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# Kabale University Interdisciplinary Research Journal (KURJ)

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## Foreword

Globally, researchers and scientists are known for creating, sharing and utilizing information to further the body of knowledge in their disciplines. In a bid to promote this agenda, Kabale University has established the Kabale University Interdisciplinary Research Journal (KURJ) as a platform for disseminating research findings.

KURJ) accepts high quality original research articles, letters and commentaries on a wide range of disciplines including but not limited to education, social sciences, agriculture and environment sciences, economics and management sciences, medicine and the engineering sciences among others. The main aim of the Journal is to disseminate high quality and impactful publications that benefits society nationally and globally.

The 1st issue, volume 1 of the KURJ, is published with 6 papers which cover different issues of national, regional and global concern. The pioneer papers include: Challenges in decentralization and service delivery, Wakiso district; A comparative analysis of workload and career progression of faculty members in Uganda's private and public universities; A feasibility of land consolidation in kigezi region, south western Uganda: a solution to land fragmentation, land shortage, farmer's productivity and economic development; Adolescent's social health indices as determinants of health risk behaviours among secondary school students in Ijebu-Ode local government area of Ogun state, Nigeria; An exploration of blended learning and university students' academic performance; Women's empowerment role in leadership, Kyengera Town Council.

The above articles will inform not only academics in these disciplines, but also policy and decision makers.

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## Challenges in decentralization and service delivery, Wakiso district

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### ABSTRACT

The paper examined the challenges involved in service delivery under decentralization in Wakiso District, Uganda. The study was guided by a case study design and employed the qualitative data collection approach. A total of 50 people were targeted for the study from whom 44 respondents were selected using Krejcie and Morgan table. Semi structured questionnaire using interviews were used to collect data from 44 Sub County leaders in Wakiso district. Raw data collected was summarized, organized and analysed using simple content value analysis through triangulation. Results revealed the challenges that exist in service delivery are inadequate human resources, insufficient financial resources, greed, questionable land ownership and lack of political will, stakeholder involvement and bureaucratic bottleneck. The paper provides insights on undocumented challenges within decentralization and hindered service among the beneficiaries.

### Keywords

*Decision making, governance, political-will, service delivery*

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## Introduction

Massuanganhe (2005) asserts that decentralization is a process through which authority and responsibility for some functions are transferred from the central government to local governments, communities and the private sector. This implies that transfer of power, responsibilities, capacities and resources from national to all sub-national levels of government with the aim of strengthening the ability of the latter to both foster people's participation and delivery of quality services (Zarrouk, 2018 & Smith, n.d). It has been argued that decentralisation of powers to local government is unlikely to be a panacea for the shortcomings of a weak central government (Smith, n.d). Therefore, decentralization plays a special role in democratization because local populations participate in the management of decisions making. This can be a fulcrum for rural development. Thus, effective involvement of people in all facets of the society is a permanent state in which performance is achieved (Cistulli, as cited in Massuanganhe, 2005, p.7). It can be noted that, decentralization needs to be complemented by demand driven participation, conceivably championed by civil society, to ensure genuine democratization and empowerment in natural resource management. On

that note, decentralization transfers power from the central government to local governments, providing effective opportunities for democratic change at the local level which improves national democracy as well. Participation in decentralization is very important in implementing government policies (Suratman, 2013). Decentralization has been confronted by a number of challenges which hinder service delivery. Bardhan & Mookherjee (as cited in Bofa et al., 2016, p.2) report that mismanagement and lack of accountability are common in local governments, developing and transition economies. Faguet et al. (2015) stress that, the central bureaucracy's reluctance to give up power has continued to affect the decentralization process. Such problems have limited local councils in deciding their own issues rather than the bureaucracy-captured decision-making resulting in duplication of efforts and overlapping services in the same areas.

### Literature review

The funds allocated to Local Governments in comparison to the functions devolved to them are inadequate (Bogere, 2013). Some sectors, especially those that are indivisible and, or are highly sensitive and technical such as defence and security as well as specific functions such as procurement of drugs and supplies for which economies of scale accrue from centralization ought to remain under the central government. This would impose a restraint on central government expenditure which in many cases turns out to be a challenge of wasteful and is susceptible to embezzlement. Therefore, Obwona et al. (as cited in Ekpo, 2007, p.19) concludes that "financial and institutional constraints have adversely affected the ability of the sub-national governments to adequately deliver services of sufficient quality", as thus a challenge.

Citizens have an important role to play in ensuring accountability, but there is general apathy and the population seems disempowered to hold leaders accountable (Bogere, 2013). They do not realize the leverage they hold over policy makers, politicians and service providers. Corruption, bribery and hand-outs from politicians seem to be normal and acceptable, instead of demanding for better services from public servants. This attitude puts huge and unrealistic expectations on the politicians making it difficult to have regular interface with their constituents. Further, weak political supervision arising from insufficient capacity of Local Governments to effectively facilitate elected leaders is a menace to service delivery for local governments.

Underfunding sub-national Local Governments constrains the discretion of Local Governments over budget resources (Bogere, 2013). He further asserted that, apart from the mismatch between service delivery responsibilities and resource allocation (<20%), Local Governments are heavily dependent on central government transfers for revenue (>95%). This does not support the objective of putting people in charge of their own affairs. Hence, limiting people's discretion over budget resources because over 85 percent of the grants are conditional.

Muriisa (2009) pointed out that, lack of capacity and personnel at sub-national government level to exercise responsibility for service delivery impinges on efficiency. Thus, the delivery of quality service is anchored on an essential element of institutional capacity. It is noted that, the positions in the Local Governments are rarely filled and some functions are never performed. Since the central government imposed a freeze on recruitment of civil servants at district level, the situation has worsened, particularly in hard-to-reach districts (Bogere, 2013). He further, asserts that, lack of training opportunities to develop professional and

technical expertise, and lack of career progression of staff recruited at district level, low and often delayed payments, shortage of equipment and materials have worsened the situation in the performance of the local governance (...p.9). Additionally, an important problem in local government administration in Uganda is in recruiting, motivating and retaining staff; others include lack of resources resulting in programme failure and reduced independence and complexity in central-local relations (Ekpo, 2007, p.19).

Accountability is increasingly becoming prominent in development discourse (Bardhan & Mookherjee, as cited in Bofa et al., n.d, and p.2). Decentralization and liberalization in Uganda led to the introduction of diverse and numerous actors with unclear roles and responsibilities. There is lack of adequate supervision due to inadequate facilitation, lack of coordination between central and local government, overlapping and unclear mandates for monitoring Local Governments and lack of essential statistical databases for planning, monitoring and evaluation at the local levels. Ekpo (2007) explains that, in Nigeria for example, under the Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme, the Federal Government releases money to State Primary School Boards but cannot hire, fire, replace or evaluate teachers.

As a result, the demand for accountability by the citizenry is still very low (Bofa et al., 2016, p.2). The level of citizens' participation in planning and budget monitoring activities remains low, and there is a generally negative attitude over civic matters (Bogere, 2013; Muriisa, 2009). This is attributed to; wide spread lack of knowledge among the citizens of their roles and responsibilities, unavailability of relevant information especially at district level, loss of trust and confidence in government by citizens and absence of effective mechanisms for holding leaders accountable. This implies that, degree of autonomy from the central government by local governments can be circumscribed in their ability to track and account for local government funds and make wise decisions on how to spend the proceeds.

Lack of political commitment/ will, this is evident in the unwillingness to pay staff and offering technical support to the local governments by the central government. Despite pronouncements to the contrary, central governments often do not want to devolve power to the local level. National political leaders and civil servants may resist decentralization for any number of reasons, from the narrow, parochial interest of retaining power to the broader concern of maintaining national oversight in the interest of uniformity. This notion is prompted by recentralization of a number of functions that had been devolved to sub national governments, including recruitment of staff and remuneration, procurement as is the case with procurement of drugs. Bogere (2013) clarifies that, this situation is contrary to the thrust of the decentralization policy in Uganda that sought to free the center of certain functions while at the same time empowering citizens to take charge of affairs. It is widely accepted that the center of the problems of service delivery under decentralization in Uganda is the political economy of decentralization where the political considerations tend to override the objectives of decentralization. On that, the meagre funds mainly cover salaries of workers leaving little for provision of materials and actual service provision.

Insufficient funds to facilitate local government officials mean that many of the local government officials including councillors have remained voluntary, without compensation. Such people are difficult to hold accountable to the local communities (Golola, 2003). Muriisa (2009) clarifies that lack of funding at the local level paralyzed the personnel sector. In the first instance, decentralization led to staff retrenchment through civil service reform. Therefore, this is a big challenge to the implementation process and service

delivery because much of the available financial resources end up enriching individuals employed in the public sector, particularly local governments. Additionally, the funds allocated to Local Governments in comparison to the functions devolved to Local Governments are inadequate (Bogere, 2013).

It is paramount to note that, local economic development is reliant on efficient, reliable service provision, such as of roads, electricity and water. In addition to lack of administrative capacity, lack of clarity around roles and responsibilities and inappropriate focus and investments often constrain the delivery of services that are necessary for local economic development (Scott, as cited in M'Cormack, 2011, p.2; Devas, 2005). Therefore, lack of capacity at sub-national levels of government in exercising responsibility for public services is critical. In Uganda and Tanzania, the lower tiers of government lacked the ability to manage public finances and maintain proper accounting procedures. Consequently, lower levels of government received less money from the central government than before decentralization (Ahmad et al., as cited in Ekpo, 2007, p.12).

The bureaucratic and lengthy procurement procedures and other administrative processes which result in failure of districts to utilize the funds over the required time are a major impediment to service delivery (Bogere, 2013). This mean that, the bureaucratic processes sometimes lead to late release of funds and result in unspent balances returned to the treasury. The other administrative handicap is the reporting and accounting which is not accompanied by adequate capacity building. It is further noted that, as the process of decentralization continues, it will not take that long for reality to sink in that many local governments have limited financial and human resources and inadequate governance capacity to fulfil the mandate thrust upon them. In some cases, many local and municipal governments lack the necessary institutional capacity to manage their rapidly growing populations.

Bogere (2013; Devas, 2005) asserts that, conflicts stifle development because they consume time, money and energy meant for service delivery. He adds that conflicts cause stress at the work place, reduce productivity, initiative and innovation and the common conflicts at district level are technical verses political leadership. Muriisa (2009) further informs that implementation of the decentralization programme is marred by the conflicts between the politicians and the civil servants. Largely, conflicts emerge from the demand for accountability by the civil servants from the politicians.

Like in all other spheres of public life in Uganda, corruption is also rampant at the district level (Bogere, 2013). This implies that corruption takes many forms, including influence peddling by those in positions of authority, undue influence by politicians, abuse of office, bribery, fraud, embezzlement, misappropriation and misallocation of limited resources (Devas & Delay, 2006) It can be noted that, there is increased corruption by the officials who try to compensate themselves by misappropriating funds and by extortion from the citizens. Decentralization has been hindered by corruption of the lower levels of government partly due to weak accountability and transparency issues (Ekpo, 2007). Therefore, the levels of corruption under decentralization, particularly the collusion by politicians and technocrats at the districts in awarding contracts and tenders in what is commonly referred to as "scratch my back, I'll scratch yours" arrangements, is alarming (Devas & Delay, 2006) There is also evidence that corruption has led to the poor performance of service delivery of the local government level in many developing economies. In a recent citizen survey covering six local government authorities in Tanzania, including 42 villages and wards, corruption was



seen to be prevalent in all councils. On average, 60 percent of the respondents saw corruption as a serious problem (Fjeldstad et al., as cited in Ekpo, 2007, p.19).

In terms of accountability, the lack of financial autonomy and insufficient funds to facilitate local government officials means that many of the local government officials including councillors have remained voluntary, without compensation. Such people are difficult to hold accountable to the local communities (Golola 2003; Devas, 2005). There is increased corruption by these officials who try to compensate themselves by misappropriating funds and by extortion from the citizens. In the decentralised framework, I precisely affirm that there is decentralisation of corruption. This is a big challenge to service delivery because much of the available financial resources end up enriching individuals employed in the public sector, particularly local governments.

Additionally, insufficient funds to facilitate local government officials mean that many of the local government officials including councillors have remained voluntary, without compensation. Such people are difficult to hold accountable to the local communities (Golola, 2003). Muriisa (2009) clarifies that lack of funding at the local level paralyzed the personnel sector. In the first instance, decentralization led to staff retrenchment through civil service reform. This is a big challenge to in the implementation process and service delivery because much of the available financial resources end up enriching individuals employed in the public sector, particularly local governments. Additionally, the funds allocated to Local Governments in comparison to the functions devolved to Local Governments are inadequate (Bogere, 2013).

Regrettably, the issue of staff motivation at sub-national level and at the service provision units still dominates the debate; majority of the staff at local government level are poorly paid, and the payment comes late (Bogere, 2013). He further, asserts that, absence of the tools of work makes the jobs 'empty shells' with no satisfaction derived. In addition, absence of career growth and development opportunities for staff at district level limits prospects to promote for many staff to ceilings imposed by staffing structure.

## Methodology

Flankli (2012) defines methodology as the systematic, theoretic analysis of the procedures applied to the area of study. It comprises the theoretical analysis of the body of methods and principles associated with a branch of knowledge. On the other hand, a research design serves as a master plan (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003; Cooper & Schindlers, 2003) for the researcher to define research questions, identify the appropriate variables of the study, determine the methods to be used to collect data as well as deciding how accurately to analyse and present the finding (McQueen & Knussen, 2002). Therefore, this study adopted a case study design and in addition to that, it used qualitative approach as the main approach, with support from quantitative approach. The study targeted a population of 50 people from whom, a sample of 44 respondents were determined using Krejcie and Morgan sample size determinant table. Based on this, the researcher administered a total of 44 questionnaires to the participants. Unfortunately, out of the 44 questionnaires, only 37 questionnaires were correctly filled and answered by the local government leaders. The researcher used purposive sampling technique to select the local government leaders regarding to their respective locations and leadership positions. Therefore, the study collected data from both primary and secondary data through interview guides, questionnaires and documentation methods respectively.

It can be noted that, both validity and reliability were measured in the study using content validity index (CVI) to determine the validity of the instrument by the formula below:  $CVI = \frac{\text{Terms cleared by relevant experts}}{\text{Total number of items}}$ . According to the formula, if the  $CVI \geq 0.70$ , the instrument is considered valid, otherwise it is not (Amin, 2005). In this case, the  $CVI = 0.71$ . Amin (2005) asserts that, if the Cronbach's alpha values are  $\alpha \geq 0.70$ , the instrument is reliable, otherwise it is not.

In the findings of this study, all the Cronbach's alpha values were  $\alpha \geq 0.70$ . Quantitative data from the questionnaires as obtained from the field were edited, coded, compiled and sorted to have the required quality, accuracy and perfectness. Data was analysed through the use of SPSS to generate frequencies and percentage distribution of the responses on the challenges faced by decentralization and service delivery in Wakiso district.

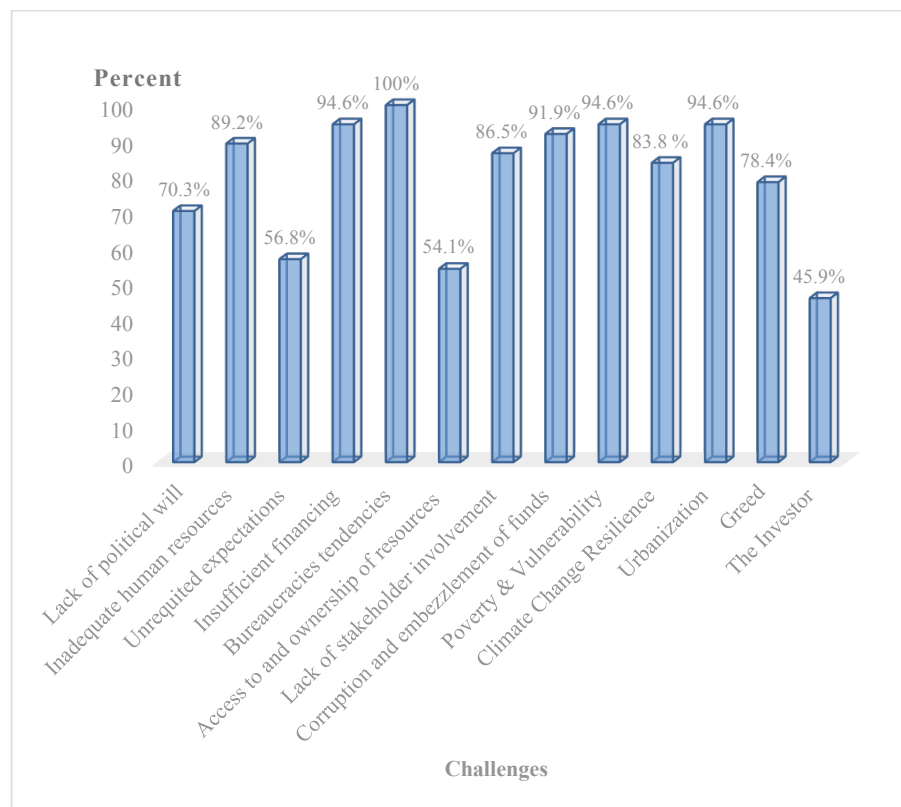
## Results

The focus of the study was to assess the challenges faced by decentralization in service delivery in Wakiso district and a total of 44 questionnaires were distributed among the respondents but only 37 questionnaires were valid for study analysis which gave a response rate of 84.1%. Therefore, the findings for the study are discussed below:

### Challenges within decentralization and service delivery, Wakiso district.

This presents the results on the challenges as collected from the respondent in the study areas as indicated in Figure 1 below:

**Fig. 1: Challenges involved within decentralization in service delivery in Wakiso**



Source: Primary Data, 2019

Results in Figure 1 above indicates that, majority of the respondents (100%) reported bureaucratic tendencies as a major challenge for the decentralization process in Wakiso district local governance. This was followed by insufficient financing, poverty, vulnerability and urbanization as the other challenges facing the decentralization process and these accounted for 94.6% respectively. These challenges are not only affecting Wakiso but even other local governments in Uganda including other local governments in the African continent as well as many developing countries across the globe. The respondents also reported other challenges to be affecting the decentralization implementation process and they included; corruption and embezzlement of funds (91.9%), inadequate human resources (89.2%), lack of stakeholders' involvement (86.5%) and climate change resilience (83.3%). Additionally, greed (78.4%) and lack of political will (70.3%) had an impact on the decentralization implementation process in Wakiso district respectively. Further, respondents revealed unrequited expectation (56.8%), access to and ownership of resources (54.1%) and the investor (45.9%) as challenges to the decentralization implementation process, though at a lesser extent respectively.

## Discussions

### Challenges facing by decentralization service delivery in Wakiso Local Government

Results indicated that bureaucratic tendencies pose a major challenge to decentralization and contribution to service delivery. The bureaucratic and lengthy procurement procedures and other administrative processes which result in failure of districts to utilize the funds over the required time are a major impediment to service delivery (Bogere, 2013). Further, Faguet et al. (2015) stress that; the central bureaucracy's reluctance to give up power has continued to affect the decentralization and service delivery. This denotes that in areas where the long process are exhibited, the delivery of services is halted and led to poor performance of the local governance. This also affirmed by Ekpo (2007) who explains that in Nigeria, under the Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme, the Federal Government releases money to State Primary School Boards but cannot hire, fire, replace or evaluate teachers. For the case of Wakiso, the procedures gone through for any service are very long and sometimes the beneficiaries give-up. This has been evident in the lands department, social services, among others.

Furthermore, findings of the study indicated insufficient funding as a challenge to decentralization in Wakiso district. It was revealed that the district is underfunded by the central governance. The findings concur with Bogere (2013) who asserts that, funds allocated to Local Governments in comparison to the functions devolved to Local Governments are inadequate. Despite the district being underfunded, it is one of the district which collects the largest sums of revenue in the country which it sends to the government treasury. Insufficient funds to facilitate local government officials means that many of the local government officials including councillors have remained voluntary, without compensation. Such people are difficult to hold accountable to the local communities (Golola, 2003). Unfortunately, the government remits limited amount to the local governance, and reported that for this year, the employees have not been paid for over three months. The question is, if the workers are not paid on time, how do you expect them to perform their duties and improve service delivery? Bogere (2013) adds that, staff motivation at sub-national level and at the service provision units still dominates the debate; majority of the staff at local government level are poorly paid, and the payment comes late.

Regrettably, poverty and vulnerability have been paramount into failed centralization and service delivery in the district. This implies that, the district has high population of poor people who are vulnerable to a number of disasters. The district surrounded by Kampala City which has extended its problems to the area for example high crimes rate, murder, theft and land grabbing which have worsened the district's performance. Based on the above statements, World Bank (as cited in Ekpo, 2007, p.12) asserts that, the tangential problems to decentralization confront sub-national governments lead to over borrowing to lessen the poverty levels of the citizens. He affirms that, in Argentina, the citizens could not sustain themselves with social services and other basic needs of life by the end of 2001 due to deterioration of service quality. This led to increased poverty rates by 40%, medical demands exceeded supply in almost all the public hospitals and there were many school closings during that year. This does not only manifest itself in Argentina, but it is also paramount in the Wakiso and other districts with the country. This indicates that, the local governments have to incur too much costs to address the poverty levels and as well as improving the social amenities for better livelihoods, though they are constrained by financing.

Based on the study findings, corruption and embezzlement of funds were reported to have bottlenecks effects on the decentralization process and its role in service delivery. Respondents noted that, there is high rates of corruption and embezzlement of funds at the district. This have been evidences that, those who receive the money for service delivery in district, they end up using the money for their own gains. Like in all other spheres of public life in Uganda, corruption is also rampant at the district level (Bogere, 2013). This implies that, decentralization cannot enhance service delivery in the area to ensure growth. Lack of capacity at sub-national levels of government in exercising responsibility for public services. Adds to the dilemma. Ahmad et al. (as cited in Ekpo, 2007, p.12) claims that, in Uganda and Tanzania, the lower tiers of government lacked the ability to manage public finances and maintain proper accounting procedures. Consequently, lower levels of government received less money than before decentralization. Additionally, corruption has been noted in the district service commission. To receive service from such agencies at the district, requires one to bribe his/her way through.

The results also indicated that inadequate human resources as another challenge faced by the decentralization and service delivery in the area. Muriisa (2009) pointed out that, lack of capacity and personnel at sub-national government level to exercise responsibility for service delivery is critical for success. The district does not have the required number of experts per the various positions. The employment/ opportunities are based on the technical knowhow, which does not depend on merit of the applicants. Implying that, since the freeze on recruitment of civil service at district level was imposed by the central government, the situation has worsened, particularly in hard-to-reach districts (Bogere, 2013). However, this is not only in Wakiso but a disease across the country within various governance agencies. Based on the technical knowhow, you find an environmental professional heads the physical planning unit, a situation that can hardly be considered normal. Therefore, the district had limited human resources which cannot support the activities undertaken. In addition to lack of administrative capacity, lack of clarity around roles and responsibilities and inappropriate focus and investments often constrain the delivery of services that are necessary for local economic development (Scott, as cited in M'Cormack, 2011, p.2). Ekpo (2007, p.19) stipulates that, local government administration in Uganda Wakiso inclusive, are faced with problems in recruiting, motivating and retaining staff; others include lack of resources resulting in programme failure and reduced independence and complexity in central-local relations.

The findings show that, lack of stakeholders' involvement in the decision making process which are key for service delivery as meant by the decentralization is vital. This implies that, effective involvement of people in all facets of the society is a permanent state in which performance is achieved (Cistulli, as cited in Massuanganhe, 2005, p.7; Suratman, 2013). In most cases, the decisions are taken based on up-bottom approach of which the citizens lack sense of ownership. This implies stakeholders involvement helps in the transfer of power, responsibilities, capacities and resources from national to all sub-national levels of government with the aim of strengthening the ability of the latter to both foster people's participation and delivery of quality services (Zarrouk, 2018 & Smith, n.d). Evidences show that, in the areas where decision-making and policies are made together with the stakeholders, a sense of ownership and efficient service delivery is enhanced. The level of citizens' participation in planning and budget monitoring activities remains low, and there is a generally negative attitude over civic matters (Bogere, 2013; Muriisa, 2009). In addition, take an example, where women are given a right to access owner resources, inclusion of all gender in decision making and leadership are significant means for efficient service delivery.

Additionally, another challenge to decentralization is climate change resilience. This has been as a result of deforestation, wetland destruction and uncontrolled agriculture in the district. It is noted that, the destruction of forests and wetlands have resulted into climate change phenomena such drought, floods and diseases outbreaks. When such calamities occur, the district incurs more costs to avert them. This means that revenues from the forests, wetlands and any other nature resources have been lowered due to their deterioration.

Moreover, greed of those in the leadership position at the district level who want to take everything as theirs put the decentralization process in further distress. It was revealed that, the officers compromise the poor and destroy what would have enhanced service delivery. And for God's sake, the elected representatives, never mind, because ordinary citizens are rarely in a position to check the details of the use of resources (Devas & Delay, 2006). This means that, the poor in areas with many resources are denied the use while investors have full access to the same. This was common on Lake Victoria shores, where the Chinese invaded the lake and started mining sand and denied other the opportunity to do so. Therefore, level of corruption under decentralization, particularly the collusion by politicians and technocrats at the districts in awarding contracts and tenders in what is commonly referred to as "scratch my back, I will scratch yours" arrangements, is alarming. Bardhan & Mookherjee (as cited in Bofa et al., n.d, p.2) reports that mismanagement and lack of accountability are common in local governments and theses are common in developing and transition economies.

Interestingly, increased lack of political will by the central government towards the support of local governments does not help. Bogere (2013) clarifies that, this situation is contrary to the thrust of the decentralization policy in Uganda that sought to free the center of certain functions while at the same time empowering citizens to take charge of their affairs. The interests of the government are far away from supporting local governments, though many have been created another new districts have been created but with no services. Responses indicated that, there is increased number of newly created districts but these are not supported, of which most of them have no technical staff, technologies, infrastructures, and limited capital technologies to support their activities. It was noted that some officers operate their activities in poor housing even below the shades of the trees. This implies, the central government has to construct housing,

roads and extend power to search areas in poor conditions to improve their service delivery in those locations. Furthermore, the respondents reported that the unrequited expectations by the local governments had hindered service delivery in the region. This relates to the unexpected works/ uncoordinated services to be undertaken by those in the decentralization process. For example, money sent to the local governments and failure to use it result in those monies to be refunded to the government treasury. Therefore, there is a need to have clear plans and logical frameworks to guide the scheduled activities in the operation areas of the district. This is also confirmed by Ekpo (2007) who denotes that misaligned responsibilities either due to incomplete process or for political reasons have affected the decentralization process and service delivery to the citizens. Additionally, the uncompleted services/ expectations are as a result of uncoordinated activities, inadequate financing and limited human resources among others.

It was also reported access to and ownership of resources as a challenge to decentralization in Wakiso district. Some of the respondents revealed that the increased land grabbing and unknown land ownership of land resources had worsened the situation for decentralization. Despite most land resources like forests, wetlands and the lake are State owned resources on behalf of the citizens as per the Uganda Constitution, 1995 as amended, they have been falsely owned by unknown people. Those who own them, have not contributed any levies to the district finance treasury but they only misuse them for their own benefits. Bogere (2013) clarifies that, this situation is contrary to the thrust of the decentralization policy in Uganda that sought to free the center of certain functions while at the same time empowering citizens to take charge of affairs. The investor was also reported as a challenge to decentralization. The study revealed that Wakiso is faced with a challenge of the 'so-called investors' in almost every corner of the district. Unfortunately, these investors do not follow the guidelines and regulations of the district neither do they follow the government guidelines on investments. One of the respondents asserted that, what we think to be investors, they are just employees of the big officials in the government 'Invisible Hand'. This implies that, the powers of decentralization have not been evidenced in the in the district, but benefit only those who are part of the investor.

## Conclusion and Recommendation

Decentralization has become in theory one way of ensuring good governance and effective service delivery in most developing countries in recent times. However, reality shows that for decentralization to succeed it needs the confidence and commitment of central governments through putting in place the right policy and appropriate institutional framework. This implies that decentralization is a key to promote central government's role through various approaches to the implementation process.

Therefore, government should avail human and financial resources to local governments, promote good governance, ensures political will and reduce technical inadequacies in the decentralization process and service delivery.



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## A feasibility of land consolidation in kigezi region, south western Uganda: a solution to land fragmentation, land shortage, farmer's productivity and economic development

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### ABSTRACT

The cooperative societies which have existed in Uganda for a longtime have been mainly on Agricultural products and marketing and not necessarily on land use management and productivity. This article therefore, is about land use management and the reverse of the effects of land fragmentation and their related problems such as land conflicts, population pressure, poverty, productivity, and land scarcity and the solutions to these problems. The idea of land consolidation is being introduced in the article as putting together plots or pieces of land which exist in Kigezi Region, with the aim of making them economically viable and more productive per unit of investment. This need not change the amount of land owned and controlled by individuals, and therefore not necessarily an instrument of social justice but an answer to land scarcity and fragmentation in Kigezi Region. The article compares the benefits of the land under fragmentation and the land under consolidation systems and recommends strategies to transform Kigezi Region's informal and subsistence farming system to modern, commercial agriculture to achieve food security and increase incomes of the population and economic development of the area.

### Keywords

*Land consolidation; Land fragmentation; Land Shortage; Agricultural productivity*

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## Introduction

Land is the main asset for livelihood of many African people on which development and general social progress is based (Bizoza and Havugimana, 2013 and Nilsson, 2017). With increasing population, the problem of land scarcity and land fragmentation continues to affect development in Kigezi Region and subsequently affecting food security and crop production to allow them have food surplus to generate income. The Driver of land reform policy in Uganda of 2013, should have been to improve land use management and to reverse the adverse effects of land fragmentation and related problems concerning land disputes prevailing in Uganda. This was not covered in the land reform policy of 2013. The method of reversing the effect of land fragmentation in the country is the application of land use consolidation which should have been an answer to the societies where there are lots of land fragmentation (Deininger *et al.*, 2012) This was not the case for Kigezi region.



Most of the lecturers in Uganda's universities grapple with slow or no progress in their careers to the extent that they experience low professional empowerment (Ddungu, 2014). Most of them face low promotion prospects (Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005; Daisy, 2019; Ndyabahika, 2019) and low remuneration which contribute significantly to their job dissatisfaction (Yawe, 2010; Kyaligonza *et al.*, 2015; Rwebiita, 2019; Evans *et al.*, 2020; Kazibwe, 2020; Mukhayе, 2021).

Previous research has identified different factors to explain low or rare career progression among faculty members in Uganda's universities, but workload has not been adequately analysed. Indeed, the identified and analysed factors include not conducting research necessary to build the required publication profile and lack of funding needed to sponsor research and further training (Kyaligonza *et al.*, 2015). Other factors include lack of inspiring mentors and colleagues, low job interest, discrimination, supervisor sabotage, and not implementing due promotions because of budgetary constraints (Safari & Niazazari, 2014; Samani, 2017; O'Shea1 & McGrath, 2018). Studies that identified workload as an explanatory factor were conducted outside Uganda (Subramaniam, 2003; Adu & Okeke, 2014; Hosain, 2016; Parimita *et al.*, 2017; Garner, 2018; Ingusci *et al.*, 2019; Khetarpal, 2020). They therefore, depict a contextual gap in that they do not explain how the amount of allocated workload explains career progression of faculty members in Uganda's universities. Moreover, these studies did not delve into whether the effect of workload differs between private and public universities, nor did they look into the factors determining the amount of workload assigned to employees. The purpose of this study is therefore to fill these gaps by providing a comparative examination of the amount of allocated workload as assessed by faculty members, factors determining it, and how it affects the level of their career progression within the context of Uganda's private and public universities. This analysis is important in that it provides an empirical basis that these universities' management can use to revise their workload allocation by taking appropriate action into the factors influencing it.

## Literature review

### Theoretical review

Different theories have been developed to explain career progression and factors explaining it. These include the Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA), also referred to as person- environment correspondence theory, Holland's theory of vocational personalities in work environment, self-concept theory, Gottfredson's theory of circumscription and compromise, and social cognitive career theory (Jena & Nayak, 2020). This paper is however, grounded in the TWA.

TWA attempts to explain how employees attain a fit between the requirements of the work environment and satisfaction of their personal values and needs (Shtivelband, 2014). The requirements of the work environment tend to be different, but this paper focuses on workload, since it is a core requirement any work environment imposes on every employee (Ingusci *et al.*, 2019; Khetarpal, 2020). Likewise, the values or needs employees seek to satisfy tend to differ as Maslow's hierarchy of needs indicates, but this paper focuses on career progression, identified by as a self-actualisation need (Johnson *et al.*, 2018; Logan & Everall, 2019), and one that increases job satisfaction as Herzberg's Two-factor theory asserts (Sobaih & Hasanein, 2020).

TWA posits that the extent to which employees balance their values and needs with work requirements is determined by how they adjust to and accommodate these requirements (operationalised in this paper as workload). Adjustment describes an employee's flexibility in terms of how he or she changes to fit the work environment while accommodation describes his or her tolerance and perseverance with work-related dissatisfaction in the process of establishing a proper fit (Librizz & Dahling, 2014). This paper analyses how an employee (a faculty member) changes to fit the assigned workload and how he or she tolerates and perseveres with the dissatisfaction associated with it to pursue career progression as a need.

### Career Progression

Different scholars have shown interest in understanding the concept of career progression (Schuster & Associates, 2010; Logan & Everall, 2019; Sobaih & Hasanein, 2020; Maheshwari & Krishnan, n.d; Waltz, n.d). Some of them describe it as a concept that connotes employees' upward mobility in their professions, measured in terms of a rise in job rank, increase in remuneration, greater meaningfulness of a job, more autonomy in decision making, and rising exposure to impactful opportunities (Straw, 2017; Parker *et al.*, 2018; Belyh, 2019; Maheshwari & Krishnan, n.d). This definition suggests career progression connotes an employees' ascendance in job position, responsibility, income level, and autonomy that translates into a more gratifying state as far as realising their self-fulfilment goals is concerned. Scholars who have analysed career progression within the context of faculty members have shown that it connotes a systematic ascendance from a teaching assistant through a lecturer, senior lecturer, associated professor to a full professor while also assuming more administrative and leadership responsibilities, greater power to influence the direction of their field, more gratifying rewards, and becoming exposed to more opportunities realising self-fulfilment (Airini *et al.*, 2011; Waltz, n.d). Important to note about all these scholars and writers is that while the providing the meaning of career progression as a concept, none of them examines how it is influenced by the workload assigned to employees, a gap that this paper fills within the context of faculty members in Uganda's universities.

### Faculty Workload

A number of studies have been conducted about the workload of faculty members (Chiappetta-Swanson & Watt, 2011; Grant, Hackney & Edgar, 2014; Dimitrova, 2016; Hosain, 2016; Bacwayo *et al.*, 2017; Ndayambaje, 2018; Miller *et al.*, Lee, 2020; Nsereko, n.d). All these studies agree that faculty workload is often measured in terms of time-based activities allocated to lecturers in terms of teaching, research supervision, administrative assignments, and community outreach. Teaching activities include searching for content relevant to cover lecturers allocated to be delivered to students; planning for each lecture before delivery; delivering lectures; students' continuous assessment through giving and marking coursework and tests; annual student evaluation through setting, invigilating, and marking examinations; and compiling marks to submit for student grading and certification.

Research supervision involves faculty members interacting with research students allocated to them in intent to provide reliable mentorship by giving them necessary guidance and direction through listening to them to grasp their perspective of the research, and correcting their research proposals and dissertations as they develop them until they meet the ethical and research standards of the university (Chiappetta-Swanson & Watt, 2011; Bacwayo *et al.*, 2017).

It also involves monitoring research students, giving them feedback and encouraging them by checking on their research progress (Grant *et al.*, 2014; Ndayambaje, 2018). Providing these research supervisory services involves a faculty member motivating, welcoming, being affectionate, understandable, easy to access and creating collegial relationship with research students (Dimitrova, 2016).

Administrative work includes carrying out activities assigned by supervisors, including organising, chairing or attending meetings, attending faculty meetings, contributing to departmental and faculty planning, standing in for the supervisor, attending to students' non-academic queries and concerns, and ensuring students observe the expected discipline (Miller *et al.*, 2020). Participation in community outreach programmes involves faculty members representing their departments, faculties or universities in attending community meetings, engaging in community development initiatives, and providing innovative ideas and information that updates and sensitizes community members about what to do and how to do it better (Ddungu, 2017).

Generally, previous researches examined the different dimensions of the workload of faculty members, but did not delve into the analysis of its effect on career progression within the context of faculty members in Uganda's universities, a gap filled in this paper.

### **Faculty Workload and career progression**

Previous research has established a significantly causal relationship between workload and career progression. In particular, in a cross-sectional survey of the factors influencing career progress among faculty members, Subramaniam (2003) found that workload was among these factors and that its effect was significantly negative. The survey showed that when lecturers are overloaded, they do not get enough time to pursue career progress because most of the time is spent on trying to execute and complete the workload. This study was however, conducted about faculty members in the accounting departments of Australian universities. Moreover, it established the effect without delving into whether and how it differed between public and private universities.

In support, a study by Barrett and Barrett (2011) shows that faculty members are allocated work that requires them to spend a minimum of 37-40 hours per week doing university work in terms of searching for relevant content of the allocated lectures, planning for and delivering lectures to students, assessing and evaluating students through giving coursework, tests and examinations, marking students' answer scripts, compiling marks, and research supervision. This study indicates that lecturers' workload is supposed to be allocated in a manner that maximises efficient use of a university's teaching, research, and community outreach service resources in the eight hours of a working day. The remaining time can then be used on their personal and career progression. When they are overloaded (given tasks that take more than eight hours a day), they spend much of the time they would have used to carry out the career progression activities such as research, publication and attending further training completing their job assignments (Barrett and Barrett, 2011).

The situation is exacerbated when a university uses a workload allocation model that does not put the research component into consideration. Such a model assumes that all the working time of lecturers has to be spent doing assigned teaching and administrative activities. It does not provide for faculty members' engagement in research and publication and in attending further training, yet these are the activities that enhance their career progression (Pauls, 2013).

The study was however, conducted about female faculty members and took a general theoretical approach focusing on models by which workloads are allocated in universities. Yet that of Pauls (2013) was about developing and testing a questionnaire for measuring faculty perception of how workload allocation affects them.

Adu and Okeke (2014) reached the same conclusion in the study they conducted to establish the factors that influenced lecturers' participation in career progression through continuing professional development. This study showed that overloading lecturers with teaching, research supervision and administrative tasks can keep them busy, prevent them from moonlighting and help them gain more work experience and maturity in their job. However, it constrains their vertical progress by limiting their time to improve their research publication profile and to engage in further training. This study was however conducted about faculty members in Botswana university. Validation of its findings is therefore necessary in the context of other universities such as those in university.

Similarly, Parimita et al. (2017) found that workload had a negative effect on the career development of employees. In support, Garner (2018) found that overloading employees with work increases job-related stress and burnout that drain much of the energy they would have spent on improving their careers. Likewise, Khetarpal (2020) found that work overload stressed close to 60% of women employees that they were sceptical about taking promotion that could result into more increase in their workload. These two studies were however, conducted in non-academic organisations in Indonesia (Parimita *et al.*, 2017), United Kingdom (Garner, 2018) and globally (Khetarpal, 2020). Therefore, they left a question of whether the same effect could apply in educational organisations, particularly the universities in Uganda.

### Factors explaining workload allocation

Prior research has identified different factors that determine the amount of workload allocated to faculty members. Barrett and Barrett (2011) identify a model used to allocate workload as one of the factors, noting that some universities use a granularity work allocation model that emphasises teaching more than the research and administrative responsibilities. This model emphasises teaching when allocating workload, thereby paying little attention to research and administrative work (Hull, 2006). Universities that use this model allocate workload in terms of number of one- or two-hour lectures taught per day, number of students taught and number of research students to supervise. They do not pay attention to even the time faculty members need to search for the content of allocated lectures and to plan for them. All they mind about is the number of lectures to be taught per week, how they should be assessed and examined, and when the marks should be submitted for grading and certification (Pauls, 2013). Universities using this model tend to slow down career progression for their faculty members (Vardi, 2009)

Hull (2006) observed further that other universities use the continuing research model whose work allocation approach attempts to balance teaching with research and training which faculty members are expected to undertake to improve their universities' contribution to innovation and development, and improve their careers. This model ensures that faculty members use their working time not only to teach but also to engage in administrative activities (such as attending department, faculty or senate planning meetings), writing research funding proposals, and conducting research and publishing its findings (Vardi, 2009).

Evidently, this model provides ensures that lecturers remain active in career progression activities such as research, publication and attending further training. A question however, is whether universities in Uganda use this model when most of their faculty members are associated with low engagement in research, whose publication rates are very low and whose participation in further training and community outreach service is wanting (Kagaari & Munene, 2010; Kasule & Neema, 2014; Kyaligonza *et al.*, 2015; Ddungu, 2017; Nabunya *et al.*, 2019).

In addition, research has shown that allocation of work is determined by the staffing levels of organisations (World Health Organization, 2016), particularly universities where these levels are compared with the number of offered academic disciplines and enrolment size (Watanabe *et al.*, 2013; Kenny & Fluck, 2014; Botha & Swanepoel, 2015). This research indicates that adequately staffed universities tend to allocate workloads that resonate with each faculty member's ideal number of hours and amount of work expected from him or her. In contrast, understaffed universities allocate more than the number of lectures, teaching hours, and number of students to teach and supervise than they can efficiently cover (Botha & Swanepoel, 2015). These universities allocate work in this fashion to ensure that they provide the educational services expected of them by enrolled students and their subsequent employers, but hardly realise this goal from the consumers' perspective (Kenny & Fluck, 2014). These studies were however, conducted in universities outside Uganda and therefore, do not discussed the identified factors within the context of Ugandan universities.

Overall, the cited literature indicates that there is an inverse relationship between workload and career progression, which suggests that workload has a negative effect on career progression. This effect was however, not established within the context of Uganda's universities; hence the need for this paper to provide this context by establishing this effect, comparing it between private and public universities and identifying the factors explaining it following the research methods explained in the next section.

## **Data and Methods**

This study was designed as a cross-sectional comparative survey involving a quantitative approach. This design was adopted to facilitate collection of cross-sectional questionnaire data that was needed to provide a comparative analysis of the similarities and differences between Uganda's private and public universities using relevant statistics (Clasen, 2004; Cairney, 2016). The analysis was provided based on the sample size (Mills *et al.*, 2009; York, 2017), and in respect of how these university types went about workload allocation, what determined the allocated amount, and how it affected their faculty members' career progression. The data was collected from faculty members randomly selected from four Ugandan universities selected using heterogeneous purposive sampling. Heterogeneous purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling technique that facilitates selection of a sample from different categories based on a judgement that each category can provide data needed to understand the phenomenon being investigated (Etikan *et al.*, 2016). The categories in this study included private and public universities. This sampling technique facilitated their selection of two public and two private universities from those located in central Uganda. This region was considered because it had the largest and easily accessible public and private universities. Faculty members were drawn randomly to give each a chance to participate in the study as they all had a workload and were expected to pursue career progression as a matter of pursuing their personal goals. The sample size was determined using Sloven's formula stated as follows:

$$n = \frac{N}{[1 + N(e)^2]}$$

Where  $n$  was the sample size,  $N$  was the size of the target population, which, from Annual Management Reports of the four selected universities was equal to 85,800 faculty members;  $e$  was the standard error at which the sample was selected. It was selected at the 95% confidence level, implying that  $e = 5\%$  or 0.05.

$$\text{Therefore, } n = 85,800 \div [1 + 85,800 (0.05)^2] \approx 398$$

The expected sample size was proportionately divided into 210 faculty members from public universities and 188 from private universities. However, due to the closure of all educational institutions resulting from lockdown caused by COVID-19, the expected sample size was not realised. The actual sample consisted of 109 respondents from public universities and 98 from private universities. Data was collected using a structured questionnaire emailed to the respondents using their email contacts obtained from the personnel/human resource officials of the selected universities. This questionnaire consisted of items measuring the amount of allocated workload and factors determining it as perceived by these respondents using a 5-point Likert scale of responses running from Strongly Disagree (1) through Disagree (2), Not Sure (3) and Agree (4) to Strongly Agree (5). The scale that measured the level of career progression ran from Very Unsatisfactory (1) through Unsatisfactory (2), Average (3) and Satisfactory (4) to Very Satisfactory (5).

The questionnaire was first tested for validity using Content Validity Method and for reliability using the Alpha method of internal consistency aided by SPSS (Version 25). The computed validity and reliability indices were .875 and .899, respectively, suggesting that the questionnaire items were largely valid and reliable. Data was analysed using the mean comparison method based on the independent samples T-test, data transformation and a comparison of effects generated using linear regression of the data obtained from each sample (private versus public universities).

## Results

The aim of this study was to compare the amount of allocated workload as assessed by faculty members in Uganda's public and private universities, the factors determining its allocation, these lecturers' level of career progression, and how it was affected by the assessed workload.

Self-assessed amount of workload: When the selected faculty members were asked to assess the amount of workload allocated to them, results obtained from the mean comparison method based on the independent samples T-test were as summarised in Table 1.



**Table 1: Comparison of amount of allocated workload as assessed by faculty members**

Indicators of the amount of allocated workload	No. of Faculty members by University type	Min	Max	Mean	t	Sig.
Lectures assigned to me make me spend a lot of time searching for content needed to plan for them	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	3 4	5 5	4.05 4.75	-11.580	.000
Planning for the lectures assigned to me takes much of the time I would use for personal growth.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	3 4	5 5	4.06 4.69	-10.463	.000
Number of lectures allocated to me to deliver are way too many that I have to put in extra time	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	4 4	5 5	3.89 4.67	-9.112	.000
I get too busy during examination time because of the number of exams allocated to me to invigilate.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	4 4	5 5	3.93 4.68	-8.667	.000
Coursework scripts I have to mark are too many for me to finish within the allocated time.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	2 4	5 5	3.77 4.63	-9.292	.000
Number of exam scripts I have mark is so large that I finish them way beyond the allocated time.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	4 4	5 5	4.07 4.71	-11.081	.000
Number of students I have to supervise is way beyond those I should supervise.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	4 4	5 5	3.99 4.72	-8.110	.000
Number of students whose theses I have to assess is far beyond those that should be allocated to me.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	3 4	5 5	3.80 4.65	-7.781	.000
Time it takes me to compile the students' marks to submit for grading usually goes beyond schedule.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	4 4	5 5	3.79 4.65	-6.984	.000
The administrative work assigned to me takes the time I would have used to do personal work	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	4 4	5 5	4.14 4.73	-8.909	.000
I am allocated community outreach tasks that add to the already stressing work I have to do	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	3 4	5 5	3.88 4.70	-6.711	.000
Overall assessment.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	3 3	5 5	3.96 4.69	-8.667	.000

The minimum and maximum values in Table 1 ranged from '2' to '5', suggesting that there were faculty members who disagreed (Min = 2), were not sure (3), agreed (4) and strongly agreed (Max = 5) to some indicators of the amount of their allocated workload. Given the way the indicators are phrased, faculty members who disagreed to them indicated that the amount of the assigned workload matched their expectations. Those who were not sure showed that they had no definite view on the amount of their assigned workload. Faculty members who agreed showed that the assigned workload was heavy; yet those who strongly agreed showed that the allocated workload was very heavy.

The mean values indicate however, that on average faculty members in private universities agreed (all the means were close to '4'), but those from public universities strongly agreed to all the indicators (all means were close to '5'). These results suggest that while faculty members in Uganda's private universities assessed the amount of workload assigned to them as heavy, those in public universities judged theirs as very heavy. Therefore, the amount of workload assigned to these faculty members differed as a result of the type of university for which they worked. The difference was significant, since all the t-values in Table 1 were significant at the .01 level of significance (Sig. = .000 < .01), with the overall assessment indicating faculty members in public universities as having significantly heavier workloads assigned to them compared to their counterparts in private universities (Mean = 3.96 for private universities reveals heavy workload compared to 4.69, which reveals a very heavy workload,  $t = -8.667$ , Sig. = .000 < .01).

**Factors determining allocated workload:** Regarding the factors that determined the amount of allocated workload, results obtained from the independent samples T-test are in Table 2.

**Table 2: Factors determining amount of workload allocated to faculty members**

Indicators of the factors	No. of Faculty members by University type	Min	Max	Mean	t	Sig.
University assigns work by emphasising teaching more than research and community service	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	4 4	5 5	4.70 4.91	-1.276	.206
University balances between teaching, research and community service when allocating work.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	1 1	4 4	2.28 1.99	--1.745	.082
University allocates us much more work than we should do because it is understaffed	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	3 4	5 5	4.89 3.59	-10.887	.000
Our university allocates more work to us because it is too underfunded to have enough lecturers.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	2 4	5 5	4.92 4.53	-1.260	.209
Overall assessment	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	1 1	5 5	3.60 3.93	-1.335	.119

The minimum (min) and maximum (max) values in Table 2 indicate that there were faculty members who strongly disagreed, disagreed (2), were not sure (3), agreed or strongly agreed (5) to the various factors determining allocation of their workload. Those who disagreed and strongly disagreed indicated that all the factors did not determine the amount of workload assigned to them. Those who were not sure showed that they could not tell whether the factors determined or did not determine the allocation of their workload. The faculty members who agreed and strongly agreed indicated that the factors determined the allocation of their workload.

The mean values corresponding to the overall assessment suggest however, that on average faculty members in both universities agreed without a significant difference that the factors in Table 2 determined the amount of allocated workload (Mean = 3.60 for public and 3.93 for private universities,  $t = -1.335$ , Sig. = .119 > .01). The exception to this overall assessment was the factor that related to balancing workload allocation in terms of balance between teaching, research and community service when allocating work to which faculty members in both university types disagreed (Mean = 2.28 for public and 1.99 for private university faculty members). This suggests that the universities did not pay attention to balancing their faculty members' workload in terms of their three core functions.

Further scrutiny of the mean values reveals that while there was plain consensus in both universities about other factors, strong agreement was expressed without a significant difference (Mean = 4.70 for public and 4.91 for private faculty members,  $t = -1.276$ , Sig. = .206 > .01) that the two types of universities emphasised teaching more than on research and community service when allocating workloads. Therefore, regardless of their type, the selected universities prioritised teaching more than their other core functions when allocating workload to faculty members. The results indicate further that allocation of heavy workloads was more strongly determined by understaffing in public compared to private universities (Mean = 4.89 for public and 3.59 for private university faculty members,  $t = -10.887$ , Sig. = .000 < .01).



**Level of career progression:** Faculty members were asked to indicate how satisfied they were with the various indicators of their career progression level. Results obtained of the independent samples T-test of their assessment revealed this level as shown in Table 3.

Indicators of level of career progression	No. of Faculty members by University type	Min	Max	Mean	t	Sig.
Lectures assigned to me make me spend a lot of time searching for content needed to plan for them	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	1 1	5 5	2.44 2.32	.960	.357
Planning for the lectures assigned to me takes much of the time I would use for personal growth.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	1 1	4 4	2.17 2.36	.924	.443
Number of lectures allocated to me to deliver are way too many that I have to put in extra time	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	1 1	5 5	2.22 2.25	-.511	.613
I get too busy during examination time because of the number of exams allocated to me to invigilate.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	1 1	5 5	2.24 1.87	-.278	.781
Coursework scripts I have to mark are too many for me to finish within the allocated time.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	1 1	5 5	2.44 2.32	.960	.357
Number of exam scripts I have mark is so large that I finish them way beyond the allocated time.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	1 1	5 5	2.43 2.34	.769	.455
Number of students I have to supervise is way beyond those I should supervise.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	1 1	5 5	2.21 2.27	.749	.610
The administrative work assigned to me takes the time I would have used to do personal work	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	1 1	5 5	2.22 2.25	-.511	.613
I am allocated community outreach tasks that add to the already stressing work I have to do	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	1 1	5 5	2.24 1.87	-.278	.781
Overall assessment.	Public (n = 109) Private (n = 98)	1 1	5 5	2.29 2.24	-.273	.785

The minimum and maximum values in Table 3 indicate that there were faculty members who were very unsatisfied (Min = 1) and those who were very satisfied (Max = 5) with the various indicators of their career progression level. These results suggest that there were faculty members who did not post any level of career progression (Min = 1) and those who registered a very high level of career progression (Max = 5). All the mean values in Table 3 were however close to '2' and none of the t-values was statistically significant (Sig. > .01). This suggests that on average, all the selected faculty members were on average dissatisfied with the level of their career progression.

**Effect of workload on career progression:** Faculty members' self-assessed amount of workload and level of career progression were each computed as global variables from the responses obtained from each type of universities using the arithmetic technique of the data transformation method of SPSS. Thereafter, linear regression was carried to establish how workload predicted career progression level in each type of the selected universities. Results are presented in Table 4.

**Table 4: Linear regression statistics between workload and career progression**

Predictor	Statistics predicted on the dependent variable: Career progression											
	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		t	Sig	R	R²	Adjusted R²	F	Sig	Error of estimate
	B	Std. Error	Beta									
(Constant)	5.272	1.224			12.585	.000	.460	.213	.211	41.102	.000	1.683
Workload (Private)	.309	.047	-.460		-6.333	.000						
(Constant)	.241	.090			2.684	.008	.760	.577	.556	338.66	.000	.776
Workload (Public)	1.011	.055	-.760		-18.403	.000						

Table 4 indicates that while the amount of faculty members' self-assessed workload predicted their self-assessed level of career progression by significant a 21.1% (Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> = .211, F = 41.102, Sig. = .000 < 0.01) in private universities, the prediction was a significant 55.6% (Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> = .556, F = 338.66, Sig. = .000 < 0.01) in public universities. These predictions imply that the amount of workload allocated to faculty members affected their career progression in statistically significant manner in both types of universities, but the effect was greater in public universities. The beta coefficients, corresponding t-values and levels of significance (Beta = -.460, t = -6.333, Sig. = .000 < .01 for private and -.760, t = -18.403, Sig. = .000 < .01 for public universities) indicate that the effect was significantly negative, suggesting that increasing the amount of workload caused a significant reduction in the faculty members' career progression.

## Discussion

The results indicate that the amount of the workload allocated to faculty members in Uganda affects their level of career progression in a negatively significant manner regardless of whether they are employed by a private or public university (Table 4). Therefore, the results confirm the conclusion reached by Subramaniam (2003), Barrett and Barrett (2011), Adu and Okeke (2014), Parimita et al. (2017) and Garner (2018) that workload has a negative effect on employees' career progression. In addition to this consistency, the results indicate that the magnitude of the effect differed between the selected private and public universities. It was much greater in public compared to private universities. Indeed, while an increase in the assigned workload decreased career progression of faculty members in private universities by slightly 21%, the decline it caused in public universities was up to 56%. Therefore, career progression suffered more as a result of the amount of workload assigned to faculty members in Uganda's public compared to private universities. These results reveal that while workload constrains career progression as previous research suggests, the extent to which it does so is not the same in all organisations. Table 1 indicates that career progression suffered more in public universities because the workload allocated to faculty members in these institutions was heavier than that which was allocated to their counterparts in private universities – even when the latter were also assigned heavy workloads.

Accordingly, results point to a need for both types of Uganda's universities to take a downward revision of the amount of workload allocated to their faculty members. This revision is needed because faculty members in both universities showed that the level of their career progression was unsatisfactory (Table 3). It is however, much more required in public universities as the constraining effect of workload was more felt in these institutions compared to their private counterparts (Table 4).

The revision needs to focus on ensuring that workload is allocated in a way that allows faculty members to improve their careers as they perform their jobs. Results in Table 2 reveal that workload allocation emphasised teaching tasks much more than research and community service. This suggests that faculty members were loaded with more teaching than research and community service responsibilities. Consequently, teaching activities took up most of the time which faculty members would have spent improving their career through conducting research and offering community outreach services.

Such workload allocation was unfair. Not only did it deny faculty members time to develop their careers, it also meant that the universities neglected their research and community outreach roles. Therefore, it points to a need for Uganda's universities to shift from a workload allocation model that emphasises teaching, referred to by Hull (2006) as the granularity work allocation, to the continuing research model, which balances allocation of teaching tasks with research, administrative and community outreach activities. The need to adopt this latter model cannot be overemphasised in the light of the results in Table 2 that showed that none of the selected universities used it when allocating workloads to their faculty members.

Results indicate further that the amount of workload that the universities allocated to their faculty members was much more than it should have been because the universities were understaffed because of underfunding (Table 2). This state of affairs was more pronounced in public than private universities (Tables 2). These results suggest that the reduction in the workload assigned to faculty members can be realised to create time for them to improve their careers by addressing the problems of understaffing and underfunding facing these universities.

## Limitations

The actual sample size was lower than the statistically expected size. In addition, Uganda had over 10 public and over 40 private universities, but the study was based on two public and two private universities. These two factors limit the generalizability of the findings. Furthermore, the study relied on quantitative data only. This limited it in terms of in-depth understanding of the nature of assigned workload, factors explaining its allocation and career progression as explained by each individual faculty member using unlimited qualitative data.

## Conclusion

The study indicates that the amount of allocated workload significantly constrains the level of career progression attained by faculty members of Uganda's universities, regardless of their types. Due to overreliance on the use of the granularity work allocation model and understaffing caused by underfunding, faculty members in either type of universities are overloaded with mostly teaching tasks, which eat up much of the time they would have spent pursuing career progression through research, doing administrative work, participating in community outreach projects, and attending further training programmes. The constraining effect of workload on career progression is more felt by faculty members in public than private universities of Uganda.

## Recommendations

The top management of Uganda's private and public universities, and especially of the latter institutions, should revise the workload allocation policy from relying on the granularity work allocation model to the use of the continuing research model. This will ensure that workload is allocated to faculty members in a manner that balances allocation of teaching tasks with research, participation in further training, community outreach projects, and administrative work, thereby allowing faculty members to perform their jobs as they also improve their level of career progression.

The government of Uganda should increase funding to public universities to enable them to overcome underfunding and be able to fill their academic staff structures. This will enable them to balance workload allocation. The same should be done by investors in Uganda's private universities for the same reason.

A replicate of this study should be conducted using a mixed methods research design that provide a generalisable in-depth understanding of the variables it has investigated.

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## A feasibility of land consolidation in kigezi region, south western Uganda: a solution to land fragmentation, land shortage, farmer's productivity and economic development

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### ABSTRACT

The cooperative societies which have existed in Uganda for a longtime have been mainly on Agricultural products and marketing and not necessarily on land use management and productivity. This article therefore, is about land use management and the reverse of the effects of land fragmentation and their related problems such as land conflicts, population pressure, poverty, productivity, and land scarcity and the solutions to these problems. The idea of land consolidation is being introduced in the article as putting together plots or pieces of land which exist in Kigezi Region, with the aim of making them economically viable and more productive per unit of investment. This need not change the amount of land owned and controlled by individuals, and therefore not necessarily an instrument of social justice but an answer to land scarcity and fragmentation in Kigezi Region. The article compares the benefits of the land under fragmentation and the land under consolidation systems and recommends strategies to transform Kigezi Region's informal and subsistence farming system to modern, commercial agriculture to achieve food security and increase incomes of the population and economic development of the area.

### Keywords

*Land consolidation; Land fragmentation; Land Shortage; Agricultural productivity*

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## Introduction

Land is the main asset for livelihood of many African people on which development and general social progress is based (Bizoza and Havugimana, 2013 and Nilsson, 2017). With increasing population, the problem of land scarcity and land fragmentation continues to affect development in Kigezi Region and subsequently affecting food security and crop production to allow them have food surplus to generate income. The Driver of land reform policy in Uganda of 2013, should have been to improve land use management and to reverse the adverse effects of land fragmentation and related problems concerning land disputes prevailing in Uganda. This was not covered in the land reform policy of 2013. The method of reversing the effect of land fragmentation in the country is the application of land use consolidation which should have been an answer to the societies where there are lots of land fragmentation (Deininger *et al.*, 2012) This was not the case for Kigezi region.

The land use consolidation should be regarded as one of the policies in Kigezi Region to improve farm holdings, having arable land on big scale. This article would like to introduce the set up and running of a land use consolidation programme in Kigezi Region for Economic development purposes, because cooperatives in the country have been mainly on agricultural products and marketing and not necessarily on land use management and production. They are not increasing yield and productivity per inputs applied, not on land size, not on the problem of land fragmentation and economic efficiency in agriculture. This article is therefore about the state of land fragmentation in Kigezi Region, its effects and the introduction of land consolidation in the region.

Kigezi Region is situated in the south western Uganda. A very hilly, cold and mountainous region, bordering the Republic of Rwanda and Democratic Republic of Congo. Because of its hills, mountains and cold weather, people call it the Switzerland of Africa. It is full of Agricultural Terraces and a home of the world famous mountain guerillas.

According to National Census of 2014 and Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) of 2016, the region has a population of about 1.5 million people from the following 6 Districts

**Table 1: Districts in Kigezi Region and their Population**

S/N	District	Population
1	Kabale	255,600
2	Kisoro	309,600
3	Kanungu	273,000
4	Rukungiri	330,700
5	Rubanda	206,600
6	Rukiga	104,700
<b>Total</b>		<b>1,480,200</b>

Source: UBOS (2016)

People in Kigezi Region grow mainly the following crops successfully; Coffee, Tea, Maize, Irish potatoes, Bananas, Peas, Sweet potatoes, Beans, Ground nuts, Millet, Sorghum, Dairy products, Cassava, Rice, etc.

Some of these crops are grown more in some districts than in others. Mono-cropping, zoning them in areas according to better yields produced per season would be encouraged with assistance of Agriculturalists and ministries officials. Some of these crops are for exports, such as coffee and tea, dairy products etc. But others are for domestic consumption but can also be sold to neighboring countries.

The mono-cropping and methods of implementation of land consolidation will be by producer cooperatives or associations. Because of the geographical situation, population pressure and land fragmentation, massive migration of Kigezi population over many years have been going on to other parts of Uganda mainly to Ankole, Tooro, Bunyoro, Buganda after exhausting areas in Kigezi such as Kinkizi (now Kanungu), Rukungiri etc.



The following are land problems in Kigezi Region:

- i. Land fragmentation
- ii. Scarcity and tiny size of arable land
- iii. Population pressure
- iv. Old cultural and traditional practices (division of land)
- v. Recurrent soil erosion on steep hill sides
- vi. Soil acidity, among others

All these factors make land in Kigezi less productive for farmers to generate more income, food surplus to sell for revenue and get out of poverty. The problem therefore is how to increase the size of agricultural land or increase productivity of farmers and incomes of the people of Kigezi. Some of these problems of land fragmentation can be solved by land consolidation which should go hand in hand with rural development and land productivity. This is why an application of land use consolidation in Kigezi Region is recommended in this article.

Land use consolidation is being introduced in Kigezi Region as a tool to improve farm management and holdings to arable land on big scale, allowing cultivation of one crop on large scale but also rational use of inputs and pesticides, including the increase of acreage in terms of hectares of plots put together each season to grow each priority crops and move away from land fragmentation that creates land too small and uneconomically viable, reducing already limited arable land. Land consolidation would therefore lead to Economic development of the region. Economic development in the area has been defined in the article as the process by which a community of farmers In Kigezi raises its living standards because of the new adapted policy of land use consolidation proposed programme which will be measured in terms of increase of income from the sale of surplus food crops gotten after consolidating the land. It will also be measured after looking at the savings, farmers will be able to make and the investments realized, leading to the development of economic wealth of Kigezi Region, for the wellbeing of its inhabitants. The article considers economic development as a sustainable increase in living standards that implies increased per capita income, a process by which real Gross National Product increases quantitatively and qualitatively over every long time in the region. It can also be measured by an increase in things which improve the quality of life of human being such as houses, food, medical care etc.

In Kigezi region therefore, there is scarcity and tiny size of agricultural holdings which are the results of both the population pressure and land fragmentation that has been practiced for long time with old and tradition cultural practices where peasants used and some of them still use to divide their land among their sons but as time goes on, the pieces of land become smaller and smaller as the population goes on increasing and with recurrent soil erosion on steep hill sides, making arable land less productive.

## Literature Review

The problem of land fragmentation is therefore one of the world's concern and also of present and future Ugandan problem number one which needs a quick solution that has been neglected until such problem is becoming endemic, creating starvation, erosion, and poverty, even land desertification in Kigezi Region. Land use management and the reversal of the effects of land fragmentations and their related land problems

such as land conflicts are what the article is about. The solution is to solve the greatest problem, namely land scarcity, poverty, combined with population pressure which are interrelated in Kigezi Region. Poverty occurs where there are large increase in population and is less prevalent where population is stable. These are both related to costs and living standards. The solution to this problem is land use consolidation. The increase of acres and hectares of pieces of land put together each season in order to grow each priority crop is the answer. This encourages crops specialization, leading to economies of scale and commercialization of agricultural products, increasing productivity and crop yield, bringing food crop surplus to sell to market for money hence income of the people.

The land consolidation will generally be considered as putting small plots or pieces of land which exist in Kigezi Region, with the aim of making them economically viable and more productive per unit of investment. This need not change the amount of land owned and controlled by individuals, and therefore not necessarily an instrument for social justice. It is just an answer to Kigezi Region people where there has been lots of land fragmentation (Blarel et al., 1992 and Deininger *et al.*, 2012).

Land consolidation is not a new concept in the world for economic development initiatives. It has been practiced in many countries such as Europe since the Middle Ages until 19th and 20th centuries (Vitikainen, 2004). Practices of land consolidation are found today in Germany, Netherland, France, Belgium, Austria and Switzerland and Finland, Norway and Sweden. Also, there has been considerable land consolidation in Eastern European countries after the reforms from socialist production systems that had resulted in fragmented lands. In the whole of Western Europe by early 1990's land consolidation involved a quarter of all cultivated land in excess of 38 million hectares of arable land. In sub-Sahara Africa, land is a fundamental issue for economic development, food security and poverty reduction (Cotula *et al.*, 2006). However, in many African countries, including Uganda, land is increasingly becoming scarce due to a variety of pressures, including population growth.

In Europe and other developed countries, the need for land consolidation is becoming less and less and not as it was in the past. The emphasis now is to create large farms which have become priorities. The demand for land consolidation is now new in developing countries and it is mainly caused by landlessness, poverty, joint-ownership, limited funds, and lack of political will. It has come when fragmentation of the land is at its highest in Africa. Land is best when it is in production and in active use. Fragmentation of arable land is about to reach the abandonment stage and to increase production in Kigezi comes with the land consolidation to alter fragmentation and allow farmers to benefit from government various services such as: Efficient delivery of inputs, proximity extension services, post-harvest handling and storage facilities, irrigation and mechanization by public and private stakeholders, concentrated market for inputs and outputs etc. These are benefits that land consolidation would bring to the Kigezi farmers if the system is implemented.

Land consolidation has worked in Rwanda and in very many other countries. This is different from Ujamaa policy of Tanzania which succeeded only in bringing people to live together in villages but not transformation of production structures, increase productivity of rural areas. Ujamaa enterprises were too small to allow scale economies. People had no training, no experience in large scale production. Ujamaa policy, unlike land consolidation policy this article is recommending, did not lead to any significant increase in productivity or surplus flow from agriculture in Tanzania. In view of those considerations, very many land consolidation and

land reform policies have been implemented to reduce land fragmentation in developed and in developing countries. When asked some farmers in Kabale District in Kigezi Region, the reasons why they would prefer land use consolidation to land fragmentation, most of them said, “From land consolidation, we shall get free fertilizers, improved seed grants, zero soil erosion, mono-cropping practice, common fight against pests, land leveling and management etc. They said that every farmer who participates in land consolidation would get a package of incentives from crop intensification programme. By consolidating the land, farmers will be able to protect and enlarge it. By acquiring new agricultural techniques and methods, farmers will be able to increase productivity of their land. By applying the incentive package, the farmers will be able to double or quadruple the harvest of their prioritized crops, contribute to the economic growth of Kigezi farmers and therefore to the development of the region. The region needs therefore land use consolidation policy to improve the farmers’ innovation and hence living standards.

The adoption of land consolidation by farmers in Kigezi would lead to growth of larger farms and production of higher family incomes and that productivity would increase and a number of small pieces of land decreases (Lerman and Cimpoies, 2006).

Land Use Consolidation (LUC) should be one of the policies to improve farm holdings in allowing arable land on a big scale, cultivation of one crop on large scales and rational use of inputs and pesticides.

**Table 2: Land Fragmentation and Consolidation Comparisons**

When the land is under fragmentation system	When the land is under consolidation system
1. Laws of inheritance 2. Small sizes of landholdings 3. Increasing population pressure 4. Land scarcity or in small sizes 5. Food insecurity/food deficit 6. Poor land management 7. Low labour productivity 8. Poor productivity of land 9. Use of land unsustainably 10. Little structural transformation 11. Small multiple ownership 12. Multiple subdivisions 13. Negative farms productivity 14. Poor farm practices 15. Low level use of farm inputs 16. No mechanization can take place 16. High transport cost.	1. Increased commercialization 2. Increased net income for a farmer 3. Improving agricultural productivity 4. Increased more investment 5. Sufficient food production 6. Food surplus for sale 7. Raised productivity in small fragmented holdings 8. Growth of priority food crops 9. Increased farmers productivity 10. One crop on large scale 11. Expansion of arable land 12. Rational use of inputs and pesticides by farmers 13. Poverty reduced 14. Reversing fragmentation activities 15. Improved land use management 16. Increased yield and productivity per input applied 17. Increased income and standards of livings of farmers 18. Mono-cropping practice and common fight against pests by organized farmers 19. Increased incomes and profits per acre 20. Proximity extension services, concentrated markets for inputs, efficient delivery.

Table 2 shows the differences between the two systems for making decisions by farmers and government officials when the two systems are working.

Many land reform measures have been obstructed at the policy making stage, and then sentenced to a slow death in execution by unsystematic bureaucracy. This is what has happened in Uganda for the one of 2013 land policy. Because there was no determination of the existing formal and informal structure in land, which normally reduces the conflicts between individual rights and the state rights protected. The government should have thought of this land policy that responds to the needs of the people as land gets smaller and yields diminishes. The question arises, who is to look after the interests and welfare of the starving rural people? While ruthless officials often determines their fate!

According to Abubakari et al. (2016) land consolidation allows farmers to benefit from the various services such as:

1. Efficient delivery of inputs (e.g. improve seeds, fertilizers)
2. Proximity extension services
3. Post-harvest handling and storage facilities
4. Irrigation and mechanization by public and private stakeholders
5. Concentrated markets for inputs and outputs
6. Increased productivity
7. Increased income and profits per acre
8. Employment generation

Land fragmentation is regarded as a feature of less developed agricultural systems and a major obstacle to agricultural development because it hinders agricultural mechanization, causes inefficiencies in production and involves large costs to alleviate its effects. That is why land consolidation and land reform policies have been introduced in many countries to reduce fragmentation in Africa such as Botswana, Cape Verde, and Maldives, Kenya, Rwanda etc.

The major causes of land fragmentation have been attributed to increase in population, laws of inheritance, poverty, landlessness, etc. Laurance et al. (2007) and fragmentation is a disease of land tenure. According to Jacoby and Minten (2007), subdivisions and excessive fragmentation are inherent defects of old peasant communities. Though they still exist in many parts of the world where peasants are reluctant to change from the past. The increase of landlessness is a problem of fragmentation, when the fragmented land is consolidated, it happens that people owning insufficient land to create an economic unit are displaced, and become landless in the process and move to cities. Land consolidation is the answer to the societies where there are lots of land fragmentation like in Kigezi Region where farm management issue is a problem. Among the main factors that have contributed to subdivisions and land fragmentation is the traditional system of inheritance of land where it is divided and bequeathed to sons. As the population increases not only the size of holdings fall, but they are increasingly fragmented into smaller plots, scattered all over a wide area.

The driver of land consolidation in Uganda should largely be the need to improve land use management and to reverse the effects of land fragmentation and make farming economically viable and respond to the needs of the people and population pressure, since one of the world's greatest problem is poverty combined with population pressure. The land fragmentation is regarded as a feature of less developed agricultural system and a major obstacle to agricultural development, because it hinders agricultural mechanization, causes inefficiencies in production, results in small and uneconomic size of operational holdings. As the population increases, not only does the size of holdings fall, but they are increasingly fragmented into smaller and smaller pieces of land in Kigezi region.

The study has used a simplified, voluntary land use consolidated model where by farmers in a given area grow the priority food crops in groups. Keeping their land rights intact, setup and run land use consolidation programme in the whole Kigezi region would be the answer.

Due to assumption that land use fragmentation has a negative impact on agricultural productivity, reorganization of the available space and technological innovations are necessary. In order to ensure food security for increasing population by putting together small plots or pieces of land, manage the land and use it in consolidated manner so that the land can give more yields.

The possession of land titles also helps to improve tenure security and makes land owners feel confident to make long term investments in their land which may be a stimulus to the enhancement of land productivity. Fragmentation influences negative farm productivity tiny land sizes and causes land scarcity. It hinders mechanization and drives to poor farming practices. It causes inefficient production, food insecurity. It involves large costs to alleviate its effects. It reduces farmer's net income, causes poverty, food deficit. It cannot get sufficient yields due to undersized units of land, poor farming practices and low level in the use of fertilizers and other inputs. No structural economic transformation can take place in such circumstances. Cultural inheritance of land division reduces land availability, lowers labour productivity etc.

According to the agronomists who were consulted after land use consolidation proposal during this study, they said that land consolidation raises productivity and yields more than original 4 times. Asked the reasons behind that increase, most of them mentioned availability of fertilizers supplied to organized group, improve seed grants, zero soil erosion, mono-cropping practice, common fight against pests and common land leveling etc. They gave examples of Rwanda where maize production had more than tripled because of land consolidation, production of beans doubled, harvest of Irish potatoes increased by 4.4 times and said that when fragmented land is reorganized and combined, it becomes a productive farm and cuts off production costs.

The agronomists added that farmers who own bigger land and exploit it properly; using adequate techniques get food surplus for sale and can generate more income and improve the livelihood of their families. However, there are some challenges which may face land consolidation programme and need government attention:

1. Limited rural infrastructure
2. Climate changes and high micro climatic variability in production zones.
3. High operational costs and lack of agricultural credit.
4. Fluctuations in global food prices/dynamics in trading regulations
5. Water scarcity and distribution in rural areas
6. Population pressure on land and land being too small and outspread. People resistant to change
7. Lack of energy, transport and poor roads causing costs to be high
8. Challenges in marketing output

In addition to land fragmentation, Zhou (1999) said that the relief of the region exacerbates soil erosion in Kigezi, where 50% of all the farms are subject to erosion, plus over cultivation which is one of the causes of fall in agricultural productivity in Kigezi region.

## Conclusions and Recommendations

The government of Uganda has not implemented properly and in full the agricultural policy of 2013. It should have pursued a private sector-led and market-oriented economy. To do this, it should work on the constraints that have been identified in this article, which hinder private sector from increasing investment in the sector. Agricultural production zones or group cropping through commodity-based approach, that is to say, commodities that are best suited for each zone as identified in the article should be supported for food security and for commercialization. Development of commodity value-chain in different zones in Kigezi Region should be supported in order to develop viable agro-business centers, groups in different areas of Kigezi Region. Key agricultural resources should be used sustainably, well managed to support adequate production for the current and future generations.

In order to have a competitive, profitable and sustainable agricultural sector, Uganda should transform informal and subsistence farming to modern, commercial agriculture in order to achieve food security and house hold incomes of the population. To increase house hold income in an economy where the prices will be determined by the market, Kigezi region must expand production, increase incomes of the people from organized and well managed land so that farms can improve the volume of their output, improve quality, access to recommended technology to raise farm productivity under land use consolidation.

There should be some strategies to boost production and productivity by skilling and training farmers to promote large scale farming enterprises, block farming and be able to compete regionally and nationally. Land use consolidation programme once introduced will enhance education and sensitize farmers towards mono-cropping and prioritizing crops in the region and country.

Government and other stakeholders will provide water through irrigation schemes to support crop farming during the dry season to keep sustainability of crop production.

Determination of priority crops for each Agro-climatic zone should be done jointly with farmers, District Officials and Agriculturalists compiling reports showing productivity increase of each prioritized crop.

The government should provide the feedback and capacity building to farmers on how to apply inputs such as fertilizers to support land productivity to increase the outputs/yield and improve economic development of the region and the country at large.

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## Adolescent's social health indices as determinants of health risk behaviours among secondary school students in Ijebu-Ode local government area of Ogun state, Nigeria

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### ABSTRACT

The study examined adolescents' social health indices as determinants of health risk behaviours among secondary school students in Ijebu-Ode Local Government Area of Ogun State. Descriptive survey research design was adopted for the study. The study population comprised 1,000 adolescents in the study area. Stratified, proportionate and simple random sampling techniques were used to select the sample. Two self-structured and expert validated questionnaires were used in the study. The collected data were analyzed using Cronbach Alpha to determine internal consistency of the instrument. The hypothesis was tested using multiple regressions. The significant of the joint contribution was tested at  $P < 0.05$ . It shows that the analysis of variance for the regression yielded  $F$  value = 42.94,  $P < 0.05$ . The results showed that social health indices are significant joint determinant of health risk behaviours among secondary school students in Ijebu-Ode Local Government Area of Ogun State. Based on the findings in the study, school counselors and mass media intervention programmes should be encouraged to have impacts on smoking prevention among adolescents in schools. Violence among students should be discouraged to avoid health problems among adolescents.

### Keywords

*Social health indices,  
Health behaviour,  
Health behaviour in  
adolescence*

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## Introduction

Adolescence is a significant stage in human's life which is characterized by the transition between childhood and adulthood. Adolescent is a person that is growing to be an adult. It is a time of big social development for a child. Boys and girls are often confronted with numerous adjustments problems that are peculiar to their age group owing to the demand of parents, school and society at large. Adolescent population and health of adolescents are very special issues and focus of attention globally for various reasons.

Adolescence is one of the quickest phases of human development. The features of both the individual and the environment influence the changes taking place during adolescence. Researches on risk taking behaviours in adolescence show that adolescents are at increased risk of anti-social behaviour and risk-taking behaviour. It is generally agreed among experts in the study of adolescent health and development that the greatest threats to the well-being of young people in developing and developed societies come from preventable and often self-inflicted causes, violence, drug and alcohol use, and sexual risk taking



including automobile and other accidents which collectively account for nearly half of all fatalities among youths (Williams, Holmbeck & Greenley, 2002; Blum, Nelson & Mmari, 2004).

Social celebrations that promote the utilization of alcohol/substance are common in Ijebu-Ode area of Ogun State, where adolescents have free access to alcohol and medicines, which might enable the adolescents to have experiment and consequently indulge in risky behaviours. Risky behaviours like smoking, substance use, cultism, gangster and killing are common among the residents where kids are growing. Evidences abound that a lot of adolescents that have these risky behaviours engaged in violence acts, for examples, regulatory offence- rape and drug use simply to say some. The repercussion of risky behaviour on adolescents are often life threatening. Reducing the speed of risky behaviours caused by social health indices among adolescents would create a considerable improvement within the overall well-being of the adolescents' population (Steinberg, 2004). Therefore, this study investigated the social health indices of adolescents as the determinants of risky health behaviours among secondary students in Ijebu-Ode area of Ogun State.

## Literature Review

Health as defined by the World Health Organization WHO, (1948), is a state of complete mental, physical and social wellbeing and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity in the body. Health is shaped by some factors which are not entirely medical (Erinosho, 1998). According to Compas (2004), people's attitude to health often affects personal and societal concepts which are based on experience and view on well-being. Achieving and maintaining health is a continuous process, shaped by both the evolution of healthcare knowledge and practices as well as personal strategies together with organized interventions for staying healthy. Thomas, (2005) described health behaviour as any activity undertaken by an individual, regardless of actual or perceived health status, for the motive of promoting, protecting or maintaining health, whether or not such behaviour is objectively effective towards that side.

Springer, Selwyn and Kelder (2006) perceived health behaviour as the combination of knowledge, practices and attitudes that together contribute to motivate actions an individual takes regarding his or her health. World Health Organization itemised the main determinants of health which include the social and economic environment, the physical environment, and the person's individual characteristics and behaviours (WHO, 2011). Cornacchia and Staton (1985) professed health as optimal personal fitness for all fruitful and creative living. This view implies that peak health is a function of individual's capacity to be productive and perform daily tasks efficiently without undue fatigue. Consequently, any factor that impairs health is likely to impede one's performance of routine work. Health risk behavior is any characteristic an individual is exposed to that increases the likelihood of developing a disease or injury. Estimated 1.2 million adolescents died in year 2015 mostly from preventable and treatable causes (WHO, 2017). Many of the health related behaviours that arise during adolescence have implications for both present and future health and development ([www.apps.who.int/adolescent](http://www.apps.who.int/adolescent)). For example, alcohol use and obesity in early adolescence do not only compromise adolescent development but also can lead to serious health challenges.

Social health reflects a child's development ability to form close associate and protected relationships with other recognizable people in their lives such as parents, relatives, peer group and other nurturing caregivers. This trustful relationship helps adolescents to feel safe in exploring their world.

Raver and Zigler (1997) explained the term social ability as a bunch of behaviours that allows every individual child to develop and relate in positive interactions with others. A number of the behaviours enclosed include showing sympathy, collaborating in co-operative and social activities, partitioning conflict, knowing self and developing a positive self-image and self-esteem. Adolescents and kids represent virtually a third (2.2 billion individuals) of the world's population (Kerling, Baker, Belfer, Conti, Omigbodun, Rohden and Srinath, 2011).

Loneliness may be a vital drawback that may incline young kids to immediate and semi-permanent negative consequences. However, few researches and intervention in instructional settings target young kids suffering from loneliness (Caddy and Asher, 1992). Researchers often consider older adults because the loneliest people surveys have found that the best levels of loneliness naturally start in late adolescence rising to adulthood (Curtona, 1982). Some adolescents feel lonely as a result of their robust desires for intimacy when they have not developed the social skills or relationship maturity to satisfy these desires. For a few adolescents, feeling lonely may be a prolonged and painful experience. It has been proven that partaking in health risk behaviours like substance use and poor sexual behaviour is also a way of dealing with the distress arising from loneliness in adolescence, once a person's social desires are not being adequately met, the subjective and negative feeling of loneliness happens. Andrew, Ai, Bayard, Erica, Pamela, Sergei and Martin (2013) found out in their studies that the prevalence of loneliness varies throughout the countries, feeling lonely and poor health is related to risky health behaviour in some countries.

Social isolation may be a complete or close to complete lack of contact with folks and society. All social isolation results to staying home for days or weeks at a time; having no communication with anyone together with family or perhaps the foremost peripheral of acquaintances or friends; and willful avoidance of any contact with different humans once those opportunities arise. Social isolation may be a problem for anyone despite their age, although symptoms might vary among people, Social isolation is sometimes involuntary and not chosen.

Social isolation can combine with biological process disabilities. Adolescents with learning impairments might have challenges with social interaction. The difficulties in learning will actually affect the adolescent's esteem and sense of self-worth, example would be the necessity to repeat a year of college. Throughout childhood biological progress years, the necessity to suit in and be accepted is preponderant. Isolation will increase the sentiments of loneliness and depression, worry of others or perhaps creates an additional negative self-image, There is a realization within the person that their behaviour is not 'normal behaviour' and may produce the sensation that there is a full world occurring that they do not belong to, or are unable to be a section of. This sense of being detached will produce an inner panic. Social isolation will begin early in life. An example would be to be intimidated or ridiculed, this is usually a time the ego is not totally developed. Analyst projected the concept of self-development, physically and mentally and throughout a person's development, a person might become additionally preoccupied with feelings and thoughts of their individuality that are not straightforward to share with different people. This could be a result from feelings of shame, guilt or alienation throughout childhood experiences. Those who are completely isolated have no one to show to in personal emergencies, nobody to divulge heart's contents to throughout a crisis, which can jointly breed uncomfortable thoughts and behaviours Social isolation may be unsafe as a result of the vitality of individuals' social relationships have an effect on health. Hawkey and Cacioppo (2003);

Seeman (2000), Steptoe, Owen, Kunz-Ebrech and Brydon, (2004) reported in their findings, that aspects of perceived isolation are typically connected to health outcomes through totally different factor. The difference in health related behaviours has not been found to account for the link between loneliness or the perception of an absence of social support and the possible health outcomes.

Health hazards associated with social isolation can be compared in magnitude to the well known dangers of smoking cigarettes and fatness (House, 2001). Some persons are with minimal social connections or rapport and often feel lonely and tend to suffer higher rates of morbidity and mortality as well as infection (Brummett, 2001).

Social withdrawal refers to consistent show of solitary behaviours within the presence of peers. Social withdrawal refers to the child's uninflected himself/herself from their contemporaries. Social withdrawal is observed as originating from such internal factors like anxiety, self-perceived difficulties in social skills and social relationships (Rubin and Asendorpf, 1993). Socially withdrawn kids take away themselves from peer interactions as a result of underlying social worry and anxiety that inhibits social approach motivations. Socially withdrawn adolescents often times refrain from social activities within the presence of peers; the shortage of social interaction in adolescence might result from a range of causes, together with social worry and anxiety or a preference for solitude. From babyhood through adolescence, socially withdrawn kids are at the same time predictively in danger for a large vary of negative adjustment outcomes, together with socio-emotional difficulties (anxiety, low vanity, depressive symptoms, and internalizing problems), peer difficulties (rejection, victimization, poor friendly relationship quality), and college difficulties (poor-quality teacher-child relationships, tutorial difficulties, college avoidance).

In middle childhood to adolescence, social withdrawal becomes more and more related to peer refutation, loneliness, depressive symptoms, social anxiety, negative vanity, and negative thoughts concerning their social skills and relationships (Boivin, Hymel, and Bukowski, 1995; Rubin, Chen, and Hymel, 1993). Moreover, results from longitudinal analysis indicate that socially withdrawn kids become old to be adults that suffer from feelings of depression and lower self-esteem, lead less active social lives, and show delays in necessary life transitions like getting married, having kids, and getting a stable career (Caspi, Elder, and Bem, 1998; Gest, 1997, Kerr, Lambert and Bem, 1996). Socially withdrawn kids are likely to face issues associated with early college adjustment, together with peer rejection, social isolation, inflated teacher attention, educational difficulties, and faculty refusal (Rubin, 1982; Hart, Yang, Nelson, Robinson, Olsen, Nelson, Porter, Jin, Olsen, & Wu, 2000; Coplan and Prakash, 2003).

Social withdrawal in childhood, depend on the age at which it is discovered, reflects the lack of a social interaction and a preference for object manipulation and construction over social exchange (Coplan, Prakash, O'Neil and Armer, 2004). The expression of social withdrawal represents the organic process or outcome of explicit temperamental tendencies (Fox, Nelson, and Rubin, 2005).

Peer satisfaction is the degree of peer relationship to that adolescent social acceptance by peers. It includes the amount of peer acceptability and also the ease with which a baby or adolescent will initiate and maintain satisfactory peer relationships. Peer acceptance and relationships are necessary for children's social and emotional development. Peer acceptance and friendly relationship bring about a very good of learning

and development opportunities for kids. These embody fellowship, recreation, building social skills, managing competition and conflict. They altogether promote self-exploration, emotional growth, and moral development. Parents, teachers, and other adults are good example of social support for kids; however it is among other kids that youngsters learn the way to act with one another.

Researchers typically explore two areas that are associated with a child's psychological and social development. The primary area is the child's social standing within the peer cluster and is indicated by the child's level of social acceptance by different members within the group, typically classmates. Another one is that the child's individual friendships, characterized by each of the number and quality of those friendships, though genes could also be an element in an exceedingly child's social ability and level of peer acceptance, and environmental factors are very necessary too. (www.healthofchildren.com). Analysis suggests that people who begin preschool with a devotee in their category create a much better adjustment to high school than people who do not begin with a devotee. Results from analysis in line with the National Network for Kid Care at Iowa State University indicate that, on average, twenty five percent of low-accepted kids drop out of college compared to eight percent of different kids, (Parker and Asher, 1987). The reviewed social health indices are important and may influence adolescent's behavioural formation, patterns or sustenance.

### Conceptual framework

The independent variables in this study are: loneliness, isolation, withdrawal and acceptability.

The dependent variable is health risk behaviours. The probable extraneous variables are: parental-separation, society, peer pressure and social media.

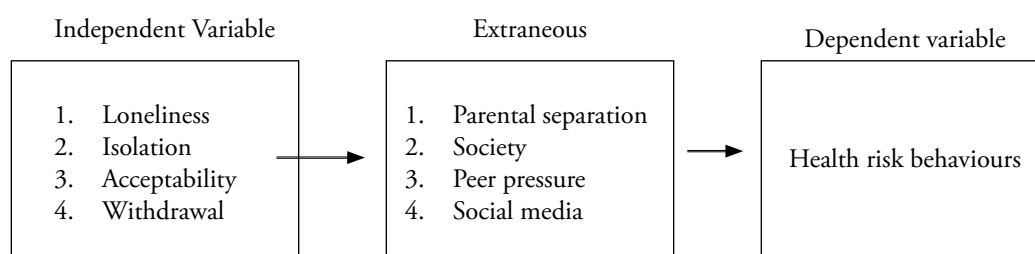


Fig 1: Conceptual framework for the study. Self-developed (2018)

### Theoretical Framework

#### The Social-Ecological Model: A Framework for Prevention

This model considers the complex interaction between individual, relationship, community, and societal factors. It helps to dissect factors that can put people at risk for violence or protect them from experiencing or perpetrating violence. Apart from helping to clarify these factors, the model also suggests that in order to avert violence, it is significant to act across multiple levels of the model at the same time.

**Individual:** The factors that affect individuals are age, education, income, substance use, or history of abuse. Prevention strategies at this stage includes; promotion of attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours that prevent violence.

**Relationship:** A person's closest social circle (peers), partners and family members influences the way they behave and contribute to immensely to the experience.

**Community:** This involves exploration of the settings, such as schools, workplaces, and neighborhoods, in which social relationships occur and seeks to identify the features of these settings which are associated with becoming victims or perpetrators of violence. Avoidance methods at this stage include (creating safe places where people live, learn, work, and play) addressing other conditions that give rise to violence in communities (neighborhood poverty, residential segregation, and instability, high density of alcohol outlets).

**Societal:** The factors that determines either violence is encouraged or discouraged. It includes social and cultural norms that support violence as a way of resolving conflicts. Other huge societal factors include the health, economic, educational, and social policies that help to maintain economic or social inequalities between groups in society. Prevention strategies at this stage consist of efforts to promote societal norms that guard against violence together with plans to support household financial security, education and employment opportunities, and other policies that influence the structural determinants of health.

## Data and Methods

The study examined adolescents' social health indices as determinants of health risk behaviours among secondary school students in Ijebu-Ode Local Government Area of Ogun State. The research design adopted for this study was descriptive survey. This study consisted 1,000 adolescents in secondary school / colleges within the study area. Sampling techniques, include stratified, proportionate and simple random sampling techniques to select adolescents from varied colleges.

The researchers developed a structured form to sought information. The instrument was named "Adolescents Social Health Indices Questionnaire (ASHIQ), and Health Risk Behaviour Questionnaire (HRBQ). The instrument was divided into sections A, B and C. Section A contained bio-data (characteristics of the respondents). Section B, sought information on social health standing of respondents whereas section C restrained health risk behaviour. Section A, B and C had twelve (12 items). To ensure the validity of the instrument(s), the instrument was subjected to face, construct and content validity by the researcher's supervisor and different specialists within the field and subject matter. The suggestions raised ensured that the instrument was valid.

In order to ensure reliability of this instrument, the instrument was administered on ten (10) College students who were not a part of the study in Ijebu-North Local Government area of Ogun State. The data collected were analyzed using Cronbach Alpha analysis, which yielded 0.78. The researcher obtained letter of introduction from the Head of Department of Human Kinetics and Health Education, Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State to gain access to the population under study. The researcher established rapport with the Principals, teachers and the respondents, the need to conduct the study. The instrument was then administered by ten (10) research assistants and ensured its high return rate.

## Results

**Hypothesis 1:** There is no significant combined effect of loneliness, isolation, withdrawal, and acceptability on health risk behaviour of adolescents

**Table 1: Regression Analysis on the combined effect of predictor variables (loneliness, isolation, withdrawal, and acceptability) on health risk behaviour of adolescents.**

R	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	F	Sig
0.457	0.209	0.205	53.17	0.00

Table 1: shows the joint contribution of the independent variables to the prediction of the dependent variable. Health risk behaviour has positive correlation with the four predictors variables which also show a coefficient of multiple correlation ( $R = 0.457$  and a multiple  $R^2 = 0.209$ , Adjusted value  $R^2 = 0.205$ ) this means that 20.5% of the variance was accounted for by four predictor variables when taken together. The significance of the joint contributions was taken together and tested at  $P < 0.05$ . The Table shows the analysis of variance for the regression yielded F value 53.17 ( $P < 0.05$ ). This implies that there is a significant influence of social health indices (loneliness, isolation, withdrawal and acceptability) on health risk behaviour. Therefore the null hypothesis was rejected.

**Hypothesis 2:** There is no significant relative contribution of loneliness, isolation, withdrawal, and acceptability on health risk behaviour of adolescents.

**Table 2: Relative influence of Social health indices of adolescents (loneliness, isolation, withdrawal, and acceptability) on health risk behaviors of adolescents.**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	22.861	1.491		15.332	.000
Loneliness	.557	.089	.221	6.270	.000
Isolation	.669	.089	.248	7.487	.000
Acceptability	-.310	.100	-.108	-3.086	.002
Withdrawal	.227	.101	.077	2.255	.024

Table 2: shows the relative contributions of each of the independent variables (loneliness, isolation, withdrawal and acceptability) to prediction of the dependent variable (health risk behaviour). It revealed that the independent variables were good predictors of health risk behaviour. Isolation was the most potent out of the predictor variables ( $\beta = .669$ ;  $t = 7.487$ ;  $P < .05$ ). Loneliness was next to isolation in predicting adolescents' health risk behaviour ( $\beta = .557$ ;  $t = 6.270$ ;  $P < .05$ ). Withdrawal was the next predictor variable of health risk behaviour ( $\beta = .227$ ;  $t = 2.255$ ;  $P < .05$ ) while Acceptability was the least predictor of adolescents' health risk behaviour  $\beta = -.310$ ;  $t = -3.086$ ;  $P < .05$ ).

## Discussion

The two hypotheses focused on combined and relative effects of social health indices of adolescents (loneliness, isolation, withdrawal and acceptability) will not significantly determine health risk behaviours among secondary school students in Ijebu-Ode Local Government of Area of Ogun State.



The stated null hypotheses of social health indices of adolescents (loneliness, isolation, withdrawal, and acceptability) on health risk behaviour were significant. Therefore the stated null hypotheses were rejected. The findings of this study is in line with Pressman and Colleagues (2005) who reported in their study that assessed the associations between daily loneliness and health practices, including alcohol consumption, they examined average daily loneliness as predicting average daily health behaviours, rather than the within-person associations between variations in loneliness and subsequent health behaviour. This finding also supported the findings of Andrew, Ai, Bayard, Erica, Pamela, and Sergei (2013) who concluded in their study that the prevalence of loneliness varies throughout the countries and that feeling lonely is associated with risky health behaviour in some countries and poorer health in every country. The implication is that loneliness might be an important, but until now, it is a neglected public health problem among adolescents. The findings of this study corroborated Cacioppo, and Hawkley, (2003), House, (2001) who confirmed in their studies that isolation and loneliness are believed to affect health behaviours through their impacts on social support or social cues for behavioural choices. The result replicates that of Cornwell and Waite (2009) who reported that social isolation has been associated with worse health risk behaviour across all age groups. Researches also reported in their studies that evidence of other mechanisms that link one or the other form of isolation to health outcomes suggests that social disconnectedness and perceived isolation affect health risk behaviour. Hawkley and Cacioppo (2003); Seeman (2000), Steptoe, Owen, Kunz-Ebrech and Brydon, (2004). Who believed that some aspects of perceived isolation are often linked to health outcomes through different means. The modification of health-related behaviours has not been found to account for the link between loneliness or the perception of a lack of social support and worse health outcomes. The findings of this study show that acceptability is a significant influence on health risk behaviour of adolescent. The result of the findings also shows that withdrawal also is a significant influence on health risk behaviour of the adolescents.

### Limitations of the study

The purpose of this study was to investigate adolescents' social health indices as determinants of health risk behaviours among secondary school students in Ijebu-Ode Local Government Area of Ogun State. The study examined the impact of loneliness, isolation, withdrawal, and acceptability on health risk behaviours. In carrying out this research work, the following limitations were encountered.

- The respondent's lesson schedules did not give some of them the chance to fill the questionnaire to time.
- Some of the respondents may not be sincere in information provided on the instrument in spite of the researcher's efforts.

Nonetheless, adequate measures were ensured so as to ameliorate. The researcher engaged school principal, teachers within the colleges and 10 other research assistants to assist with the administration of the prepared questionnaire. Finally, the researcher assured them of confidentiality of their information as the data is for research purposes.

## Conclusion

Social health indices (loneliness, isolation, withdrawal and acceptability) have combined and relative effects in determination of health risk behaviours among secondary school students in Ijebu-Ode Local Government of Area of Ogun State.

## Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made:

- Parents should be a good model and talk to their children about value.
- Social networks should be encouraged among adolescents. .
- Government should employ more counsellors in schools to monitor and guide the students on health risk behaviours and the school counselors should see their job as number one priority to address all students' academic, personal/social and career development need.
- Schools should engage and maximize the office of school counselors to the advantage of the students since they have received special training relating to children/students psychology

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## An exploration of blended learning and university students' academic performance

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### ABSTRACT

The study examined the effect of blended learning approach on undergraduate students' academic performance. The study adopted quasi-experimental research design. A sample of (84) 300 level students of Educational Management in Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijebu-ode, Ogun State Nigeria was drawn using purposive sampling technique. The sample was divided into two study groups 42 students in each group; the two groups were randomly assigned to be treated differently as experimental group (blended e-learning environment) and control group (traditional face-to-face teaching approach). The pre-test was administered to both groups. After all the essential topics were covered, post-test was given to both groups. The test scores were collated and subjected to statistical analysis to determine the level of performance of the two groups in the course (EDM 316). Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to determine the main and interaction effects of the variables of study. The hypotheses developed for the study were tested at the .05 level of significance. The findings revealed significant main effect of treatment (blended learning approach) on undergraduate students' academic performance, and no significant gender difference in the effect of blended learning approach on undergraduate students' academic performance. The study equally recorded a significant mean difference between experimental and control groups. It was therefore recommended among others that blended learning should be adopted for teaching at university level for the purpose of helping students to be thoughtful learners as the approach makes learning environment more conducive, customized and personalized.

### Keywords

*Blended e-learning environment, Traditional learning, Academic performance, Teaching, E-learning*

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## Introduction

The use of Internet technology has introduced a phenomenal change to the delivery of quality teaching and learning in every part of the world today. The concept of e-learning emerged as a result of the integration of information and communication technology (ICT) into the education fields, which indeed results in universal access to education. Many higher education institutions today have multiple modes of teaching delivery such as Programmed Instruction (PI), Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI), Computer Managed Instruction (CMI), Computer Based Training (CBT), Learning Management System (LMS), Web-based Learning etc. There is no doubt that some of the pitfalls in these applications of ICT to the delivery of education necessitate the introduction of "*Blended Learning*". This assertion is supported by Azizan (2010), who wrote that the best goal of blended instruction was to overwhelm drawbacks of pure

online instruction. Since either pure e-learning or traditional learning hold some weaknesses and strengths, it is better to mix the strengths of both learning environments to develop a new method of delivery called blended learning.

Blended learning, otherwise called hybrid or mixed learning combines e-learning and classical learning environments. It combines face-to-face and online experiences to occupy learners, and makes learning an exercise beyond the classroom walls. Staker and Horn (2012) defined blended learning as a formal education programme in which a student learns at least in part through online delivery of content and instruction with some elements of student control over time, place, path, and/or pace and at least in part at a supervised brick-and-mortar location away from home. While Garrison and Vaughn (2008) described the basic principle of blended learning as a situation where face-to-face oral communication and the online written communication are optimally integrated so that the strengths of each are blended into a unique learning experience congruent with the context and intended educational purpose. Also, blended programmes are seen as enhancing faculty and student satisfaction through a more efficient use of learning time (Wallace & Young, 2010).

### Purpose of the Study

The study examined the effect of blended learning approach on undergraduate students' academic performance. This research study is specifically interested in the investigation of students' academic performance before and after the adoption of blended learning in delivery of a course (EDM 316: Legal Aspects of School Operation) at undergraduate level. This is to ascertain whether blended learning could yield the same, if not better academic performance as compared with traditional classroom learning (conventional lecture method) so as to make recommendations on the use of blended learning approach in Nigerian Universities.

### Literature Review

#### Blended Learning

Osguthorpe and Graham (2003) emphasized six objectives of blended learning design as: pedagogical richness, access to knowledge, social interaction, personal agency, cost effectiveness, and ease of revision. Friesen (2012) cited in Akpan. and Aminikpo (2017) classified blended learning generally into five models namely: Station-Rotation Model, Laboratory-Rotation Model, Flex Model, Self-blend Model, and the Flipped Classroom Model. He stated that the station-rotation model gives students the opportunities to rotate around or between a given stations. And the students rotate on a fixed schedule or at the teacher's discretion among classroom-based learning modalities. In laboratory-rotation model, according to Friesen, an online lab model is developed where an online course is delivered in a physical classroom or in a computer lab without direct instruction from a face-to-face teacher. The flex blended learning model on the other hand is a model in which the curriculum is delivered through an online content provider with classroom teachers providing onsite support. While the self-blend model also known as the "*a la carte*" model allows students to design their educational experience by selecting specific online courses to supplement their traditional in-school coursework. Finally, flipped classroom model involves a rotation model in which the students rotate on a fixed schedule between online delivery of content and instruction, generally outside of the classroom, and face-to-face teacher-guided practice (or projects), generally in a classroom setting (Christensen, Horn & Staker, 2013).



Al-Hasan (2013) conducted a study on the effectiveness of using the blended learning on the academic achievement in the biology course among the second graders in the private secondary schools in Um Aldurman and their trends towards it. The study randomly sampled 41 students from the private secondary schools; they were divided into two unequal groups: experimental consisting of (26) students who studied through the blended learning technology, and the control group consisting of (25) who were taught in the traditional method. Data were collected by using two tools: achievement test and a questionnaire to measure the trend towards blended learning. Through the data analysis, the study concluded that there are statistically significant differences in favour of the students who have studied through the blended e-learning (the experimental group) and that there are statistically significant positive trends among the members of the sample who responded to the items of the questionnaire of the trend measurement towards blended learning.

In a study conducted by Darrin (2018) on blending learning behaviour and on university students' academic performance in Thailand with a sample size of 181 students from 13 different courses offered at the university. A cross-sectional design was employed by extracting data from the learning management system of the study site, and t-test, ANOVA, and multiple regressions were used for the analysis. The results indicated that there is a weak relationship between blended learning behaviour and academic performance. Absences were significant but tardiest and click use of the learning management system were not significant. This implies that benefits of blended learning are found in other ways than in their relationship with academic performance. Obiedat, Eddeen, Harfoushi, Montaha, Koury, & Alassaf (2014) cited in Payal. (2019) also conducted study on effect of blended-learning on academic achievement of students in the University of Jordan. A sample of 427 students from King Abdulla II School for Information Technology at Jordan University was randomly selected. The arithmetic average, standard deviation statistics and Pearson correlation matrix were used for the analysis. The results of the study recorded that there was a significant and positive impact of blended learning on academic achievement of the students in university of Jordan.

Similarly, Vo, Zhu, and Diep (2017) conducted study on the effect of blended learning on student performance at course-level in higher education using a meta-analysis. A significantly higher mean effect size was found in STEM disciplines compared to that of iron-STEM disciplines. Nevertheless, the weighted mean effect sizes revealed no significant differences regarding of end-of-course assessment methods, namely one-moment and multiple-component assessment. The finding confirmed that blended learning is significantly associated with greater learning performance of STEM disciplined students than with traditional classroom practice. Also, Ceylan and Kesici (2017) conducted a study on effect of blended learning to academic achievement. This study was carried out with a total of 53 students enrolled in the experimental group and control group in the 6th grade classrooms in a middle school in southwest part of Turkey. The study adopted quantitative method design. Academic achievement test and product evaluation scale were used as quantitative data collection sources. Quantitative data was collected through the evaluation of student's projects that they developed during the process of the study and the academic achievement tests. Independent t-test, frequency and ANOVA tests were used for data analysis. The study concluded in accordance with its results that blended learning environment had generated a significant difference in students' academic achievement on behalf of experimental group.

### Students' Academic Performance

Several factors have been identified by numerous scholars as factors influencing undergraduate students' academic performance, which vary from institutional factors; environmental and home factor; that is, type of parenting, and socio-economic status of students' parents to student factor. Studies have identified study habit, student's self-concept, teacher's qualification, teaching method, school environment, funding or resource availability, allocation and utilization, government policy etc. as factors influencing academic performance of students. In similar vein, Hijazi and Naqvi (2006) claimed that students' academic performance in higher education is influenced by various socioeconomic, psychological, and environmental factors. It is always in the best interest of educators to measure students' academic performance. This allows them to evaluate not only students' knowledge levels but also the effectiveness of their own teaching processes, and perhaps, provide a gauge of student satisfaction (Martirosyan, Saxon, & Wanjohi, 2014).

Crosnoe, Johnson and Elder (2004) identified 32 factors that could influence students' performance, and they include: fear; anxiety; confidence; concentration; health and wellbeing, social factors: peer group; family background; religion; home problems like broken home; infrastructure for learning; personal or family crisis, economic factors: financial problem and stress, environmental factors: good learning environment; class size; environmental condition; teaching and training method, personal factors: lack of reading habit and reading plan; unwillingness to assume full responsibility; playing and wasteful time spending; interest in a course; lack of self-discipline; procrastination; lack of desire, decision and determination; bad attitude towards school; lack of initiative and use of imagination; poor literacy skills of students; lack of self-discipline; lack of maturity; laziness or apathy; inadequate or poor examination preparation, academic factors: lack of provision of a bridge between theory and practical; heavy course workload.

Adeyemi and Uko-Aviomoh (2004) observed that the curriculum planning and physical expansion without adequate and sustainable human and material resources would definitely fail to produce the desired results. The ability of higher institutions to produce quality graduates depends largely on the quantity and quality of teachers available. Ephraim (2004) opined that Nigerian public institutions have high enrolments without enough qualified instructors and this has resulted to the worsened situation of staff/student ratio which is to the detriment of student's learning and academic performance. While Ajila and Olutola (2007) believed that the state of the home influences the individual since the parents are the first socializing agents in an individual's life. This is because the family background and context of a child affect his reaction to life situations and his level of performance. Okioga (2013) surveyed 186 college students and found that students' socio-economic background influences academic performance. He stated that families with a relative low income tend not to take an active role during their children's education, causing them a sense of constrain which, at the end, influences negatively their performance in higher education.

In a study carried out by Singh, Malik and Singh (2016), they found that there was positive and statistically significant impact of learning facilities, communication skills and proper guidance from parents on student academic performance. Kizito, Munyakazi and Basuayi (2016) examined the factors affecting student success in a first-year mathematics in South Africa. They found workload as the factor which was having the greatest impact on student's performance, followed by the matriculation examination score. Whereas, Frimpong, Agyeman and Ofori (2016) found out that the interruption of electricity supply, overcrowded lecture

rooms, unfavourable learning environment were significant factors influencing students' performance. Lepp, Barkley and Karpinski (2014) investigated the relationship between cell phone use, academic performance, anxiety, and satisfaction with life in college students and found out that cell phone use/texting was negatively related to grade point average (GPA) and positively related to anxiety. While Talib and Sansgiry (2012) identified that academic and test competence, time management, and test anxiety were significantly related to students' academic performance. Also, Shathele and Oommen (2015) investigated the factors influencing the academic performance of the female medical students in preclinical and clinical years. They found out that facility available for study, family support, and awareness about the course had positive influence whereas anxiety, stress and lack of sleep had negative influence on students' academic performance. In contrary to the above, Enu and Nkum (2015), who conducted study on the factors influencing students' mathematics performance in some selected colleges of education in Ghana found that inadequate teaching, learning materials, self-motivation and lecturer method of instruction were some of the factors that influence students' performance.

Another interesting variable influencing academic performance, which is not broadly researched, is working while in college. Astin (1993) stated that there is a negative relationship between academic performance and working, either the job is full-time or part-time. He pointed out that working hours decrease the students' involvement in campus activities. However, most of the studies have shown that paid work has a non-linear effect on academic performance. Therefore, there is a working-hour threshold that when the hours devoted to work overcome that threshold, students tend to decrease their academic performance. Applegate and Daly (2006) found that working more than 22 hours per week has a negative impact in academic performance. While Ruesga-Benito, da Silva Bichara & Monsueto (2014) have found that students working at least 15 hours per week are prompt to have a more negative academic performance than the ones that do not work.

## Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were developed and tested in this study.

- H<sub>01</sub>:** There is no significant main effect of treatment (blended learning approach) on undergraduate students' academic performance.
- H<sub>02</sub>:** There is no significant gender difference in the effect of blended learning approach on undergraduate students' academic performance.

## Research Procedure

This study used quasi experimental research design because there were only two groups involved in the study, the experimental group and the control group. Hence, this design was used to obtain data from the sample of the population and to establish the effect of blended learning approach on undergraduate students' academic performance. The conceptual model of the design is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{l} O_1 - X_1 - O_3 - \text{Experimental group} \\ O_2 - X_2 - O_4 - \text{Control group} \end{array}$$

Where  $O_1$ ,  $O_2$  refers to the pre-test observations of both treatment and control group respectively,  $O_3$ , and  $O_4$  refers to the post-test observations of treatment and control group respectively.

The sample consisted of (84) 300 level students of Educational Management in Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijebu-ode, Ogun State Nigeria. The sample was divided into two study groups 42 students in each group; the two groups were randomly assigned to be treated differently as experimental group (blended e-learning environment) and control group (traditional face-to-face teaching approach). Two types of treatment approaches were involved in this research, traditional and blended online approaches.

***The Control Group (Traditional/Conventional Teaching Setting):*** The size of this group was (42) students. Those students were in a traditional/conventional lecture setting, which is through face-to-face oral communication session. The students scheduled to meet with the lecturer twice a week. The students in this type of lecture were taught orally and visually by listening, seeing and interacting with the lecturer over the content material presented in the classroom settings. In addition, they have textbook written by the researcher on the course.

***The Experimental Group (Blended Learning Approach):*** The size of this group was also (42) students, they equally meet twice a week. They were instructed through a blended e-learning approach in which they had a chance to read their textbooks before class. This blending learning approach includes: online learning engagement/web based learning, that is, the use of online materials, and learning content management system.

The pre-test was administered to both groups. After all the essential topics were covered, post-test was given to both groups. The test scores were collated and subjected to statistical analysis to determine the level of performance of the two groups in the course (EDM 316: Legal Aspect of School Operation). Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to determine the main and interaction effects of the variables of study. While the hypotheses developed for the study were tested at the .05 level of significance.

## Presentation of Results

The results of the study are presented according to the postulated research hypotheses.

**Ho<sub>1</sub>:** There is no significant main effect of treatment (blended learning approach) on undergraduate students' academic performance.

**Table 1: Effect of Treatment (Blended Learning Approach) and Gender on Undergraduate Students' Academic Performance**

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	2173.401a	7	310.486	3.755	0.002
Intercept	6066.069	1	6066.069	73.372	0
Group	1647.21	1	1647.21	19.922	0
Gender	60.144	1	60.144	0.727	0.396
Pretest	317.972	1	317.972	3.846	0.054
group *gender	35.926	1	35.926	0.435	0.512
group *pretest	176.255	1	176.255	2.132	0.148
group *gender *pretest	64.954	2	32.477	0.393	0.677
Error	6283.302	76	82.675		
Total	237573	84			
Corrected Total	8456.702	83			

a. R Squared = .257 (Adjusted R Squared = .189)

Table 1 above reveals the main and interaction effects of the blended learning approach on undergraduate students' academic performance. There is significant main effect of the experimental treatments (group) which yield ( $F = 19.922$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ). Also, there is no significant interaction effect of group and gender ( $F = .435$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ).

**Table 2 : Effect of Treatment (Blended Learning Approach) on Undergraduate Students' Academic Performance**

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Contrast	1647.057	1	1647.057	19.922	0
Error	6283.302	76	82.675		

The F tests effect of group. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

Table 2 above shows a univariate F – ratio of 19.922 significant at  $p < 0.05$  level. The hypothesis, which states that there is no significant main effect of treatment (blended learning approach) on undergraduate students' academic performance, is rejected. Thus, there is significant main effect of treatment (blended learning approach) on undergraduate students' academic performance. This means that blended learning approach is effective at improving students' academic performance.

**Table 3: Estimated Marginal Means of Experimental and Control Group**

Group	Means	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Experimental group	56.838 <sup>a</sup>	1.412	54.026	59.649
Control group	47.941 <sup>a</sup>	1.407	45.138	50.744

<sup>a</sup> Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values pretest = 48.5714

Table 3 reveals the mean scores of the experimental and the control group. It shows that the experimental group had a mean score of (56.838) which is higher than the mean score of the control group (47.941). To determine the difference in the means, pairwise comparison was done and presented in Table 4 below.

**Table 4 : Pairwise Comparison of the Mean Scores of Experimental and Control Group**

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. <sup>b</sup>
experimental group	control group	8.897*	1.993	.000
control group	experimental group	-8.897*	1.993	.000

Based on estimated marginal means

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

<sup>b</sup> Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Less Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Table 4 above shows that experimental and control groups had a mean difference (I-J) of (8.897\*;  $P < 0.05$ ), meaning that the mean difference between the two groups is highly significant.

**H<sub>02</sub>:** There is no significant gender difference in the effect of blended learning approach on undergraduate students' academic performance.

**Table 5: Gender Difference in Effect of Treatment (Blended Learning Approach) on Undergraduate Students' Academic Performance**

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Contrast	23.131	1	23.131	.280	.598
Error	6283.302	76	82.675		

The F tests effect of gender. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

Table 5 above shows a univariate F – ratio of .280 not significant at 0.05 level. The hypothesis, which states that there is no significant gender difference in the effect of blended learning approach on undergraduate students' academic performance, is accepted. Thus, there is no significant gender difference in the effect of blended learning approach on undergraduate students' academic performance. This means that the treatment was not gender sensitive. The treatment is applicable in the same way to male and female students.

### Discussion of Findings

The findings of this study revealed a significant main effect of treatment (blended learning approach) on undergraduate students' academic performance, while the mean difference between the two groups was highly significant; and no significant gender difference in the effect of blended learning approach on undergraduate students' academic performance.

Studies have shown that students enjoy the blended learning experience (Akkoyunlu & Soylu, 2008; Banci & Soren, 2008) and that students in higher level academic work do not want to continue their education only in the traditional face-to-face learning environments nor do they want a purely online learning environment. They would like to meet and discuss the course content with their instructors and peers, but would like to use information technology as a learning tool as well (Orhan, 2008). All these studies stated above corroborate the result of this present study. The result of this present study is also in agreement with the finding of Hawkey and Beresford (2009) who found that blended-learning has a significant and positive impact on both teachers and students; and Shahin (2008), who found significant differences between the mean of the students' marks in the experimental group in the post-application for the trend's scale towards the blended learning in favor of the experimental group.

The significant effect of blended learning approach on students' academic performance found in this presented study might not be unconnected with the fact that the approach exposes the students to the use of information and communications technology (ICT). There is no doubt that this would affords the students various opportunities to combine their academic activities with family commitments without stress. This approach equally exposes students to various modern communication techniques, and bulk of online libraries and websites, which indeed promote students' learning and understanding.

The finding of this present study is also corroborated by Oblinger (2003) who in his study of generational values and education, concluded that based on the generational norms of Generation X (born between 1965 and 1980), blended learning offers a mechanism for meeting their needs within the value system that they embrace.



Milne (2007) also contended that this generation would not first associate cut and paste with scissors and glue and for them the digital camera always existed. As such, he argues that the learning space must be designed to accommodate the technological orientations of this generation. Davis and Fill (2007) equally buttressed this finding by concluding that blended learning has the potential to change students' experiences and outcomes through learning. Hameed, Badii, and Cullen (2008) in their study considered the efficiency of e-learning when mixed with traditional learning, also support the finding of this present study when they concluded that blended learning approach provides the most flexible method to e-learning.

Another likely reason for this study's finding might be due to several advantages of blended learning environments for learners. For instance, Azizan (2010) concluded that utilization of technology in physical classrooms offer extra resources for the students and this is expected to enhance learners' confidence and competence as well as improve the quality of learning. Chen and Jones (2007) also outlined other advantages of blended learning such as deep understanding of topics by using web-based resources as well as active participation of students in class.

### Limitations

This study had some limitations. The sample of the study were students from only a level from four levels in the department used for the study. Also, a course out of all the courses in the department was used as it was the convenient sample due to time constraint. The experimental group students were engaged with the use of online materials, and learning content management system. All these will no doubt affect the generalizations of the findings.

### Conclusion

Blended learning approach is the combination of face-to-face instruction with online platforms thereby provides conducive environment for both the traditional classrooms and the online settings. There is no doubt both face-to-face oral communication and online learning environment have different advantages which will be tapped with use of blended learning approach. For instance, the importance of facial expressions, eye contact, body language, and tone of voice on communication cannot be over-emphasized. Also the idea of integrating technology into course delivery allows students and teachers the use of information and communication technology for active learning. It should be noted that the use of this approach demands striking balance between face-to-face interaction and online access. It is therefore absolutely important that e-learning and face-to-face learning complement one another for purpose effective teaching and learning process. The use of blended learning is learners' centred thereby enables students plan their academic activities and learn at their own pace.

### Recommendations

Based on the findings above, the following recommendations were proffered. Blended learning is suggested for teaching at university level for the purpose of helping the students to be thoughtful learners as the approach makes learning environment more conducive, customized and personalized.

The universities in the country should blend because blending learning helps in providing strategies to solve the challenges faced in teaching and learning activities. It is effective, inexpensive, and develops both students' and teachers' quest for technological advancement.

Finally, training on blended learning design and delivery should be regularly organized for the university dons so as to encourage professional development among faculty members.

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## Women's empowerment role in leadership, Kyengera Town Council

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### ABSTRACT

The paper assesses the role of women empowerment in leadership and governance in Kyengera Town Council, Wakiso district, Uganda, focusing at how can women's participation in leadership and governance be enhanced? How does women's participation in leadership and governance enhance sustainable development? The paper employs a case study design using both quantitative and qualitative data collection approaches. A sample of 27 respondents was selected using Slovene's formula from 30 women in leadership positions in Kyengera Town Council. Data was collected by the use of questionnaires and interviews was edited, cleaned coded and entered into SPSS for analysis to generate descriptive statistics for interpretation and analysis of the results. Findings indicate diversification of talents of women, support for women in local elections, societal awareness of women's leadership on civic education, create cross-party women caucuses, and build capacity for female leaders as the ways in which women's participation in leadership and governance could be enhanced. Further, it was reported that, women's participation in leadership and governance could enhance sustainable development through, sustainable resource management, inclusion of women in political participation, promotion of women's participation in governance and the removal of barriers that marginalize women, and dialogue and networking. The paper concludes that involving women in leadership and governance is a mechanism to achieving sustainable development. The paper recommends that, government through inclusive policies should embrace women's interests in all leadership and governance platforms, provide rights to and ownership of property to women for sustainable development, and local governments should place women at the forefront of decision making to ensure sustainable leadership and governance. The paper contributes to the avenues in which women empowerment enhance leadership positions in decision making.

### Keywords

*Decision making, governance, leadership, women empowerment*

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## Introduction

The United Nations' focus on the post-2015 development goals strongly aligns women's empowerment and gender equality with women's leadership in economic development (UN Women, as cited Hinds, 2015, p.2). On the other hand, Sustainable Development Goal 16 provides for the promotion of peaceful and inclusive societies and a key component of an inclusive society is active participation by women in political processes (WFUNA, n.d). This implies that, the promotion of women's empowerment as a development goal is based on a dual argument: that social justice is an important aspect of human welfare and is intrinsically worth pursuing; and that women's empowerment is a means to other ends. There is a growing recognition of untapped capacity and talent of women and women's leadership and it can be

noted that, there was 49.6% of the global population in 2016, but only 23.6% had parliamentary positions (WFUNA, n.d) and 23.8% in 2017 (Policy Belief, 2018). However, the number of women parliamentarians in Sub-Saharan Africa was 23.9%, 27.5% in Europe and 28.2 % in the Americas (WFUNA, n,d). The brief indicates that the least percentages were in Asia (19.7%), Arab States (18.2%) and Pacific (14%) respectively. This reveals that, women's share of parliamentary seats have increased by almost 0.6 percentage points each year since 2007, approximately doubling women's representation in parliaments since 1995 (UN Women & IPU, 2017; IPU, 2018). It can be noted that, in 2017 only three countries had achieved the parity in their single or lower house parliaments including; Rwanda, Cuba and Bolivia (IPU, 2018). Despite the growing evidence in the numbers and of the benefits of women's leadership, women are underrepresented in decision-making positions across all sectors (Policy Belief, 2018). Consequently, women's meaningful participation in politics is affected in many ways which lower the full participation in political decision making (Policy Belief, 2018; WFUNA, n.d). Thus, a legislator's gender has distinctive impact on policy priorities making it critical that women are present in leadership and governance and other responsibilities (Policy Belief, 2018). Interestingly, there is strong evidence that as more women are elected to office, they impact on more policy making decisions imperative to good governance (Policy Belief, 2018; WFUNA, n.d). Notably, women's ability to attain financial autonomy or access to economic resources to enhance their participation in decision making is paramount for sustainable development and governance too (Hinds, 2015; Policy Belief, 2018). This implies that, when women are empowered, their communities experience higher standards of living which give rise to increased housing, health education and infrastructure. For example, in Wakiso district, women councilors occupy very influential leadership positions; the district Vice Chairperson is a woman and three other heads of sectorial committees of education, health and works are headed by women (FOWODE, 2017). This justifies the need for and inclusion of women in leadership and governance as it enriches decision making for viable community growth and development.

## Literature review

### How can women's participation in leadership and governance be enhanced?

Studies show that cultural, structural, and educational barriers continue to challenge women's participation and inclusion, limiting their ability to ascend to leadership positions which means that, various approaches need to be undertaken to enhance women's participation in leadership and governance.

Hill (2017) asserts that, ensuring women have the right to make decisions about their own bodies contributes to an enabling environment for women to thrive. He adds that when women cannot exercise their full reproductive rights, they may forgo advancement of opportunities and leadership positions since there is a high degree of overlap between childbearing and career-building years. This makes family planning services and comprehensive sexuality education available for girls and women throughout their life paths necessary to increase the number of women in leadership and decision-making positions.

Hill (2017) continues to state that, a number of seats need to be reserved for women, setting a minimum share of women on political candidate lists or corporate boards, or writing measures into statutes of political parties increase female leadership. Globally, it is estimated that women won more than 30% of political seats across 21 countries with transitional quotas compared to 15.4% of seats in 19 countries without transitional quotas in 2017 (Hill, 2017, UN Women, 2013 & IPU, 2017, Policy Belief, 2018). They further note that, the strategic use of transitional quotas in businesses also led to an increase in women on corporate boards in Belgium, France, Italy, Germany, and the Netherlands.



World Economic Forum (2017) indicates that when women are in leadership positions, they tend to encourage more women to fill leadership roles, and more women are hired at all levels. On average, companies with female CEOs have more women occupying board seats than companies with male CEOs, 29% and 15% respectively (Zarya, 2018). In politics, countries with women in leadership positions have become “role-models,” influencing politics between parties and in neighboring countries (Hill, 2017).

Providing women with skills-based training and mentorship programs that prioritize and support women's leadership through educational and skills-building programs for professional development help ensure that women can fully engage in the workplace and excel in leadership positions (Hill, 2017; DeLaurentis, 2014). This includes investment in and support for training, mentorships, peer networks, and other systems. A qualitative study of women leaders in academia found that women in senior positions benefited from mentoring relationships throughout their careers, supporting the notion that mentorships for women can improve the number of women in decision-making positions (Hill, 2017).

IPU (2017) & Hill (2017) contend that, combating Sexual Violence in Politics and Businesses is a key for enhancement of women's empowerment in leadership positions in various countries for example the Feminist Movements like [#MeToo](#), [#BalancetonPorc](#), [#NiUnaMenos](#), and many others, are exposing the magnitude of sexual harassment, misogyny, and gender-based violence in communities, corporations, academic institutions, governments, and the media. The movements have ignited debates within parliaments on how to prevent and combat gender-based violence, leading to the establishment of advisory boards specialized on harassment and initiatives within political parties to build environments in which women can thrive and exercise their human rights. (Mitigation of effects of gender based domestic violence)

Hill (2017) informs that changing the narrative including reshaping the global narrative around girls and women from victims and vulnerable people to drivers of progress, improves girls' and women's chances of becoming leaders. Women who identify and are portrayed as agents of change are powerful role-models who can influence their peers, communities, and younger generations. The media can play a crucial role in changing the narrative (UN Women & IPU, 2017). The Unstereotype Alliance, launched in 2017, is an industry-led initiative convened by UN Women to use the power of advertising to address harmful masculinities and gender inequality through better marketing practices (Unstereotype Alliance, 2017). Members who include leading consumer brands and Fortune 500 companies commit to portray all people as empowered actors, directly addressing unconscious bias in advertisements, and challenge each other to deliver only the best, un-stereotyped marketing content (Unstereotype Alliance, 2018).

Hill (2017) mentions that, ‘walking the talk’ is paramount to companies that publicly commit to improve gender diversity in senior positions are more likely to increase the share of women leaders within their businesses and to create accountability and play a crucial role in advocating for changes in laws, attitudes, behaviors, norms, and practices. A study by Weldon & Htun (as cited in Policy Brief, 2018, p.5) found strong autonomous women's movements to be the most important factor influencing and achieving a broad range of government responses to violence against women, thereby addressing a main barrier to women's ability to fully participate in leadership and decision-making opportunities.

It is of great importance for funding agencies to financially support Women's Organizations especially in leadership positions or even those willing to take part in the political leadership. Policy Brief (2018) indicates



that women's rights organizations, movements, and participation in policy dialogues are important catalysts of social progress. In Uganda for example whoever comes up strong either on the side of opposition or the government in power is weakened especially by the state.

How does women's participation in leadership and governance enhance sustainable development?

The United Nations' focus on the post-2015 development goals strongly aligns women's empowerment and gender equality with women's leadership in economic development (UN Women, 2013, as cited Hinds, 2015, p.2). This implies that, the progress of women into political roles has been positive but slow, and based on current trends the UN Millennium Development Goal of gender equality in political representation is likely to take another half century to achieve (McCann, n.d, as cited in Hinds, 2015, p.2). This affirms that, gender equality and women's empowerment are important for sustainable development and our common future. The UN General Assembly 2012, paragraph 31 states that, "we reaffirm our commitments to ensure women's equal rights, access and opportunities for participation and leadership in the economy, society and political decision-making" (Hinds, 2015).

On the same note, the Section XII, Charter of the Commonwealth, 2013 states that, "we recognize that gender equality and women's empowerment are essential components of human development and basic human rights. The advancement of women's rights and the education of girls are critical preconditions for effective and sustainable development" (Hinds, 2015).

Proportional representation systems not only afford more opportunities for women participation, but 'contagion' is more likely to occur in a proportional representation system than plurality/majority systems. Contagion is the process by which parties adopt policies initiated by other political parties. In the women's political participation context, once one party nominates women in prominent positions, parties in proportional representation systems will be "much quicker to adopt this policy." (WFUNA, n.d)

This acknowledges that, women are powerful agents of change, and the far-reaching benefits of diversity and gender parity in leadership and decision-making are increasingly recognized in all spheres of society (Domingo et al., 2015; Policy Brief, 2018). It can be noted that, when women hold more executive leadership positions, their companies are more profitable. Thus, companies in the top quartile for gender diversity on executive teams are 21% more likely to outperform the national average (Policy Brief, 2018, p.5). Women hold over 12% of board seats at the world's best-known companies, a rise of only 3.1% since 2009 (Hinds, 2015). A study by Dow Jones concluded that the 'overall median proportion of female executives was 7.1% demonstrating the value that having more females can potentially bring to a management team for start-ups with five or more females, 61% were successful and only 39% failed (Hinds, 2015).

Women as leaders and decision-makers at all levels are critical to advancing gender justice and gender equality and to furthering economic, social, and political progress for all (Policy Brief, 2018). When women are meaningfully represented and engaged in leadership bodies such as legislatures, courts, executive boards, and community councils, rulings and decisions are more likely to be inclusive, representative, and taking diverse views into account (OECD, as cited in Policy Brief, 2018, p.1).

Proportional representation systems feature greater women participation than plurality/majority system. In a proportional representation system, the electoral system is designed such that the overall votes for a party

corresponds to the proportion of seats in parliament. That is, a party that wins thirty percent of the vote will get approximately thirty percent of the seats in parliament. In plurality/majority (also known as winner-take-all), the candidate or party with the most votes is the electoral winner (WFUNA, n.d).

Interestingly, International organizations such as the United Nations and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) have gender equality monitoring mechanisms in place and report on these regularly, although not all refer to women's leadership (Hinds, 2015; WEF, 2017). For that note, women's leadership within households, including decision-making over land and household income, improves access to education and healthcare for their families (IMF, as cited in Policy Brief, 2018, p.1). This implies that, elevating women in decision-making benefits politics, businesses, and communities (Policy Brief, 2018). The Policy Belief also indicates that, women's leadership is intrinsically linked to achieving the Sustainable Development Goals including and beyond Sustainable Development Goal 5 "Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls."

Countries with a greater proportion of women as top decision-makers in legislatures have lower levels of income inequality (UN Women, 2013; Di Lanzo & Deliver, 2014). Studies have demonstrated that boards on which women are represented are more likely to be financially successful, have less likelihood of governance scandals and are less likely to operate in tax havens (MSCI, 2014, as cited in Hinds, 2015, p.3). Over the past several decades, there have been notable gains in women's leadership, with more women in decision-making roles in politics, businesses, and communities than ever before. Globally, there are fewer women CEOs, fewer women members of boards and only a small proportion of organizations with three or more women on the board (Hinds, 2015).

## Methodology

The paper employed a case study design which utilized both qualitative and quantitative data collection approaches. The study involved a total of 30 women in political positions like the councilors, women council leaders, town council leaders and chairpersons on various levels in Kyengera Town Council Wakiso district, Uganda. Out of the 30 women in leadership positions, a sample of 27 respondents was determined using Sloven's formula and the participants were purposely selected from Nsangi Sub County (currently, Kyengera Town Council) and included in the study. Data was collected from primary and secondary sources where, secondary sources included; journals, research papers, books and newspapers while the primary data sources were the respondents whom the questionnaires were administered and also interviewed. Using the questionnaire, authors collected information on how can women's participation in leadership and governance be enhanced? How does women's participation in leadership and governance enhance sustainable development? The data collection tool was revised and validated by experts in leadership and governance. The questionnaire included both close-ended and open-ended questions which the respondents gave their responses as per their understanding on the research questions. After data collection, the responses from open-ended questions were edited and coded to provide an inspection and correction for a better consensus. On the other hand, close-ended responses were coded to transform raw data into numbers. Thereafter, data was edited, cleaned and entered into SPSS for analysis to generated descriptive statistics from which interpretation and analysis of results was done.

## Results

This section presents the results and findings from the participants based on the various statements posed to the respondents by the researchers on the role of women's empowerment in leadership and governance in Kyengera Town Council and the responses are indicated in the various subsequent sections below:

### How can women's participation in leadership and governance be enhanced?

Based on the study, the respondents were required to provide their answers on the ways in which women's participation in leadership and governance can be enhanced as indicated in Table 1 below:

**Table 1: Enhancement of women's participation in leadership and governance**

Response	Frequency (n=27)	Percent
Diversification of talents of women	20	74.1
Capacity building of women leaders	26	96.3
Sensitization and awareness	25	92.6
Support women in local elections	26	96.3
Respect for women's rights and decision	27	100.0
Establishing quota system for women	23	85.2
Mitigation of effects of gender domestic violence	26	96.3
Walking the talk	20	74.1
Create cross party women caucuses	21	77.8
Provision of incentive to best performing female readers	18	66.7

*Source: Primary Data, 2019*

Results in Table 1 (See: Appendix 1) indicate that majority of the respondents (100%) reported respect for women's rights and decisions as the main approach through which women's participation in leadership and governance can be enhanced. The respondents also reported that capacity building of women leaders and mitigation of the effects of gender domestic violence were also key in promoting women's participation in leadership and governance, and these accounted for 96.3% respectively. These were followed by sensitization and awareness (92.6%) among the women to enhance their ability to participate in democratic governance and decision making. It was further reported that establishing women quota (85.2%) in any political system of governance was an important engine to enhance women's participation in leadership and governance across various political positions in the country. Results also revealed that creating cross party women caucuses (77.8%) enrich women's participation in leadership and governance in any country. Additionally, 74.1% of the respondents noted that, diversification of talents of women and 'walking the talk' were influential in ascertaining women's participation in leadership and governance respectively, and the least reported was provision of incentive to best performing female leaders (66.7%). This implies that, respecting women's rights, building their capacity and mitigating the negativity of gender based domestic violence empower the women and enhance their participation in various leadership positions at different levels. In countries where women are educated and supported in their location elections through civic education and financial support respectively, more women have participated in the political leadership of their regions and promoted sustainable decisions for their states as compared to their men counterparts. It can be noted that in achieving economic growth of any region, women play a key role and that is why it is better to enhance their participation in leadership and governance through the approach represented and analyzed above.

### How does women's participation in leadership and governance enhance sustainable development?

The paper sought to assess the approaches in which women's participation in leadership and governance enhance sustainable development and the responses from the participants are presented in Table 2 below:

**Table 2: Women's participation in leadership and governance enhance sustainable development**

Parameters	Frequency (n=27)	Percent
Proportional representation	25	92.6
Gender equality in political representation	27	96.3
Inclusion of women in political participation	16	59.3
Removal of barriers that marginalize the women	24	88.9
Sustainable resource management	25	92.6
Access to and ownership of resources	21	77.8
Sustainable Peace	15	55.6
Advancement of human rights and education of the girl child	26	96.3
Representation of marginalized persons	26	96.3
Dialogue and networking	20	74.1
Involvement of women's groups in policy making	18	66.7
Promotion of women's participation in governance	19	70.4
Cooperation and Collaboration with various women groups	21	77.8

*Source: Primary Data, 2019*

Results in Table 2 revealed that majority (96.3%) of the respondents reported advancement of human rights and education of the girl child, gender equality in political representation and representation of marginalized persons were the paramount approaches through which sustainable development is achieved as per women's participation in leadership and governance respectively. These were followed by proportional representation and sustainable resource management accounting to 92.6% respectively. It was also revealed that, removal of barriers which marginalize the women (88.9%) was substantial for sustainable development. Some respondents mentioned access to and ownership of resources like land and cooperation and collaboration with various women groups (77.8%) ensured sustainable development too; whereas, 74.1% represented those who asserted that dialoging and networking were key for sustainable development, only 70.4% stated promotion of women's participation in governance would ensure sustainable development. On the other hand, respondents (66.7%) reported about 66.7% of involvement of women's groups in policy making promote sustainable development. Regrettably, 59.3% and 55.6% of the respondents indicated that, inclusion of women in political representation and sustainable peace within and beyond families was bound to result in sustainable development. Women are good managers of resources as compared to their men counterparts which they undertake through efficient use of resources. Further, they are able to cooperate with their women fox through dialogue and networking. Additionally, removing barriers to the marginalized groups enhances sustainable peace and promotes gender equality resulting in proportional representations.

## Discussion

### How can women's participation in leadership and governance be enhanced?

Results revealed that, respect for women's rights and decisions play a key role in the enhancement of women's participation in leadership and governance. In most cases women cannot exercise their full reproductive rights and leadership positions since there is a high degree of overlap between childbearing and career-

building years. This means that women's rights including rights to their bodies, rights to vote, rights to quality education, rights to participate in politics and land ownership must be encouraged. In areas where women's rights are respected, more and more women have been able to participate in a number of political activities. The results agree with the findings of Hill (2017) who claims that sexual education for girls and women throughout their life time is necessary to increase the number of women in leadership and decision-making positions. This empowers them to participate in various positions of leadership in their communities especially when their rights are respected. Additionally, more organizations should train female legislators on how to engage with the media as this enhances women's leadership and serve as encouragement for African girls and boys. DeLaurentis (2014) adds that countries need to develop a curriculum for civic education that emphasizes women's leadership and dispelling cultural norms against it will ensure that future generations are more receptive to female political participation. Policy Brief (2018) confirms that women's rights organizations, movements, and participation in policy dialogues are important catalysts of social progress.

It is further revealed that, supporting women in local elections is a fundamental mechanisms in promoting women's participation in leadership and governance. When women are supported in terms of financing, civic education, capacity building and mentorship, their ability to participate in political aspirations increase. For example, in countries where women are sensitized on how to manage political leadership, governance and service provision, they have been able to perform incredibly. This implies that women need to be given funds to help them in their political activities and service provision to their electorates. Therefore, supporting in training, mentorships, peer networks, and other systems improve the number of women in decision-making positions (Hill, 2017). Programs that give women confidence and space to run for local office would increase the pool of experienced female candidates running for national seats. DeLaurentis (2014) adds that supporting women for local elections would reassure both potential female candidates and party leaders that women can win competitive elections. Therefore, it is of great importance for funding agencies to financially support Women's Organizations especially in leadership positions or even those willing to take part in the political leadership contests (Policy Brief, 2018).

Mitigation of effects of gender domestic violence is evidenced in combating sexual violence in politics and businesses as a key for enhancement of women's empowerment in leadership positions in various countries. Therefore, it is through this approach that feminist movements like [#MeToo](#), [#BalancetonPorc](#), [#NiUnaMenos](#) are exposing the magnitude of sexual harassment and gender-based violence in communities among the women and how it can affect their participation in leadership and governance (Hill, 2017; IPU, 2017). This encourages political parties to build environments in which women can thrive and exercise their human rights. Despite Hill (2017) focusing on the Feminist Movements as mentioned above, he forgot to present the value and importance of the Black Lives Matter Movement which fights against the discrimination of blacks in all aspects of their development. Htun (as cited in Policy Brief, 2018, p.5) explains that, women's movements are important factors influencing and achieving a broad range of government responses to violence against women, thereby addressing a main barrier to women's ability to fully participate in leadership and decision-making opportunities.

Findings revealed that diversification of talents of women was successful for women participation in leadership. This implies that women have a unique capacity to shed light on the often obscured needs of marginalized groups. In cases where women have successfully participated in leadership, they have been

able to urge both national governments and political parties to diversify the women chosen to run for and hold quota seats which is also influenced by international organizations to benefit the inclusion women in various leadership positions. Hill (2017) mentions that gender diversity in senior positions increase the share of women leaders within their businesses and creates accountability as well as playing a crucial role in advocating for changes in laws, attitudes, behaviors, norms and practices.

In any country, knowledge and skills are fundamental for women's participation in leaderships positions, hence a need for capacity building among all the women leaders. Interestingly, capacity building programs are long-term strategies for increasing the efficacy of female lawmakers which involves enhancement of women's political leadership. This implies that when women are in leadership positions, they tend to encourage more women to fill leadership roles, and more women are hired at all levels (World Economic Forum, 2017). Accordingly, capacity building for female parliamentarians enhances their knowledge around various issues and connect with civil society activists who liaise to create new beneficial policies (DeLaurentis, 2014). It is important to note that, providing orientation sessions prepare the women to cultivate their leadership potentials which helps them to make a meaningful contribution to governments and societies at large.

Results also showed that establishing quota system for women is very important for women's participation in leadership and governance. However, DeLaurentis (2014) asserts that, though quotas can be a powerful tool for elevating more women to political office, they can also function as a glass ceiling, with representation typically not surpassing the number that is required by law. Hill (2017) continues to say that a number of seats need to be reserved for women, setting a minimum share of women on political candidate lists or corporate boards, or writing measures into statutes of political parties increase female leadership. On the global scale, because of the establishment of the quota system, women won more than 30% of political seats across 21 countries with transitional quotas compared to 15.4% of seats in 19 countries without transitional quotas in 2017 (Hill, 2017, UN Women & IPU, 2017, Policy Belief, 2018). Zarya (2018) asserts that on average, companies with female CEOs have more women occupying board seats than companies with male CEOs, 29% and 15% respectively.

Findings also indicated that creating cross party women caucuses is a key in ensuring women's participation in leadership and governance. This means that most women lack the accrued power and influence of their male colleagues who are part of the "old boys' club (DeLaurentis, 2014)." Thus, in a way of supporting and advising the creation of women's caucuses, international organizations could amplify the voices and contributions of female legislators. This implies that, cross-party caucuses serve as important mediators of inter-party disputes, curbing disagreements before they interrupt the democratic process and civil society operations. To justify this, the Forum of Women Parliamentarians, for instance, was the first cross-party caucus in a dangerously split post-genocide Rwanda (DeLaurentis, 2014) and this comprised of women from all ethnic groups. This implies that via cross-party caucuses, women can also play a critical role when it comes to cultivating leadership capacities among their female colleagues.

### **How does women's participation in leadership and governance enhance sustainable development?**

Results indicated that women's participation in leadership and governance was through representation of marginalized persons in a given location. This implies that as the marginalized persons are represented they are able to work together and perform their duties effectively and efficiently. The marginalized persons like the women, the girls and people with disabilities are represented at the district and local councils as well



as other leadership positions in the area. Doing this has enhanced women's participation in a number of decision making which are effective for sustainable development. Consequently, under-representation of women at any level of governance and decision-making results in a democratic deficit which proves time and again that diverse groups make better decisions. This is particularly true when it comes to a task as challenging as representing the interests of citizens at the local level. This often influence policies in housing, security, transport and the economy. Local governments make important decisions that affect the lives of women and men for better development.

Results also revealed that advancement of human rights and education of the girl child was an important tool for ensuring sustainable development. It also stated that when you educate the girl you have educated the Nation. Since women are good managers for resources, when they are educated it stimulates resources conservation across the society. This ensures that resources will exist for both present and future generation. Therefore, in women's political participation context, once one party nominates women in prominent positions, parties in proportional representation systems will be much quicker to adopt the policy (WFUNA, n.d). Additionally, this is also paramount in the provision of environmental services and resources as required by a number of people in the community. The findings concur with Hinds (2015) who reaffirms that advancement of women's rights and the education of girls are critical preconditions for effective and sustainable development. On the other hand, proportional representation systems not only afford more opportunities for women participation, but 'contagion' is more likely to occur in a proportional representation system than plurality/majority systems. All in all, the freedom and right to participate in the life of the community is a right protected by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and covers all members of the society.

Findings from the study indicated that gender equality and proportional representation in political positions encourage sustainable development. This implies that, gender equality related to having equal representation of political aspirants is key to women's empowerment for leadership and governance. It therefore, calls for both women and men to be equally represented. This is clarified by the UN General Assembly 2012, paragraph 31 states that, we reaffirm our commitments to ensure women's equal rights, access and opportunities for participation and leadership in the economy, society and political decision-making. It further stipulates that gender equality and women's empowerment are important for sustainable development and our common future (Hinds, 2015). Thus, women's leadership within households, including decision-making over land and household income, improves access to education and healthcare for their families (IMF, as cited in Policy Brief, 2018, p.1). Interestingly, women's equal participation and representation in local decision-making processes is critical for prioritizing women's practical needs and issues in local governments' agendas and for localizing sustainable development.

The study revealed sustainable resource management is achieved through women's participation in leadership and governance. This implies that access to and ownership of resources like land is key to sustainable development. It can be noted that, in many societies, women are unlikely to own land and only 20% of the land owners globally are women (UN Women, 2017). This signifies that, in order for women to own family property, societal customs and cultures need to be amended to reflect non-biasness in the access to and ownerships of land (UN Women & IPU, 2018). Interestingly, this gives women a sense of ownership which is vital in sustainable resources management in any society. Therefore, ownership of land and property empowers women and provides income and security. Without resources such as land, women have limited

say in household decision-making, and no recourse to the assets during crises.

The findings indicate that, promotion of women's participation in governance and inclusion of women in political participation were the ways in which sustainable development was achieved. This means that, good governance requires good representation. Thus, it is not enough to simply increase the number of women in politics as a token of diversity and inclusion; it is important to promote the contributions of women in that transformation towards competence and ability (UN Women, 2013; UN Women & IPU, 2017). Democracy increases citizens' involvement and participation in governance while elections promote meaningful female participation at all levels of government and create space for women in politics. In addition women's democratic participation in the leadership creates space for all voices to be heard including their own, that of marginalized groups and people living with challenges. On the other hand, women's participation in leadership promotes accountability and transparency in governance, an engine for sustainable development. It can further be noted that, the ability of women to attain financial autonomy is necessary for their involvement and participation in political life because women have access to fewer economic resources and they are often unable to pay the cost associated with gaining a party's nomination and standing for election.

It is worth noting that, in order for any country to develop, dialogue and networking along with cooperation and collaboration with various women groups are crucial. This is based on the fact that, women are faced with resistance from male leaders which obliged them to establish cross-community coalitions to foster dialogue. It is further noted that, dialogues and networking build a bond between nations which may help to ensure sustainable peace and natural resource conservation. Similarly, women's political participation results into tangible gains for democracy, including greater responsiveness to citizen's needs, increased cooperation across party and ethnic lines and more sustainable peace. During the dialogue, women provide better decisions as compared to their male counterparts which in turn, provide tangible benefits to the communities. In areas where there is conflict/struggle between the people and the owners of the resources, without dialogue it may be very difficult to ensure that the resources are sustainably utilized. Additionally, networking helps to bring to one's attention the responsible persons for resource management and environmental protection. Such lobbying and liaising encourages interaction and streamlining of resources.

It is very important to remove barriers that marginalize the women such as limited access to quality education, sex abuse, and gender based domestic violence. It is therefore, noted that involvement in civil society gives women the opportunity to influence government, gain visibility, credibility, respect, and help remove barriers to women's political participation (IPU, 2017). Creating strong partnerships among women in civic organizations and women in political parties and elected office helps to advance women's agenda in a structured manner (UN Women, 2017). It is further stated that planning and financial allocation of engagement of women and men enhances gender equality.

## Conclusion and Recommendations

The paper concludes that, gender equality must not be seen as an end in itself but also as catalyst to development. The investment made in women and girls are of themselves multipliers of development progress. Failure to make those investments, and failing to boost the status of women and girls, thwarts the political thrust not only of individuals, but also families, communities and nations. Additionally, fair representation and participation of women in governance and leadership are two of the preconditions for

achieving genuine democracy. There could be no real democracy if half the population is excluded from participation and power. A democracy which favours one gender over the other will not suffice in the 21st Century. Women's full participation in leadership and governance are fundamental for sustainable development. When women are "out of sight out of mind", meeting their needs does not get prioritized. Conversely, when there is a critical mass of women decision makers, the issues which previously went on unaddressed can become priorities. Thus, active and meaningful participation of women in decision making processes regarding the use and management of resources is critical for effective leadership. It hoped that as more women take their rightful place in the ranks of decision makers, critical issues of importance will come to the top of political, legislative and budgetary priorities. Such an approach will help address the concerns of the marginalized within society.

The paper recommends that, government through inclusive policies should embrace women's interests in all leadership and governance platforms and positions in order to enhance their leadership aspirations, the government should provide rights to and ownership of property to women for sustainable development, and local governments should place women at the forefront of decision making to ensure sustainable leadership and governance.

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