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Editorial

Welcome to volume 3 of *East African Researcher*. This issue carries nine contributions, touching on attributes of education, management, counselling, human rights and the environment. The editor is happy to note that the journal continues to attract contributions from a wide range of disciplines, consistent with the multidisciplinary scope of the journal.

The first paper, by Fawz Nassir Mulumba, delves into cross-border students' perceptions of the capacity of higher education institutions (HEIs) in Uganda to provide higher education of a satisfactory quality. Quite interestingly, these perceptions are disaggregated by nature of university, gender of the students and religious affiliation and sending country, so areas requiring enhancement are clearly highlighted for relevant policy makers and the scholarly community.

Ogwokhademhe et al investigated the factors influencing the study habits of secondary school students in Ilorin metropolis. Their study found that "School Related factors" influenced students' study habits most significantly, so their study discusses the implications of this finding for the schools.

Reporting on part of a study on the impact of public financing on the effectiveness of tertiary education, Gesa's paper discusses public financing and the effectiveness of tertiary education institutions in Central Uganda. Gesa attempts to respond to the rhetorical, but hitherto not scientifically answered, question of whether increased public funding would enhance the effectiveness of public tertiary institutions. Grounded on the findings of a recent survey, he concludes that public financing of tertiary institutions positively impacts on the effectiveness of the institutions in a significant way.

Still in the area of secondary education, Adaeze's paper reports on the findings of a study that examined the impact of reward systems on staff productivity. The paper reports that workers awareness of a higher reward system in other organizations affects their performance, but the variations that exist between similar organizations have a higher level of impact on the job performance of staff. Employees engage in specific tasks because of the ultimate reward they expect and they would put much effort into their work if they expect to be appropriately rewarded. It is interesting to note that this paper endorses established motivation theory and past research on the subject.

Away from education, Ankwasize reports the findings of a study that examined family rights synergies, inter-intra family linkages, and counselling implications in Entebbe-Wakiso Uganda. Basing on primary data elicited within the framework of a recent survey, he argues that women's rights and men's rights have to be advocated for in terms of ownership of property, and freedom to be and to do what they want. Accordingly, the paper calls for a shift in the mindset of both males and females and for intervention by policy makers, to mitigate family rights violations.

Okhakhume's study examined the influence of social stigma and social support on care-giving attitudes towards incarcerated persons by members of their families. Conducted in a correctional facility in Ibadan, the study showed that social support had a significant positive relationship with care-giving attitudes, while social stigma had a significant negative relationship with care-giving attitude. Age, educational status, social stigma and social support had a significant joint influence on care-giving attitudes albeit only social stigma and social support had significant independent influence on attitude towards caring for incarcerated family members.

Lubaale and Rutaremwa delved into the determinants of land ownership for female headed households in Uganda. They report that most households in Uganda own land through customary tenure after which they identify the factors influencing land ownership in the country. Their dataset challenges the tacitly held view that women in Uganda do not have access to land.

Taking the case of Kwara State, Nigeria, Bukoye and Ogidan report on the findings of a survey of employers' attitudes towards employing people living with disabilities (PLWDS), with a special focus on the implications of these attitudes for occupational counselling. They found that majority of employers have negative attitudes toward employing PLWDS. They also found that there was no significant difference in the employers' attitudes based on age and nature of employment. In view of these findings, they discuss the need for the employers to change their attitudes and propound pertinent recommendations.

Finally, Okaka and Apil discuss the types of biomass sources available for energy supply in Wakiso District. They explain the types of biomass energy technologies currently in use, their limitations and recommendations for their increased efficiency. They report that there is escalating overdependence on biomass energy for household, institutional and community needs in both urban and rural areas; and lack of public awareness on fuel efficient alternative energy technologies.

Samuel Ssozi Kafuuma, PhD
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July 2013



Cross-border Students' Gender, Religion, Nationality and Nature of University and Satisfaction with the Facilities in Universities in Uganda

Fawz Nassir Mulumba ¹

Abstract. This study investigated cross-border students' perceptions of institutional capacity in respect to demographic characteristics in public and private universities in Uganda. Specifically, the study investigated the level of satisfaction of cross-border students with institutional capacity as correlates to their demographics. A descriptive comparative research design was employed. Using a self administered questionnaire totaling to 775, data were collected and analyzed using means, t-test and correlation analyses. The findings revealed that there is a significant difference between male and female, Muslims and Christians, public and private and among nationalities in regard to institutional facilities.

Keywords: Reward systems; Performance; Job productivity

Introduction

The movement of students is associated with a number of benefits, among others: provision of students with an opportunity to attain a higher education that is perceived to be of higher quality than that provided at home, provides students that are inadmissible to their choice study programs at home with an opportunity to gain admission to their preferred study programs, allows students to study from settings that offer better prospects of post higher education employment opportunities and, in instances where the cost of tuition and living in the receiving country is lower than that in the sending country, it allows students and/or their benefactors to save on the cost of attaining higher education, it enables sending countries to educate their citizens for whom places or study programs might not have been available at home. Cross-border students bring income to their receiving institutions, an important advantage at a time of declining public funding for higher education institutions. They also bring prestige to the institutions, through diversifying their student populations Knight, (2005).

Foreign student receiving countries also earn foreign income from them. For example, international education contributed US\$11 billion to the US economy in 2000. It is one of Australia's top-earning exports, contributing over A\$4.4 billion annually and, in the United Kingdom, international students bring about £10 billion to the economy annually. In the 2004/05 financial year, Uganda earned \$32m (sh51b) from cross-border students, according to statistics from Uganda Revenue Authority. Finally, cross-border students contributed to the internationalization of students in universities, as a result universities teach internationally diverse students, who share knowledge from their countries and disseminate the knowledge acquired abroad in their home countries on return (Ssempebwa *et al.*, 2012; Oyewole 2009).

It was however reported that, there has been a decline in the number of cross-border students in almost all universities in Uganda due to unclear reasons (NCHE 2010). In trying to explain why; authors like Ouma *et al.*, (2012) and Knight (2007; 2005) note that study abroad may involve challenges that could repulse current and prospective cross-border students. For instance, Knight (2005) explained that although the mobility of students, professors, knowledge and value had a number of benefits, the list of potential risks was also very long. Therefore, there is a need for appropriate policies and regulations to guide and monitor the current and future developments. It is also noteworthy that foreign higher education is provided in an internationally competitive environment (Sanga, 2012). Prospective cross-border students have a multiplicity of Universities/ countries to choose from. As a way of emphasising this, Sanchez, *et al.*, (2007), pointed out that higher education institutions should be critical in addressing service quality concerns if they are to achieve a differential advantage over their competitors.

The inference here is that, to attract these students and realize the benefits they bring in a sustainable way, the institutions receiving them need to: forestall the challenges the students could face; and leverage the competition imposed by institutions in other countries in attracting the students (Sanga, 2012). The institutions could achieve this through maintaining satisfactory standards of quality in their service delivery. After all, literature related to motivations for study abroad (Ouma, 2012, Nicolescu, 2005) suggests that flagship among the attractions to study abroad, is a desire to attain university education of a higher level of quality.

Knowledge Gap

The veracity of institutional capacity in higher education has been a question for a long time. Since the early 1980s, it has become one of the main focuses of policies for higher education in Uganda, as universities are increasingly under pressure to increase their accountability for the services they provide to local and international students (IUCEA, 2010; NCHE, 2005). The increasing competitive environment has led to a number of higher education institutions to monitor levels of student satisfaction as an indicator of quality service delivery.

Despite the globalization demands on higher education, Kasozi (2002) and Kajubi (1989) pointed out a major global trend impacting on East African education in form of the rapid creation and decay of knowledge. The world over, new knowledge is being created almost every day making previous assumptions obsolete. The rate of transformation of economies from material-based to knowledge-based is hitting Uganda as well. The world economy is changing as knowledge supplants physical capital as a source of present and future wealth (Mamdani, 2007; Kasozi, 2002). It is within this learning society that university education will make remarkable contribution through teaching, scholarly work and research, and contributing to lifelong learning (Nkata, 2001).

The liberalization of higher education in Uganda has seen a tremendous increase in the number of private providers of higher education and the transformation of higher education into a marketable commodity. In this contest, education has become a product (Mamdani, 2007). Education institutions are the merchants with products to sell and students are viewed as customers ready to buy these products. The soul and ideals of higher education which are the socialization and empowerment of individuals, the building of the nation and providing a base for the disinterested but vigorous search for the truth seem threatened by this expansion of higher education (NCHE, 2004). The questions asked are: Do higher education institutions give value for money? Do they have adequate physical, academic and financial resources to provide quality and relevant higher education? Are they properly managed? What sort of programmes do they offer and how sound and relevant are they? Are these educational institutions sustainable in the long run or are they ephemeral? Consequently, what are the long-term implications of these inadequacies to regional and global positioning of Uganda's higher education *visa-vie* cross-border education?

In line with the above, NCHE (2006) observed that one of the major challenges in the delivery of higher education is inadequate funding compounded by the politics of fees, donor policies and insufficient national income. Therefore the implementation of academic programmes has been hampered by financial constraints, out dated curricula, institutional inability to recruit and retain qualified staff and the lack of adequate physical facilities. Programmes that require practical training lack laboratory materials and equipment, most science and technology students find it difficult to complete their programmes and receive a lot more theoretical than practical training. The infrastructure of institutions, most of it constructed in the colonial period, is no longer able to sustain the growing numbers of students especially in public universities. Private universities especially for profit have also set up shoddy facilities which may compromise the quality of services offered.

Similarly, Kajubi (1989) explained that physical resources of higher education institutions needed to be adequate and of the right quality. However, there has been gross negligence in the maintenance of buildings and other facilities such as offices and staff houses, lecture rooms and theaters, seminar rooms and science laboratories. Also in some institutions of higher learning, libraries seriously lack

up-to-date reference books, text-books, journals and research publications. Unless these physical facilities are rehabilitated and the necessary instructional materials procured as early as possible, the high academic standards in tertiary education institutions would be difficult to maintain. To enable these institutions to achieve their traditional functions of teaching, research and community services, they should be provided with adequate and appropriate physical, manpower and above all financial resources.

In its state of higher education reports (2004, 2006 and 2010), NCHE has consistently reported inadequacy in institutional capacity of higher education institutions in the country. In 2004, the council observed that the inadequacy of academic facilities – books, computer laboratory facilities (ICTs), lab equipment and materials, projectors, etc – were some of the striking, if not surprising findings of the survey of higher education institutions in Uganda. It was observed that, regardless of the nature of ownership, size, history and location, higher education institutions (HEIs) were found lacking in most of these aspects. None of the institutions was satisfied with the range of academic facilities at its disposal and for many of them the available academic facilities left a lot to be desired. The Universities and other Tertiary Institutions Act (2001) also emphasized that such institutions should have adequate facilities in order to offer quality education services.

It was observed further that the book situation in many higher educational institutions was bleak. The quantitative data survey showed that of the 155 institutions then, 35 (22.6%) had no books at all. Another 54 (34.8%) institutions had less than 1000 books. This means the library services in 56% of all H.E.I were far from satisfactory if not very bad to use a softer language. A few institutions had small libraries stocked with very old books. For some institutions, having books of any kind did not seem to matter ostensibly because students and lecturers had access to reading materials on the internet. Out of 155 HEIs studied, only 70 (45%) had laboratory (lab) or workshop space. The remaining 85 (55%) institutions, including some universities, did not have laboratory or workshop space. Those institutions that have labs or workshops had acute shortage of equipment and teaching materials. Therefore, majority of private universities preferred offering the arts/humanities programs rather than science, engineering and technology courses.

Kasozi (2004) attributed the decline in quality of education services to low and declining level of key inputs such as infrastructural materials, computer laboratories, libraries and teaching facilities among others. NCHE, (2005) reported in the visitation committee to Public Universities Report, 2006/7, that in the science and technology faculties at Makerere, the computer laboratories were not only too small to accommodate the growing students numbers but the equipment was too old (dating back to the 1960s and even 1950s) or had broken down owing to lack of repairs and maintenance. Laboratory inputs such as chemicals and specimens were in short supply. As a result, during lab sessions, most students

were reduced to the role of observers, merely recording the results obtained by a few who could access the equipment and the material inputs.

In order to curb the above challenges, the government of Uganda established regulatory bodies like NCHE; whose mandate among others is to monitor the performance of Universities (NCHE, 2010). The Council enforces a checklist of higher education institution capacity indicators to ensure adherence to satisfactory standards of quality in higher education delivery. Also, observable practice in higher education institutions in the country shows that the institutions are making efforts to assure quality in their service delivery. For instance, most of them have established departments that are responsible for quality assurance; reviewed their teaching programs and submitted them for external accreditation; and joined regional and international quality assurance networks. The institutions' strategic development plans (KYU, 2009; PDD, 2008) also show concern for quality assurance in all the attributes of the institutions service delivery.

Nevertheless, review of literature related to cross border higher education in the country (Businge, 2012; Ouma *et al.*, 2012; IUCEA, 2009; Kasenene, 2009) showed that information on the extent to which institutions' cross-border students were satisfied with the quality of the institutions' facilities was generally scanty. The aforementioned efforts to improve quality had been aimed at improving quality assurance generally rather than informed by feedback from the demographic characteristics of students (PDD, 2008; Mayanja, 2007; Nakanyike and Nansozi, 2003; Court, 1999), despite the fact that they could have peculiar expectations and challenges. Notwithstanding NCHE's contribution, these efforts to assure quality might not satisfactorily forestall the challenges cross-border students in the country could face let alone leverage the competition higher education institutions in the country could face from similar institutions in other countries.

Theoretical Underpinning

Higher education institutions had faced drastic changes especially in financial assistance and the negative growth in the student numbers. Therefore, the management of these institutions had to find ways to tackle these changes or else they would have to bid adieu to their business. The solution to this was applying "service quality" in their operations which made the difference among all higher learning institutions (O'Neill and Palmer, 2004).

Service quality is defined as the difference between customers' expectations for the service performance prior to the service encounter and their perceptions of the service perceived (Asubonteng, *et al.*, 1996) while the perceived service quality is defined as a global judgment or attitude, relating to the superiority of the service (Parasuraman, *et al.*, 1985). Therefore, many researchers carried out numerous studies to evaluate the service quality and subsequently Parasuraman *et al.*, (1985) developed SERVQUAL model (based on functional quality rather than technical quality) which became an adapted model for many to be used for measuring of service quality in higher learning institutions. The SERVQUAL model constructed

based on a gap model in terms of the differences between perception and explanation. These differences were measured from the evaluation by the customers from their perception of pre-consumed and post-consumption of a service.

Methodology

Design

The study followed a descriptive comparative research design. This involved the use of a self administered questionnaire to selected foreign students. The design was most appropriate because it allows collection of all the data required on given variables at a given point in time (Amin, 2005). The study employed this design to compare CBS' perception of institutional facilities in public and private universities in respect to their demographic characteristics. The attributes to measure were library, ICT, accommodation, health and sports along with sex, nationality and religion. Inferences were to made on all international students' perception because (a) the study reflects a multinational composition of students since the sample was drawn from Kenya, Rwanda, Somalia, South Sudan, Tanzanian, Burundi and Nigeria (b) it compared university facilities from both public and private universities.

Population and Sample

The target population involved 11992 cross-border students from all universities in Uganda which admitted cross-border students. Data concerning these students were collected from NCHE (2010).

Table 1. Study Population and Sample Size

University	Population ¹	Sample ²
Kampala International University	6715	364
Kampala University	400	196
Kyambogo University	30	28
Makerere University*3	1829	317
	8974	907

¹Culled from NCHE (2010); ²Based on Krejcie and Morgan (1970); ³Includes Makerere University Business School

Table 2. Distribution of Respondents

Variable	Categories	Count	Percentage
Gender	Female	324	42
	Male	451	58
	Total	775	100
Sending country	Burundi	81	10
	Kenya	328	42
	Nigeria	51	7
	Rwanda	62	8
	Somalia	134	17
	Sudan	77	10
	Tanzania	42	5
	Total	775	100
Type of university attended	Private	526	68
	Public	249	32
	Total	775	100

The allotment of sex in the universities studied indicates a higher proportion of males 58.3 per cent over females 41.7 per cent. Sex differences with more male than female characterize most of the education institutions in Africa at large and Uganda in particular. The distribution of cross-border students by age showed that 80 per cent of the respondents were in the age range between 20 and 39 years. The rest accounted for 20% of the distribution of the various age groups. More than three-quarter (80 per cent) were in the early adulthood years of life a phenomenon which is consistent with established criteria for university enrollment. The distribution of cross-border students' by religion shows that Christians dominated the sample (64 per cent) as compared to their Muslim counterparts (36.0 per cent). This distribution is probably a reflection of the dominance of Christianity in the composition of the population from the five out of 7 countries under study. Although not the majority but rather the highest in percentage (42.3 per cent) were Kenya student respondents; while 57.7 per cent were a mix of various nationalities such as Somali, Burundi, S. Sudanese, Nigeria, Rwanda and Tanzania. The high percentage of Kenyans was partly explained by the fact that education in Kenya was considerably expensive compared to the rest of her neighboring countries and that the quality of education in Uganda was also comparatively higher. Finally, Table 2 revealed that the majority of the respondents (67.8 per cent) were studying in private universities whereas 32.2 per cent were from public universities. This could probably be attributed to relatively cheaper education in private universities, massive advertisement, relaxed entry procedures, flexibility in admissions, and existence of bridging programs among others. These customer tailored approaches would persuade cross-border students to private universities.

Scope, Instruments and Data Quality

The study delved into the extent to which cross-border students in Kampala International University, Kampala University, Kyambogo University and Makerere University expressed satisfaction in regard to library, ICT, accommodation, sports and health services in their universities according to demographic characteristics. Using a four-point Likert-scale continuum, the students were asked to specify whether they found attributes of library, ICT, Accommodation, sports and health services in their universities “Very Satisfactory”, “Satisfactory”, “Dissatisfactory” or “Very dissatisfactory”. The attributes, which were mainly derived from published literature on capacity indicators in higher education, were comprised into a self-administered questionnaire for the students. The questionnaire was divided into two main parts: 1) “Background Information about the Respondent”, eliciting information on the respondents’ gender, country of origin and type of university; and 2) “Satisfactoriness of the Quality of Higher Education facilities”, eliciting information on the extent to which the respondents found attributes of their universities’ facilities satisfactory. The validity of the instrument derives from the fact that the attributes of library, ICT, Accommodation, sports and health service quality included in the instrument were identified from (validly) published related literature. Indeed, the validity of the instrument was endorsed by three reviewers all of whom were experienced and widely published researchers in the area of quality assurance in higher education. Cronbach’s alpha internal consistency coefficient for the (second part) of the instrument was established at .87, the inference being that the instrument was reliable. Cronbach’s alpha was used to establish the consistency of the instrument because the technique is well suited to Likert-scaled instruments (Amin, 2005).

Analysis

The data collected on the respondents’ profiles were analysed using frequency counts and percentages. The respondents’ perceptions of attributes of the quality of their universities facilities were scaled on a Likert-scale and assigned scores. Consequently, for each of the attributes, the scores were computed into means. Thereafter, the difference between these means and the best possible mean were subjected to a one-sample student-t test, to establish the significance difference between the perceived levels of facilities at the level of confidence $\alpha = .05$.

Limitations and Ethical Considerations

The study focused only on library, ICT, accommodation, health and sports services, despite the fact that, in higher education, institutional facilities includes more than those investigated in the study. Secondly, all the universities involved in the study are located in Kampala, so the data collected could reflect geographical specifications that may not be generalized to universities in other parts of the country. Thirdly, data were collected only from foreign students enrolled in

traditional face-to-face study programs thus perceptions of those on off campus studies may vary. Finally, the data collected from the four universities are reported in aggregates although individual institutional experiences may vary widely. Therefore, there may be need for further research in this area, aimed at addressing these limitations. Data were collected with the informed consent of the managers of the selected universities. Secondly, the data collected were reported in aggregates, to uphold the anonymity of the universities and that of the individual respondents.

Findings

Gender

Table 3. T-test of students' sex and mean values on Institutional Capacity

Category	Sex	Mean	t-value	Sig	Decision on Ho
Library	Male	2.7352	-5.472	0.000	Rejected
	Female	2.9737			
Computer	Male	2.5094	-4.295	0.000	Rejected
	Female	2.7381			
Health	Male	2.3448	-2.788	0.005	Rejected
	Female	2.4964			
Accommodation	Male	2.2411	-1.840	0.066	Accepted
	Female	2.3465			
Sports	Male	2.8831	-2.307	0.021	Rejected
	Female	3.0465			

P = 0.05

Cross-tabulation of the influence of sex on cross-border students' perception of institutional capacity revealed that t-values and their corresponding levels of significance indicate that the perception of the CBS on library ($t = -5.472$, $P = 0.00 < 0.05$), computer ($t = -4.295$, $P = 0.00 < 0.05$), health ($t = -2.788$, $P = 0.005$) and sports ($t = -2.307$, $P = 0.021 < 0.05$) facilities differed significantly. The perception however did not differ significantly as far as accommodation facilities were concerned ($t = -1.840$, $P = 0.06 > 0.05$) the mean values suggested that both male and female were equally dissatisfaction with the quality of accommodation; male (mean = 2.2) and female (mean = 2.3). Generally, with the exception of accommodation facilities, both male and female CBS perceived the capacity of the universities' institutional capacity differently. Notwithstanding the unanimous results, one would have expected female CBS to be rather satisfied than male counterparts since most universities tend to offer special attention to female students when it comes to accommodation. The implication therefore, is that conditions for accommodation require serious attention. Most public and private

universities attach less emphasis on accommodation hoping that students can always find their own suitable accommodation. It should be noted however that among the reasons as to why CBS choose a given university especially private ones, is on the premise that such a university possesses comfortable accommodation facilities as advertised.

Religion

Table 4. T-test of students' Religion and mean values on Institutional Capacity

Category	Religion	Mean	t- value	Sig	Decision on Ho
Library	Muslim	2.7459	-3.120	0.002	Rejected
	Christian	2.8872	-3.101		
Computer	Muslim	2.4844	-3.421	0.001	Rejected
	Christian	2.6724	-3.394		
Health	Muslim	2.4338	0.706	0.480	Accepted
	Christian	2.3942	0.712		
Accommodation	Muslim	2.3115	0.652	0.515	Accepted
	Christian	2.2722	0.639		
Sports	Muslim	2.9665	0.282	0.778	Accepted
	Christian	2.9454	0.292		

P = 0.05

The results in Table 4 demonstrated that there was a significant difference in the perceptions of cross-border student on library (t-value 3.12 and P = 0.002) and computer labs (t-value 3.421 and P = 0.001). This meant that the null hypothesis which stated that there would be no significant difference in the level of institutional capacity as perceived by Muslim and Christian cross-border students on library and computer laboratories was rejected. However, in regard to health (t-value 0.71 and P = 0.48), accommodation (t-value = 0.65 and P = 0.515) and sports (t-value 0.29 and P = 0.778) the hypothesis was accepted since the level of significance was greater than 0.05. There by a no significant difference in the perceptions of Muslim and Christian CBS on health, accommodation and sports facilities.

The study however, revealed a unique finding that Muslim and Christian CBS differed in their satisfaction on library (t-value = -3.120 and -3.101) and computer laboratory (t-value = -3.42 and -3.40) at a significance level P = 0.002 and P = 0.001 respectively. The possible explanation to this could be based on their varying orientation or background. For instance, in this study Somali students constituted 17% of the study sample and all were Muslim while Kenyans accounted for 42% and majority were Christians. Basing on this background, it was possible that Somali students' level of satisfaction on library and computer labs was met since they were coming from a war torn country hence low expectations, while the satisfaction levels of Kenyans were not met since their country has been stable for over 30 years and thus their expectation levels were much higher than those from

war ravaged Somalia. However, the researcher could not base such disparities on ideological differences.

Nationality

Table 5. ANOVA in Mean values on Institutional Capacity by Nationality

Attributes	Nationality	Mean	Std. D	F	Sig.	Decision on Ho
Library	Somali	2.58	0.592	5.002	0	Rejected
	Burundi	2.86	0.445			
	Kenyan	2.88	0.623			
	Sudan	2.86	0.591			
	Nigerian	2.93	0.508			
	Rwandese	2.89	0.617			
	Tanzania	2.92	0.646			
Computer	Somali	2.22	0.645	9.124	0	Rejected
	Burundi	2.53	0.665			
	Kenyan	2.73	0.712			
	Sudan	2.67	0.694			
	Nigerian	2.54	0.831			
	Rwandese	2.77	0.67			
	Tanzania	2.71	0.807			
Health	Somali	2.23	0.611	3.182	0.004	Rejected
	Burundi	2.35	0.742			
	Kenyan	2.45	0.79			
	Sudan	2.28	0.673			
	Nigerian	2.57	0.797			
	Rwandese	2.57	0.674			
	Tanzania	2.58	0.752			
Accommodation	Somali	2.13	0.521	1.275	0.267	Accepted
	Burundi	2.28	0.681			
	Kenyan	2.32	0.716			
	Sudan	2.34	0.672			
	Nigerian	2.22	0.849			
	Rwandese	2.34	0.717			
	Tanzania	2.44	0.815			
Sports	Somali	2.84	0.757	3.856	0.001	Rejected
	Burundi	3.3	0.983			
	Kenyan	2.84	0.854			
	Sudan	3.11	0.722			
	Nigerian	2.96	0.958			
	Rwandese	3.18	0.76			
	Tanzania	2.96	1.086			

$p = 0.05$

Basing on a one-way ANOVA, results from Table 5 revealed that the F-value and their corresponding levels of significance indicate that there was a significant difference in the perception of library ($F_{(6, 30)} = 5.00$, at $P = 0.001$), ICT ($F_{(6, 30)} = 9.124$, at $P = 0.001$), health ($F_{(6, 30)} = 3.182$, at $P = 0.004$) and sports ($F_{(6, 30)} = 3.856$, at $P = 0.001$) resulting from the differences in nationality of the CBS. The exception was the accommodation facilities whose perception did not differ

significantly ($F_{(6, 30)} = 1.275$, at $P = 0.267$). Post hoc comparisons using Boniferroni test indicated that the mean score for Nigeria (mean = 2.6), Rwanda (mean = 2.6), and Tanzania (mean = 2.6), were higher than Somalia (mean = 2.2), Burundi (mean = 2.3), Kenya (mean = 2.5) and S. Sudan (mean = 2.3). This meant that although there was no significant difference in CBS perception of health facilities, a variation on the level of satisfaction was noticeable.

Nature of University

Table 6. ANOVA in Mean on Institutional Capacity by Type of University

	University	Mean	Std. D	F	Sig	Decision on Ho
Library	Public	2.90	0.657	5.09	0.024	Rejected
	Private	2.80	0.571			
Computer	Public	2.78	0.711	22.01	0.000	Rejected
	Private	2.52	0.721			
Health	Public	2.71	0.759	65.25	0.000	Rejected
	Private	2.26	0.687			
Accommodation	Public	2.50	0.711	21.63	0.000	Rejected
	Private	2.21	0.676			
Sports	Public	3.06	0.750	3.51	0.062	Accepted
	Private	2.91	0.904			

$P = 0.05$

Table 6 revealed that cross-border students' satisfaction differed on four attributes of institutional capacity between public and private universities in such a way that library ($F_{(6, 30)} = 5.09$ and Sig-value = 0.024); Computer labs ($F_{(6, 30)} = 22.01$ and Sig-value = 0.000); health ($F_{(6, 30)} = 65.25$ and Sig-value = 0.000) and accommodation ($F_{(6, 30)} = 21.63$ and Sig-value = 0.000), hence the hypothesis of no significant difference in institutional capacity with regard to type of university was rejected at 0.05 level of significance. On the other hand, their satisfaction in regard to sports facilities ($F_{(6, 30)} = 3.50$ and Sig-value = 0.062) in public and private universities was not different. This meant that the hypothesis of no significant difference in the perception of CBS on the level of institutional capacity between public and private universities was accepted.

Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

Findings in Table 3 revealed that the perception of CBS on four out of five indicators considered to measure institutional capacity was significantly different between male and female CBS in both public and private universities. The indicators included Library, computer laboratories, health and sports facilities. The exception was accommodation facilities whose perception was similar in both

male and female and as a result, they were dissatisfied with it. This revealed that there is a need for improving accommodation facilities in universities in Uganda. It should be noted that although both male and female were equally satisfied with institutional capacities, with exception to accommodation, female CBS were more satisfied than their male counterparts as illustrated by the mean differences. Notwithstanding the fact that the female CBS were more satisfied with Library, computer laboratories, health and sports facilities, findings indicate that the level of satisfaction that both categories of sex derived from the delivered institutional capacity was generally below their expectation. This suggests that the institutional capacity needs to be improved in order to yield the level of satisfaction expected by the CBS.

The above findings are further supported by Koovakki, *et al.*, (2005) whose study was to ascertain the level of satisfaction with career seekers in the resources and services of university, college and public libraries. The survey revealed that users using university libraries were most satisfied and using public libraries were least satisfied. A difference was also observed between the level of satisfaction with male and female users.

As for nationality although not the majority Kenyans were rather the highest percentage representation and the rest of the six (6) nationalities were represented by (58%). The cost of education and the entry bottlenecks to universities in Kenya would greatly explain the influx of students to Uganda. However, it should be noted that Kenya is working towards reversing this trend to emerge as a leader of quality higher education supplier in East Africa. This argument is supported by Kasozi (2013) explaining that Kenya is likely to ride on its well-set higher education system to further improve the quality of its higher education. Furthermore, a comparison of nationalities depicted varying levels of satisfaction with institutional capacity in universities in Uganda. For instance, on library facilities, cross-border students from Burundi, Kenya, S. Sudan, Nigeria and Rwanda were satisfied unlike those from Somalia. In terms of sports, all CBS were satisfied as shown by their corresponding means in Table 5. The rest of the attributes ICT, health and accommodation, cross-border students CBS were dissatisfied. It is on this ground that the researcher argues that basing on their country of origin, cross-border students perceived university institutional capacity differently

Basing on the type of university, cross-border students in public and private universities expressed divergent levels of satisfaction. In terms of library, ICT, health and accommodation facilities, CBS from private universities were generally dissatisfied with almost all items which were used to measure the level of satisfaction on these facilities (Table 4.2a, 4.2b, 4.2c and 4.2d) respectively. It is worth noting that institutional capacity in universities in Uganda is at varying levels of satisfaction. The consequence could probably point towards the fact that majority of these students study in private universities and thus their dissatisfaction may deter the continuous flow of CBS to such universities. This observation is supported by Ssempebwa (2012) and Kasozi (2005) who found out

that, private universities in Uganda admitted more cross-border students than public universities. The study also revealed that public universities especially Kyambogo have not take great interest in attracting cross-border students since only 30 students were found. This could be on the ground that since these universities are assured of their quota from the Joint Admissions Board, and the increasing competition for private students' admission to public universities, they are reluctant to engage in massive programs to attract cross-border students unlike their counter parts in private universities.

Furthermore, Wambui *et al.*, (2011) in their study a comparative analysis of business students' perceptions of service quality offered in Kenyan Universities. They went out to ascertain business students' perception on quality of service provided by public and private universities in Kenya. As a comparative study, it aimed at understanding how various factors or dimensions of service quality affected students' perception within a university setting. Findings indicated that most university students were positive about the quality of service they received in their respective universities with overall mean scores above average. The important dimensions or factors that determined service quality in Kenya universities were administrative quality, academic quality, programs quality, student support, and availability of resources. This observation helps to explain that differences in perceptions occur between public and private universities.

To elaborate further on the contribution of cross-border students' involvement in evaluation of quality of service delivery, Colleen and Anne-Marie (2004) in a study; the experiences of international students in New Zealand reported on the results of the national survey prepared for the Ministry of Education Centre for Applied Cross-cultural Research and School of Psychology Victoria University of Wellington that institutional facilities (e.g. health services, accommodation services, vocational guidance, computing services, and learning support) were evaluated favorably, particularly by students enrolled in tertiary institutions, and just over half of the international students rated their institution's facilities as good or excellent. Despite these positive evaluations, students appeared relatively uninformed about the actual availability of services. In some cases, up to 40% of students were unable to say if their institution provided a particular service. These findings suggested that universities should initiate more thorough and comprehensive strategies for disseminating relevant information to international students. In an interview conducted by the researcher, cross-border students explained that it is difficult for them to engage in sports activities since some universities do not have a clear way of assimilating them into the sports schedule or even identifying their talents.

As regards religion, results in (Table 4.1c) revealed that cross-border students who are affiliated to Christianity were the majority (64 per cent) compared to Muslims (36 per cent). This variation in representation has been documented in literature especially concerning distribution of education in Uganda. For instance, Kasozi (1996), Sookded (1988), Hansen (1984), Lockard (1974) and Welbourn (1965) have tried to trace the imbalance in education distribution between

Christians and Muslims dating as far back as colonial times. Carter (1965) and Musoke (1939) cited in Kasozi (2003) explains further that the aspect of Muslims lagging behind in education was not only evident in Uganda, but it stretched throughout East Africa. This finding therefore, points in the direction that since most of the countries in the study shared almost similar historical background, the evidence given by these scholars could probably explain why there was a variation in cross-border students' representation in regard to religion.

The significant effect of the entire institutional capacity (library, ICT, accommodation, health and sports) on cross-border students' satisfaction with regard to demographic characteristics implies that if these attributes are improved there is a great likely hood that confidence in quality of facilities in universities in Uganda will improve. There by addressing Kasozi (2013) assertion that Uganda is losing to Kenya as a regional educational hub. Therefore, interventions, if appropriately conceived and implemented, can and will make a difference.

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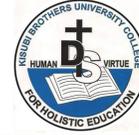
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Factors influencing Study Habits as Perceived by Secondary School Students in Ilorin Metropolis

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Abstract. This study investigates the factors influencing the study habits of secondary school students in Ilorin metropolis. Descriptive survey method was employed and the target population is all secondary schools students in Ilorin metropolis. The target population is 200 students from 10 randomly selected secondary schools. A total number of twenty students were sampled from each of these schools. A Researcher developed instrument was used to collect relevant data. The findings revealed that “School Related factor” was the highest factor influencing students’ study habits gender, class level, residence and relationship status of the respondents’ did not influence their perception on study habits. Age of the respondents on the other hand influence their perception. With the findings of the study, it was recommended that counsellors should alert the school administration, teachers and government on how to provide enabling environment for students to study to enhance academic excellence.

Keywords: Study habits; Secondary education; Teaching and learning

Introduction

Falling standard of education as it is generally reported and confirmed by some research findings especially among secondary school students as evidenced by a great proportion of students failing both the internal and external examinations has been a source of concern to the governments, researchers and education stakeholders in Nigeria. In order to find lasting solution to this problem, the government of Nigeria employed some drastic steps which include among others;

- Reduction in the price of textbooks;

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- Provision of free exercise book;
- Employment of qualified and dedicated teachers to impart quality knowledge on the students; and
- Authorizing students to register and pass at least five subjects so that students can be focus on core subjects and perform better in more important subjects e.g. English language, Mathematics and any other three subjects in their area of specialization (Olubunmo, 2005).

With this assertion, students are expected to be able to meet up some qualities and quality of requirements demanded of their course in higher institutions of learning. Despite all these plans and strategies, failure is still recorded year in, year out. Kim (2012) now added that students that have been termed and prove “intelligent” have underperformed in examinations compared to the “unintelligent” ones. If intelligence was all that was needed to excel in examinations, then students termed “dull” or “unintelligent” should not outperform the “intelligent” ones, in reality, this happens. With this illustration, it can be stated that “extra work” that needed to be done was probably left out or other factors are responsible for academic excellence than being intelligent or a dullard.

There is an extra work that needs to be done if any student is to achieve whatever result the student so desires. Effective study has been reported to be a crucial factor that begged excellent of learning about something by reading and researching; it is also as systematic acquisition of knowledge and an understanding of facts and principles that call for retention and application. Okorodudu (2000) added that study is a programme of subject matter mastery, it involves hard work. Study habit on the other hand is a behaviour that is systematically formed by students towards learning and achieving high academic performance has been attributed to students’ effective study habits. And Bakare (1977) earlier reported that study habits should be logical, dynamic, functional and relevant to the personal characteristic of a person.

A study behaviour by contrast constitutes the overall approach itself, representing students concept of how to accomplish learning goals and the specific actions taken (Jones, Slates & Manni, 1996). Eweniyi (2002) reported many Nigerian students have defective study habits. And this finding is clearly accepted without doubt as it is very clear to see that students no longer see studying as a way forward. There is always going to be smart student(s) who would sit next to them in the examination hall from whom to copy. Examination malpractice is now the order of the day; students want to reap where they have not sown.

Statement of the Problem

Quality educational system is very important for the development of any nation; and this is a function of the tri-partite partnership, in which the government, teacher and students. For this partnership/relationship to yield the desired

outcome, all parties to this must play their part adequately. This study therefore focuses on the students' part of the relationship which is reflected on their study habits.

Research studies have been conducted to find a lasting solution to this problem such as Adeusi (2013) which expressed that the goals of many secondary school students while resuming school is academic success, however, this intent may be thwarted by defective study habits. The National Assessment on Educational Progress (1994) conducted a study to find out the relationship between study habits and academic performance of students. The finding revealed a positive relationship between study habits and academic performance while Azikkwe (2001) study also revealed a positive relationship between academic success and study habits.

This study intend to go beyond what other researchers have done, to find out the various factors influencing study habits as perceived by secondary school students in Ilorin Metropolis. In other to conduct this study, the following research questions were formulated:

- What are the factors influencing study habits as perceived by secondary school students in Ilorin Metropolis?
- Is there any significant difference in the factors influencing study habits as perceived by secondary school students based on gender, class level, residence, and relationship status?
- Is there any significant difference in the factors influencing study habits as perceived by secondary school students based on age?

Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are generated for the study:

- There is no significant difference in the factors influencing study habits as perceived by secondary school students based on gender, class level, residence and relationship status.
- There is no significant difference in the factors influencing study habits as perceived by secondary school students based on age.

Methodology

Descriptive survey method as adopted for this study. This survey method was employed because it is a useful scientific tool employed to investigate into the perception people have of certain issues. Kerlinger (1979) ascertained that descriptive survey method is a research approach that focuses on people and their beliefs, opinions, perception, motivations and behaviour. The population for this study is all secondary school students in Ilorin metropolis while the target population is 200 secondary school students that are randomly sampled in

secondary schools in the metropolis. Five secondary schools were randomly selected and twenty students were randomly selected sampled from both the junior and senior classes in each of these schools that made up of 200 respondents that participated in the study. A researcher designed instrument tagged "Factors Influencing Study Habits Questionnaire" (FISHQ) was developed to collect relevant data from the respondent. It is structured in a Likert form of four scales of Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree and Strongly Disagree. The instrument has items that were positively and negatively structured. The positively structured items were scored positively (SA; 4; A; 3; D; 2; SD; 1) while the negatively structured items were scored negatively (SA; 1; A; 2; D; 3; SD; 4) respectively. The instrument has subsections A, B, C and D which house school related factors, family related factors, personal/social related factors and emotional/psychological related factors with five items each. The instrument was validated by experts in the department of Counsellor Education and the reliability was ascertained which the outcome was 0.78.

Results

The data collected for the study were duly analyzed with both the descriptive and the inferential statistic. All hypotheses were tested at 0.05 alpha level.

Table 1. Factors Influencing Study habits as Perceived by the Students

The factors that influence study habits include:	Mean	Rank
Parental support.	3.26	1 st
Quality teaching staff.	3.26	1 st
High standard of teaching in the school.	3.25	3 rd
Availability of guidance and counselling services in the school.	3.18	4 th
Determination level.	3.17	5 th
Location of school.	3.17	5 th
Existence of good library facilities.	3.15	7 th
Confidence level.	3.15	7 th
Ability to take notes very well in class during lecture.	3.15	7 th
Ability to remember and recall important points.	3.13	10 th
Peer group influence.	2.96	11 th
Ability to approach teachers after class for clarity.	2.95	12 th
Socio-economic status of parents.	2.95	12 th
Interpersonal relationship with peers.	2.93	14 th
Literacy level of parents.	2.89	15 th
reactions to criticisms from teachers/parents/peers	2.83	16 th
Parental view concerning gender equality/inequality.	2.80	17 th
Birth position of student in the family.	2.79	18 th
Relationship /dating status.	2.78	19 th
Disability status.	2.68	20 th

Table 1 shows that all the items were perceived by the respondents to be influencing study habits. With the four scale of 4, 3, 2, 1 adopted, the mean is 2.5 ($(4+3+2+1) \div 4$) and the least ranked item is 2.68 which is still higher than the mean of the scale. This reflected that all the items were perceived to have strong influence on students' study habits.

Factors Influencing Study Habits

Table 2. Factors Influencing Study Habits as Perceived by Secondary School Students

Factors Influencing Study habits	N	Mean	Rank
School Related Factors	200	3.20	1 st
Personal / Social Related Factor	200	3.02	2 nd
Family Related Factor	200	2.94	3 rd
Emotional / Psychological Related Factor	200	2.92	4 th

Table 2 shows the various factors influencing study habits and the mean of each factor. From this table, it is deduced that "School Related Factors" is the highest factor influencing secondary school students study habits. Other factors also had their influence as seen in their various means, but the highest of them as perceived by the respondents is SRF.

Hypothesis One: There is no significant difference in the factors influencing study habits as perceived by secondary school students based on gender, class level, residence and relationship status

Table 3. T-test of Scores on Factors influencing Study Habits

Variable	Frequency	Mean	SD	df	Cal. t-value	Crit. t-value
Gender						
Male	90	59.26	11.21			
Female	110	61.31	9.92	198	-1.37	1.96
Total	200					
Class Level						
Below 30 yrs	89	59.28	11.78			
31 yrs & above	111	61.27	9.39	198	-1.33	1.96
Total	200					
Residence						
Day	160	59.79	11.22			
Boarding	40	62.78	6.80	198	-1.61	1.96
Total	200					
Relationship Status						
In a relationship	72	61.31	10.41			
Not in a relationship	128	59.88	10.62	198	0.92	1.96
Total	200					

Table 3 shows that the calculated t-value(s) for gender, class level, residence and relationship status is lower (-1.37, -1.33, -1.61, 0.92) than the critical t-value (1.96), that means the hypothesis is accepted which shows that secondary school students' gender, class level, residence and relationship status do not influence their perception on the factors influencing study habits, it means based on these variables, they perceive these factors the same way.

Hypothesis Two: There is no significant difference in the factors influencing study habits as perceived by secondary school students based on age

Table 4. ANOVA in Factors influencing Study Habits based on Age

Age	Sum of squares	df	Mean Squares	Calculated F-ratio	Critical F-ratio
Between Groups	1472.85	3	490.95		
Within Groups	20638.51	196	105.30	4.66*	2.60
Total	22111.36	199			

*Significant, $p < 0.05$

Table 4 shows that the calculated f-ratio of 4.66 is greater than the critical f-ratio at 0.05 alpha level of significant, therefore the hypothesis is rejected. This means that age of the respondents influence their perception on the factors influencing study habits. Since there is a significant difference based on respondents' age, Duncan Multiple Range Test was employed as a post hoc test to determine the age group that was responsible for the significant difference.

Table 5. Duncan Multiple Range Test of Factors Influencing Study Habits Based on Age

Age	Frequency	Mean	Duncan Grouping	Group
10 – 15 years	143	60.96	A	2
16 – 20 years	47	60.94	A	3
Below 10 years	8	51.88	B	1
21 years and above	2	40.00	C	4

Table 5 shows that all the age groups have different means. Groups 2 and 3 have a slight different while groups 1 and 4 have a great different. Groups A₅ are closely related while groups B and C are significantly different. Therefore, it is concluded that the significant difference that was noticed is reflected mainly between Groups A, B and C which are significant different from one another. That is, age group of the respondents influences their perception. They perceive factors influencing study habits differently.

Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

The major finding of the study revealed that “School Related Factor” was perceived by secondary school students to be the highest factor influencing study

habits. This finding agreed with Jaffe (2012) report that schools cause poor study habits in students by making the simple, harmless, encouraging statement “study for examination”. Jaffe emphasized that this statement which is widely regarded as a sign of responsible academic practice usually encourages students’ behaviours and dispositions that work against the larger purpose of human intellectual development and learning and concluded that rather than telling students to study for examinations, schools should be telling them to study for learning and understanding.

Gender, class level, residence and relationship status of the respondents did not influence their perception on the factors influencing study habits. This finding is in line with the findings of Olubunmo (2005) which asserted that class level and relationship status of the respondents does not influence their perception on factors influence study habits but the finding disagree with this finding based on gender and residence of the respondents which revealed significant difference in the perception of respondents on factors influencing study habit.

Age of the respondents influence their perception on the factors influencing study habits. This revealed that students belonging to various age groups have different perception on factors influencing study habits. This is in line with the finding of Olubunmo (2005) which revealed that there is a significant difference in the factors influencing study habits of secondary school students on the basis of age group.

With these findings; the following recommendations are proffered:

As School Related Factor has been revealed to be the highest factor influencing study habits, counsellors are to educate and sensitize the school administration and the teachers on their contributions to students’ academic success. Schools are to provide enabling and well equipped libraries and laboratories to enhance effective learning and teachers are to utter positive and motivating words to enhance effective study habits on their students high quality teachers are to be employed, schools should employ and effectively use the school counsellor for what they are trained for rather than being an ordinary class teacher, all these will assist students in their study habits.

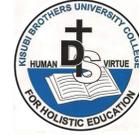
Government should release more funds to the educational sector and adequate monitoring of these funds so that these funds are used for what they are budgeted for.

Guidance counsellors are to be posted to all schools from the primary to tertiary levels so as to monitor the affairs and welfare of students at these various levels to enhance academic excellence and good study habits.

Ability to inculcate effective study habits in students will naturally increase the academic performance and drastically reduce the incidence and level of examination malpractices in Nigerian educational system. Therefore, all hands must be on desk (teachers, parents, school administrators, religious bodies / leaders, government parastatals and agencies, education stakeholders) to render proactive services to make sure the culture and the enabling environment for effective and good study habits is inculcated in Nigerian students.

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Public Financing and Effectiveness of Tertiary Education Institutions in Central Uganda

Gesa Anthony ¹

Abstract. This paper is part of a study on the impact of public financing on the effectiveness of tertiary education, focusing on the two districts of Kampala and Wakiso in Central Uganda. It explores the implications of state funding of tertiary education institutions on the effectiveness of the concerned institutions. The major problem investigated involved the public concern about whether effectiveness of tertiary education can be enhanced with increased government financial support. Primary data was collected mainly by use of self-administered questionnaires and in-depth interviews. A total of 360 respondents (including students, staff and employees / parents of graduates of tertiary education institutions) participated in the study. Data was analyzed quantitatively using the chi-square test. The results showed that public financing of tertiary institutions positively impacts on the effectiveness of the institutions in a significant way.

Keywords: Financing higher education; Tertiary institutions; Education planning

Introduction

According to the World Bank (2000), the two main sources of financing to tertiary education are the government and private funds. In Uganda during the financial year 2003, tertiary education institutions received recurrent budget support from the Ministry in one block. It is, however, not clear how the subsidy to each institution is calculated; but most likely it is based on the number of public posts in the institution. However, the availability and disbursement of development budget to these institutions fluctuates which could affect the institutions' level of effectiveness.

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The tertiary education institutions also receive much of the public funding based on the inputs at the institution and it is not related to what they actually produce in terms of output, namely the quality and quantity of graduates (Liang 2001). The system provides no incentives for institutions to deliver education more effectively and this severely limits the flexibility to respond to their local circumstances or to change. Often times, tertiary education institutions place government sponsored students in the least demanded majors in order to maximize profit from private-fee-paying students. As a result, the programme is not producing the manpower output in those fields of study most needed for the social and economic well-being of the country. Liang concludes that the current use of government funds is not achieving the fundamental goal of the tertiary education. However, Salmi (1992) observes that the government can adopt an effective strategy in the way in which it deploys its own funds and that without increasing the overall funding for tertiary education, there is need to improve effectiveness of the use of the current public funds allocated to the tertiary sector. On the other hand, Johnstone (2003) argues that there is need to determine an appropriate level of the public recurrent subsidy per student in tertiary education institutions and this could differ by kind of institutions and programme of study. However, he goes further to note that the level of public subsidy per student should be equal to the fees charged to the private student. The funding mechanism should also target critical subjects such as science and technology that are proven to stimulate the economy but are clearly under supplied.

Yet Greenaway (2003) affirms that effectiveness of tertiary education can be enhanced when the equity of public financing is improved. The government needs to target scholarships to the poor but worth students in tertiary education institutions. Similarly, Hauptman (1999) suggests that effectiveness of tertiary education is realized with the adoption of alternative sources of funding. The study concluded that private partnership should be encouraged and even tertiary education institutions should be encouraged to raise their own funds.

Concept of Public Financing

Public financing involves the provision of funds mainly by the government for something (Atkinson 1983). For the purpose of this study public financing took the forms of fees, subsidies, students loan scheme, external aid and the voucher system.

Meaning of Effectiveness

Effectiveness according to Hoy (1982) is the capability of producing effect or doing right things; that is setting right targets to achieve the overall goal. It is the utilization of resources such that the output of the activity achieves the desired result or fulfillment of an intention (Webster 1993). The term "effectiveness," is, therefore, more output oriented. Effectiveness in education is a measure of the

impact or effect of the educational process on learning (Okurut 2001). Effectiveness is the concept of how effective an organization is achieving the outcomes it is intended to produce (Druker 2006). From an economist's perspective, "effectiveness" entails output making the exchange with the environment possible (Pennings and Goodman 1977). The study conceptualized "effectiveness" as the capacity of tertiary education to produce the total outcome of education, namely, knowledge, skills and attitude.

Definition of Tertiary Education

Tertiary education in accordance to the Government White Paper on Education (1992) is defined as both public and private universities and other tertiary institutions providing (Post A- Level) education offering courses of study leading to the award of certificates, diplomas and degrees and conducting research and publishing. The terms "tertiary" and higher education are often used interchangeably to refer to advanced level of education beyond full course secondary education. However, in the context of the study, tertiary education was conceptualized as post secondary education provided at vocational institutes and colleges *excluding public and private universities* in Kampala and Wakiso districts of central Uganda.

Related Literature

Public financing has a strong influence on economic growth (Salmi 1992). The government should recognize a strong need for a highly qualified labour and, therefore, should have explicit policies to raise the participation rates in tertiary education institutions. Greenway (2003) notes that raising labour productivity is one of the impacts of public financing of tertiary education and that adequate funds to tertiary education must be realized. Arguably, improvement in effectiveness of tertiary education needs a viable approach. This approach as Greenaway puts it, could include both qualitative and quantitative analysis or aspects by pointing out or highlighting the determinants of effectiveness and public expenditure. In economic theory, education has a key to economic growth, especially in the modern growth theory which attempts to estimate educational externalities, though its impact on economic growth is difficult to measure (Pscharopoulos. G. and Patrins 2004). However, public financing of tertiary education according to Wossman (2006) has increased competition among tertiary education institutions and this has helped to realize effectiveness through high student achievement.

Dela Fuente (2003) also argues that the economic impact of public financing on tertiary education is an indirect benefit to the individuals and the society since it involves the government providing the tertiary institutions with the required financial services. Available evidence from published literature provides a perception that the provision of public finance facilitates access to education to

the so called individuals who at first were unable to access education and training facilities. Thompson (2001) affirms that the quality of tertiary education has a significant impact on educational and economic returns. However, as Burke, (2000) notes, quality of tertiary education can be affected negatively due to the reduction of state share of tertiary education revenue; thus affecting the effectiveness of tertiary education. The drop in public direct financial support to tertiary education tends to lead to a rise in tuition fees which often causes much popular anger against tertiary education institutions on the part of the general public. The result of this is the questionable performance of the concerned tertiary education institutions.

In the current study, effectiveness was conceptualized as the capacity of tertiary education to produce the total outcomes of education and public sector financing is one of the factors behind the variations in educational outcomes, according to Aslam (2007). Nonetheless, in a resource constrained economy of Uganda, where allocations to tertiary education have historically been very low, the levels of financing have a great potential to affect educational outcomes (Eiseman 1993). According to Kasozi (2005), tertiary education provision, hiring and training of staff, improvement in the curricular, advanced management information systems and performances monitoring all need financial resources. The study concludes that public financing is crucial in determining educational outcomes. Relatedly, Anderson (1998) observes that the proper role of government is to provide a starting point for the analysis of public finance for tertiary education to ensure effectiveness. In theory, under certain circumstances, private markets will allocate goods and services among individuals efficiently in the sense that no wastage occurs and that individual tastes are matching with the economy's productive capabilities (Albrecht 1992). Even Ziderman (1995) argues that tertiary education development has witnessed a multitude of challenges such as accessibility, affordability, financial austerity, faculty recruitment and retention and lack of improvement of physical facilities. The study findings reveal that such challenges pose a serious threat to the effectiveness of tertiary education. Cognizant of these challenges and quagmires and realizing the importance of tertiary education to national development, supplementary government budgetary allocations to tertiary education should be able to provide adequate financial resources to support all tertiary education institutions and offer financial assistance to the genuinely needy and academically talented students.

Canino (2002) says that tertiary education and issues of finance are often prominent from the perspective of various stakeholders and policy makers, if effectiveness has to be improved. In his study, he notes that most countries report statistics on public spending for education but often do not measure spending and its effectiveness on tertiary education. However, according to Bottomley J. and Calvert, J. (2003), in terms of percentages, expenditure devoted to tertiary education averages between 15-20% in developing countries, though the study observes that tertiary education spending as a percentage of all education spending can be misleading because a number of additional factors should be

considered, including the relative level of spending for education and whether it has been increasing or decreasing overtime. A better measure of financial commitment is to compare the money spent to tertiary education institutions as a percentage of GDP. Unfortunately, many countries including Uganda do not report this figure and there is a great variability on this measure across countries. According the Caribbean Net News (2008), the figures ranges from as little as 0.1% or 0.2% of GDP in a number of developing countries to as much as 2.5% to 3% of GDP in some developed countries.

Accordingly, Edirisooriya (2009) noted that financing mechanisms can be used as policy strategies to achieve effectiveness. This is especially true with regard to public financing which is controlled by the government. However, in countries like Uganda, there are serious shortcomings with the way public funds are allocated to tertiary education, ranging from the high levels of bureaucracy and therefore delays and frustrations. Yet Albvrecht, and Ziderman, (1994) observe that more intense competition between tertiary education institutions can help to improve standards by rewarding merit and performance, which can help to promote beneficial innovations and overall quality improvements. Similarly Daniel (2007) argues that flexibility in public finance can enhance effectiveness of tertiary education. He notes that tertiary education institutions need to adapt quickly to the changing enrollment levels to rise and fall off different fields of study and to the changes in the right mix of skills demanded in the labour market. Effective tertiary education needs to articulate clear standards and set challenging goals for themselves that are consistent with the needs of their societies and labour forces, because international standards are especially relevant in a globalised economy. Even Geetha (2004) emphasizes that tertiary education institutions can work together with industry to ensure that the graduates have the skills that industry needs.

Additionally, Gulati (2008) argues that for tertiary education to be effective, it should rely on public financing with the state exercising an active oversight. The government must ensure that the system serves the public interest, provides at least those elements of tertiary education that would not be supplied if left to market forces, promotes equity and supports those areas of basic research relevant to the country's needs. The state must also ensure that tertiary education institutions and the system as a whole operate on the basis of financial transparency and fairness. According to Aghion (2009), financing mechanisms can be used as policy strategies to achieve overall sectoral objectives in terms of coverage, equity and efficiency. This, is especially, true with regard to public financing which is controlled by the government. From the policy perspective, lack of government oversight in the distribution of public funds can cause inappropriate allocations within tertiary education institutions. The study concludes that the mechanisms of disbursing public funds to the tertiary education intuitions still lack autonomy and not conducive to equity and effectiveness. Kasozi (2003) argues that public financing is behind the rise of effectiveness of tertiary education. Through public financing the government allocates funds to

tertiary education institutions to finance research and other programmes. Nevertheless, the author concludes that the role of tertiary education to national development is quite commendable through the development of the relevant skills. This is true, especially, in technical/ vocational institutes and colleges which were the primary focus of the current investigation.

Statement of the Problem

Crucially important, though it is, the growing social demand for tertiary education, the globalization of the education system and the recognition for the need to improve the quality of education, has called for massive expansion of the education sector (Relchert 2009) and Woodhall 1997). In Central Uganda, and in Kampala and Wakiso district in particular, this has been done with the aim of producing the much needed high skilled labour to meet the manpower requirements of the country's growing economy. However, it is not clear whether the financial resources allocated to tertiary education are adequate or wasted. Yet from the economic point of view, maximum returns from an investment can only be guaranteed if the programme itself is effective (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall 1995, Mcmanhon, 1993 and Tan et al 2001).

Empirical evidence authentically indicates that developing countries like Uganda can survive and prosper only by fully developing its human resources, especially with skills acquired in tertiary education institutions (World Bank 1988). Strong initiative, co-ordination and clarity with which government views the purpose of tertiary education contributes substantially to a nation's development record (Leslie, 1998 and Adedeji et al 2003). Despite the global concern for education for all, coupled with the urgent need to improve on the quality of education and given the nature and state of tertiary education in Kampala and Wakiso districts, it is presumed that due to limited government financial intervention; the current ways of public financing of tertiary education seem to be inadequate, and it is still uncertain whether the effectiveness of tertiary education is being enhanced at all, which could affect the quality of education. This raises the question of whether public financing has any impact on tertiary education. The study, therefore sought to investigate the impact of public financing on the effectiveness of tertiary education in Central Uganda and further identify effective and practical mechanisms that can be adopted to improve on the quality of education.

Objective and Hypothesis.

The objective of the study was to investigate the impact of public financing on the effectiveness of tertiary education in Kampala and Wakiso districts in Central Uganda. It sought to establish whether there is any link between public financing and the effectiveness of tertiary education. In order to place the study in a researchable perspective, the following null hypothesis was formulated to guide the investigation: There is no significant impact of public financing on the effectiveness of tertiary education in Kampala and Wakiso Districts of Central Uganda.

Methodology

Design

The paper explores the impact of public financing on the effectiveness of tertiary education with the aim of identifying appropriate mechanisms that can be adopted to improve on the quality of education. To accomplish this objective, a cross sectional survey design was adopted. According to Amin (2005) and Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), this design is appropriate for studies of this nature. A survey attempts to collect data from members of a population with respect to one or more variables. A cross – sectional approach entails studying different subjects at various stages of development simultaneously (Gay 1996). It provides a quantitative or numeric description of attitudes and opinions of a population by studying a cross- section of the population (Creswell 2003). It is less costly and time saving compared with experimental methods.

Target Population and Sample

In the study, the population of interest included tertiary education stakeholders in Kampala and Wakiso districts in Central Uganda. Specifically, the target population comprised students, staff and employers/ parents of graduates from these tertiary education institutions. A total of six (6) tertiary education institutions were randomly selected using the simple random sampling technique to give a fair representation of the population of study. Then using non- random sampling techniques, namely: purposive and convenience sampling, a total of 360 subjects were selected to participate in the study.

Data Collection and Analysis

As Miles and Huberman (1994) recommend, data was collected using a variety of instruments that included questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions as well as triangulation. Though the study adopted a positivist paradigm, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected. Qualitative data analysis involved making sense out of the enormous amount of narrative data, i.e. looking for categories, patterns and common themes which facilitated a coherent synthesis of the data (Meadow 2003). Coding involved critically analyzing the data and identifying themes and topics which represent categories into which numerous pieces of data can be classified (Gay 1996).

Data regarding public financing and the effectiveness of tertiary education was analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. This was because all answered questionnaire items and interviews were organized and coded by categorization and processed. Finally, data on testing of the hypothesis was analyzed quantitatively, using the Perason's Chi- square test of signifance (χ^2). The

Perasons chi- square test (χ^2) was the most appropriate statistical analysis procedure because it was survey data that was analyzed. Besides, the data was put in to categories (frequencies, percentages and proportions) in order to reflect the effect of the independent variable.

Results and Interpretation

The paper presents a report on the impact of public financing on the effectiveness of tertiary education in Kampala and Wakiso districts in Central Uganda involving tertiary education stakeholders. In all, the respondent's views were summarized on whether public financing has any impact on the effectiveness of tertiary education. The following table below shows a summary of the participants' responses.

Table 1. Extent of agreement that public financing impacts the effectiveness of tertiary education

	Students		Staff		Parents	Employers	χ^2 values
	fo	%	fo	%	fo	%	
Strongly agree	96	46.4	15	54.5	36	54.5	P=0.05
Agree	102	49.3	54	31.8	21	31.8	d f=4
Disagree	09	4.3	18	13.7	09	13.7	9.49
Total	207	100	87	100	66	100	

The results above reveal that the majority of the respondents agreed with public financing having an impact on the effectiveness of the tertiary education. The results were analyzed using the Person's Chi- square test of significance. The observed chi-square value (χ^2 obs) was 40.8668, while the chi-square critical value (χ^2 cv) at level of significance (P) 0.05 and degree of freedom (df) of 4 was 9.49. This meant that the results were statistically significant and that public financing has an impact on the effectiveness of tertiary education in Kampala and Wakiso districts in Central Uganda, because the stated null hypothesis was rejected. It was essential to compute contingency coefficient to find out the strength of effect. According to the computations, the contingency coefficient was 0.0159. However, to interpret this coefficient, the maximum coefficient was computed, and it was 0.4714. The coefficient of determination was also calculated to determine the impact public financing has on the effectiveness of tertiary education. This was obtained by (obtained maximum coefficient)², thus 0.47142², thus 0.2222. Therefore, the impact of public financing is accounted for by 22.22% to the effectiveness of tertiary education in Kampala and Wakiso districts in Central Uganda.

Discussion of Findings

The study findings revealed that public financing has an impact on the effectiveness of tertiary education. This led to the rejection of the stated null hypothesis that: there is no significant impact of public financing on the effectiveness of tertiary education; since the observed chi-square value (χ^2_{obs}) of 40.8668 was greater than the chi-square critical value (χ^2_{cv}) of 9.49 at level of significance (P) = 0.05 and degree of freedom (df) = 4.

This is in an agreement with Canino (2002) who says that tertiary education and issues of finance are often prominent from the perspective of policy makers if effectiveness has to be improved. Similarly, Daniel (2007) argues that flexibility in public financing can enhance effectiveness of tertiary of tertiary education. However, tertiary education institutions need to adjust and adapt quickly to the changing enrollment levels and to changes in right mix of skills demanded in the labour market. Even Geetha (2004) notes that tertiary education institutions can work together with industry to ensure that the graduates have skills that industry needs. Arguably, for tertiary education to be effective, it should rely on public financing with the state exercising an active oversight. The government must ensure that the system serves the public interest (Gulati 2008). Yet according to Aghion (2009), it is widely understood that financing mechanisms can be used as policy strategies to achieve overall sectoral objectives in terms of coverage, equity and efficiency; especially with regard to public financing which is controlled by the government.

The results of the study also concur with findings by Kasozi (2003) who argues that public financing is behind the rise of effectiveness of tertiary education, but warns that public funds need to be well-allocated. On the contrary. Hauptman (1999) suggests that effectiveness of tertiary education can only be realized with the adoption of alternative sources of funding such as encouraging private partnership or even tertiary education institutions themselves raising their own funds. Despite the study findings, improvement in effectiveness of tertiary education needs a viable approach. This approach, according to Greenaway (2002), could include both quantitative and qualitative analysis or aspects, by highlighting the determinant of effectiveness and public expenditure.

Contrary to the study findings, in economic theory, tertiary education has a key to economic growth, because the modern economic theory attempts to estimate educational externalities, though the impact of its effectiveness is difficult to measure (Pscharopoulos, G. and Patrino, 2004). Nevertheless, public financing according to Wossman (2006) has increased competition among tertiary education institutions and this has helped to realize effectiveness through high student achievement. Even Dela Fuente (2003) agrees that the economic impact of public financing of tertiary education is an indirect benefit to the individuals and the society. Available evidence from published literature provides a perception that public financing to tertiary education facilitates access to education. In a study carried out by Thompson (2001), it is revealed that the quality of tertiary education

has a significant impact on educational and economic returns. However, as Burke (2002) puts it, the quality of tertiary education can be affected negatively due to the reduction of state share of tertiary education revenue, thus affecting the effectiveness of tertiary education and the result of this is the questionable performance of the concerned tertiary education institutions.

The study conceptualized effectiveness as the capacity of tertiary education to produce the total outcomes of education. Public sector financing is one of the factors behind the variations in educational outcomes (Aslam 2007). Nonetheless, in a resource constrained economy of Uganda, where the allocations to tertiary education have been very low, the levels of financing have a great potential to affect educational outcomes (Eisemon 1993). Even Kasozi (2005) Anderson (1998), Albrecht (1992), and Zinderman (1995) are in support of the above agreement. In all financial resources from the government are crucial in enhancing the effectiveness of tertiary education, because the government is better positioned to regularly review, adequately streamline, mobilize, allocate, manage, monitor, supervise, administer and effectively utilize and advise on the implementation of financial resources earmarked for human development in tertiary education institutions to ensure effectiveness.

Conclusions and Recommendations

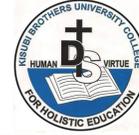
It was, therefore, concluded that public financing has an impact on the effectiveness of tertiary education in Kampala and Wakiso Districts in Central Uganda. Public financing has an impact on the total outcomes of education and other related externalities. To this end, it is recommended that certain challenges such as increase in the level of enrollment, limited transparency in the allocation of financial resources and the inadequate funds disbursed to tertiary education institutions still pose a serious threat to the effectiveness of tertiary education. Cognizant of these challenges and quagmires and realizing the importance of tertiary education to national development, it is further recommended that supplementary government budgetary allocations to tertiary education should be able to provide adequate financial resources to support all tertiary education institutions and offer financial assistance to the genuinely needy and academically talented students. Public financing should improve institutional development and spearhead policy reforms and implementation and co-ordinate institutional collaboration and standards to promote equality, completion rates, social integration, integrity and acceptable behaviour among the graduates of tertiary education institutions. Finally, public financing of tertiary education should be able to provide appropriate mechanisms to enable the institutions produce graduates who more directly responsive to the national needs and priorities, over and above maximizing benefits from the existing and future programmes to match with national targets and societal expectations.

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Organizational Reward System and Productivity of Secondary School Teachers

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Abstract. The study examines the impact of reward system on staff productivity within the frame of 2005 and 2009 using the ministry of Education, Minna, Niger State as a case study. Secondary schools under the ministry of Education formed the population and a sample size of one hundred and forty (140) employees was randomly selected. The research design was survey. The method of the study was the descriptive research method since it involved studying and describing the activities of employees as it existed at the time of the study. The instrument for data collection was questionnaire and unstructured interview schedule. The mean, standard deviation and simple percentages were used for data analysis and interpretation. Findings of the study showed that workers awareness of a higher reward system in other organizations affect their performance, but the variations that exist between similar organizations have a higher level of impact on the job performance of staff. Employees engage in specific tasks because of the ultimate reward they expect. They would put much effort into their work if they expect to be appropriately rewarded. It was observed that low salary, fear of insecurity and redundancy, low participation in decision making; poor communication and team building, lack of appreciation, amongst others affect staff productivity and job performance negatively.

Keywords: Reward systems; Performance; Job productivity

Introduction

The various forms of behaviour and attitudinal disposition which organizations require of their employees in order to actualize set goals and objectives depend on the kind of rewards and incentives existing in the organization. According to Ahmed (2010), in every human endeavour, private or public, there is need for

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those involved in the daily operations to be encouraged to meet set goals and objectives. To meet these objectives, organizations need to identify what and how it helps to achieve this purpose on long term or short term planning, in order to have a sense of direction and focus on how to effectively and efficiently utilize both human and material resources to achieve these goals (Chike-Okoli, 2007).

However, in meeting these goals, certain behaviour to work are displayed by employees based on the impact of the remuneration program and the reward system of the organization. Workers or employees are employed to perform certain job description, but a rigid and unmotivated climate often creates a "that's" not-my job syndrome and employee inadequacy (Kolo, 2012).

Due to employees peculiar needs, inspiration and problems, behaviour at work often differ and unless these peculiarities are first identified and effort directed towards solving them, the employees can hardly put in their best even in their area of specialization (Chike-Okoli, 2011). Hence, motivating employee through adequate remuneration in any organization acts as a catalyst to inner-striving conditions of employees such as wishes, desires, drives etc. which moves the employees to work hard, sustain a pace of hard work and achieve better results.

According to Kolo (2012) organizational reward system refers to the ways and modalities by which workers in an organization can be motivated for individuals to put more efforts that will lead to attainment of the organizational goals. It is also seen as those motivational tools which an organization adopts to reward their workers for high or improved productivity. These rewards or incentives may vary from one organization to another and they include the following: advancement opportunity, job security, good salary/wages, adequate medical facilities, canteen services, pension scheme, credit for the job done, vacation and holiday practice, housing, transport, working conditions etc.

Statement of the Problem

Daris (2001) stated that the surest signs of deteriorating condition in an organization is job dissatisfaction, the result of which are grievances, low productivity, disciplinary problems and other organizational difficulties. In essence, various studies have shown that there is relationship between reward and productivity in an organization. However, according to Chike-Okoli (2007) the problem of how to make employees work harder for the interest of the organization and for their own interest becomes how conducive any working environment may be, the fact remains that some employees work willingly while some others work unwillingly. Recognizing that workers are different and each individual operates at different levels of needs-satisfaction (Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs), there is need that other ways of rewarding and motivating workers be continually identified and maximized.

In this study, the researcher examined organizational rewards system and its impact on the productivity of staff. This research also focused on ways organizational rewards/incentives are administered so as to reduce job

dissatisfaction and improve productivity of secondary school teachers using Minna zone of Niger State as a case study.

Purpose of the Study

Precisely, the objectives of this research work which the study seeks to find include the following:

- a) Find out if there is a standard motivation policy in the sample organization;
- b) Determine the types of motivation packages or incentive plan available in the sample schools;
- c) Ascertain if all the categories of staff enjoy rewards provided;
- d) Determine how the reward system influence workers to achieve set goals and objectives of the organization?
- e) Suggest ways to make reward system effective to induce higher productivity and organizational success.

Research Questions

The following research questions have been derived to provide a guide in the course of the research:

- a) What is the nature of the reward system for workers in the sample organization?
- b) In what ways can staff be rewarded for hard work to enhance the productivity of the organization?
- c) What are the effects of reward on the performance of the staff and the organization in general?
- d) How can staff reward scheme be improved to make it more effective as an instrument of productivity enhancement?

Methodology

Design

The method used for this study was the descriptive research method since it involved studying and describing the behaviour, attitude and activities of employees as it existed at the time of the study. The study was strictly a survey of some selected educational institutions in Niger State. The study adopted the descriptive research design.

Population and Sample

The study was conducted among all employees of the Niger State Ministry of Education including the inspectorate cadre of staff (Junior and Senior) teachers

and all management staff (principals, vice principals, heads of departments etc). All workers at the Federal University of Technology (FUT) Minna, Niger State Polytechnic, Bida and College of Education, Minna also formed part of the population of the study. The sample size of one hundred and forty (140) employees was selected through random sampling.

The sampled educational institutions were selected through stratified random sampling considering proximity, age of school, qualification, experience of staff.

Data Collection and Instrumentation

Personal visits were made to the sample institutions and data was collected through the use of questionnaire observation schedule and interview schedules (structured and unstructured). The purpose of making personal observation was to obtain additional and collaborative data which enhances the data gathered through questionnaire. The major instrument used for the study was the Researcher Developed Questionnaire Item (RDQI). The questionnaire consisted of thirty (30) question items of varying nature testing respondent's opinion on the impact of organizational reward system on productivity. Some of the question items included: what type of incentives or reward packages are provided in your organization? How does remuneration affect effective utilization of human resources in your organizations? Are your salaries paid regularly as at when due? Are your staffs punctual to work? What do you think motivate the staff in your organization for higher productivity?

Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

Cronbach's alpha was used to assess instrument reliability. The reliability coefficient for the questionnaire was 0.89. In the process of constructing the questionnaire, similar questions used by other researchers on the area of reward system were reconstructed. Content validity was ascertained by presenting the first draft of the questionnaire to colleagues who are experts in the field of education. The corrections and comments helped in the tidying up and production of the final draft used for data collection.

Data Analysis

Data collected are represented on simple tables and percentages and analysed with the aid of Computer Statistical Package (CPSP). The Mean averages and standard deviations were determined and interpreted. The concept of percentages enables the layman to see at a glance the relationship between scores. A total of 140 copies of questionnaire were distributed for the study and 119 copies were retired with useful information. A response return rate of 85%.

Findings and Discussion

Table 1. Types of Reward system in the sample organizations

Incentives	No of Responses	Percentage
Pay and commendation	11	9.24
Security of job	17	14.29
Participation/involvement in decision-making	9	7.56
Opportunity for job advancement	67	56.30
Authority/Accountability (responsibility)	15	12.61
Total	119	100

Table 1 show that some forms of reward system existed in the sample organizations. However, emphasis was higher on the opportunity to advance which shared 56.30% out of the five recognized system of reward in existence.

Table 2. Are your salaries paid regularly and promptly?

Incentives	Response Rate	Percentage
Very regularly	45	37.82
Regularly	20	16.81
Fairly Regularly	15	96.64
Not regularly	80	67.23

Table 3. Effect of regular/prompt payment of salaries

Incentives	Response Rate	Percentage
Lateness to work	40	33.61
Truancy (Absenteeism)	15	12.61
Lack of commitment (not my job syndrome)	65	54.62
Delay in job performance	80	67.23
Poor performance	105	88.24

Table 4. Ways staff can be rewarded to enhance job productivity

Types of Incentives	Response Rate	Percentage
More fringe benefits/allowances	85	71.43
Linking reward to performance	98	82.35
Penalizing poor performance	45	37.82
Any other opinion (specify)	48	40.34

Table 4 indicates clearly that rewards have positive effect on staff performance and productivity. An organization that expects increased performance and productivity from its staff must come up with incentive packages or develop rewards system that will ensure more fringe benefits, allowances, participation, recognition and recommendation, challenging promotion requirements and opportunities for staff training, development and job advancement. Penalizing

poor performance was not popular amongst the respondents who were of the opinion that negative measures hardly increase performance.

Data from field survey showed that through individual differences exist amongst the staff in organizations and workers are at different levels of motivation according to Maslow's hierarchy of Needs, the application of positive reward and incentives would motivate any worker for better performance at whatever level of needs.

Table 5. Responses on incentives available in the organization

Item	Yes	%	No	%
Do you have any insurance policy on duty?	2	10	18	90
Does the government provide you with any official quarters	5	25	15	75
Does government appreciate organization's increased productivity (higher academic performance of students)	2	10	18	90
Is health care affordable and available to staff	4	20	16	80
Does government/organization support membership to a professional body	8	40	12	60
Are offices, laboratories and workshops well-equipped and functional	4	20	16	80

There seemed not to be any insurance policy operating as a reward package in the sample organizations. Much as government express interest in achieving higher performance they only pay attention to salary increase which is usually a step on a general basis. No individual motivation to increase performance and productivity.

Respondents agree with the provision of health care through the NHIS, but they feel the benefit is more to the government than the workers. For teachers, membership to the National Union of Teachers (NUT) is encouraged and supported by government. However, there is need to support workers to register with subject professional bodies and attend seminars, conferences and workshops. This will ensure that teachers remain relevant and have access to current information in their various field of specialization.

Summary

1. The workers were aware of the level of motivation in similar organizations and in their considered opinion, incentive packages and reward systems in educational institutions do not compete favourably well with those of other organizations.
2. Findings from the study established that though reward system exist in schools timed at monitoring teachers, however, it is not satisfactory and thus creates a negative impact on the attitudes of workers, their performance and job productivity.

3. It was acknowledged that prompt and regular payment of salaries and allowances, job security, opportunity for advancement and promotion, welfare packages, pension and gratuity services/packages, recognition and recommendation, good working conditions, positive inter-personal relationships, favourable environment etc. have positive impact on staff productivity. However, the incentives should be linked to increased performances.

Implications

1. Low salary makes employees less productive. Better salary is argued as a necessary condition for generating appropriate commitment and productivity among employees.
2. People perform better and produce higher when they are involved in decision making and understand clearly the organizational goals and objectives and how they can benefit by helping achieve such goals.
3. Job security especially in terms of pension and gratuity against reforms that attract job termination and sudden retirement is a major incentive that enhances performance and productivity.

Conclusion and Recommendation

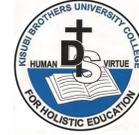
Therefore, it is concluded that reward system has a direct and positive impact on staff productivity. Accordingly, it is recommended that managers of organizations and educational institutions should endeavour to seek improved ways of providing rewards and incentives to workers on a consistent basis.

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Family Rights Synergies, Inter-Intra Family Linkages and Counselling Implications: a case study of Entebbe Municipality, Uganda

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Abstract. This study examined Family rights synergies, inter-intra family linkages, and counselling implications in Entebbe-Wakiso Uganda. The study contains analysed results collected from family members and counsellors with concrete scenarios from their lived experiences. The areas of the family rights that were looked at and from which findings were obtained included Choice of spouse, Marriage and Family Relations, Parenthood, Freedom and Command over the Property. The Interpretive analysis, structural analysis and reflective methods of data analysis were used together with the statistical data analysis method that included tables with the percentage and cumulative frequencies. The study findings are based on 100 families with a total number of family members of 524. The researcher used snow ball and purposive sampling techniques and in-depth interviews, the use of client's documentaries and written cases. Nominal group discussions and Sand play therapy was also employed. The study concluded that women's rights and men's rights have to be advocated for in terms of ownership of property, and freedom to be and to do what they want that makes them more authentic. This calls for the shift in mind set of both males and females and an intervention of policy makers to mitigate family rights violations.

Keywords: Family rights; Family counselling; Property rights.

Introduction

This article is about Family rights synergies, inter-intra family linkages, and counselling implications. A case study of Entebbe-Wakiso Uganda has spelt out the role family systems therapies in the construction of family based rights in

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Entebbe-Wakiso Uganda. It is inspired by objective number two of the author's doctoral study that aimed at analysing family rights and duties in Entebbe-Wakiso Uganda. The article contains analysed results collected from family members and counsellors with concrete scenarios from their lived experiences. The areas of the family rights that were looked at and from which findings were obtained were: Choice of spouse, Marriage and Family Relations, Parenthood, Freedom and Command over the Property.

The Concept of Family Rights

John Paul 11(1994) in the letter to the families recalls that: "the family is in fact a community of persons whose proper way of existing and living together is communion: *communio personarum*" Going back to the teaching of the second Vatican council (1964), the Holy father teaches that such a communion involves "a certain similarity between the union of the divine persons and union of God's children in truth and love." Pastoral Constitution of the church in the modern world 1964 (*Gaudium et spes*, 24).

Family rights and duties were developed and analyzed in this study basing on Human rights and freedoms to which all humans are entitled. Humans are endowed with certain entitlements merely because of being human. Human rights are thus conceived in a universalistic and egalitarian fashion. Such entitlements can exist as shared norms of actual human moralities, as justified moral norms or natural rights supported by strong reasons, or as legal rights either at a national level or within or international law (James, 2009).

Family rights were taken in this research study as family privileges that each member of the family ought to enjoy simply because they are members of that specific family. Duties have been operationalized in this study as something that one ought to do because it is one's moral and legal responsibility (Wehmer, 2006).

Justification for the study

The family systems are bedevilled with innumerable challenges as evidenced by several reports. The 2004 United Nations report on Uganda estimated that 32% of girls between 15 and 19 years of age were married, divorced, separated or widowed. By contrast, a 2006 Demographic and Health Survey reported the figure to be 22.5% (including unregistered unions); 15.9% of married women aged 15-49 were married by their 15th birthday.

Literature review

In the endeavour to understand family rights and duties, the researcher focused on the five major areas: Choice of spouse, Marriage and family relations, Parenthood, Freedom in families and Command over the property. Here below the researcher

has analysed how some scholars have explained these elements as family right and duties.

Choice of Spouse

Choice of spouse is based on two major theoretical approaches that include individual theories that emphasises that choice of marital partner is determined by a range of emotional experiences, subconscious drives and needs of individuals making choice. The second theoretical approach is based on the assumption that social factors rather than individual needs, personalities and drives have strongest influences on marital choice (Gelles, 1995:192-193). Although, these theoretical approaches to choice of spouse do not directly bring out a clear link to the family rights, the researcher envisages that they should be incorporated in the study, because of the innate multicultural attributes embedded in the two theoretical approaches.

The Constitution of the Republic of Uganda (2006) article 31; section 3, provides that Marriage shall be entered into with the free consent of the man and woman intending to marry. Actually, when the article present free consent as a prerequisite for marriage, it ignores to highlight that choice in marriage is a fundamental right that is not clearly implied in free consent of the marrying couples. The researcher suggests out that the section of the constitution would better support the family rights in a resolute way when it categorically addresses the choice of spouse as an indispensable right at hand.

Pacem in Terris (1963) an encyclical of John XXIII, 1963 number 15 and 16 explains that every person has a right to choose one's state in life, including rights to establish a family or pursue a religious vocation. In relationship to the above, although every person has a right to choose an opted way of life (spouse), the means in which these rights facilitate therapeutic healing is not reflected by the above author; hence leave a gap that the study at hand investigated. Entering into marriage today with free consent is becoming a challenge because nowadays some enter marriage based on utilitarian purposes. These include accumulation of money and property, education opportunities and others for travel and visa purposes. The family systems therapies must empower those to get married to come into marriage freely and with full consent choosing their partners without any force, or fear. The study assessed how the current family systems address those family rights.

Grugni (2005:30) argues that the choice of marriage spouse should be guided by parents who create in the family an atmosphere of harmony and understanding where problems of the family and its members are handled and tackled. According to Grugni this creates a room to for young boys and girls to be able to discuss the issues of whom they intend to marry and that harmonious family situation gives a room to make a proper choice in which the parents are part and parcel. The researcher concurs with the preceding author that "parents play a guiding role in the choice of a marital partner" because the parental choice of spouse brings out

the communitarian aspects that facilitate the African family systemic healing approaches that are gained through communal self awareness. However, the parental guide in the choice of a spouse is vital in protecting the rights of the involved parties and enhances individuals' family rights at a shared communal level.

African choice of spouse: A marriage choice takes a communitarian role (Mbiti, 1969). He considers marriage as a focus of existence, a point where all members of a given community meet that is the departed, the living, and those yet to be born, a place where the drama of history is repeated, renewed and revitalised.

Marriage and Family Relations

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) was adopted by UN General Assembly on 10th December 1948, Article 16, provides that men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion have the right to marry and to found a family. They are entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution.

There is a correspondence between UDHR and international covenant on economic, social and cultural rights (ICESR) (December 1966) which argues that Marriage shall be entered with the free and full consent of the intending spouses. The (ICESR) (December 1966) entry into force 3 January 1976, in accordance with article 27 Article 10 states that;

“the state parties to the present covenant recognise that: the widest possible protection and assistance should be accorded to the family, which is the natural and fundamental group unit of society, particularly for its establishment and while it is responsible for the care and the education of dependent children. Marriage must be entered with free consent of the intending spouses.”

The article further explained that special protection should be accorded to mothers during a reasonable period before and after childbirth. During this period working mothers should be accorded paid leave or leave with adequate social security benefits and those Special measures of protection and assistance should be taken on behalf of all children without any discrimination for reasons of parentage or other conditions (ICESR) (December 1966). Children should be protected from economic and social exploitation. Their employment in work harmful to their morals or health, dangerous to life, or likely to hamper their normal development should be punishable by the law. States should also set age limits below which the paid employment of child labour should be prohibited and punishable by the law.

United Nations international covenant on civil and political rights (ICCPR) Dec.1966. Article 23 number 2 and 3 states that the right of men and women of marriageable age to marry and to found a family shall be recognised. No marriage shall be entered into without the free and full consent of the intending spouses.

Free and full consent for the intending marital partners is vital in protecting and promoting family rights. In essence the researcher supports the arguments of the above international conventions on marriage and family relation, because they facilitate every person of consent age to exercise their right to marry and initiate a family. However, even if the researcher is in agreement with these international conventions on marriage and family relation, the connotations in the conventions do not give a firm ground and clear link on how the family therapeutic approaches that can facilitate the healing of different family members. Hence leave a gap that this study investigated and came up with a relevantly workable connection between the two variables.

Parenthood

Parenting styles play an important role in child development (Bamurind 1991). Developmental psychologists have long been interested in how parents impact child development. However, finding actual cause and effect links between specific actions of parents and later behaviour of children is very difficult. Some children raised in dramatically different environments can later grow up to have remarkably similar personalities. Conversely children who share home and are raised in the same environment can grow up to have astonishingly different personalities than one another.

Parenting style is affected by both the parents' and children's temperaments, and is largely based on the influence of one's own parents and culture. "Most parents learn parenting practices from their own parents — some they accept, some they discard" Santrock, J. W. (2007). Diana Baumrid (1966) a renowned child rearing psychologist became particularly interested in the connection between the parental behaviour and the development of *instrumental competence, which refers to the ability to manipulate the environment to achieve ones goals.*

Diana Baumrid (1966) found what she considered to be the four basic elements that could help shape successful parenting: responsiveness vs. unresponsiveness and demanding vs. undemanding. From these, she identified three general parenting styles: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. Parenthood is core as it shapes the future members of the society and it must be based on family rights and duties. The researcher has proposed a family system that instils into family members strong virtues of kindness and steadfastness, warmth, thankfulness and a sense of responsibility and industriousness.

The decision to become a parent and subsequent parenthood fundamentally changes the nature of marital states. A baby alters time, space, marriages and a sense of self and self worth, (Gelles 1995:258). The transition to parenthood is perhaps the most important and unique experience a couple will have. It is perhaps the most unique transition in marriage, if not in human development. Sociologist Rossi (1968) suggests that there are at least four unique aspects of becoming a parent: cultural pressures to assume the role, the involuntary nature of the role, the irrevocability of the role and the lack of preparation for the role. Not

only is there social pressure to have a child but there is considerable pressure to have more than one (Rossi 1968).

International covenant on economic, social and cultural rights (ICESCR). (1976) in its article 13.3, the parents have the rights to choose schools for their children to ensure religious and moral education of their children. This issue of mutual parenting is reiterated within the preamble of the convention on the Elimination of all forms of discrimination against women: New York, 18 December 1979, which stresses that:

“bearing in mind the great contribution of women to the welfare of the family and to the development of the society, so far not fully recognised. The social significance of maternity and the role of both parents in the family and the upbringing of children, and the role of women in procreation should not be the basis of discrimination but that upbringing of children requires a sharing of responsibility between man and women and as a society as whole’.

The child up bringing approaches are essential in stamping various forms of family rights, hence putting parents at the centre as main agents of family therapies.

The Ugandan Constitution 1995 (Article 31; section 4) explains that it is the right and duty of the parents to care for and bring up their children. Children may not be separated from their families or the persons entitled to bring them up against the will of their families or those persons, except in accordance with the law and *Gaudium et spes* (1965) states that Marriage is intended for the procreation and education of children and a whole manner and communion of life, No. 50. emphasizes and advocates, about responsible parenthood from the moment of conception, life must be regarded with sacred care, No. 51 and the healthy condition of individuals and society depends on stable families, No. 52. This relates well with characteristic number 2 of the family as put forward by Becvar and Becvar as a stable rule system established and consistently acted upon, (Becvar & Becvar, 2000, p.13). Instability of families usually leads to divorce. Divorce is the most stressful event a person can experience, (Gelles, 1995). 65%, to 75% of those who divorce or separate remarry, (Bumpass, Sweet and Martin, 1990). This indicates that people are dissatisfied with marriage but not dissatisfied with the institution of marriage, (Berger & Kellner, 1964). Major factors associated with divorce are socioeconomic status, race age at the first marriage, religion and children (Gelles, 1995).

Freedom in Families

Freedom has been operationalized in this study to mean the power to act, speak, or think as one wants without hindrance or restraint but not interfering with others similar power. Convention on the Elimination of all forms of discrimination against women: New York, 18 December 1979 draws to the attention to the fact that often women's legal status has been linked to marriage, making it dependent on their husband's nationality rather than individuals in their

own right. Articles 10, 11, and 13, respectively, affirm women's rights to non-discrimination in education, employment and economic and social activities.

Women's legal status has been linked to marriage, making them dependent on their husband's nationality, ethnic grouping, clan, name and they seem to *cease to be individuals in their own right* (Convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women 18th Dec.1979). The UDHR 1948 article 1 with its emphasis on equality, freedom and rights for all humans is not yet in place. Individual family's personal freedom must not be a subset of other family members' rights.

When speaking of freedom, one should not think of doing anything one likes. Such "freedom" simply does not exist. Human actions are restricted by various factors, legal, moral, aesthetic and by various traits of character, natural abilities, and so on. It is realised where a person initiates his own desires, chooses on his own behalf, on behalf of his self.

Burris, Alan. (1983) argues that human conditions at times condition human life, and a human being himself changes the circumstances of this life. The person is also a product of social relations; the social relations are themselves a product of the activity of living individuals. Man's free fulfilment of goals which he, as rational being sets himself can be based only on the utilisation of the laws of nature and social reality, not contempt of them. Consequently, freedom presupposes above all the knowledge of laws that are not dependent on human beings, and it is his knowledge that makes people intrinsically free. Thus free will emerges as a concept closely related to the concepts of consciousness and knowledge. Knowledge is not the only power, it is also freedom. One cannot desire what one does not know. The core of freedom is conscious necessity and action, governed by the extent to which we are aware of that necessity, of the possibility of its realisation. Knowledge in itself is not yet freedom, but there can be no freedom without it. Freedom implies not only knowledge of the conditions and the laws of development in the present but also a preparation of the future results of the conscious activity, their prevision.

Freedom of women in Uganda is still with a lot unaddressed for instance, there are no reported legal limitations on women's freedom of movement, although on a day-to-day basis, women may have to seek permission from their husbands in order to travel: according to data from the 2006 DHS, 35.8% of married women who were interviewed reported that their husbands had the final say as to whether or not the wife could leave to visit family or relatives. Freedom of speech, association and assembly are protected by law, but in practice, the government is increasingly intolerant of criticism, and NGOs and other groups face restrictions on their activities in the form of onerous registration requirements (although remain outspoken and critical of government policy). There appears to be an active and engaged women's rights movement in Uganda, working particularly on issues relating to violence against women, as well as pushing for legislative changes to protect women's rights. Women appear to have the same rights to vote and stand for election as men in Uganda. In Uganda, 80 of the 333 seats in the national

parliament are reserved for women, but in the February 2006 elections, an additional 22 women were elected to a total of 102 seats, or nearly 30%.

The researcher believes that the realisation of such freedom presupposes the overcoming of certain obstacles, and the more difficult the obstacles, the stronger and more freedom-loving the will must be. Freedom is not a reward a badge of distinction that is celebrated with champagne. It is not some nice present, quite contrary, it is an imposition, and a gruelling race that one must run alone in the dim hall, alone in the dock before your judges, and alone you must answer to yourself and to the court of humanity. At the end of every freedom there awaits retribution, and that is why freedom is too hard to bear.

Command over Property

Property is operationalized in this thesis to mean any physical or intangible entity that is owned by a person or jointly by a group of people or a legal entity like a corporation. Depending on the nature of the property, the owner has the right to consume, sell, rent, mortgage, transfer, exchange or destroy it, or to exclude others from doing these things.

The Constitution of the Republic of Uganda 1995 recommends that the Parliament makes appropriate laws for the protection of the rights of the widows and widowers to inherit the property of their deceased spouses and to enjoy parental rights over their children and (2 a) prohibits marriage between persons of the same sex. Due to materialism that is on increase and its associated evils, the vulnerable members of the society suffer a lot and even lose their rightful assets. The Ugandan constitution is to protect such vulnerable members of the society but the reality of the matter on the ground is different where by the property of the widows, widowers and orphans are forcefully taken. Legal proceedings to claim back their rights are rigorous and expensive.

Uganda Gender policy (2007) No.2.3 quotes the Participatory Poverty assessment (2002) that reveals that women's inadequate control over livelihood assets such as land, labour, skills and information, networks, technology and financial capital remains one of the root causes of poverty. The policy indicates that although 83% of women are engaged in agricultural production, only 25.5% control the land they cultivate (UDHS, 2001/01). The women's participation in the generation of property is vigorous, yet the female's command over property is minutely reflected.

This was a novel revelation, which indicates that women are treated less than the employed workers in a given land because the employed are paid for their labour. Women work tirelessly on land and are not paid for the work, they do not even enjoy products from their sweat, and even they do not have rights over the land they cultivate. How long should such injustice exist in our society? Women have enormous challenges for taking on the burden of family provisioning, thus seriously undermining the sustainability of the household livelihood. (UDHS, 2001/01) concludes that gender inequality is a key area that has to be tackled

through systematic removal of the constraints to women and men's livelihood. How will gender inequality be systematically removed when gender is a product of socialisation from childhood? Young boys are socialised to be stronger and learn by observing their fathers harassing their mothers and owning "everything" at home including their mothers and sisters. Young girls learn equally to be submissive and non-assertive in sort of conditioning process, (Hough, 1994:201).

Uganda Gender Policy (2007) in its guiding principles for the implementation on the Gender policy No. 4 illustrates that intra household relations determine appropriation, ownership and control of livelihood assets among women and men, girls and boys. This in turn influences individual participation in and benefits from developing processes at all levels. Interventions that address these intra-household dynamics are therefore critical for this policy. National Development Plan (NDP) (2010/2011-2014/15) shows most binding constraint in No. 5: 31, which addresses gender issues, negative attitudes, mindset, cultural practices and perceptions. All these instil into people a mental picture on how to relate and how to work which is ultimately influences how they exercise and demand their rights.

No. 107 of NDP illustrates that at community and household level, women are restricted from participating in important decisions and planning such as resource use, family planning, and access to services such as health and education. Women have been marginalised in access to ownership and control over land, education, business ownership, skill development, and access to financial resources, employment and inheritance rights. These issues are given strategic plans to solve them in national development plan document and among strategies include ratifying and domesticating international protocols and principles such as African charter on human rights of women and thus eliminating gender based violence and ministry of labour, gender and social development will handle this. This would be effective if it finds a family system that already promotes rights and duties of the family members. No. 338:133 of NDP shows that in Uganda men own most houses, although family houses are by law considered matrimonial property. It argues that this is partly due to disparity in the incomes of men and women. Housing is a basic need.

It is in fact a physiological need according to Maslow who argued that one could not progress to higher needs of safety, belonging, esteem and self-actualisation if he/she has missed the basic needs. The physiological needs must be satisfied before any of the higher needs can be pursued, that is to say, satisfaction of basic needs is generally most important if people are to be motivated in order to achieve those higher up (Hough 2006: 128-129). The satisfaction of the physiological needs is a basis for protecting and promoting family rights.

According to Marxism conflict theorists, the economic system is a key to understanding all inequality within and outside the family system. Karl Marx's co writer with Friedrich Engels argued that:

“Marriage represents a class antagonism in which the wellbeing and the development of one group are attained through the misery and repression of other” (Engel, 1992).

Locke (1632-174) solely contended that the remarkable theme of his political theory was embedded: in order to preserve the public good, the central function of government must be the protection of private property. Locke went ahead to consider how human social life begins, in a hypothetical state of nature in which: Each individual is perfectly equal with every other, and all have the absolute liberty to act as they will, without interference from any other (Pojman, 2000). The right to property has an attached equal quality that should be enjoyed by every individual.

The researcher agrees with Locke’s contentions that every individual is vehemently equal to the others. This kind of perfect equality is what the study at hand addresses in order to protect and promote family rights of every individual member.

All natural resources are meant for all humans fairly and genuinely to be enjoyed not by a fraction of people. The proposed family approach helps both counsellors and family members to use self awareness tool irrespective of religious affiliations in protecting family rights including rights on the command over the family-property.

The researcher concurs with the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of discrimination against women: (1979); article 16. The convention returns to the issue of marriage and family relations, asserting the equal rights and obligations of women and men with regard to choice of spouse, parenthood, personal rights and command over property need to be upheld.

Methodology

In this section the qualitative data analysis approaches to analyze the field information is included basing on thematic data analysis with description of the cases and situations that the data represents. The Interpretive analysis, structural analysis and reflective methods of data analysis were used.

Quantitative data analysis methods were also employed guided by the statistical data analysis method that included tables with the percentage and cumulative frequencies. The findings were analyzed pivoted on the following selected family rights embedded in the following major areas: Choice of spouse, Marriage and Family Relations, Parenthood, Freedom and Command over the Property.

The study findings are based on 100 families with a total number of family members of 524.

The 50 counselled families were obtained from Entebbe-Wakiso District. This was also because it was easily accessible for follow up sessions and has the multicultural families that represent the nature contemporary family systems. The

researcher used snow ball and purposive sampling techniques and in-depth interviews, the use of client's documentaries and written cases.

50 counselled families had total family members of 254 out of which the researcher selected 10 families that himself had counselled to be key informant interviewees and these had a total of 62 members. This was done in June 2011-December 2011. The researcher also had 15 members of different families in a nominal group discussion of which 5 members were involved in sand play therapy.

The 50 un-counselled families were obtained from Entebbe-Wakiso District with the help of snow ball and purposive sampling techniques to assess the respondents assisted by research assistants in whom unstructured interviews were employed.

50 families had total family members of 270 out of which the researcher selected 10 families that himself had interviewed to be key informant interviewees and these had a total of 67 members. This was done in June 2011-December 2011. The researcher also had 15 members of different families in a nominal group discussion of which 5 members were involved in sand play therapy.

The research instrument used to obtain the extent of family rights, protections were; written cases and key informant- in-depth interview sessions.

Findings and Discussion

Rights of the Families that underwent counselling services

The results of the findings from 254 counselled family members based on gender are presented in the Table 1.

Table 1. Family Rights Addressed

Which areas of the family rights are being exercised in counselled families?	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Choice of spouse	27	20.1	23	19.2	50	19.7
Marriage & family relations	24	18	26	21.6	50	19.7
Parenthood	27	20.1	27	22.5	54	21.2
Freedom	27	20.1	23	19.2	50	19.7
Command over the property	29	21.7	21	17.5	50	19.7
Total	134	100	120	100	254	100

Basing on the total percentage of both female and male, when the informants were asked which areas of the family rights are being exercised in counselled families, the table 1 reveals the alternatives of the lowest response 19.7% (Choice of spouse, Marriage & family relations, Freedom and Command and over the property. The highest percentage was 21.2% (parenthood) response. The similarity

of the responses in the lowest percentage was due to the various family rights that did not cut across on an equal footing as parenthood did for both males and females, which is the highest as unfolded by the respondents in the table 1.

The parenthood as the highest response is in line with the Ugandan Constitution 1995 (article 31: section 4) which advances that it is the right and duty of the parents to care for and bring up their children. Children may not be separated from their families or the persons entitled to bring them up against the will of their families or those persons, except in accordance with the law. The researcher supports the argument of parenthood taking an upper hand because the interrelated roles involve every member to take share responsibility.

This corresponds with John Paul II (1994, *Familiaris Consortio* 66) on Family Issues that put parenthood at the fore front:-

“the right and duty of parents to give education is essential, since it is connected with transmission of human life; it is original and primary with regard to the educational role of others, on account of the uniqueness of the loving relationship between parents, and children; and it is irreplaceable and inalienable, and therefore incapable of being entirely delegated to others or usurped by others.”

In relationship to the above, whereby parenthood is the right and duty of parent, the fact that the shared practice of raising children was key in all the interviewed families and remains an essential obligation for existence of families as emotional units. Actually, all the parents send strong messages about what is or is not gender appropriate. The children rearing practices thereby vary not only according to the gender of the child but also according to the gender of the parent that is fundamental in influencing the development and especially identity formation of the young ones. The researcher is in agreement with the findings and the related writers who identified parenthood as a linking factor in all family life interactions as pertinent right of every involved member.

Rights of the Families that did not undergo Counselling Services

The 50 un-counselled families were obtained from Entebbe-Wakiso District. This was also because it was easily accessible for follow up sessions and has the multicultural families that represent the nature contemporary family systems. The researcher used snow ball and purposive sampling techniques to assess the respondents assisted by research assistants. The research instrument used to gather the data was unstructured interviews. Fifty families had total family members of 270 out of which the researcher selected 10 families that himself had interviewed to be key informant interviewees and these had a total of 67 members. This was done in June 2011-December 2011. The researcher also had 15 members of different families in a nominal group discussion of which 5 members were involved in sand play therapy. The research tools used to obtain the extent of family rights, protections were; unstructured interview, key informant and in-depth

interviews sessions. The results of the findings from 270 un-counselled family members based on gender are summarised in the Table 2.

Table 2. Family Rights of Families that were not counselled

Which areas of the family rights are being exercised by un-counselled families?						
Area of family rights	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Choice of spouse	37	21.4	22	22.7	59	21.9
Marriage & family relations	21	12.1	30	31	51	18.9
Parenthood	31	17.9	29	29.9	60	22.2
Freedom	42	24.3	08	8.2	50	18.5
Command over the property	42	24.3	08	8.2	50	18.5
Total	173	100	97	100	270	100

In conjunction with the total percentage, when the informants were asked which areas of the family rights are being exercised by un-counselled families, the above table 2 indicates the un-counselled families' analysed based on gender in relationship to family rights reveals that the lowest offered alternative were both 18.5% (freedom and command over the property), followed by 18.9% (marriage and family relations), 21.9% (choice of spouse) and the highest was 22.2% (parenthood). The researcher realised that freedom and command over the property were the lowest partly due to social cultural influences that were central in the family systems of the study context. In fact, all the respondents involved in the research process reflected parenthood interaction. This is a fact that offers parenthood a higher vote whereby parenthood entails communicating styles if it is to exist in essence. This is echoed in the sounds of an informant who perpetually argued that;

For parenthood to transpire a clear communication between the involved parties is important. This is because the need to know what is happening with children while the young ones desire to get the parents' aired concerns. Anyway the current family life possesses a big challenge to every involved member.

Rossi (1968) suggestions are in agreement with the above findings and the author contends that there are at least four unique aspects of becoming a parent: cultural pressures to assume the role, the involuntary nature of the role, the irrevocability of the role and the lack of preparation for the role. For parenthood to possess a higher option directly links with communication family systems therapies that got an upper choice in the preceding chapter and against this background, the researchers agrees with the above justifications.

This section is showing how family rights are being promoted and protected basing on concrete case scenarios. Most of them are from the area of study as lived experiences of the respondents. The researcher's discussion is based on Heterosexual marriages and family partners not the other sexual orientations which are outside the scope of this study.

Choice of spouse: Lived experiences of counselled family respondent

My marriage and the choice of the man that I married did not come so easily until when I was empowered by the counsellor that I met in Amani counselling centre in Nairobi-Kenya. This is how it happened; two years after I had completed my course of Business studies with Uganda College of commerce-Kabale, I immediately got a job in a good organisation in Kampala strictly on merit. The few years I spent had not much to note in my life. Later I left for Nairobi to pursue studies in languages and computer networking. At the same time I worked at Grand Regency Hotel as consumer assessment and service controller. This was a good experience as contact with different clientele gave me a broader view of people and how they interpret their experiences. This is when I chose the father of my children and we had a customary marriage that saw the fruit of my two sons.

In counselling, people should understand that attitudes, beliefs contributes to gender differences that cause women to be limited to choice of marriage partner because the girl could grow up knowing that a man is responsible for marriage that's whom to marry and managing the family.

Marriage and Family Relations: Lived experiences of un-counselled family respondent

“As a married woman I look at marriage and family as a unit in which roles are shared, open communication and expression of feelings. Complementarity is a key in marriage, mutual sharing of roles and responsibilities and all issues should be shared and money is not a pre-requisite in marriage but couples should work together to attain what they want”.

The above scenario calls for the intervention of the counsellor. A counsellor reacting on this situation of the above family member shared his experiences that

“As I share with couples and families I empower them to work together and I encourage mutuality in marriage. Selfishness kills a relation. I focus on women to change their attitude of a man as a provider of the family. Children will behave in accordance with the family relations that they evidence every day from their parents. Thus good family relations act as a basis of good child upbringing”.

The researcher's concern for children among the family is to get a way of healing future families because what we do is in many aspects influenced by our family settings and dynamics.

Parenthood

A Parent is taken in this thesis as one who begets, gives birth to, or nurtures and raises a child; it can be a father or mother. Parenthood is the act of raising children by parents or guardians, with behavioural, emotional, psychological, social, physical, education and financial support. Section 576 of the Uganda Education Act 1996 defines a 'parent' as “any person who has parental responsibility for a child or young person.”

It is not uncommon to find that when a new baby arrives, you want a bit of space to sort yourselves out. Sometimes others just don't understand this, and their enthusiasm and interest, however well meaning, can start to feel like interference.

It's a difficult issue to deal with, especially in those challenging first months.

“I was born at a hospital as the first born of my parents, I was warmly welcomed by the whole clan and everybody was excited at my birth. My father wanted me to be called Teresa while my mother wanted to be called Agnes. Finally my mother won because I ended up called Agnes.

After one month of birth my mother became critically ill. Instead of my father caring for my mum he ignored her. My mother's uncles and aunts took care of Mum until when she fully recovered. One year after my mother left for Zimbabwe for greener pastures which left me to be parented by my mother and her relatives” (Un-counselled family member narrated her Lived experiences).

The researcher believes that mothers and fathers provide the optimal development for children. The placement of children in settings where there is not a mother or father, leads to the beginning of a slippery slope, filled with risks that neither the children nor society, can afford to take. Parenting is an extension of the way one's own parents were treated by their own parents or caregivers as children. This however raises a challenge that is beyond the scope of this study on how parenting is being done in boarding kindergartens and nursery and primary schools to this infants and children by other caregivers different from their biological parents and the future consequences this have on these children.

Freedom

An un-counselled family member on issue of freedom lamented that:-

“My father had a dominating behaviour where he controlled everybody. There were no clear rules of communication. Roles of children were stipulated. Due to verbal and physical abuse in the family, members including myself, used to experience anger, fear, anxiety which led to emotional outbursts. The members of the family were undifferentiated and un-individualistic in order to conform to the rules and norms of the family. We were stuck in emotional togetherness and nobody could show his/her creativity and initiative. It was until the time that I went to stay with my grandparents that I learnt through observation,

imitation and modelling .through their encouragement and rewards I became stable”.

Freedom violations do not end with the family but are spread all over even to the work places. There is discrimination among women and men at work places in Uganda. Women are discriminated against with respect to recruitment, advancement, promotion, training opportunities and dismissal. This has restricted their participation in decision making at all levels (ILO 2003).

The gender policy (1997) in Uganda favours women, for example, the Uganda's constitution provides for Equality between men and women. Article 32(1) states many conditions that would liberate women, For example:-

1. “Women shall be accorded full and equal dignity of the person with men”.
2. Laws, cultures, customs, or traditions which are against the dignity, welfare or status are prohibited by this constitution (Article 33).

Freedom needs to start with the women themselves as they change attitudes then men also to receive the "new" woman and of course changing laws, and sensitizing the society.

Command over Property

The property in this thesis is taken as Property is any physical or intangible entity that is owned by a person or jointly by a group of people or a legal entity like a corporation. Important widely recognized types of property include real property (the combination of land and any improvements to or on the land), personal property (physical possessions belonging to a person), private property (property owned by legal persons or business entities), public property (state owned or publicly owned and available possessions) and intellectual property (exclusive rights over artistic creations, inventions).

Counselled family member narrated her family background experiences in regards to property that:-

“I was born in a poor family with meagre resources and limited income. My mother was a key player in the struggle to earn a living and paid all our school fees. She worked tirelessly with my late grand mum by brewing local brew and sold spear grass to raise the needed money for our daily feeding and general upkeep. Quite a number of times I was sent home due to unpaid school dues. The most stressing thing is that my father claimed that he was the owner of the family and in charge of all the family had. My father was working but we never saw anything from his earnings”.

Despite the woman empowerment campaign in Uganda, favourable gender policy and constitution, cultural beliefs still hinder women from commanding property. Men too fear women to be economically independent thinking they will leave the marriage or have extra-marital affairs. The Domestic bill has taken long to be passed because men who have bigger numbers in parliament are reluctant to

release economic power to women. Unfortunately, even women don't seem to fight much for this Liberation as some still believe in their internalized stereotype thinking of being men's property. Therefore, ownership and command of property in Uganda is still dominated by men.

Conclusions

It is evident that in both counselled and un-counselled families illustrate that family relations and parenting is more in the hands of females and freedom and ownership of property is more in the hands of males.

The effectiveness of counselling is seen more explicitly in choice of partners in that counselled families, males have more flexibility than females and it is vice versa after counselling. It is mostly likely that counselled females become more critical in choosing whom to marry since they are empowered to assertively make their positions clear. With this therefore, their choice of whom they will marry reduces.

The counselled males become more flexible in the choice of marriage partners mostly likely the counselling process reduce stereotypes and biases in their choice of whom to marry.

Conclusively, the researcher attributes such surprising findings on the perceptions and stereo types that society attributes to boys and girls and women and men. This is exemplified by one that was said by a member in focus group discussion that, "Boys do not cry, girls are meant to take care of the home, women do not have a say in the home they are the care takers and men are the bread winners."

The study concluded that women's rights and men's rights have to be advocated for in terms of ownership of property, and freedom to be and to do what they want that make them more authentic. This calls for the shift in mind set of both males and females. Counselled families have indicated a significant difference from un-counselled families on issues of their practice and understanding of family right.

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Social Stigma, Social Support and Care-Giving Attitudes towards Incarcerated Persons by Members of their Families

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Abstract. The study examined the influence of social stigma and social support on care-giving attitudes towards incarcerated persons by members of their families. It was carried out in a correctional facility in Ibadan, using a cross-sectional design. Data was collected from 294 participants using standardized instruments. Results showed that social support had a significant positive relationship with care-giving attitudes at ($r=.890$; $p<.05$), while social stigma had a significant negative relationship with care-giving attitude at ($r=-.798$; $p<.05$). Age, educational status, social stigma and social support had a significant joint influence on care-giving attitudes at $F(4, 289) = 360.96$; $p<.05$. However, only social stigma and social support had significant independent influence on the attitudes at ($F= 302$, $t=-8.341$, $p<.05$) and ($F= 15.665$, $t=18.284$, $p<.05$) respectively. These results suggest that for a caregiver of incarcerated persons, the stress of care giving is coupled with the constant threat of being stigmatized and discriminated against.

Keywords: Social Stigma; Social Support; Incarceration; Care giving

Introduction

Like every other incapacitated group of individuals, prisoners also need care-giving during their stay in detention. The act of care-giving towards incarcerated person by members of their families involves paying regular visits to the prisoners with food items, medical supplies and keeping them company. It has been recognized that care giving to an incarcerated family member is *typically an* expression of love and dedication, but it can also be extremely challenging with some adverse effects,

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such as a sense of burden and feelings of depression, anxiety and insomnia (Schulz, 2000).

Caring for a convicted relative and coping with the loss of intimate exchanges in their relationship require many changes in a family's life. Many researchers and clinicians associate the caring experience with long-term exposure to numerous stressful events (Connell, Janevic, & Gallant, 2001; Nolan, Grant, & Keady, 1996). Despite negative outcomes that may accompany providing care giving to prisoners, the caregivers also may experience reward throughout the long journey.

Research findings show that caregivers gain a sense of self-worth and mastery, qualities associated with greater family cohesion and marital satisfaction (Martire, Stephens, & Atienza, 2007). Caregivers value positive aspects of relationships with their incarcerated family member, in addition, they appreciate their own feeling of confidence that giving care provides them (Farren, Miller, Kaufman, Dormer, & Fogg, 2009). Despite the growing evidence concerning the positive side of care giving, much care giving research still focuses on its pathologic aspects. This study focuses on the stigmatization and lack of support that the relatives of incarcerated persons experience, and how these affect their care giving attitude.

Social stigma has been defined as a mark or flaw resulting from a personal or physical characteristic that is viewed as socially unacceptable (Bfaine, 2010). The "stigma associated with being a relative to prisoners, therefore, is the perception that a person who has family ties with a prisoner is undesirable or socially unacceptable" (Vogel, Wade, & Haake, 2006). Past research has found that the public often describes relatives of prisoners in negative terms (Angermeyer & Dietrich, 2006). Whereas the stigma attached to being prisoner may not be the same as the stigma associated with being the relative of a prisoner, researchers have found that people tend to report more stigma surrounding relatives of prisoners than prisoners themselves. Given the negative perceptions attributed to relatives of prisoners, it is not surprising that individuals hide their family ties with convicted felons so as to avoid the consequences associated with being labelled and stigmatized (Chadda, Singh & Ganguly, 2007).

Social support has been defined as that form of assistance rendered by a network of friends, family or significant others (Murray, 2009). Research on social support has identified that the social support of family and friends has varying impacts on attitudes towards care-giving. In addition, the variable of social support has also been identified in the literature to be a coping mechanism utilized by individuals who are going through stressful events related to care-giving. The concept of social support has been considered for many years as a positive variable in moderating the effects of stress on an individual's mental health. Longitudinal Studies (Oestman & Kjellin, 2002) found that social support moderated the effects of stress on mental health. This came to be known as the buffering hypothesis, meaning that social support can buffer or protect one from the negative effects of stress related activities. Therefore, it seems logical to investigate how social support may affect components of the care giving relationship between family members and their incarcerated relatives.

Literature, as well as practical incidences, has indicated that friends and family members of incarcerated persons are often victims of stigmatisation by members of the public (Adegoke, 2011). There is a general frown at families who have relatives in incarceration. There is a general consensus that there is a lack of home training and moral upbringing among members of such families. As such, individuals who have relatives in the custody of correctional facilities do not want to be identified publicly due to the associated stigmatization and labelling. This therefore puts a strain on the efforts in encouraging relatives of prisoners to render care-giving services to the prisoners and also has negative impacts on the attitude towards care-giving of these incarcerated persons by their family members.

There is also a significant dearth in the literature on care-giving towards incarcerated persons from a local perspective. Most care-giving studies in the literature focus on patients with ailments, disability or life threatening conditions. This study therefore aims at bridging this gap in literature with the hope that it would inspire more replications in this direction. The study undertook to verify the hypotheses that:

1. There will be a significant relationship between social stigma, social support and care-giving attitude of family members towards their incarcerated relatives.
2. There will be a significant joint and independent influence of social stigma, social support, age and level of education on care-giving attitudes towards prisoners.
3. Female caregivers will exhibit more positive attitude towards care-giving of incarcerated relations than male family members

Methodology

This study adopted a cross-sectional survey research design using ex post-facto technique. The focus was to empirically investigate the influence of social stigma and social support on care-givers' attitudes towards prisoners.

Research Setting

The research was conducted within a correctional facility (Agodi prisons) in Ibadan metropolis, Nigeria. The preference was based on the accessibility to the research participants (i.e. relations who come to visit and provide care prisoners)

Population of the Study

The population of this study comprised of relatives and friends of incarcerated individuals within the selected correctional facility- The participants consisted of both male and female caregivers.

Sample Size and Sampling Technique

A total number of 300 participants were randomly selected from the correctional facility in this study. Accidental sampling was employed in the selection of the participants of the study from the facility. This is because potential participants were relatives and friends of prisoners who were approached in no particular order when they came to the selected correctional facility for visit and care-giving of their incarcerated relations.

Research Instruments

Three standardized instruments were utilized in eliciting relevant information relating to the participants of the study. The questionnaire consisted of 4 sections. The instruments, authors and psychometric properties are described below.

Social Stigma

Social stigma was measured using a scale developed by King, Dinos, Shaw, Watson, Stevens, Passetti, Weich & Serfaty (2007). It is a 28-item scale that measures social stigma. It has three subscales; discrimination, disclosure and positive aspects. It is rated on a five point scale from 0 (not at all) to 4 (Always). Cronbach's alpha for responses to the 28 items of the final version was 0.87. Cronbach's alpha for the first sub-scale (discrimination) was 0.87; for the second (disclosure) 0.85 and for the third (positive aspects) 0.64. In this study, the Cronbach alpha for the scale was established as 0.68.

Social Support

Social support was measured using the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS; Zimet, Dalilem, Zimet & Farley, 1988). It was developed to assess perceived social support. It consists of 12 items that measure factor groups relating to the source of the social support, such as family, friends or significant other. It is rated on a 5-point scale ranging from * 1 = Strongly Disagree¹ to 5 = Strongly Agree¹. Previous studies (Adejuwon, 2010), on a sample of the middle-aged working class adult Nigerian population, have established the internal consistency {Cronbach's alpha) of MSPSS at 0.92. In this study, the Cronbach alpha for the scale was established as 0,52.

Care-givers' Attitude

Caregivers* attitude was measured using the Caregiver burden inventory by Novak & Guest (1989). It is a 24-item multi-dimensional questionnaire measuring caregiver burden with 6 subscales: (a) Time Dependence; (b) Developmental; (c)

Behaviour; (d) Physical Burden; (e) Social Burden; (f) Emotional Burden. Scores for each item are evaluated using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (not at all disruptive) to 4 (very disruptive). The internal consistency of each subscale was 0.85, 0.85, 0.86, 0.73, 0.76 and 0.77, respectively. In this study, the Cronbach alpha for the overall scale was as 0.51

Procedure

The researcher made pre-arranged visits to the selected correctional facility within the study area. Upon completion of the administrative protocol, the purpose of the study was explained to the management of the facility. Two hundred and ninety-four (294) copies of questionnaire were distributed to consenting/participants as they came to visit their wards and relations who are in custody. During this session an introduction to the study was made to the participants and verbal instructions for completing the questionnaire are highlighted. They were assured of the confidentiality of their responses for being used for academic and research purposes. A period of one week was dedicated to the facility for the completion of the questionnaires. Two hundred and ninety-four (294) copies of questionnaire were successfully completed and retrieved for analysis.

Analysis

Data was analyzed using SPSS version 17. Descriptive statistics & inferential statistic was applied on the data collected. Pearson's Correlation matrix was carried out to test hypothesis 1. Multiple regression was carried out to test hypotheses 2 and t-test was used to test hypothesis 3. The reliability analysis of the study instrument was cross-examined and reported as the local reliability in this study.

Results

Hypothesis One

There will be a significant relationship between social stigma, social support and care-giving attitude towards incarcerated persons by members of their family. This hypothesis was tested using correlation matrix. Results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Correlation matrix showing the relationships between social stigma, social support and care-giving attitude

Variables	1	2	3
1.Social Stigma	1		
2.Social Support	0.746**	1	
3.Care-giving Attitude	-0.798**	0.890**	1

** Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (1-tailed)

Results from table 1 shows that social stigma and social support were significantly correlated with family members' attitude towards care-giving of incarcerated relations. While social support showed a significant positive relationship with care-giving attitude at ($r=.890$; $p<.01$), social stigma had a significant negative relationship with care-giving attitude at ($r=-.798$; $p<.01$). The hypothesis was therefore accepted.

Hypothesis Two

There will be a significant joint and independent influence of age, educational status, social stigma and social support on care-giving attitudes towards incarcerated persons by members of their family. This hypothesis was tested using multiple regression analysis supper imposition standardized regression coefficient. Results are presented in Table 2

Table 2. Influence of Psycho-social Factors on Care-giving Attitude

Predictor	Beta (β)	t-value	Sig	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F	P
Age	0.029	1.185	>.05					
Educational status	-0.011	-0.440	>.05					
Social stigma	0.302	8.341	<.05	0.913	0.833	0.781	360.96	<0.05
Social support	0.665	18.284	<.05					

DV: Care giving Attitude

Results from Table 2 show that age, educational status, social stigma and social support had a significant joint influence on care-giving attitude towards incarcerated relations at $F(4, 289)=360.96$; $p<.05$ with all variables accounting for about 83.3% of the variance in care-giving attitude towards incarcerated relations. However, only social stigma and social support had contributed to the variance on care-giving attitude towards incarcerated relations at ($\beta=0.302$, $t=8.341$, $p<.05$) and ($\beta=0.665$, $t=18.284$, $p<.05$) respectively. The hypothesis was partially accepted.

Hypothesis Three

Female caregivers will exhibit more positive attitude towards care-giving of incarcerated relations than male caregivers- This hypothesis was tested using t-test of independent measures. Results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Influence of Gender on Care-giving Attitude

DV	Gender	N	Mean	SD	df	T	P
Care-giving Attitude	Male	179	57.78	9.40	292	0.058	>0.05
	Female	115	57.84	7.94			

Results from table 3 shows that gender did not have any significant influence on care-giving attitude towards incarcerated relations at $t(292)=.058$, $p>.05$. This implies that being a male or female family member did not have any influence in the attitude exhibited towards taking care of incarcerated relations. The hypothesis was therefore rejected.

Discussion

Hypothesis one stated that there will be a significant relationship between social stigma, social support and care-giving attitude towards incarcerated persons by members of their family. Results showed that that social stigma and social support were significantly correlated with family members' attitude towards care-giving of incarcerated relations. While social support showed a significant positive relationship with care-giving attitude, social stigma had a significant negative relationship with care-giving attitude. This implies that increased levels of social support are associated with a more positive care-giving attitude towards incarcerated relations while increased levels of social stigma are associated with a negative care-giving attitude towards incarcerated relations.

This result is expected due to the fact that in literature, social stigma is considered to be a negative construct while social support is considered to be a positive construct. It is thus expected that persons with greater levels of social support would be reinforced towards positive care-giving attitudes while persons experiencing greater levels of social stigma would be reinforced towards negative care-giving attitudes. Outcomes of similar studies in the literature also portray this relationship. For instance, Sharp, Marcus-Mendoza, Bentley, Simpson, and Love (2008) indicated that incarceration had a negative impact on family attitude towards caring for their loved ones in detention due to associated factors of stigmatization and financial strain. Also, Lee & Choi (2012) investigated the roles of social networks and satisfaction with social support on attitudes toward care giving. Higher levels of satisfaction with social support were associated with greater positive attitudes toward care giving among Korean American caregivers.

Hypothesis two stated that there will be a significant joint and independent influence of age, educational status, social stigma and social support on care-giving attitudes towards incarcerated persons by members of their family. From the results, the psychosocial variables jointly influenced care-giving attitude towards incarcerated relations. However, social stigma and social support were independent predictors of care-giving attitude towards incarcerated relations. Studies in the literature conform to these outcomes of the predictive roles of social stigma and social support on care-giving attitude. Rosenfarb, Bellack & Aziz (2006) identified social networks as predictors of care-givers' attitudes towards patients with stress. Care-givers' attitude towards patients with moderate and low social networks was tending towards negative affects in comparison to those with high social networks. Social support was also linked to the treatment

outcomes of patients with stress. Conversely, Murray and Farrington (2008) compared effects of public stigmatization on children's attitude to care-giving of imprisoned parents in Sweden and England. Children of imprisoned parents in England experienced stigmatization from peers, displayed more depressive syndromes and negative attitudes towards visiting their parents in prison than children whose parents were not imprisoned.

Hypothesis three stated, that female family members will exhibit more positive attitude towards care-giving of incarcerated relations than male family members. Results from the analysis negated this assertion by indicating no significant influence of gender on care-giving attitude. However, in contrast to the results of this study, it is generally assumed that females are more sympathetic and empathetic than males. This has also been shown in some other related studies in the literature. For instance Suitor & Pillemer (2006) found that care giving activities were initiated and carried out mostly by female members of the family.

Conclusions

For a caregiver of incarcerated persons, the chronic stress of care giving is coupled with the constant threat of being stigmatized and discriminated against. Studies have shown that individuals who report having faced discrimination are more likely to experience poor physical health. The literature on caregivers clearly indicates that the intensity of chronic care giving is associated with a multitude of health issues. The build up of stress caused by perceived stigma can cause a chronic stress response in spouses and children of incarcerated persons, and lead to cognitive and mental health problems in these populations.

Despite the challenges involved, caregivers could be empowered by seeking helpful coping strategies. The importance of being informed and learning about available resources seems to be of paramount importance, as these offer an increased sense of control. "The more knowledgeable we are, the better we are at care giving", says Odette (2010). As a caregiver it is also essential to take care of oneself by getting good sleep, eating well, and maintaining relationships with family members and friends. Another important factor is regular attendance of support groups and sharing one's experiences with a social network- "Listening to stories told by others reminds us that we're not alone, and sometimes shows us that others are worse off.

Social support from friends, family and significant others has also been established as an effective buffering factor against stress, social stigma and negative attitudes towards care-giving of incarcerated or ill relations. Social support helps to ease the demands persons engaged in family care-giving. It is the most common type of intervention for care-givers in which friends and family provide emotional support and encouragement, as well as an insight into successful strategies for dealing with various aspects of the care giving role. Support from friends and family members also provides a combination of

empathy and insight into mutual problems, an encourages exchange of effective strategies for coping with stresses entailed in the role transition to caregiver.

Recommendations

Based on these outcomes, greater emphasis should be placed on psycho-educational interventions for caregivers of incarcerated persons or relation, since they not only provide training, emotional reinforcement, information and social support, but also improve relatives' attitudes towards incarcerated persons, which in turn impacts on the caregiver's quality of life. Family intervention programmes would lead to significantly greater family, community and health service empowerment, and also reduced displeasure and concern about the incarcerated family member. Group-based interventions enable families to share experiences with others in similar situations, which can provide comfort and facilitate the expression of feelings about the disorder, thereby improving coping skills. It has been suggested that such intervention groups also increase the motivation of family members involved. Finally, it should be noted that psycho-educational programmes do not only provide information, but also reinforce the idea of respect for families and encourage them to consider themselves as co-therapists in the process. In this way, the therapeutic team and the family can develop a less polarized and less stressful relationship, and even more reluctant family members become more willing to cooperate, thereby reducing the burden on both parties. This finding can also help non-governmental and government in implementing policies against negative attitude toward incarcerated persons in the society.

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Gender and Land Ownership in Uganda: do Female-headed Households have Equal Opportunity to use Land?

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Abstract. The objective of this study was to investigate the determinants of land ownership for female headed households in Uganda. Data were culled from the 2005/06 Uganda National Household Survey and analyzed using multiple linear regression and dummy variables. The results show that most households in Uganda own land through customary tenure with 75.6 percent among the male headed households (MHH) and 71.8 among the female headed households (FHH) land. Slightly a big proportion of the female headed households owned *mailo* land (20.7%) compared to 16.5 percent of the men. The average land size is smaller in FHH than MHH. Differences were noted in land tenure system by region and there is no evidence from the data that women do not have access to land. Most women who owned land were widows. This suggests that they were taking care of what used to be for the late husbands.

Keywords: Land tenure; Gender; Female-headed households.

Introduction

Land is the basis of many social and political struggles, and for most particularly rural people, it is the starting point for livelihoods and dignity. For the case of women are concerned, the land question remains far from resolved. The area of women's land rights therefore opens up space to work simultaneously on issues, institutions, systems and processes that perpetuate oppression and injustice. Women's rights to access and control land are central to the goal of poverty eradication, and a rights-based approach to development (Tinyade, 2009). It is also well known that in Africa, we have some customary laws which hinder women

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from ownership of the God given gift of land. It should also be noted that customary law is not uniform across Africa, but there are some common factors as identified by Kameri-Mbote (2011). These factors are that: customary law tends to be the unwritten social rules and structures of a community derived from shared values and based on tradition. Customary laws pertaining to women's land tenure are based on social relations between men and women and, more specifically, husbands and wives; customary laws seem to have few provisions for divorced women and perhaps silent on the part of single women. Kameri-Mbote (2011) sums up the customary law as:

“The predominance of patriarchy in law, policy, and practice ensures that the land has owners but that they are not women.”

The above is the stereo type of thinking which has distorted the past order. For example, Rugadya (2008) in her paper about Northern Uganda contends that:

“A woman had rights to use her parents' land prior to marriage, and her husband's land afterwards. No husband was supposed to prevent his wife from using his land, and if he predeceased her, she still had user rights: she could use the land as she saw fit and pass it on to her children, but could not sell it. If somebody tried to take this right from her, she could appeal to the elders who would then intervene on her behalf. People knew their rights and how to protect them, and who to appeal to if they felt these had been violated. However, this transparency or relative predictability cannot be taken for granted in the return situation, as years of displacement have weakened these mechanisms”.

These two authors do not contradict each other but show that there was an orderly way of protecting land for the benefit of the family including women and children.

The Law

Land is one of the most important assets in agrarian economies like Uganda. The systems of land tenure that are recognized by law in Uganda are freehold, leasehold, mailo and customary tenures (Nayenga-Nabbunya, 2008). Land tenure refers to the manner in which land is owned, occupied, used and disposed of within a community. Uganda being a patriarchal society, the majority of land was based on the customary tenure system which does not allow women to own land. This is the system whereby land is owned and disposed of in accordance with customary regulations. Specific rules of customary tenure vary according to ethnic groups and regions. Often, customary tenure is superimposed on other systems like mailo and freehold. This implies that even the freehold and mailo land cannot easily go to female offspring because of the deeply rooted gender biases in land ownership rights showing that male-headed households hold between 80% and 90% of the ownership rights of the land available in Uganda.

The Ugandan Land Act of 2000, the Succession Act, and the constitution attempt to protect these rights but are inadequate, and are often over-powered by cultural and traditional practices. The Land Act of 1998 provides spousal consent before a man sells family land, but it also allows the man to challenge a refusal to consent “without a good reason or reasons.” The question is who determines the goodness of the reason? Rugadya (2008) notes that this limitation set by the law requiring spousal consent on all land transactions are not realistic or feasible and will face enormous problems in their practical implementation. Consent to land transactions on its own is unlikely to change the highly differentiated and multifaceted nature of land inequity for women or gender relations.

The Succession Act protects the interests of wives, children, and dependent relatives in family property, but it does not cater for cohabiting wives because they are not recognized by the existing laws. The consent clause offers women in legally accepted marriages some protection, but it leaves out single or young women and the majority of rural women who are in co-habitation, that is, socially tolerated but not legally accepted (Rugadya 2008). Women in these unions consider themselves married for all intents and purpose. Other community members also regard them as married and interestingly, they tend to be the majority. Even the constitution, which advocates for the protection of minority rights and non-discrimination, has not succeeded in deterring property grabbing in the recent past (Kabumbuli et al, 2008).

Current Knowledge on Gender and Asset Rights in Uganda

Resource ownership is a term that describes access and control of a given resource, whilst access is defined as the opportunity to make use of a resource, and, control as the power to decide how a resource is used, and who has access to it (March et al., 1999 cited in Mugisha et al 2001). Thus, the person who controls a resource is the one ultimately able to make decisions about its use, including whether it can be sold or not (Mugisha et al 2001)

The literature on men’s and women’s asset rights in sub-Saharan Africa is quite limited and for the most part focused on land. Evidence from these studies points to a substantial and pervasive gender gap in asset ownership, with women owning less land in terms of size than men and most often of lower quality (Doss 2006; Mason and Carlsson 2004; SOFA Team 2011 as cited in Aslihan Kes, Krista Jacobs, Sophie Namy (2011)).

Evidence from Uganda is similar to what has been found elsewhere in the region. Despite their significant role in the agricultural sector, only about 16 percent of Ugandan women own land in their own right (Rugadya 2010). Their ownership of registered land is even lower at 7 percent (Rugadya 2010; Bikaako and Ssenkumba 2003). Housing, often considered a combined asset with land, particularly in rural areas, is also overwhelmingly owned by men (Rugadya 2010).

While lack of security of tenure affects millions of people across the world, women face added risks and deprivations: in Africa and South-Asia especially,

women are systematically denied their human rights to access, own, control or inherit land and property (Aslihan Kes, Krista Jacobs, Sophie Namy (2011). The current situation is also made worse in Uganda by the trend of land grabbing which is going on unabated. Current evidence as reported in various media channels in 2012, a week will not pass without a case being reported in papers involving the poor, the rich, the peasants, the politicians, the educated and uneducated. Recently, a ministerial appointment was made. From what the media reports of, the minister seems to be much more involved in resolving land conflicts in the country than in other activity (cite news paper stories on Minister Nantaba here). The fact that the media is able to report on land issues almost each day indicates that land problems/conflicts resulting from the question of ownership are enormous. Needless to mention that there are many areas in Uganda that the media reaches not and yet they are affected in the same or are even in worse situations.

Objective of the Study

The objective of this paper is therefore to study the differences in socio economic and demographic characteristics between the male headed households (MHH) and female headed households (FHH) in relation to land ownership.

Methodology

The source of data for the study was the 2005/06 Uganda National Household Surveys. The Uganda National Survey (UNHS) 2005/2006 was used because it had an agriculture module which included questions on the land ownership. The survey collected information on the socio economic characteristics at both household and community levels as well as information on the agricultural sectors. The survey comprised of five modules namely the Socio-economic, agriculture, Community, Price and the Qualitative Modules.

The household head was taken to be the owner of the land or a person who has a higher say of what the land should be used. In Uganda, a household has been defined as a group of people who normally eat and live together. We will use the sex of the household head as the proxy for ownership of the land the household owns. A household head can be defined as an individual in one family setting who provides actual support and maintenance to one or more individuals who are related to him or her through: blood, marriage or adoption. The household head is usually the person whose authority to exercise family control and to support the dependent members is founded upon a moral or legal obligation or duty. It can also refer to a person in the household acknowledged as head by the other members either by virtue of his age or social standing in the household or the head has primary authority and responsibility for household affairs. The analysis was mad by cross tabulating the gender of the household head with the selected characters of the heads.

Results of the Study

Table 1 present the distribution of household heads by gender and selected background characteristics. There were a total of 4678 household heads of which 75.5 percent (3532) were males while female heads comprised of 24.5 percent that is one in four. This is high given that Uganda is purely a patriarchal society. The distribution of household head showed that less than one percent was aged less than 20 years. However variations in the distribution shows that female heads are slightly older than male heads for example among male heads, 30 percent are aged above 50 or more years compared to 50.1 percent of the females aged 50 or more years. This finding is in agreement with the marital status of the heads as the majority of the female household heads were widowed (49.1%) followed by those married polygamous (19.1%). In comparison to men almost three in four (72.1%) were married monogamous. Also to note is that there were more never married female heads (2.4%) compared to male household heads. On whether the household head was always present, only 1.2 percent of female household heads were absent compared to 6.8 percent for absent male household heads. Regional distribution showed that the distribution household heads also follows the same. However, the results show that whereas 19.8 percent of all household heads were from the central, female heads accounted for 23.1 compared to 18.8 percent making it the highest percentage difference of 4.3. It is also in the central region and the Northern region where the proportion of female heads was greater than that of the male heads.

Table 1. Distribution of Household Heads (%)

		Male (N=3532)	Female (N=1146)	Total (N=4678)
Age group	13-19	0.7	0.8	0.8
	20-29	17.9	9.1	15.7
	30-39	30.4	19.0	27.6
	40-49	21.1	20.9	21.0
	50-59	12.9	21.7	15.0
	60-69	9.1	15.7	10.8
	70+	8.0	12.7	9.1
Marital status	Married monogamous	72.1	15.3	58.1
	Married polygamous	20.6	19.1	20.2
	Divorced/separated	3.3	14.1	6.0
	Widow/widower	2.2	49.1	13.7
	Never married	1.8	2.4	2.0
Residence	Usual member present	93.2	98.8	94.6
	Usual member absent	6.8	1.2	5.4
Region	Central	18.8	23.1	19.8
	Eastern	30.2	27.2	29.5
	Northern	22.2	23.3	22.4
	Western	28.8	26.5	28.3

Land Tenure

The analysis of the land tenure system by heads of households shows that no variation is observed between male and female households by land tenure system. Irrespective of household headship, the majority of the households owned land through the customary (Total 74.8%, male 75.8% and female 71.8%). Slightly more females (20.7%) compared to 16.7 percent of the males owned mailo land. Further analysis on how the land was acquired shows wide variation by the head of the household. The majority of the households had acquired land through inheritance from the household head is family tree. But the difference when compared, 60 percent for male heads and only 41.9 percent for the female heads. Which much variation is observed is the inheritance from the spouse family. Less than 2 percent of male heads inherited the land from the family of their wife while one in five of female, were owning the land they inherited from male counterparts. This is a great gender finding on how it is hard for a man to get a share from the wife's family while it is not a problem for women to get a share from the man's family. This is an interesting finding which agrees with what Rugadya 2008 alluded to that once a woman was married, she had full rights to use her husband's land and even if the husband passed on, she continued to utilize the land.

“No husband was supposed to prevent his wife from using his land, and if he predeceased her, she still had user rights: she could use the land as she saw fit and pass it on to her children, but could not sell it. If somebody tried to take this right from her, she could appeal to the elders who would then intervene on her behalf. People knew their rights and how to protect them, and who to appeal to if they felt these had been violated”.

Although greed is currently taking root, this fact is still respected where widowed women continue to utilize the land which she had before becoming a widow. The land tenure system has showed that no difference is observed between gender of the household and tenure and also how the land was acquired. Further scrutiny on these findings shows that now even women are inheriting land either from their husbands or their parents. This can be seen with 41.9 percent of the women who inherited the land from their families. The implication for this is that now land will begin changing hands from one clan to another and from one ethnic group without any purchase taking place as long as one of those taking it on has some blood relationships with the first owners of the land hence gender balance and equity. This would be a normal situation but can cause complications especially if xenophobia crops in. Whereas we can embrace anyone owning land including men from different ethnic groups once married, it is a time bomb which will cause trouble if there is an ethnic quarrel hatred. The proportion owning land having purchased it is also at alarming stages. It indicates that a number of people are buying and selling land which will eventually reduce customs on land ownership. Should certain groups of people be at a disadvantage financially, this will cause a large proportion of the population who are landless or who own very small parcels of land which cannot sustain the family.

Table 2. Percentage distribution of heads by land tenure system

	Male (N=3530)	Female (N=1145)	Total (N=4675)
Tenure			
Freehold	5.6	5.3	5.6
Leasehold	1.5	1.5	1.5
Mailo	16.5	20.7	17.5
Customary	75.8	71.8	74.8
Other	0.6	0.7	0.6
How it was acquired			
Purchased	36.2	34.7	35.8
Inherited or gift from head's family	60.0	41.9	55.6
Inherited or gift from spouse's family	1.4	20.7	6.1
Cleared	1.8	1.9	1.8
Other	0.7	0.9	0.7

Not showed in the Table is that those who have acquired land through purchases were highest among those in the central region followed up with those in the western region. Eastern region is also picking up in terms of households acquiring land through purchase. In the northern region, the land is still protected by customary laws. For this reason, purchase of land as is the case elsewhere in the country is very limited here and the findings showed that. Only 7.7 percent of the households just purchased the land there are occupying.

Land utilization

It is not enough to own land but it is also important to know how the land is utilized. The questions on land utilization referred to two seasons. The second rain season referring to 2004 and the first rain season for 2005. For both seasons, the majority of the households utilized the land for cultivating annual crops and perennial crops (86.6% in 2004 and 89.1% in 2005). Land for grazing, wood and rented out did not change between the seasons. By gender, it is interesting to note that own cultivated land for perennial crops and grazing, other uses, tenants on the mailo land was same for both male and female. One can ably conclude that land utilization in Uganda does not depend on the gender of the household head.

Table 3: Distribution of Household-heads by selected characteristics

Land utilization	Male	Female	Total
Second season 2004			
Own cultivated (annual)	54.4	55.0	54.5
Own cultivated (perennial)	32.1	32.1	32.1
Rented out	0.4	0.6	0.4
Cultivated by mailo tenant	0.0	0.0	0.0
Fallow	6.5	5.7	6.3
grazing land	1.8	1.7	1.7
Woodlot	0.4	0.2	0.3
Other	4.5	4.8	4.6
First season 2005			
own cultivated (annual crops)	57.7	59.1	58.0
own cultivated (perennial crops)	31.1	31.1	31.1
rented out	0.5	0.7	0.5
Fallow	4.9	3.5	4.6
grazing land	1.8	1.8	1.8
Woodlot	0.4	0.2	0.3
Other	3.7	3.7	3.7

Land Size of the Household

From the above findings, we found out that the land tenure system and land utilization did not differ by the gender of the head of the household, we went further to see if the size of land the household owned varied by the male or female ownership. Size of the land was recorded in hectares. The average household size was 3.7 hectares and CI (3.3-4.2). However, the male headed households had large portions of land with a mean of 4.1 and CI (3.5-4.7) compared to female household with mean of 2.6 and (CI 2.3-2.9) showing no interaction. We therefore test the hypotheses that there is no difference in the size of land between male and female households ($H_0: \text{diff}=0$ that is “diff = mean (male) – mean (female)” and the alternative is “ $H_a: \text{diff} \neq 0$ ” that is the difference is not equal to zero. Since there are two groups, that is, group one is male while group two is female, we use the t-test static and compare the mean between male and female. Looking at the p value for the alternative, we can conclude that there is a difference in the mean land size between male and female households ($p=0.0030$) and we can actually conclude that male households had bigger parcels of land than female households.

Table 4. Comparison of Land Size by Gender

Group	Observations	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Male	2980	4.1	0.293	16.0	3.5	4.7
Female	996	2.6	0.149	4.7	2.3	2.9
Combined	3976	3.7	0.223	14.1	3.3	4.2
Diff		1.5	0.514		0.5	2.5
diff = mean(male) - mean(female)				t =	2.9720	
Ho: diff = 0				degrees of freedom =	3974	
Ha: diff < 0		Ha: diff \neq 0		Ha: diff > 0		
Pr(T < t) = 0.9985		Pr(T > t) = 0.0030		Pr(T > t) = 0.0015		

Factors Associated with Size of the Parcel of Land

Having discovered that the land size varies by gender, we further analyzed the determinants of land size since gender alone may not explain the differences in the land use.

A multiple linear regression was done with dummy variables as all the factors were categorical in nature. Keeping other factors constant, the female household will have land equal to 4.9 while that of male counterparts will be 6.5=(4.9+1.6). Heads of households from other regions will have land slightly bigger than those from the central region. The difference between central and western was not significant ($p=0.107$). This is true even if you regressed only the male or the female households. The difference in the size of the parcel of land by region varied very little among female heads compared to the male heads. For the land tenure system, the results showed that those with leasehold tenure system were more likely to have a larger parcel compared to other tenure systems. Size of the parcel affects what it would be used for. There was an interaction between use of land through both seasons. Most of the coefficients for land use in the second season (2004) are negative implying little non-utilization of much of the land during this season compared to the first season. Marital status shows some interesting results. Those who have never married especially among males are more likely to have smaller parcels of land. For men, the separated followed the never married in having smaller parcels. However, these differences are not statistically different from each other implying that marital status is not a big determinant on the size of land the household has.

In conclusion on size of the parcel of land the household owned the households with the largest parcel of land would be those headed by a male, from the northern region whose tenure system is lease hold, and was acquired through clearance and mainly used for wood cultivation, which is a usual member of the household and never married. On the other hand, the household with a small parcel of land are those headed by a female from the central region and acquired the land using other means not classified, uses the land for grazing and never married.

Table 5. Multiple linear regressions on the determinants of land size

	Males Coef.	Females Coef.	All Coef.	Std. Err.	P>t
a2aq4s					
Female	N/A	N/A			
Males	N/A	N/A	1.64	0.717	0.022
Central					
Eastern	4.3	0.9	3.1	1.572	0.048
Northern	7.9	0.6	5.7	1.648	0.001
Western	3.7	0.1	2.5	1.553	0.107
Freehold	-4.6	-0.8	-3.2	3.148	0.310
Leasehold	11.2	0.2	8.2	3.396	0.015
Mailo	1.1	0.5	0.8	2.733	0.756
Customary	-5.1	-0.6	-3.7	3.059	0.227
Other					
Purchased	0.6	-0.1	0.8	2.669	0.752
inherited or gift from head's family	0.4	0.5	0.9	2.668	0.735
inherited or gift from spouse's family	-1.1	0.6	0.3	2.825	0.928
Cleared	1.0	0.1	1.1	3.152	0.738
Other					
own cultivated (annua	-11.8	-0.8	-8.8	2.140	0.000
own cultivated (peren	-10.8	-1.3	-8.3	2.335	0.000
rented out	-10.8	2.9	-7.4	6.071	0.224
fallow/Mailo tenant	-9.5	-1.0	-7.1	2.400	0.003
grazing land	-13.8	-12.5	-14.3	8.351	0.087
Woodlot	-5.1	11.8	-2.0	10.371	0.845
Other					
own cultivated (annual crops)	7.3	-0.3	4.9	2.487	0.048
own cultivated (perennial crops)	5.7	-0.2	3.9	2.663	0.144
rented out	5.4	-5.2	2.3	6.481	0.724
Fallow	4.8	0.0	3.2	2.834	0.256
grazing land	16.4	20.7	18.2	8.510	0.033
Woodlot	7.2	(omitted)	5.2	10.450	0.616
Other					
Married monogamous					
Married polygamous	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.603	0.657
Divorced/separated	-1.4	0.1	-0.8	1.010	0.410
Widow/widower	-0.7	0.6	0.4	0.855	0.603
Never married	-2.6	1.2	-1.8	1.652	0.285
Usual member present	0.7	-3.0	0.4	0.997	0.697
cons	7.1	5.8	4.9	4.300	0.258

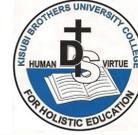
Conclusion

About one in four of the households in Uganda are female headed households. Both male headed households and female headed households own land and also

have user rights on some land they do not own. There is no evident so far of women being excluded from owning land. Both male and female households have related statistics in terms of type of ownership, how the land was acquired and when the land was acquired. The only difference is in the size of land owned with female headed households having slightly smaller parcels of land compared to the male headed households.

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Employers' Attitudes towards Employing People with Disabilities and their implications for Counselling: a Case Study of Kwara State, Nigeria

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Abstract. There is currently a growing concern for People Living with Disabilities, especially as it concerns their rehabilitation through employment. It seems that there is generally doubt about their employability because of fear of poor performance at work. This is why the researchers investigated employers' attitudes towards employing PLWDS and its implication for counselling. A total of 200 respondents who were purposively selected from 12 institutions in Kwara State were used for the study. It was found that majority of employers have negative attitudes toward employing PLWDS. It was also found that there was no significant difference in the employers' attitudes based on age and nature of employment. In view of these findings, recommendations on the need for a change of attitude by employers were made.

Keywords: People Living with Disabilities; Occupational counselling; Nigeria

Introduction

Attitudes toward individual with disabilities have followed a similar pattern of development throughout history. Wolfensberger (1990) noted that in both the history and literature of persons with disabilities, it is apparent that, regardless of time or place, such persons have been looked down upon and considered as deviant persons. Torbert (1996), further described this misnomer of deviancy to

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include the belief that, persons with disabilities were subhuman's, menaces, objects of dread sick, diseased organisms and objects of ridicule.

In the same vein, Kadota and Miron (1990), and Akinpelu (1999) stated that persons with disabilities have systematically been denied their human rights and privileges throughout history. They were usually segregated and restricted in their rights and opportunities by both law and common practice.

Different societies such as Nigeria and Ghana (Mba, 1991) have different presumptions beliefs and reaction toward the handicap as a group. It could also be observed that, some societies or cultures hold and spread negative information about the cause of disability as the punishment of offence committed to God; As such, the handicapped are often discriminated against in various arena of life.

The committee on child health of the American Public Health Association (1995) defined People Living with Disability (PLWDS) as a child or adult who is considered to be handicapped, if he cannot within limits play, learn, work or do things other children or adult of his/her age group can do.

A People Living with Disability (PLWD) is a person who might have lost part of his natural body formation. In other words, such person might have some features of his body mutilated, damaged or malfunction either naturally or artificially. According to Bowley and Gardner (1998) a PLWD is a handicap who has an interference or obstruction to normal growth, development and educational progress. This implies that handicapped persons cannot do certain thing by ordinary method or within the ordinary time available.

From Adebayo (2006) the concept of handicaps refers to children and adults with varying degrees of disabilities such as physical deformity, blindness, deafness, dumbness and mental retardation.

A person who suffers from handicapping condition is prone to double disadvantages because he has not only to bear his handicap, but is also to suffer from prejudices that most societies express towards them. This can be painful for them and can even lead to complicated feelings of loneliness and rejection.

According to Farant (1994) the word handicap is used in education to describe children whose educational performance is hindered by some physical, mental, emotional or social condition. From all the assertion, the handicapped children can broadly be classified as those who are intellectually gifted, the mentally retarded, the visually impaired, the speech defective, the orthopedically impaired, or having behaviour disorders, and those with special learning disabilities.

Causes of Disability

There are various causes of disability according to National Health Education Committee 1999. The figure in Nigeria is not easy to come by, but among Americans, the following causes have been found:

- Arteriosclerosis (the main cause of heart and brain damage).
- Poliomyelitis
- Tuberculosis
- Mental illness

- Multiple sclerosis
- Parkinson's disease
- Epilepsy
- Diabetes
- Accidents
- Various eye disorders
- Arthritis, among others

Others include accidents, congenital condition, hereditary etc. In Nigeria society, the handicapped are often regarded as unwell incapable of working someone who needs help and pity. This assertion was not true; what disabled or handicapped person needs is to afford them the nation building. Unfortunately, these opportunities were not always given to them; rather they are completely written off as if they are no longer belonging to the human race. In some parts of the state in particular and country in general, the handicapped is regarded as a disgrace to his family. At times he is hidden until death. To some people and places of work, he is seen and regarded as an inferior being, view as half human who is qualified only to be pitied and automatically becomes a beggar.

The handicapped are often despised, rejected, excommunicated, scorned, cheated and given some other kinds of negative attitudinal treatments. This maltreatment makes them to be extra sensitive of their defects. It should be noted that, the greatness of a nation is not measured by the number of tall buildings erected or by the few well fed and neatly dressed citizens who drive flashy, cars, but by the services, jobs and education government provides for her less fortunate citizens, most especially the handicapped.

Misconceptions about the Handicapped

The misconception about the PLWDs is worldwide. In the history of the United State of America according to Roberson (1996) a handicapped person is viewed as non-productive, while during the era of the Spartan in ancient Greek civilization, the father of a crippled child was expected to carry the child to the hill to be left to die. The Athenians then permitted handicapped children to die of neglect and, among the Akan people of Ghana; these categories of children are left to be suffocated or even drowned in the river.

In the tail of 1980, a land mark bill was passed by the congress of the United States and signed into Law by the President in the Public Children Act, affirms the absolute constitutional right of every child to education, which gives them better job and good living conditions instead of begging. Abelson and Babatunde (1999) and Johnson (2006) emphasized that, it is therefore quite obvious for able persons in the society to rally round the handicapped for better adjustment to societal conditions.

For some years now, the issue of provision of employment for PLWDS has been of great concern to individuals, groups, organization, state and Federal Government. It has been observed that, the handicapped persons are often denied employment. At best, they are given menial and poorly paid jobs.

In 1992, the government of Nigeria made series of pronouncement that all employers of labour in Nigeria should endeavour to employ at least two disabled persons out of every hundred employees. This is very unfortunate as it shows the prejudice against PLWDS.

According to Adesina (2001) during, the General Meeting of the National Council for Rehabilitation of the Disabled (NCFRD) held at Enugu in 1993, it was agreed that, the National Committee on the International Years of Disabled Persons (IYDP) should choose the topic; "Employment of the Disabled", for its National seminar.

According to its resolution and recommendation, the IYDP National Committee recommended that, the Federal Ministry of Social Development, Youth and Sports should jointly sponsor a National workshop on the "Employment and after care of Disabled Persons" and "The problem of Beggars in Nigeria". These workshops were jointly sponsored by the Federal Ministry of Social Development and other Ministries that have been aforementioned with the Consultative Association and Nigeria Labour Congress. It highlighted and categorized the types of employment available for disabled persons both in the private and public sectors as:

1. Paid employment
2. Self employment
3. Encouragement of self-employment where paid employment is not available.
4. The giving of special grants by the government (as tax relief) to employers of labour who the cost of providing extra facilities that may be necessary to make a disabled person functional in the working place and the waving of import duty on equipment imported to enable disabled person performs their duties more efficiently.

The implementation of these recommendations would have gone a long way towards solving the problem of unemployment of the disabled made by the government. In some cases these policies were poorly implemented (Akpe, 1996). An example was the 1996 budget speech of the then President and commandant in Chief of the Armed forces in Nigeria Late President Sanni Abacha. It was emphasized in his speech that all employers of labour in Nigeria should also employ disabled persons. Ekpikan (1986), Mohammed (1990) and Adima (2007) referred to the non-implementation of this when they lamented that, the employment outlook for disabled persons in Nigeria is not very bright at present in spite of Government's, declaration. Adima (2007) maintained further that 80% of the handicapped people who had received training have not been absorbed into the labour force.

Another factor that inhibits the employment of the handicapped is the general or societal prejudice of the employers of labour against the handicapped. Akpe (1996) and Johnson (2006) observed that, the legal backing by the government is not so effective as to enforce the compliance of private employers with provision, as it is required to place PLWDs. The feeling was that, they cannot be adequately functional as the able-bodied persons.

Even the few (20%) of handicapped employment are not well comfortable at work because the attitude of most employers of labour towards the handicapped have been negative. According to Porter (2000) most employers believed that, the handicapped cannot perform well as their able-bodied counterparts. Due to this they often do not give the job when vacancies are created in establishments. It is a global problem as confirmed by investigation made by Afolabi (1996) and Mba (2002). Lamidi (2000) emphasized that, there is gross discrimination against disable applicants and workers by employers; especially by those in the private sectors.

Agwa (2002) noted that many prospective employers of blind school leavers regard the blinds “as helpless and unable to perform any job.” In fact, some employers would rather give a large sum of money to an individual blind person or some organization sponsoring the blind job-seeker than to give them a job. Babalola (2000) affirmed that, some would want to employ a few deaf persons just to have some experience of a deaf man at work, but would terminate their employment whenever they have the sightless opportunity.

There are few organizations who voluntarily intend to rescue some handicapped from the disgrace of permanent dependence by training them for jobs performance and or placement but their job are shortened due to some prejudice they are faced with. Most prejudicial employers of labour claimed that:

1. Handicapped people constitute employment hazards and usually not covered by the company's insurance policy.
2. Handicapped workers rarely work as hard as their able bodied counterparts.
3. Employing handicapped could ruin the company because other workers could protest or abandon their jobs because others loathe the sight of a cripple or a blind person working side by side with them.
4. The workers trade unions might not extend membership to disabled workers.
5. The attitude of most handicapped people's are anti-social and antagonistic.

Rehabilitation counselling can help to create awareness and an eye opener to many people about the handicapped. This is very crucial to make employers of labour be aware of positive contributions the handicapped could as well make in uplifting the glory of this nation through their being employed.

Statement of the Problem

A large number (75%) of handicapped who are well trained have found it very difficult to gain employment. About 55 million people all over the world have

been estimated to be disabled (Mayah, 2009). Mayah (1990) estimated handicapped persons in Nigeria to be about 3,000,000 of which 71,800 are in Kwara State alone. By 2010 according to Oluwoye (2010) the estimation of handicapped was about 4.2m of which 85,920 was estimated to be in Kwara State. Almost three quarters, to half of this populace are well trained in various schools for the PLWDS, Universities and Polytechnics. Still they found it very difficult to secure employment in the labour market. The purpose of this study is to survey the attitude of employers of labour towards employing the handicapped or PLWD and its implication for counselling. The study is significant because it would enable the policy makers identify the nature of difficulties facing handicapped in getting jobs, difficulties encountered from their employers and in the labour market. The study would also help the government to know the remediating strategies needed to assist the PLWDS.

Research Questions

1. What are the attitudes of employers of labour towards employing PLWDS?
2. Are there differences in the attitudes of employers of labour towards employing handicapped persons?
3. Are there differences in the employers' attitudes towards employing handicapped persons based on age, gender, and type of employment?

Research Hypotheses

1. There is no significant difference between the attitude of male and female employers of labour towards employing the handicapped.
2. There is no significant difference between the attitude of private and public employers of labour towards employing handicapped persons.
3. There is no significant difference in the attitude of employers of labour on the basis of age.

Methodology

The research design adopted for this study was the descriptive survey. According to Hassan (1995), the survey method of research involves direct contact with a population or sample that has characteristics personality qualities or attributes which are relevant to specific investigation. This was found appropriate for the study.

Sample and Sampling Techniques

The target population for this study consisted of 200 purposively selected employers of labour and directors of twelve (12) various establishments in Kwara State. The establishments were picked as follows:

1. College of Education, Lafiagi
2. College of Education, Oro
3. Tuyil Pharmaceutical Company, Ilorin
4. Teaching Service Commission Ilorin
5. Osi Cottage Hospital, Osi
6. Offa Grammar School, Offa.
7. Ekiti Local Government, Ilofa
8. Asa Local government Area, Afon
9. Oke-Ero Local Government, Araromi
10. Police Station Oke-Ode
11. Igbaja Seminary School, Igbaja
12. Intercontinental Bank, Omu-Aran

Between 5 and 25 employers of labour and directors in each of the above mentioned establishments were involved in the study depending on their population and availability. The subjects were selected in their natural setting.

Instrumentation and Procedure

An instrument named Survey of Employers' Attitude of Labour Towards Employing' Handicapped Questionnaire (SEAOLTEHQ) was constructed by the researchers and used to collect data. The SEAOLTEHQ had 18 items. The instrument has two parts (section A and B). Section A contains the respondent's bio data and instructions for completion. While section B was the instrument proper with 18 items majorly on research title.

The reliability of the instrument was established through test-retest procedure carried out on 30 participants. The SEAOLTEH was administered twice on the respondents within an intervening period of 2 weeks. Data from the two administrations of the test were correlated using Pearson's Product Moment Co-efficient, A coefficient of .84 was obtained and was considered high enough.

The methods used in validating the instrument were face and content validities. For face validation, three experts determined at face value the appropriateness of the instrument in measuring up what was studied to ascertain if the instrument contained the appropriate items that could actually elicit the intended responses on employers' of labour attitude towards the handicapped.

Expert judgments were also used in determining the content validity. The experts in the field of Counselling, Evaluation and Entrepreneurship checked the extent to which the items were representative of the content and the behaviours specified by the theoretical concept being measured. The experts, five of them, adjudged that the instrument had face and content validity.

The instrument was administered on the respondents personally by the researchers and some trained research assistants. The collection was made after few days of administration.

The instrument was scored by the respondents using a four point scale format. The items which were expressed in positive direction were scored as follows:

- Strongly Agree - 4
- Agree - 3
- Disagree - 2
- Strongly Disagree - 1

The instrument contained 18 items, the highest possible score a respondent can obtained is 72(i.e. 4 x 18) while the lowest possible score is 18(i.e. 1 x 18). Therefore, the range is 54 (i.e. 72-18). The midpoint of range is 27. The cut – off point is therefore 72-27 or 18+27 in which either case is 45. thus the respondents who obtained scores from 45 to 72 were considered as having positive attitude to employing handicapped, while those who scored below 45 were considered having negative attitude towards employing handicapped at work.

Analysis

Frequency counts and simple percentage was used for Bio data of respondents. Ranking order for hypothesis one while chi-square was used for hypotheses 2 and 3 respectively.

Results

Table 1. Distribution of respondents by Institution / Establishments

Institution/Establishments	Number
College of Education, Lafiagi	15
College of Education, Oro	15
Osi Cottage Hospital, Osi	15
Teaching service Commission, Ilorin	25
Offa Grammar School, Offa	20
Ekiti LGA, Iloffa	25
Oke-Ero LGA, Araromiopin	20
Asa LGA. Agon	15
Igbaja Seminary School Igbaja	25
Tuyil Pharmaceutical company, Ilorin	15
Intercontinental Bank Plc Omu-Aran	15
Police station, Oke Ode	5
Total	200

The selection of respondents in institutions and other establishments were as shown above.

Table 2. Distribution of Respondents by Sex, Religion, Type of establishment and Age

	Variables	Count	%
Gender	Male	116	58
	Female	84	42
	Total	200	100
Type of Establishment	Private	80	40
	Public	120	60
	Total	200	100
Age group	20-50 years	150	75
	50 years above	50	25
	Total	200	100

Table 2 revealed that, out of the 200 respondents 116(58%) were males while 84(42%) were females. Also 98 (49%) and 102(51%) were of Islamic and Christian religions respectively. While 150(75%) and 50(25%) were 20-50 years and 50 years and above respectively. Regarding the type of establishment, 80(40%) were private sectors while the remaining were public sectors.

Table 3. Employers' Attitudes towards Employing PLWDS

Items	SA	Mean	%	SD	%	Mean	Rank
I would prefer to give the handicapped money rather than employing them	153	4.60	76.5	47	32.5	2.15	1
I would like to reconsider PLWDS' interpersonal relationship with other employees and customers	128	4.48	64	72	36	2.20	2
I would feel uncomfortable seen the handicapped in my establishment due to their unattractive nature	125	4.38	62.5	75	37.5	2.33	3
I worry that other employees would feel nervous seeing themselves in the same offices with PLWDS	123	4.26	61.5	77	38.5	2.43	4
It is alright for employer of labour to employ only handicapped persons under ideal situation	120	3.87	60	80	40	2.5	5
When employed, handicapped persons should be encouraged to perform as much as non-handicapped	119	3.54	59.5	81	40.5	2.60	6
Attractive working conditions should be given to PLWDS to promote their job satisfaction	99	2.97	49.5	101	50.5	3.44	14
I feel handicapped are not as productive as the non-handicapped	118	3.45	59	82	41	2.8	7
The physically challenged often manifest psychological self-pity.	118	3.40	59	82	41	2.32	8
I feel PLWDS tend to isolate themselves from society so they may not be active in productive sectors	117	3.36	56.5	83	41.5	2.90	9
Since PLWDS often expect favours, they may turn themselves to beggars in the workplace.	117	3.36	58.5	83	41.5	2.90	10
I regard the handicapped as beggars of misfortunes which affect effective enterprising	115	3.34	57.5	85	42.5	2.43	11
The federal government should ensure that employment agencies employ at least one or two PLWDS	113	3.10	56.5	87	45.5	2.25	12
The government should encourage formation of organization where PLWDS could have an influence	112	3.0	56	88	44	2.23	13
Entrepreneurs should employ PLWDS to allow them contribute their quotas to economic development	97	2.60	48.5	103	51.5	3.51	15
I feel the handicapped has nothing tangible to contribute to the economic growth	90	2.60	45	110	55	3.62	16
I am interested in employing handicapped if they apply	87	2.56	43.5	113	56.5	3.91	17
Employers ought to be less biased on handicapped applicant when selecting workers for employment	86	2.54	43	114	57	3.81	18

As shown in Tale 3, majority of employers of labour have negative attitudes towards employing handicapped into their labours establishment as shown in the table. The prove has revealed in items 1,2,3,4,5,6, to 14 ranked in that order with mean scores from 4.60 down to 3.0. Very few employers of labour have considerations for employing the handicapped into the labour force as indicated in items 15, 16, 17 and 18 ranked in that order with the means scores of 2.60, 2.56n and 2.54 respectively and below 3.0. Table 4 shows the result of the test of the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the attitudes of private and public employers of labour towards employing handicapped persons.

Table 4. Nature of Employers and Attitude towards Employing PLWDS

Variable	Agree	Disagree	Total
Private employer	62	17	80
Public employer	113	8	120
Total	175	25	200

X^2 = 10.89 (2 x 3 fold contingency table)
df = 2
p = 0.05.
crit. x^2 -value = 5.99147

The results in Table 4 revealed that the calculated value of 10.89 and the critical x^2 – value of 5.99. Since the chi-square cal. x^2 -value is greater than the chi-square critical x^2 -value. 0.05 significant level; the indication was that hypothesis two is accepted. Meaning No significant difference existed between private and public employers of labour in their attitudes towards employing handicapped.

Table 5 shows the findings on the hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the attitude of employers of labour towards employing handicapped on the basis of age.

Table 5. Age and Attitude towards Employing PLWDS

Variables	Agreed	Disagreed	Total
20-50 years	136	14	150
50 years and above	38	12	50
Total	174	26	200

X^2 = 6.1 (2 x 3 fold contingency table)
df = 2
p = 0.05.
crit. x^2 value = 5.99147

Table 5 showed that the cal. x^2 -value of 6.1 is greater than the critical x^2 -value of 5.99. Therefore hypothesis three is accepted. Indicating insignificant difference in employers of labour attitudes towards employing handicapped.

Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

The findings of this study revealed that, majority of the employers of labour have negative attitude towards employing handicapped. This is vividly seen from the response in items 1 to 15 of table 3. These items (1 to 15) had mean scores between 4.60 and 3.0 and ranked along the lines. This kind of attitude can create problems and unhappiness into the lives of handicapped that are trained in various higher institutions but could not be conveniently employed into the labour market. This attitude could also lead to unhappiness in the home and unhealthy emotional climate. This is so because man or woman without the means of meeting his/her responsibilities count his/herself worthless. The findings was in support of Agwa (2002) many prospective employers of handicapped school leavers regard them as helpless, worthless and unable to perform any quality job. The findings was also in support of James (2006) who said that, many employers are still carrying around a lot of misconceptions about what it would really be like to work with a person with a disability every day.

Hypothesis two revealed no significant difference in the attitude of private and public employers of labour towards employing handicapped.

The reasons for their insignificant difference in the attitudes of these two categories of employers might be that lots of people that have disabilities are afraid to go back to work in the labour markets because they are pessimistic of whether they can do the job or they might not even have the confidence needed to do the job when employed. The findings contradicts the study of Akinpelu (1990) who found that 25% of her respondents from the private sectors had negative attitudes towards employing handicapped while 75% of the respondents from the public sector had positive attitudes towards employing handicapped.

From the findings one believes that, majority of employers of labour have not been implementing government declaration of employment policy that states 2% of their labour be reserved for the handicapped. One could viewed that, even if the private employers failed to comply with policy statement why not the government that pronounced the policy?

The third hypothesis also revealed insignificant difference in the attitudes of both young and older employers of labour to employing the handicapped. This means age has nothing to do with the attitudes of employers. The reason for the findings might be because every employer always focus on the same target and try to maintain quality and job effectiveness. The findings was in support of Ozoji (2008) who emphasized that age has no barrier in the stand maintained by employers as to whom should be employed in the labour force. The issue of employment rates among people with disabilities relates directing to the

organization's mission of fighting against the institutionalization of people with disabilities and enables them to attain greater independence.

Counsellors can initiate rehabilitation programmes for all educated and vocational trained (skilled) handicapped where better reorientation could be given as to how their skills could be better developed and utilized by being self-employed.

Some of these handicapped need special approach if they are to become employable and useful to themselves and the society at large.

This could be done with the assistance of counsellors in various states of the federation through seminars, workshops and sensitization campaign.

It has been confirmed through data analysis of this study that most employers of labour attitudes are negative toward employing handicapped counselling interventions that will educate employers of labour in Nigeria is urgently needed. Among such counselling intervention are sensitization of employers of labour through media, hand bills, posters, conferences, play lets etc. on the importance the handicapped could serve by allowing them to have their ways into labour markets.

On the basis of the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

- There is urgent need for the government to create more jobs for the handicapped and mandate the private employers to open job opportunity for at least 20% of handicapped people. Proper monitoring should be put in place.
- Every year census of skilled handicapped applicants should be taken and shared to various establishments based on their qualification and needs of a work place.
- The government should see to the thorough implementation of employment policy that gives considerations to the handicapped; among others.
- For University Education to be meaningful in the lives of people living with disabilities (PLWD) they should be well equipped with relevant educational and vocational skills for them to be adequately fixed into labour markets.

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Wood Biomass Energy-efficient Stoves Technology for Community Adoption in Wakiso District, Uganda

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Abstract. The objectives of this study were to discuss the types of biomass sources available for energy supply; explain the types of biomass energy technologies currently in use, their limitations and recommendations from the people for their improvements for increased efficiency; profile the demographic factors of the people affecting biomass energy demand and supply issues and options; assess the effectiveness of policy communication campaigns strategy; and present the impacts of biomass energy consumption on the environment. The findings were that there is escalating overdependence on biomass energy for household, institutional and community needs in both urban and rural areas; lack of public awareness of fuel efficient alternative energy technologies, need for progressive legal interventions; low investments and lack of credit facilities for biomass energy dealers; inefficient technologies and slow rate of diffusion of innovations due cultural and economic factors; **and** environmental degradation caused by biomass energy..

Keywords: Energy-efficient stoves; Wood biomass; Sustainability

Introduction

The main purpose of the paper is to show case the main challenges of disseminating the modern biomass energy production and fuel efficient technologies in the East African Lake Victoria Basin, with a focus on Uganda. Although a lot of research and development activities have been going on in the fields of 'improved' biomass energy cook stoves technologies have been going on in East Africa as early as 1980s, their dissemination has been generally too slow and stagnant. The desired early adoption and widespread diffusion of the

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innovations have in most cases been either too slow or lacking all together. Using traditional (STF, 2008a) methods, charcoal producers in Uganda need twice the amount of wood to make one sack of charcoal in contrast with the use of improved charcoal production methods.

The same applies to their impact on the environmental degradation on earth. Most local communities still seem to prefer to use the traditional cook stoves which are known to produce too much smoke resulting in excessive indoor pollution, wasteful, and generally too 'primitive' for this century at all. A Ugandan political leader in Masindi district has recommended (Tenywa, 2001a) public awareness campaigns strategy and advocacy for a successful community-based improved biomass cook stoves dissemination in the country. Most women in (Lubega, 2001a) Wakiso district (Uganda) complained that they were not aware any Ugandan government dissemination campaigns for biomass energy conservation technologies.

On its part, the Ugandan Ministry of Energy and Mineral Development reported that (MoEMD, 2009a) improved biomass cook stoves save up to 50% of the charcoal used by the traditional biomass cook stoves in the country. At the same time, the paradox is that, at the moment the scale (Levai, 2007a) of the production of the improved biomass products, is too low to replace the predominant traditional production and supply methods. It is logical to promote the widespread diffusion of improved biomass wood stoves because the majority of Ugandans (90 per cent) do not have access to modern electricity yet. For this reason, the Ugandan (Okaka, 1993) government must evolve a national wood energy policy and strategy to cater for majority of the population, which depends on wood energy and other biomass resources for cooking, lighting, heating, processing, and drying needs.

Methodology

The study presents the Ugandan side of a recent collaborative biomass energy technology research which was coordinated by Lake Victoria Research Initiative (VICRES) under the Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA). The universities involved were: Moi University (Kenya), Maseno University (Kenya), Sokoine University of Agriculture and Technology (Tanzania), and Kyambogo University (Uganda). In Uganda, the following parishes were included: Maganjo, Kawanda, Wamala, Nakyesanjja, Kawempe, Bbembe, Kyanuna, Kanziro and Kyampisi in Wakiso District. Among the 253 respondents who were interviewed, 62.1% (157 respondents) were from the urban areas and 37.9% (96 respondents) were from rural areas.

Wakiso district which is located in the central part of Uganda has almost encircled Kampala, the capital city of Uganda. Wakiso is divided into two counties (Busiro and Kyadondo) with one municipality at Entebbe. It has a total area of 2,704 KM². The current district population estimate is put at just over 1.4 million

makes it the one of the most populated district in Uganda. Most (80.5%) of the respondents in the survey area were of Christians followed by Moslems (17.5%).

The levels of education of respondents were studied. Among the respondents interviewed those with primary level (44.6%), O-levels (33.3%), A-levels (13.7%) and university levels (4.0%). Table 2 (above), indicates the study sites (urban and rural) where the respondents were interviewed by the research team. The survey findings indicate a normal distribution of respondents by age between 15 years and 50 years. The majority fell between the age group of 30-40 years (35.8%) and those under 20-30 years (27.3%). The research considered the gender distribution of the respondents. From the total number of 253 respondents who were interviewed, 57.0% were males and 43.0% females. The annual incomes of the showed that most (66.3%) residents earn much less than 2 US \$ per day, 27.4% earn up to 5 US \$ a day, and 6.1% earn from 2, 500 to 5000 US \$ yearly. Poverty level in the district as a whole is generally very high.

Results

Charcoal Production

Most of the respondents have been in the charcoal business for a period of 4-5 years. The most common types of trees locally called: *muwule*, *nongo*, *kamenyambazi*, mango, *muqavu*, *musasa*, *mutuba*, and *nzo*. These trees are preferred because they produce better charcoal (80.0%), burn very well (4.0%), more available (12.0%) and are cheap (4.0%). The trunks and big branches are commonly used for charcoal making. The remaining parts of the trees are used for: building (13.6%), firewood (68.2%), and abandoned in the forest (18.2%). Most (74.1%) charcoal burners buy wood and the rest (25.9%) don't buy wood for charcoal burning. Most (40.0%) charcoal vendors use bicycles to transport charcoal 32% use lorries, 24.0% walk and 4.0% use the wheelbarrows to transport the charcoal. Fewer (33.3%) respondents had ever used non-wood biomass to produce charcoal, while the majority (66.7%) had never used it. The major sources of non-wood biomass for charcoal production were: maize cobs (55.6%), leaves (1.1%), grass and peelings / fruits (22.2%). Charcoal fines are normally thrown a way as waste (52.6%) used in farms (21.1%) or sold off (5.3%).

Community Charcoal making Skills and Technology

Charcoal making experience, knowledge and skills show that: most (85.2%) dealers got the skills through friends' exposure, 7.4% through training, and 3.7% through family exposure. Most (59.3%) were ready for training, but 40.7% were not ready.

Some (23.1%) rated their level as high, majority (53.8%) as medium, and 11.5% as low. The majority (92.6%) of the respondents prefer the traditional earth kiln

method of wood burning because it is easy to use, 3.7% prefer the portable metal kiln method of charcoal burning for the same reason. Most (77.8%) of them construct the system by themselves, 14.8% are assisted by trained people and 3.7% by local friends.

Quantity of Charcoal Produced

Out of the charcoal quantity produced in the project areas: 36.0% unload between 10-20 (sacks) bags a month, 32.0% unload over 30 sacks or bags a month, and 32.2% unload below 10 (50 Kg) bags monthly. It was established that the average capacity of charcoal kiln is between 10 bags and 20 bags. Other findings show that the method of charcoal collection mainly employed is by use of hand and spade. On average, 10-20 bags of charcoal are made per cycle. The maximum weight of a sack (bag) is of charcoal is 50 kilograms and the cost of each bag was estimated to be between 5.5 US \$ and 15 US \$. The majority (84.0%) revealed that the burning process employed leaves a lot of charcoal fines produced. A huge majority (94.4%) said the fines were mixed with soil, and 5.6% with cow dung. Most of the respondents (88.5%) were not aware that charcoal fines can be used to make briquettes. Most charcoal dealers (85.2%) sell their products to traders, 11.1% take it home for domestic needs and the rest (3.7%) share it with relatives or dependants.

Wood Biomass Charcoal Production Technology and the Market

Over a half (53.8%) of the charcoal dealers was happy with the business while 46.2% were not happy with the charcoal business. The respondents made the following suggestions to improve the charcoal business: access to appropriate technology (34.6%), working in groups (23.1%), financial credits or loans (26.9%), and training (15.4%). The main socio-economic benefits from charcoal business included: regular incomes (29.6%), helping households (63%), and communities (7.4%). In order to improve on business of charcoal, the respondents called for: access to policy information (30.8%), more market opportunities (30.8%), finance for new technologies (11.5%) and skills training / dissemination of technology (26.9%). Most respondents (57.7%) were unaware of government policies on biomass energy (technologies and resources). Findings indicated variations in the number of bags of charcoal produced. The reasons were: due to low supply (25.0%), high supply (3.1%), low demand (3.1%), high demand (18.8%), and incomes (50.0%). Most respondents (93.8%) reported some variation in the weights of charcoal bags supplied in the market. Most (75%) customers pay for charcoal in cash while the rest (25%) buy it on credit. The common factors which influenced changes in charcoal market price were: weather (39.3%), supplier's decisions (28.6%), and high demand (17.9%).

The charcoal market segment is dominated by urban dwellers (56.3%), followed by rural residents (18.8%), and institutions (12.5%). Most (59.1%) of

charcoal fines are generated at the re-package stage, 18.2% at the burning stages at the kilns and stores. The majority of the respondents (69.2) reported that the fines produced were not mixed with any foreign material. Up to 61.5% of the respondents said that they recovered 1-3 bags of fines, 23.1% recovered 2-3 bags of fines, and 7.7% recovered over 5 bags of fines during each production phase. Most (83.9%) locals were not aware that charcoal fines could be used to make carbonised briquettes. Very few (16.1%) knew that charcoal fines could be used to produce briquettes and 78.3% had never seen any briquettes/ briquettes production technology.

Most (87.9%) charcoal dealers were not involved in any other business activities apart from charcoal selling, but 12.1% had other side businesses. Out of the 12.1% who said they had side businesses to transact, 71.4% were involved in hotels, 14.3% in industries and institutions. Less than a half (47.1%) of the respondents were not satisfied with the charcoal business due to less money to meet expenses (82.2%), and 17.6% due to unfavourable policy. At least 65.8% of the respondents were not aware of any group promoting energy conservation in the district, and 61.7% were not aware of government policies on biomass energy innovations. 54.5% require information on biomass energy, 27.3% require training/education, and 18.2% need funding.

Wood Biomass Charcoal Combustion Technology: Cook Stoves

Biomass energy combustion technology assessment established the status combustion for stove designs. There were 2 main types of biomass stoves used in the study sites were: traditional and 'improved' technologies. Most (77.3%) were using traditional stoves and (23.7%) used 'improved' stoves. Most of the stoves used were made of metal (51%), clay or soil bricks (36.1%), and stones (12.9%). Materials used were indicated to be easily got. Most respondents (62.7%) said the materials which they used in the production of stoves were easy to get but 37.3% found it difficult to get materials for making stoves. Bout 55%believed their stoves were 'technically' designed, about 45% said it was semi technical and very few said it was technical.

The residents were asked to state if their stoves had a fire box each, describe its shape, and its door (if any). Most stoves had fire boxes and a door each with a round or rectangular shape each. The stoves were affected by heat loss problems. The residents reported that the main sources of heat loss were: through stove walls (37.8%), steam (29.6%) and air (28.1%). Most residents (48.6%) were using medium weight stoves, 25.4% used heavy stoves, and 26% were using light woodstoves. The majority (63.5%) were using movable stoves and (36.5%) had fixed stoves. Most (51.7%) families owned one to two stoves each and the rest (32.5%) had three or more stoves per household. The mostly used cooking utensils reported by the residents were: metal pans (85%) and ceramic [clay pots] accounted for 11.6 per cent.

Community Application of Charcoal Stoves Combustion Technology

Most (57.1%) respondents said that the stoves had multiple end uses, 27.2% use the cook stoves for dual activities and 15.6% use their stoves for only activity. The main end uses of stoves were boiling, space heating, and cooking for at least two hours per meal. Most (79%) respondents said fuel supply dictated the types of meals and number of times for cooking, boiling, and heating. The service life of the stove was estimated to be between 1-2 years and most families (83.2%) own wood stoves. Most (85.2%) residents believed the stoves were culturally and socially acceptable. Less than a half (47.4%) reported high level of satisfaction of the stove, 40.3% reported medium satisfaction, and the rest (12.3%) reported low level of satisfaction. Most people (76.9%) prefer sitting down when using their stoves. Most of the people interviewed (73.1%) were not fully happy with the performance of their stove while 26.9% were unhappy because they are hard to light (14.0%), very heavy (4.7%), burns too slowly (20.9%), emit too much smoke (44.2), and too hot to handle 16.3%.

Community Responses to Biomass Energy Efficient Technology Awareness Campaigns

More results indicate that some efforts to raise public awareness and knowledge of natural resource conservation and management innovations have been made by the five governments, the private sector, individuals, institutions, and the NGOs. The main findings indicated that there were variations in the choices of media communication format preferred for the delivery of renewable energy public awareness campaigns among the audiences as follows electronic media (64.8%), popular media (30.6%), and print media (4.6%). The majority of the respondents preferred the electronic form of media. Half of the audiences agreed that the energy conservation and management information they encountered was easy to understand. Just over half (51.9%) did not think the campaign messages which they have encountered had increased their knowledge of energy saving values, 8.5% had no opinion, while 10% strongly disagreed. When asked whether the current national energy policy awareness campaigns strategy should be improved, the majority (62%) strongly agreed and 31 per cent agreed.

Data indicate that there was an overwhelming majority (92 %) approval of the need for more improvements in the present renewable energy awareness campaigns on policy in the country. The study found that the majority (90%) of the target audiences were reportedly willing to participate in the energy policy awareness campaign strategy if they asked to do so. The campaign messages did not reach half (50%) of the respondents and less than a half (37%) of the intended audiences encountered the messages. Findings show that over 50% of the locals were not aware of any organization or group involved in biomass energy efficiency

campaigns. Less than a half (47%) of the respondents were aware of any group or organization engaged in the biomass energy technology awareness campaigns in the district.

Discussion

The need for a massive national dissemination of biomass fuel efficient stoves is imperative in Uganda. As a result, the Ugandan ministry of energy and mineral development (2005) has developed 'improved' firewood stoves known as the Rocket -Lorena stove and shielded 3-stone stove both of which use the rocket elbow combustion chamber for better combustion efficiency with minimal smoke emission and heat loss. The advantages are: firewood fuel savings, almost smokeless, easy to operate, affordable, safe to use, and environmentally friendly. Uganda can explore (Okaka, 1993a) technically feasible and economically viable methods of producing and marketing carbonised or raw brickets, solid fuel wood, recycled refuse; encourage chipping, drying, and parking or bagging firewood as an attractive alternative to charcoal.

Besides, wood energy conservation technology is a tested short-term remedy because other biomass energy supply options like afforestation, tree-planting, or reforestation are medium or long term solutions to our current national demands for wood fuels in the country. Any policy interventions (Okaka, 1991b) should involve the enhancement of wood supply, fuel conservation, and fuel substitution. There are critical ties between wood energy, environment, and community livelihood in Uganda and the rest of the African countries.

Charcoal business has been promoted by Jellitone suppliers and Runi Alps, which are among the known firms which have been producing and marketing biomass energy briquettes (Kasozi, 2001) in the Ugandan commercial and political capital city, Kampala in the past decade. The briquettes are made of biomass wastes like: bark, tomato and soya beans stalks, sunflower corns, maize cobs, coffee husks, bagasse, reeds from various cereals, textiles, and paper wastes. Briquettes are cylindrical 5cm in diameter and 15 cm in length. The two firms make improved cook stoves for schools and households. According to straight talk foundation (STF, 2008a) charcoal is taking a terrible toll on the environment. Charcoal is hurting our environment by reducing trees. Ugandan cities are growing very quickly; more and more people need charcoal. Using traditional methods, charcoal producers in Nakasongola use two *combretum* trees to make one sack of charcoal. But if we use improved charcoal production methods, a single tree can produce one sack. That would reduce the environment damage by half.

Meanwhile, Nyabeya Forestry College in Uganda (Tenywa, 2001a) has unveiled 3 types of improved cooking stoves that use less wood fuel than the traditional stoves. One of the stoves is a cooking hearth built on ordinary soil mixed with clay. It is like a small mound with a hole in the front for feeding in firewood or twigs and 3 holes on top on which saucepans are placed for cooking. The other 2

clay stoves are charcoal stoves locally known locally as *sigiri*, retain more heat than it loses. One type is portable while the other is fixed. There is a need for advocacy for use of trees in a manner that does not destroy the environment.

Ugandans are warned that biomass energy crisis looms large in Wakiso district (Lubega, 2001) because the existing energy policies fail to target women's specific needs and concerns. A group of women in the same village said the major source of fuel wood, the forests, were disappearing fast. The majority said they were unaware and neither had they seen any government official teaching or demonstrating biomass energy conservation. *Tree Talk* publication (STF, 2005b) 97% of Ugandans cooks using firewood; almost all food is cooked on three stoves fires. This is a very serious waste of wood: 85% of the heat from the fire goes into the air and not into the food. There are (STF, 2005b) two types of wood-saving stoves for schools (in Uganda) according to the ministry of energy. One is made of bricks and fixed into the ground. The other type of portable wood burning household cook stove is made of metal and each can hold a saucepan of 100 litres. School pupils are trained to build some for their families.

Improved stove (MoEMD, 2009b) saves 50% of the charcoal used by the traditional stove. The stove is well insulated with ceramic lining. It uses 1 sack of charcoal briquettes costs between 10 US \$-12.5 US \$ and it can be used for 2 weeks. The traditional charcoal stove uses 1 sack of charcoal of about 7.5 US \$ per month. The Ugandan household 'rocket stoves', which are known as energy saving stoves, are designed to burn firewood efficiently, and maximize heat transfer. In 2007, a total of 117,000 improved Rocket Lorena household stoves, 8887 metal rocket institutional stoves, and 4,709 improved charcoal stoves were disseminated (Kalyango, 2009) in Mbale, Kabale, Mukono, Wakiso, and Tororo districts. The ministry of energy campaigns that the stoves are relatively cheap since they are built with the local materials like ant-hill soil, clay for body and the fine grass for the insulation.

In most sub-Saharan Africa, (Karekezi, 1987a) the earth pit kiln continue to be extensively used despite its notoriously poor efficiency (8%-13%). According to numerous improved charcoal kilns are already (Karekezi, 1987b) in existence: portable metal drum, retort, brick beehive and dome kilns- to name a few. Dissemination of improved energy-efficient charcoal kilns, such as the Kenyan half orange Kiln (28% efficiency) would greatly ease the pressure on the acute biomass energy. Despite verifiable successes of wood energy technologies (NEC, 1982), their adoption in African countries is still unsatisfactory. One of the reasons (Fadaka, 1987) is the perceived lack of infrastructure for diffusing energy technologies in a context where wood energy is by far the most common energy resource in both the rural and urban energy demand projections. It is estimated that over 50% of trees cut down in African countries are burned to cook food and to warm homes. The FAO (1983) reported that between 90% and 98% of the energy needs in the rural areas of the Sub-Sahara Africa are met by wood energy, which may also account for more than 90% of the national energy supplies.

Cited literature indicates that as early as in 1983, consumption of fuel wood in Uganda was estimated to be 13.6 million tonnes, 25% above the sustainable yield of 10.9 million tonnes (World Bank et al, 1983). To combat deforestation, a Kenyan ministry of energy project adapted local technology, skills and marketing network to develop a stove which uses 50% less charcoal than traditional models, cooks faster, and cost the price of a family charcoal supply-US\$ 4.00. A local Ugandan NGO (Levai, 2009a) known as Ugandan Women's Efforts to Save Orphans (UWESO) members have been trained to make community biomass briquettes which are produced from tree leaves, cereal husks, scrap paper, banana peels, saw dust or charcoal fines as free input materials, livelihood improvement, and income generation. A small group people with a small working capital start-up investment on tools and the press to produce fuel for 50 families.

UWESO members belong to micro-finance savings organisations. It has a total national membership of 75,000 across Uganda. They need to master briquette-making skills and get access to credits for the start-up of their small-scale entrepreneurs. The briquettes making training skills are mastered within a five-day training workshop. Most trainees in Uganda and Tanzania never heard of briquettes before prior to the recent training conducted there by the legacy (Levai, 2007b). But their excitement heightened when they learnt the ultimate objective of the training was: to provide individuals with skills to: produce low-cost environmentally fuel, allow income generation activity almost 'in a box', and promote a 'planned spontaneous' replication of the know-how and of small-scale local business. At the moment the scale of production is too low the replace traditional charcoal production method yet.

Legacy foundation (Levai, 2007c) has trained 100 briquette producers in Tanzania and Uganda using a simple 'hand press' machine (technology), which has been developed for years for household and small community briquette production. The training include: technology overview and review, project planning, trainee selection and organization, resource assessment, group organization, production costing, marketing and selling, and costing of a training event, enabling the trainees to organize themselves as self sustaining training services. Education and capacity building for renewable energy sources (Okaka, 2005c) are the key pragmatic approaches to ensure effectiveness of energy policies and green technologies for a sustainable future at local, institutional, national, regional, and global levels. A strategic policy is the key driving force for any renewable energy innovations to tick. Uganda, like most African Union states, is today facing acute electricity supply is blamed on the impacts of climate change in the country. Ugandan women who cook (Tenywa, 2008b) with biomass are up to four times more likely to suffer from chronic obstructive pulmonary disease such as chronic bronchitis. Few research studies in Uganda have linked lungs and eye problems to traditional smoky stoves. Since most people cannot switch to electricity, it is important to promote efficient use of energy by using improves stoves or fire places.

The primary objectives of JEEP (Joint Energy and Environment Projects), a Ugandan NGO, are (Walulya, 1987) to: create public awareness of the causes of environmental degradation, promote the dissemination of appropriate technologies for sustainable development, and train local communities in the design, production, and dissemination of improved cook stoves in Uganda. Ugandan women still spend a lot of time collecting firewood because rural women believe that food prepared on fire wood tastes better. The smoke also repels mosquitoes, which causes malaria, which according to Ugandan government kills well over 300 people daily. To overcome the problem of smoky kitchens, there is need to create awareness among the rural dwellers about alternative energy sources and their benefits. Uganda (MoEMD, 2004c) has developed improved biomass energy efficient technologies to improve energy efficiency for household, institutional and industrial practices. these improved household stoves have efficiency is of 30% compared to the traditional open three-stone stove at 15.6%, in a water boiling test. The improved stoves save firewood at 50-60% when compared to the traditional 3-stone fire stove. The overall policy goal of the rep for Uganda (MoEMD, 2008d) is to increase the use of modern renewable energy from the current 4% to 61 % of the total energy consumption by the year 2017. the policy objective is to use biomass energy efficiently to conserve the resource in a sustainable manner and to promote the sustainable production and use of bio fuels.

According to the Ugandan Ministry of Energy and Mineral Development (MoEMD, 2008e), one of the key barriers to the current renewable energy development efforts in the country is lack of awareness of the technology use and innovations. Other barriers include: discrimination against women, financing mechanisms, underdeveloped market, and unsustainable use of biomass, planning, and weak institutional capacity, lack of standards, research and development. The Ugandan national energy efficiency strategy is based on the following three interventions: information dissemination, education and training, and financing.

Uganda's over dependence on biomass energy has not yet changed significantly in the past decades. It is estimated that (Okaka, 1987d) 96% of all the energy used in Uganda comes from biomass, mostly wood. Uganda faces social and ecological disaster if the present patterns of wood fuel consumption continue without change. The government must evolve a national wood energy policy to cater for the population, which depends on wood and other biomass resources for cooking, mostly on open fires. Uganda's (Bidandi-Ssali, 1988a) national bid to tackle the raging problems of over exploitation of the forest resources, it is essential to deal with the household energy demand which accounts for well over 80% of the national wood consumption (1988). One of the key actions is the testing and dissemination of energy efficient cook stoves for both charcoal and firewood fuels. Bidandi- Ssali (1988b) argued that in Uganda, it is not a question of designing new cook stoves since 32 designs already exist in the country.

Conclusion and Recommendation

There is rising overdependence on biomass source of energy for domestic, institutional and industrial energy needs. There is an alarming escalating overdependence on biomass energy for household, institutional and community needs in both urban and rural areas; lack of public awareness (85 percent) of energy efficient technology; wide ignorance of renewable energy policy and legal framework; low investments and lack of credit facilities for biomass energy dealers; inefficient technologies and slow rate of diffusion of innovations due cultural and economic factors; increasing environmental degradation due to wood energy crisis. Biomass will continue to dominate the energy scene in Africa for decades as the energy for the future. There is urgent need for a mass dissemination of wood stoves, policy information, and appropriate renewable energy technologies based on collaborative research and technology transfer options for capacity building in Africa. Public awareness communication campaigns should be developed and sustained throughout the country; there is a need to involve local participation in the planning and demonstrations of energy efficient technology for community adoption of the new technologies; more collaborative interdisciplinary research projects should be funded through the universities in the country; several alternative and renewable energy sources are available in Uganda but their potentials remain largely untapped yet; given that electrification accounts for just about 10 per cent of Uganda's national energy balance, biomass energy will continue to dominated the energy scene in Uganda for many decades to come.

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