption incidents. Therefore, the is need to promote feedback and reporting mechanisms such as hotlines, suggestion boxes and citizen forums to encourage active involvement citizens, among other stakeholders, in the fight against corruption in the civil service.

In summary, there is a need for pragmatic approaches which place a premium on effective legal and institutional frameworks, leadership, capacity development and active citizen involvement in the fight against corruption. The major ways which should be adopted in order to reduce unethical behaviour, particularly corruption, are imposition of stiffer sanctions and enforcement; improvement in staff pay and living conditions at posts; promotion of greater awareness of civil service and anti-corruption procedures; emphasizing training and development; and improving the management systems including supervision of staff and implementation of a performance management and appraisal system; and citizen involvement in the fight against unethical behaviour.

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Public Financial Management: A Case of Public Universities in Uganda

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Abstract

The study addressed Public Finance Management (PFM) in Public Universities in Uganda. PMF, also called the public sector economics, is the government's strategy for managing revenue, expenditure and taxation. It oversees how the government's cash flow planning, coordination and investment are managed. The study delved to identify funding sources of public universities in Uganda; evaluated the current financial management practices within Public Universities in Uganda; examined the transparency and accountability mechanisms used for financial transactions within Public Universities in Uganda; discussed challenges encountered by public universities in Public Finance Management; and proposed recommendations for enhancing the overall public financial management system. Data collection strategy included extensive desk reviews of documents and previous researches on higher education. The study was purely qualitative and was conducted both face-to-face and online. In its findings, the study established various sources of funding for Public Universities in Uganda; confirmed that there is drastic decline and untimely funding to Public Universities in Uganda; highlighted the incidences of mismanagement and lack of transparency; and enumerated the challenges encountered by the sub-sector in Public Finance Management. The study concluded that there is drastic decline and untimely funding of Public Universities. Secondly, it noted that low and untimely funding negatively impact on achievement of the

Universities' core functions. Thirdly, it was established that funds injected into Universities are mismanaged and lack proper accountabilities. In its recommendations, the study proposed that the Universities should strengthen their Public Private Partnership engagements; carry out timely audits; reinforce their staff capacities in teaching and research as well as in publications and align public universities' funding to be performance-based; and lastly, position Public Universities to be more innovative so that the economy continues to grow, remain viable and sustainable.

Keywords: *Public Finance, Management, Public Universities*

Introduction

Higher education today is not only perceived as an avenue to train and create knowledge, do research and carry out community engagements, but it is also viewed as a business-like enterprise. Most governments and private agencies have injected their funds into this sub-sector to attempt and drive their nations towards desired Sustainable Development Goals (SDG). According to Oketch et al.'s (2014) report on tertiary education, the low and middle-income countries received a substantial amount of domestic and external investments during the immediate post-independence period from the World Bank to attempt and put more energy in higer education. Universities, however, cry foul that governments and donor fundings have dwindled and become untimely to the detriment of quality provision in the sub-sector. In the doldrums of this tension, both governments and the other funding agencies worry that funds sent into these institutions are mismanaged and lack proper accountabilities.

This study, therefore, attempted to dig into the higher education funding scenarios in the low and middle-income countries of the world, but with specific reference to Public Universities in Uganda; identified and analysed the key issues in Public Financial Management. such as sources of funding, transparency, accountability and efficiency affecting the financial management process. By examining these challenges, The study further aimed to provide insights and recommendations for improving the public financial management system in Public Universities in Uganda.

In the discourse, public finance is considered to be related to the financing of state activities and can be narrowly defined as a subject that discusses operations of the fiscal policy and functions (public treasury) (Bhatia, 2003). Public finance is concerned with government policy on revenues, expenditures, and taxation. Public finance also oversees the government's cash flow planning, coordination and investment.

Management, on the other hand, is viewed as a process of completing activities efficiently and effectively with and through other people. Secondly, as a process of setting and achieving goals through the execution of the basic management functions viz: planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling which in operational principles puts management into three components, thus: planning, executing and measurement and evaluation. In the context of the

afore-mentioned, therefore, public financial management is considered to mean the process through which institutional financial matters are accomplished efficiently and effectively with and through other people in line with public treasury operations policy for expenditure and taxation.

Finally, Public Universities which are the focus of this study are those universities held in trust by the state on behalf of the public. In public universities, governance, funding, infrastructural development and academic strategy rest in the control of the state. According to Mathenge and Maturi (2017), financial management is becoming increasingly important for public and private enterprises worldwide because the practice enables managers to raise funds efficiently and control resources to achieve their objectives. In the same vein, OECD (2005) articulates that the call to order to accentuate financial management procedures comes to fulfil the World Bank's Structural Adjustment Reforms (SAR), which introduced several improvements in the World Bank's Public Finance Systems. At the centre of these reforms is the Integrated Financial Management System (IFMS), which has acquired various names such as: Public Sector Financial Reforms (PSFR), the Integrated Payroll and Personnel Information System (IPPIS), the New Public Management (NPM) tool, the Public Expenditure and Financial Accountability (PEFA) system, etc. The scope of the IFMS may vary from government to government to include a simple General Ledger System to a comprehensive system covering Budgeting, Revenue Accounting, Expenditure Control, Debt Management, Resource Management, Human Capital Management, Payroll Processing Accounting, Financial Reporting and Auditing.

Background of the study

Higher education financing: a Historical perspective

Since World War II (WWII), university education globally has expanded rapidly (Sanyal,, 1997). By the 1970s, higher education was primarily a publicly provided entity. Financing was the domain of governments in most countries except the USA, Japan, the Republic of Korea and the Philippines. Three reasons were given for state dominance in the sub-sector (Sanyal, 1997), namely:1) the replacement of the colonial expatriates with their national counterparts in the colonised nations, 2) the states representing all their citizens had to play a critical role in achieving a socially optimum amount of investment in higher education, and 3) the equity equation which stood as another critical factor to subsidize costly higher education institutions and balance enrolments within individual nations after the post-war period (Sanyal, 1997).

According to Pell (2023), only 13 % of higher education spending in the USA is funded entirely by state and local revenues. Ward et al. (2020) placed these education spendings under three categories:

a) The incremental funding in which the states set the levels of appropriations in a given year and then, each year, increases or decreases the amount by a fixed percentage;
b) The formula funding method, which unlike incremental funding, emphasizes variation in inputs across campuses and enrolments change from year-to-year; and

c) Performance-based funding is where the State allocates appropriations based on the outcomes of the institutions rather than inputs.

Oketcho (2016) referred to this state dominance in higher education as "the taxpayer-funded model seen as free, against individual students or their families' model."

In China, higher education was exclusively funded by the government until the beginning of the

1980s. According to P. Yang (2017, p.3), Chinese higher education funds come from three important channels:

a) Governments (central or local), in terms of core funding for teaching and research;
b) Students, by way of tuition and fees;
c) Other entities, by way of projects, contracts, revenue-generating ancillary operations, and donations.

In 2020, total public spending on college and university education in China amounted to approximately 1.4 trillion Yuan (Kalita, 2022). Yang (2019) further expounded that the exciting thing about Chinese higher education funding is that it has adopted various classifications of funding mechanisms. For instance, China is moving from incremental- and negotiation-based funding in the north-western quadrant toward formula funding driven by performance indicators in the north-eastern quadrant.

The Indian perspective of higher education funding includes government funds, funds from self-governing bodies, tuition fees, donations, scholarships, among others. Kalita (2022) discusses several agencies which are responsible for providing finance in higher education namely: The University Grants Commission (UGC), NITI Aayog, Ministry of Education, higher education funding agencies, public funding, private funding, local bodies, students' fees, education loans, NGOs' funding, income from endowment, Alumni fundraising, income from campus operations,e.g. property leasing, printing, photocopy etc.; and other sources of income, e.g. income from university press, rent from university land, building, infrastructure, sale of university publications, self-financing courses are also considered as sources of income in higher education. Because of all these interventions, India's higher education system is now the world's third largest, next to China and the United States.

In the low-income countries of sub-Saharan Africa, the fundamental financial problems faced by institutions of higher education stem from three nearly universal forces namely: i) the high and increasing *unit* or *per-student* cost of higher education; ii) the pressure of increasing enrolments particularly where high birth rates are coupled with rapidly increasing proportions of youth finishing secondary schools with legitimate aspirations for tertiary education (Jervan & Johnstone, 2015); and iii) the economic meltdowns experienced during and after the Covid-19 pandemic in most nations of the world also resulted into an extreme decrease of government grants to the sub-sector. Zeleza (2019) further asserted that: "Funding for higher education worldwide has become a challenge because governments across the globe have reduced their funding to universities over the years, especially under the neoliberal model

where higher education has been viewed as a private rather than a public good since the 1980s; and which led to the privatization of university funding."

Bollag (2004) whose submission was in line with the abovementioned statement emphasized that during the periods 1985-1989 and 1995-1999, only 17% and 7%, respectively, of all education lending in Sub-Sarah Africa (SSA) was directed for higher education as compared to 29% and 46% of the same lending directed for primary education respectively. It is also worth noting that between 1999 and 2004, tertiary education enrolment in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) grew at 9.5 % a year, much faster than the corresponding world average of 6.6 % a year.

In Uganda, financing higher education traces back to the de La Warr Commission of 1937. According to Ssekamwa (1997), the then Colonial Office in London sent the de La Warr Commission to East Africa on the suggestions of Sir Philip Mitchell, the Governor of Uganda, from 1935 to 1940. The Commission's work was to examine the state of higher education in East Africa. Makerere College, the highest educational institution established in 1922, was by 1929 admitting students from Kenya and Tanzania, besides those from Uganda. In 1949, Makerere College was turned into a University College under the direction of the University of London, which financed the entire budget. Kajubi (1992) agreed with this assertion:

> *"From the founding of Makerere College in 1922, the Central Government assumed complete responsibility for financing higher education entirely out of public funds. Both undergraduate and postgraduate students have had not only their tuition fees but also all their food and other living expenses and transport to and from their homes paid for by Government and also received an allowance known as "Boom" for pocket money."*

The Visitation Committee of Public Universities [VCPU] (2007) claims that public universities in Uganda have experienced a drastic decline in government funding. The universities have complained about government's and other agencies' low and untimely budget financing (Lam, 2014). This situation is believed to have negatively impacted the accomplishment of core university functions. On the one hand, there is a general outcry by the government that funds injected into universities are mismanaged and lack proper transparency and accountability.

UNESCO's data (World Bank, 2010) shows that between 2000 and 2013 government expenditure on education as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) fell in 39 countries, 12 of them in Africa, Uganda inclusive (Omona, 2012). Secondly, expenditures on tertiary education as a percentage of total government expenditure fell in 34 countries, of which 11 were African. In addition, Africa remains the only region in the world that has experienced a decrease in the volume of current public expenditure per student (30 per cent over the last 15 years). Yet average annual current public expenditure per student remains relatively high (approximately US$2,000 in 2006), more than twice the amount allocated in non-African developing countries. Nonetheless, international aid in support of higher education is on average, US$600 million annually, or one-quarter of all the international assistance to the education sector in Sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank, 2010).

The World Bank (2010) further postulated that although difficulties in financing higher education are universal, their magnitude and consequences in the low-income countries of sub-saharan Africa are extraordinary because; growth in demand is extremely high, the fiscal base is very weak, public spending per student is declining, primary education is not yet universal and remains a priority, and families' contributions are relatively larger in primary education than in higher education; though there are attempts by various governments to implement the free primary and secondary education. The foregoing has even made the situation direr in the poorest countries in Africa, which allocate approximately 0.63 per cent of their GDP to higher education despite the continuous rise in student numbers from 2.7 million in 1991 to 9.3 million in 2006 (an annual average rate of 16 per cent), and where during the 1991–2006 period, the number of students quadrupled (The World Bank, 2010).

Statement of the problem

The public financial management system within Public Universities in Uganda faces challenges that hinder its optimal functionality (Mukasa & Gumisiriza, 2022). Over the years Public Universities in Uganda have experienced drastic decline in government's funding. The universities have complained of low and untimely funding of their budgets despite the huge expectations of their roles by the public. On the one hand, there is general outcry by government that funds injected to universities are mis-managed and lack proper accountability (Uganda Vice Chanchellors' Forum, 2017). The study identified and analysed the key issues in public financial management, such as sources of funding, transparency, accountability and efficiency affecting the financial management process. By examining these challenges, the study aimed to provide insights and recommendations for improving the public financial management system in public universities in Ugandan universities, thereby contributing to enhancing fiscal responsibility, resource utilization and overall financial sustainability in Public Universities.

Objectives of the study

i) Identify the various sources of funding in Public Universities in Uganda;
ii) Evaluate the current financial management practices within Public Universities in Uganda;
iii) Examine the the transparency and accountability mechanisms in place for financial transactions within the Public University system in Uganda;
iv) Propose recommendations for enhancing the overall public financial management system in Uganda Public Universities of Uganda.

Significance

It was envisaged that the findings of this study would help university managers to cope with government expectations on the management of finances; urge them to adhere to transparency and accountability mechanisms as requied by the Public Finance Management Act; and draw strategies to enable them address the challenges posed by public finance management. It was also hoped that the findings of this study would help university Managers to realize the

importance of economics of the public sector for enhancing quality operation within public universities. Lastly, it was strongly believed that the strategies discussed in this manuscript, if successfully exploited, would go a long way to improving government's funding into Public Universities and consequently address the Public Finance Management in the sub-sector.

Methodology

The study was carried out using document review of previous research findings in the area of study. A checklist of required information was developed to guide the review process. Both printed and electronic resources were used. The Authors sought permission for the study from relevant authorities after receving information on the call for papers from the *UMI Journal*. Relevant information required for the study was gathered electronically from the portals of the universities studied, viz: Gulu University, Makerere University and MUBS. To gain broader understanding of public finance management, the authors consulted the Public Finance Management Act and triangulated their findings with data collected from the field of study. Triangulation helped the researchers to guard against the accusation that a study's findings are simply an artifact of a single method, a single source, or a single investigator's bias (Patton, 1990). The interviews were qualitative in nature and were conducted both face-to-face and online and only targeted the study objectives.

Findings

Main sources of funding in Public Universities

The study findings indicated that the main sources of funding in Public Universities across the world including Uganda are as enumerated here below:

Government subvention

Today the State takes charge of an annual quota of 4,000 new students in Uganda, paying their tuition and living costs, including room and board, transportation, and health care. The 4,000 quota accounts for only 17 per cent of candidates who are eligible based on their "A" level results and 10 per cent of candidates who are eligible as a result of their performance on an entrance examination (Zaafrane, 2008; Otieno, 2008; Musisi & Mayega, 2007 in, The World Bank, 2010). Accordingly, government grants to each University in Uganda are awarded based on their yearly budgets. For example, in 2015, the Report of the Auditor General of Uganda revealed that in that said Financial Year (FA), Gulu University received grants from central government of up to UGX 15, 406,733,197, while UGX 2, 565,556,647 was received as donations from foreign governments. In the same vein, UGX. 11,068,563,558 was received for tuition under the Non-Tax Revenue collection and UGX 405,139,199 was received as miscellaneous income. At the Makerere University Business School (MUBS), the school was financed by grants from central government totalling UGX.17, 182,705,456 as well as from International Organizations amounting to UGX.694, 223,753. The School also collected UGX.35, 516,378,057 in Non-Tax Revenue, bringing total revenue to UGX.53, 393,307,266.

This constituted about 85% of the budgeted revenue of UGX.62 782,145,931 for the year under review.

Fees-supported funding model (Cost-sharing) and access

Under this model, students meet the partial cost of their university education while the government pays for the rest. All public universities in East Africa, notably Kenya and Uganda, and in West Africa, notably Ghana, now run what is called "the dual-track model" whereby a small number of students are enrolled on state funding and another group, usually twice or more the number on state funding, are enrolled to pay the full economic cost on their own. In Uganda, the Makerere University Visitation Committee of 1987 recommended the introduction of the principle of cost-sharing in financing university education, which stemmed from the rising cost of education and the need to democratize access to education (Kajubi, 1992). Johnstone and Marcucci (2010), key advocates of cost sharing, asserted that higher education costs can be borne principally by four groups: the government/state/taxpayers, students and/or graduates, their families, and individual or institutional donors or philanthropists. They define cost-sharing policies as those that shift "some of the higher education costs burden from government, or taxpayers, to parents and students" (Johnstone & Marcucci, 2010).

Students' loan scheme

Loans tend to have the following advantages: they increase access to higher education; they make the richer students contribute to the university budget; they increase the seriousness of students towards their studies and thus minimize or eliminate dropout; and they are considered a fair way of expanding higher education. However, whether the loan is a feasible way of expanding access and maintaining quality in low-income countries is arguable. In countries such as the USA, loan is a way of life and students accept that, and most recently in the UK, it has grudgingly been accepted as the way to realize the 50% participation rate. The aim of such models, as in the UK, is to promote equality of opportunity and equality of outcome such that someone who starts poor but ends up very rich pays more than someone who starts poor but ends up less rich. It also makes it possible for someone poor and someone rich to have equal access at the point of use. Barr (2004) alludes to this as fair to society and everyone.

Private students and other sponsors, including religious organizations and business enterprises

According to the Omaswa Report (2013), Makerere University's precarious cash flow established that Private student fees contributed nearly 60 per cent of the University's budget, irrespective of the irregularity of its payments. Similarly, the audited accounts of the University and the budget for FY 2011/12 gives the total projected income as UGX 149.64 billion, and for FY 2012/13 the projected income was UGX 164.63 billion, out of which Government's Subvention contributed UGX 55.53 billion and UGX 59.67 billion respectively leaving the rest funded by other sources.

Table 1: Excerpt showing totals of various fees collected at Makerere University in five selected Financial Years

Year	Government Recurrent Funding	Private Funding	Internally Generated Research Funds	Percentage of IGF Spent on Research
2000/2001	23,228,971,654	14,014,545,258	121,627,560	0.87%
2002/2003	27,526,750,819	29,438,099,323	49,599,690	0.17%
2004/2005	36,653,142,917	37,411,816,460	60,176,550	0.16%
2007/2008	44,147,434,819	55,701,794,772	407,213,850	0.73%
2009/2010	44,952,151,664	59,572,726,655	572,698,884	0.96%

Source: Omaswa Report 2013

The clear interpretation of the above table vindicates that Private Funding and Internally Generated Research Funds, yield financial resources far more than Government Recurrent Funding.

A study conducted at Gulu University in 2014, similarily alluded to the fact that, "there is meagre government's funding for public universities and excessive reliance on fees by private students and other institutions". See Table 2 below.

Table 2: *Respondents' Opinion on Source of Funding and its Management for the Science-based Departments at Gulu University 2014*

ITEMS		**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**	**Cumulative Percent**
Valid	Government	49	21.2	21.8	21.8
	Students Fees	39	16.9	17.3	39.1
	Endowments	4	1.7	1.8	40.9
	Donors, Friends, Development Partners	49	21.2	21.8	62.7
	Not sure	84	36.4	37.3	100.0
	Total	225	97.4	100.0	
	No response	6	2.6		
Total		231	100.0		

Source: Authors Research Findings (2014)

Needy students work scheme

At Makerere University in Uganda, this scheme started after the government abolished the personal allowances of students, namely: transport and pocket money in 1987 (Kajubi, 1992). The scheme was meant to identify bona fide needy students willing to work to be assigned jobs in the University to earn money. It was also anticipated that these crops of students would continue to be identified by the local administration and communities and recommended to the University.

Intellectual property rights (patents and books)

The Authors (2016) while contributing to the debate on University Enterprises, recounted the experiences of Earth University in Costa Rica and Moi University in Kenya and postulated that African Universities need to establish and strengthen a business-oriented entity that is semi-autonomous from the University as a training institution, but managing the commercialization of university products to include Patenting and Intellectual Property Rights of its innovations and products.

Contracts for research, courses and consultancies (Usually, a percentage of revenue earned goes to the department concerned)

Funding is one of the critical conditions for successful and effective research activities. However, some research undertakings are highly costly, requiring heavy investment for longer periods before society can feel or appreciate their impacts. In order to be able to address issues of national priority, the allocation of adequate funds for research from internal sources is extremely important. According to UNESCO data, in 2013, gross domestic expenditure on research and development as a percentage of GDP in Africa was 0.5%, compared to a world average of 1.7%, 2.7% for North America, 1.8% for Europe and 1.6% for Asia. Africa accounted for a mere 1.3% of global (research and development funding). Global spending on research and development has now reached US$1.7 trillion, 80% of which is accounted for by only ten countries.

Commercial activities (printing, bookshops, rental of facilities)

Oketch revealed that an example of a university enterprise has been very successful at Moi University, where a Textile industry and a Flying school to train pilots are running. The success story of these enterprises he recounted was that the funds generated can be used to support additional students' scholarships and research while students can be hosted to conduct research in the established projects.

Investments in productive areas

University farm, university guest house, university printery, university café and restaurant, university bookshop, university conference facilities, university research centres etc. All plough huge sums of money into the University's coffers!

Functional Fees

These categories of fees include (Registration fees, Library fees, examination fees, identity card fees, medical fees, graduation fees, convocation fees, etc. which are paid as conditional fees before students are granted official access).

Endowments

An endowment fund, quite simply, is money set aside (invested) to earn revenue to fund some

type of charitable activity. University endowments comprise money or other financial assets that are donated to academic institutions. Charitable donations are the primary source of funds for endowments. Endowment funds support the teaching, research, and public service missions of colleges and universities (https://www.investopedia.com › ask › answers › how-do-...).

Foreign aid

According to a 2014 World Bank report, Africa receives about $133.7 billion each year from official aid, grants, and loans to the private sector, remittances, etc.17 Dec 2018 (https://newint.org › features › 2018/11/01 › giving-aid-to...). This figure has however fluctuated over time between US$49.1 billion to as low as US$41.2 billion or 3% less than in 2018. Today, Africa receives roughly $50 billion of international assistance annually for donor development support (https://www.lejournalinternational.fr › Foreign-aid-is-hurti).

Tax relief in the US

Tulip (2007) explains that the federal and state governments' finance higher education through tax breaks for students and their families in the US. The Lifetime Learning Tax Credit and the HOPE Tax Credit provide tax credits of up to $ 2 000 per year per person for higher education costs. Alternatively, individuals can deduct up to $ 4 000 per year from their taxable income in higher education expenses. The other main concession aimed at promoting access to higher education is the deductibility of interest paid on student loans.

Financial Management Practices within Public Universities in Uganda and others in Sub-Saharan Africa

Public Universities in Uganda, as is the case with other in Sub-Saharan Africa, are funded by their country's government. In Uganda, for instance, the dual-track tuition policy is implemented whereby a certain number of free (or very low-cost) university places are awarded based on criteria such as academic excellence, income level, or positive discrimination, while other places are available on a tuition fee–paying basis or deferred-tuition policy (The World Bank, 2010). What should, however, not be overlooked in this discourse irrespective of the aforementioned, is that from colonial times, budgeting for and financing higher education was predominantly the domain of governments up to as late as the 1990s when the cost sharing model of funding universities was introduced. At Makerere University, the Omwaswa Report (2013) giving the statistics of Academic Year (AY) 2011/12 revealed that the number of registered students for the period was 34,694, of which 6,243 were Government-sponsored students, while 27.239 were privately-sponsored ones, with the rest being International Students (1,112) and the remainder being sponsored by the Refugee Council (66) and the Inter University Council (34).

In Kenya, higher education has also remained the domain of government though cost sharing has also gained prominence. In the 2018 Finance Bill cut, a total of KES2.37 billion (US$23 million) for university education (KES1.07 billion) and vocational and technical training (KES1.3 billion) from their proposed budgets that was implemented in the 2018-19 financial year were effected (https://www.usiu.ac.ke>bridging-research-university-b) Retrieved on 22/07/22. The Joint Admission Board regulates access to public higher education

in Kenya through highly selective criteria according to which only candidates with a C+ grade at the end of secondary education are eligible for admission to University. Of those students, approximately 10,000 are allowed to register in a regular university programme each year. The remaining candidates may register by paying relatively high tuition fees. In 2004/05, for instance, of the 193,087 potential candidates, 58,218 were eligible for admission to the University. Only 10,200 were admitted by the Joint Admission Board—17.5 per cent of the eligible candidates (and 5.3 per cent of secondary education graduates). These selection procedures ensure a level of (public and private) financing that safeguard the quality of education (Zaafrane et al., 2008 in The World Bank, 2010).

In Madagascar, various measures including selective admission to the University were adopted. Admission is based on an examination (particularly for vocational studies) or an evaluation of applications. In 2006, only 54 per cent of new baccalaureate holders were admitted to a higher education institution. Access to higher education depends mainly on the type of baccalaureate obtained. By the criteria used, such access is easiest for those with a mathematics baccalaureate (96.1 per cent admission rate in 2006) and most difficult for those with a literary or technological baccalaureate (46.9 per cent and 13.8 per cent admission rate, respectively (see Madagascar Ministry of Higher Education and Research, 2008).

Lastly, in South Africa's current model for delivering university education amounts close to R50 billion annually. South Africa subscribes to a funding framework in which costs are shared among the beneficiaries of university education (mainly government and students) https://www.pwc.co.za › publications › funding-public-hi...

Mismanagement of Public Finance by some Universities in Uganda

Prevailing data on financial accountability available in the public domain from the Office of the Auditor General of Uganda highlighted many cases of mismanagement of funds in some public universities which apparently constitute their mode of financial management operations. These include:

Non-remittance of mandatory contributions

Section 11(1) of the National Social Security Fund (NSSF) Act requires that every contributing employer pays the mandatory contributions within fifteen days of the following month. However, some institutions fail to remit these contributions, e.g. Gulu University had an outstanding obligation to the National Social Security Fund which dated way back to the 2009/10 financial year and kept accumulating interest. The figure had already increased to UGX 563. 617,875 by the audit of 2015 FY from UGX 317,118,073 of the previous year with an interest of UGX 246, 499,823, which is considered wasteful expenditure since it could have been avoided with prompt remittance of the amounts to NSSF. At MUBS, it was also noted that UGX 433, 684,818 was deducted as PAYE from salaries and other allowances paid to staff for various activities. Still, there was no evidence of remittance to URA contrary to the Income Tax Act, Cap 340 (as amended).

Internal Borrowing

According to the Audited Report of Gulu University Accounts of 2015, the University borrowed UGX 350 000,000 from Gulu University Constituent College, Lira in June 2012 to refund the funds during the FY. Still, when the audit was done, only UGX50, 000,000 had been refunded, leaving the balance of UGX 300, 000, 000 outstanding. There was no indication that the University was implementing the refund.

Inflation of enrolment

At Makerere University, the Visitation Report (2017) revealed, among others, that Makerere, the first and oldest University in the country, was entangled in several procedural flaws which placed management and administration of finances to disrepute. The glaring examples were: inflation in the number of students and fraudulent financial reporting. The report in addition indicated that the University was running on false students' population of 46,000 students while after a head-count at all levels, the institution had only 30,000 students with over 16,000 students recorded as 'ghosts'. Worse still, over 4,000 students did not even have the official university identification cards and the money they paid, if any, was not remitted to the University's account.

Unaccounted for funds

At MUBS, a review of accountabilities revealed that funds totalling UGX 547,449,075 advanced to several staff to carry out various university activities and another UGX 93,335,100 paid to different visiting professors to the University in the year under review remained unaccounted for beyond the required period. There is uncertainty about whether the amount in question was utilised correctly for the intended purposes. Similarly, the University charged the wrong expenditure codes to UGX 259, 930,020, misstating the balances in the financial statements. This practice undermines the importance of the budgeting process, as well as the intentions of the appropriating authority to instil budget discipline (Auditor General Report, 2016).

In Gulu University of Northern Uganda, it was reported that inadequacy of funding created huge staffing gaps to the extent that out of 918 posts existing in the approved structure as of 2015, only 365 (40%) were filled, leaving 553 (60%) posts vacant. Among the vacant posts were 34 Professors and 37 Associate Professors (AGR, 2015). Equally, the Auditor's General Report (2016) for Makerere University Business School (MUBS), on the approved University staff establishment revealed that out of 1,152 posts, only 971 (84%) were filled leaving 181 (16%) posts vacant. A review of the structure revealed that: out of the required academic staff, only 63% of the posts were filled which implied that the University did not have the requisite number of staff despite teaching and research being its core activity.

Kasozi (2020) while elucidating on existing gaps in financing higher education, stated that; "there is meagre government's funding for public universities and excessive reliance on fees by private students…translating into inadequate funding for research, excessive reliance on foreign donors or 'partners' for research funds". He further justified his point by unearthing

that in 2015/16 and 2016/17, only one Ugandan university had a research budget that attained 5% of the entire university budget. In conclusion, he accentuated that at Makerere University, up to 80% of critical research is paid for by donors

Funding challenges in other Universities in Sub-Saharan Africa

In Kenya, the state has continued to fund university education at a fixed rate of KSh 70 000 per student per academic year, regardless of the programme of study for the last 26 years (Zeleza, 2019). Zeleza further stated that for a Dentistry student, state funding leaves a gap of KSh530,000 per academic year and for the entire five-year training programme, the funding gap per student stands at KSh 2.65 million. The overall cost for arts courses is KSh 144,000 per student per academic year, with KSh 70,000 funded by the State. This gives a funding gap of KSh74, 000 per student per year. Therefore, that gap for a four-year academic programme stands at KSh 296,000 per student. In the same vein, he goes on to postulate that, for an average class size of 100 students, the funding gap in that programme alone would stand at KSh 29.6 million every graduation cycle. Thus looking at the same picture from a different angle, the state is accepting responsibility for less than 19 per cent of the university education burden, passing on the remaining 81 per cent to the universities.

In Tanzania, research funding available at the National level amounts only to about 0.24% of GDP. This is much lower than the 1% of GDP proposed in the 1996 National Science and Technology Policy and for SADC countries (COSTECH, 2005; NEPAD, 2010). This figure is far below those of South Africa and the United States of America, which are 0.81% and 2.76%, respectively (Osama, 2007). Thus, a funding level adequate for research is necessary to take on board and push national priority areas forward with equal vigour and consistency. NEPAD (2010), while addressing itself to the University of Dar-es-salaam Research Agenda (2018-27), postulated that the number of researchers in Tanzania in 2009 was 50 per million populations as compared to Kenya and South Africa which had 100 and 800 per million population, respectively. Thus given such a low number of researchers in Tanzania, it will be challenging to acquire tangible research results aimed at creating a quantum leap in new products, processes and services.

Conclusion

Though governments worldwide have continued to support the growth of their higher education sub-sector, it is increasingly clear that there is a drastic decline and untimely government funding, especially under the neoliberal model where higher education has been viewed as a private rather than a public good from the 1980s. Secondly, incidences of low and untimely funding negatively impact the accomplishment of core university functions. Thirdly, University Management should work towards mitigating financial mismanagement practices and lack of transparency and accountability within Public Universities' systems in Uganda. The following lessons were also drawn from the study: Firstly, since its inception, higher education globally has remained the central role of governments concerning providing strategic direction and goals, quality and relevance, and the ultimate attainment of fitness of purpose. Secondly,

higher education has continued to experience drastic decline and untimely funding of their budgets by their governments and agencies. Thirdly, and most disappointing is that the down-scaling and untimely funding of the sub-sector has also caused the gradual decline in the core functions of higher education namely: teaching and learning, research and publications, community engagement as well as the ICT-mediated roles and preservation of knowledge in repositories. Fourthly, it is evident that higher education institutions are grappling with accountability matters and the diversion of funds at their disposal.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are thus proposed: Firstly, the state should emphasize the role of university education in the country's socio-economic agenda to strengthen Public Private Partnership engagements. Secondly, the state and other agencies should carry out timely audits and cause the universities to address all matters of financial mismanagement. Thirdly, the universities should endeavour to increase the number of staff devoted to teaching and research as well as the volume of their research publications. Fourthly, funding to public universities should be performance-based. Lastly, the universities must become more innovative so that their investments in productive areas of the economy continue to be viable and sustainable.

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APPENDIX

Author Guidelines for the Ugandan Journal of Management and Public Policy Studies (UJMPPS)

Author guidelines are valuable for researchers seeking to publish their work in the Ugandan Journal of Management and Public Policy Studies (UJMPPS). The guidelines offer detailed instructions and specifications on various aspects of manuscript preparation, including formatting, citation styles, manuscript structure, and ethical considerations. They provide authors with a clear roadmap to follow, ensuring that their work meets the UJMPPS requirements and aligns with the standards of scholarly publishing. The primary purpose of author guidelines is to enhance the quality and consistency of published research. Therefore, this enables efficient manuscript handling by journal editors and reviewers, contributing to a smoother and more timely review process. Below is a precise presentation of the manuscript structure:

1.0 Introduction

The introduction must contain your argument for the social and scientific value of the study, and should:

- Clearly state the research problem, its significance, and the objectives of the study.
- Provide a concise review of the relevant literature, highlighting the existing knowledge gaps and the need for the current study.
- Clearly state the research questions or hypotheses that the study aims to address.

2.0 Literature Review /Theoretical Framework

The discussion section should address the following three elements:

- Present the literature/ theoretical framework or conceptual model that underpins the study.
- Discuss the key theories, concepts, or frameworks that inform the research and justify their relevance to the research problem.
- Demonstrate a clear understanding of the existing literature/ theoretical foundations and their implications for the research.

3.0 Methodology

This section should:

- Describe the research design, including the approach (e.g., quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods), data collection methods, and data analysis procedures.
- Provide details about the study participants or sample, including relevant demographic information.
- Explain the instruments or measures used for data collection and their validity and reliability.
- Discuss any ethical considerations and steps taken to ensure participant confidentiality and informed consent.

4.0 Results

The author(s) should:

- Present the findings of the study in a clear and logical sequence that addresses the aim and objectives of your study.
- Use tables, figures, or charts as appropriate to enhance the presentation and understanding of the results.
- Provide detailed descriptions of the statistical analyses performed, including any statistical tests or software used.
- Support the findings with relevant statistical data or qualitative evidence.

5.0 Discussion

This must focus on the following:

- Interpret the findings in light of the research questions or hypotheses and the existing literature.

- Discuss the implications of the findings for theory, practice, and policy in the field of public administration, business, management, leadership and public policy.
- Analyze any unexpected or contradictory results and propose possible explanations.
- Identify the limitations of the study and suggest avenues for future research.

6.0 Policy Implications/Recommendations

In this section, the author(s) should:
- Discuss the potential implications of your research findings for public policies, practices, or decision-making.
- Consider how your research can inform or guide policymakers or practitioners in improving public administration, business, management, leadership and public policy
- Offer specific recommendations based on your findings, emphasizing actionable steps or strategies that can be implemented in real-world settings.
- Highlight the potential benefits and impacts of implementing these recommendations.

7.0 Conclusion

Under this subsection, author(s) should:
- Summarize the main findings of the study.
- Highlight the contributions of the research to the field of public administration, business, management, leadership and public policy.
- Provide a concise conclusion that addresses the research objectives and research questions or hypotheses.

8.0 Limitations and Areas for Future Study

In this section, author(s) should:
- Identify and discuss the limitations of your study.
- Reflect on any constraints, shortcomings, or potential sources of bias or error that may have influenced your findings or conclusions.
- Be transparent about any limitations in your methodology, data collection, or sample size.
- Discuss how these limitations may have affected the generalizability or validity of your findings.
- Furthermore, propose areas for future research that can build upon or address the limitations of your study.

9.0 References

Under this section, author(s) should:
- Provide direct references to original research sources whenever possible. All citations must be well referenced using APA 7th edition format. Please consult the document for a guide.
- Cite all sources accurately and consistently throughout the manuscript.
- Include only the references cited in the text and self-citations should not exceed 7.5% of total references.

Note: References should not be used by authors, editors, or peer reviewers to promote self-interests.

10 Manuscript Formatting
- Prepare the manuscript in Microsoft Word or a compatible format.
- Use a double line spacing throughout the manuscript and should not be more than 20 pages typed in Times New Roman.
- Use 1-inch margins and double-spacing throughout the manuscript.
- Start a new paragraph by indenting it from the left margin, not by leaving a line blank, except after a (sub-) heading.
- Keep all text aligned justified, and only center the manuscript title, author's name and affiliation, and captions and legends of illustrations.
- All illustrations, figures, and tables must be placed within the text at the appropriate points, rather than at the end of the manuscript. Ensure to cite sources if you are not the originator and

reference carefully.

- Manuscript should be between 4,000-8,000 words, and word count should not compromise the article's quality; hence if your paper is slightly shorter or longer, it will be considered.
- Number all pages consecutively.

Note: The Manuscript must be original. All manuscripts will be checked for plagiarism using Turnitin Similarity Check by Crossref and those with more than 15% similarity index will be sent back to author(s) for redress.

11 Abstract

This should:

- Include an abstract of no longer than 250 words and must be written in the past tense that provides a concise summary of the research.
- Clearly state the research problem/ purpose, methods used, key findings, implications and limitations.

12 Title and Keywords

- Choose a clear and concise title that accurately reflects the content of the study.
- Provide 3-5 keywords that represent the main concepts and topics of the research.

13 Author Information

- Include the names, affiliations, and email addresses of all authors.
- Specify the corresponding author and provide their contact information.

14 Funding Acknowledgment

Author(s) should acknowledge any sources of funding or grants that supported the research

14 Ethical Considerations

Author(s) must adhere to the highest standards of research ethics when conducting their studies and preparing their manuscripts. This includes obtaining proper informed consent from human subjects, ensuring the privacy and confidentiality of participants, and appropriately disclosing any potential conflicts of interest. Author(s) should also accurately attribute the work of others and avoid plagiarism or any form of scientific misconduct. The journal reserves the right to reject manuscripts that do not meet ethical standards or violate research integrity principles.

15 Submission Procedure

Author(s) should submit their manuscripts electronically through any of the two UJMPPS online submission system and/ email: umijournal@gmail.com / journal@umi.ac.ug. The online submission system allows for easy manuscript tracking throughout the review process and ensures efficient handling by the editorial team. The author(s) should follow the instructions provided on the journal's website regarding the submission process, including any specific requirements for file formats.

NB. *UJMPPS offers researchers a valuable platform to showcase their work and publish issues bi-annually (in June and December) each year. With our year-round open call for papers, authors are encouraged to seize the opportunity and submit their high-quality research contributions to shape and advance the field of education leadership and management.*

Finally, it's important to note that these guidelines are designed to ensure clarity, consistency, and adherence to scholarly standards. Authors are encouraged to carefully review and follow these guidelines when preparing their manuscripts for submission to the UJMPPS. For any further inquiries or assistance, authors are encouraged to refer to the UJMPPS website or contact the Journal's Editorial Office at journalumi@gmail.com / journal@umi.ac.ug or Chief Editor, Dr. Lazarus Nabaho at lnabaho@umi.ac.ug / lazarusnabaho@gmail.com and / Managing Editor, Robert Agwot Komakech at rakomakech@umi.ac.ug/ kagwot@gmail.com



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