

THE UGANDAN JOURNAL

OF MANAGEMENT AND PUBLIC POLICY STUDIES

ARTICLES:

Performance of Road Infrastructure Projects in Uganda: A Procurement Approach
Tonny Muzaale, Christelle Auriacombe, Aloysius Byaruhanga

Critical Factors Influencing Effective Oil Exploration in Buliisa District, Uganda
Paul Buhenga Masiko

Challenges and Emerging Issues Affecting the Management of Refugees in Uganda
Pius Gumisiriza

Influence of Competence-Based Education Approach on Employee Productivity in Terms of Efficiency: A Case of Uganda Revenue Authority Education Programs
Joel Emojong

Staff Development and Quality Education in Uganda: Analysis of Quality Teaching and Research in Private Chartered Universities
Juliet Atwebembeire & Paul Netalisile Malunda

Anti-corruption Institutional Multiplicity Façade in Uganda
Pius Gumisiriza, Robert Mukobi

Authenticity in Authentic Leadership of Higher Education Institutions in Uganda: A Case study of one Private University in Uganda
Jimmy Alemiga, Mwogeza Resty Kamyá



THE UGANDAN JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT AND PUBLIC POLICY STUDIES

Volume 15 No.1, November 2018.



UGANDA MANAGEMENT INSTITUTE

"Empowering you to Excel"

<http://www.umi.ac.ug>

Editors and Members of the Editorial Advisory Board

Editors

- Chief Editor: Dr. Lazarus Nabaho, Uganda Management Institute
- Deputy Chief Editor: Dr. Paul Malunda, Uganda Management Institute
- Managing Editor: Dr. Rose B. Namara, Uganda Management Institute

Editorial Advisory Board

- Prof. Gelase Mutahaba, Department of Public Administration, University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania
- Prof. Joy Kwesiga, Kabale University, Uganda
- Prof. Grace Bantebya, School of Gender Studies, Makerere University, Uganda
- Prof. Yasin Olum, Department of Political Science and Public Administration, Makerere University, Uganda
- Prof. Mande W. Muyinda, Nkumba University, Uganda
- Prof. Pamela Mbabazi, Mbarara University of Science & Technology, Uganda
- Prof. Samson Opolot, Centre for Basic Research, Kampala, Uganda
- Prof. William Kaberuka, Makerere University Business School, Uganda
- Dr. James Nkata, Director General, Uganda Management Institute, Uganda
- Dr. Martyn Davies, Gordon Frontier of Advisory, South Africa
- Dr. John Mary Kauzya, UNDESA/DPADM, United States
- Dr. Randhir Auluck, Coventry University, United Kingdom
- Prof. Muhamed Salih, Institute of Social Studies, Erasmus University, The Netherlands
- Prof. Paul Jackson, University of Birmingham, United Kingdom

Editorial Address: Uganda Management Institute (UMI), P.O.Box 20131, Kampala; Tel, 256-414-259722, Fax 256,414-259581; email: umijournal@gmail.com, journal@umi.ac.ug, web: www.umi.ac.ug

Printed and bound by: Uganda Management Institute, Kampala

First Published 2010

ISSN: 2078-7049

Copyright: Uganda Management Institute (UMI). All rights reserved. With exception of fair dealing for the purposes of research or private study, or criticism or review, no part of this publication may be reproduced, stored or transmitted in any form or by any means without the prior permission in writing from the copyright holder. Authorization for photocopying items for internal and personal use is granted by the copyright holder for libraries in Uganda. This consent does not extend to other kinds of copying such as for advertising or promotional purposes and for resale. Institutions for paid up subscription to this journal may make photocopies for teaching purposes free of charge provided such copies are not resold.

Printed by Graphic Centre Ltd, Tel: 0701 446 340/0772 446 324

Introduction

The Ugandan Journal of Management and Public Policy Studies is a multidisciplinary Journal publishing a wide range of articles relating to public administration, management, leadership and public policy, from empirical studies and theoretical orientations to practical application. The Journal also reviews books, essays, and research notes that are relevant to both scholars and practitioners involved at all levels of administration and management from various organizational forms including business firms, non-governmental organizations, public institutions and individual networks.

Aim and scope

The Ugandan Journal of Management and Public Policy Studies is a scholarly Journal published to scientifically address the problems, interests and concerns of managers and intellectuals concerned with management science profession. It aims at improving the understanding and practice of management. The Journal is an essential reading, publishing articles from a wide range of authors, both well-established scholars and young scholars. Thus the Journal is an important resource for:

- a) Management Development Institutions
- b) Social Science Faculties and Research Institutions
- c) Graduate teachers and researchers in management science
- d) Civil service practitioners
- e) Students of management
- f) All people interested in the practice of Management

Editorial Note

Volume 15 (1) of The Ugandan Journal of Management and Public Policy Studies addresses matters pertaining to management of public institutions and good governance. In this Issue, we present seven empirical articles which hinge on the following topical issues: Road Infrastructure Projects, Oil Exploration, Management of Refugees, Employee Productivity, Quality Teaching and Research in Private Chartered Universities, Corruption, and Leadership of Higher Institutions of Learning.

In the first article, **Muzaale, Auriacombe** and **Byaruhanga** observe that major road projects in the country have been completed with significant cost and time overruns. The authors attribute the overruns to the use of poor quality materials, poor scheduling, and delayed procurement and specifications. The authors recommend improvement of contract management and monitoring processes for all ongoing road construction works.

Buhenga Masiko explores the critical success factors (CSFs) responsible for the effectiveness of oil exploration in Uganda. Masiko's study reveals that CSFs have a direct influence on effective oil exploration. He recommends the use of stakeholders' management plan to monitor and evaluate the implementation of oil exploration programmes and to build human resource and technology competences.

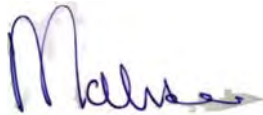
Pius Gumisiriza examines the challenges and emerging issues affecting the management of refugees in Uganda, and identifies the following as key challenges and issues: logistical difficulties; high costs of access to services; syndicated corruption within core refugee management institutions; emerging conflicts between host communities and refugees over access to scarce resources; bureaucracy; and security threats, especially illegal kidnaps and repatriation.

Joel Emojong explores the influence of Competence-Based Education (CBE) programmes on the productivity of workers in Uganda's public institutions with a particular focus on Uganda Revenue Authority. The results reveal a significant positive relationship between the CBE approach used in the implementation of URA's education programmes and employee efficiency. Informed by the study findings, Emojong recommends that government of Uganda should introduce CBE curricula in different magnitudes at the higher education levels to equip learners with the requisite competences that can enable them to improve efficiency at their workplaces.

Atwebembeire and **Malunda** explore the contribution of staff development to quality of teaching and research in private chartered universities in Uganda. The results indicate a significant positive relationship between staff development and quality of teaching and research. The study recommends that private universities should share knowledge through collaborations, experience-sharing, workshops and exchange of teaching and research materials and ideas to learn good teaching, research and management practices from each other.

Gumisiriza and Mukobi use a comparative analytical approach to examine critically how and why anti-corruption institutional multiplicity has failed to curb corruption effectively. They attribute failure of the anti-corruption agencies to lack of political will to fight corruption. The article recommends that government should scrap or merge some of the anti-corruption agencies, especially those with duplicate roles; avail sufficient financial and human resources to the remaining anti-corruption agencies and empower them to implement their mandate.

Alemiga and Kamy explore the concept of authenticity in authentic leadership in higher education institutions (HEIs). It was established that authenticity of leadership has become a game changer in organizations today. The thesis of the article is that authentic leaders have best human resource practices aligned to the short-term and long-term strategic goals of an organization.



Paul Malunda

Deputy Editor, *Ugandan Journal of Management and Public Policy Studies*

Contents

Introduction	iii
Aim and Scope	iv
Editorial Note	
Performance of Road Infrastructure Projects in Uganda:A Procurement Approach <i>Tonny Muzaale, Christelle Auriacombe, Aloysius Byaruhanga</i>	1
Critical Success Factors Influencing Effective Oil Exploration in Buliisa District, Uganda <i>Paul Buhenga Masiko</i>	23
Challenges and Emerging Issues Affecting the Management of Refugees in Uganda <i>Pius Gumisiriza</i>	40
Influence of Competence-Based Education Approach on Employee Productivity in Terms of Efficiency: A Case of Uganda Revenue Authority Education Programs <i>Joel Emojong</i>	55
Staff Development and Quality Education in Uganda: Analysis of Quality Teaching and Research in Private Chartered Universities <i>Juliet Atwebembeire & Paul Netalisile Malunda</i>	77
Anti-corruption Institutional Multiplicity Façade in Uganda <i>Pius Gumisiriza, Robert Mukobi</i>	91
Authenticity in Authentic Leadership of Higher Education Institutions in Uganda: A Case study of one Private University in Uganda <i>Jimmy Alemiga, Mwogeza Resty Kamyá</i>	109

Performance of Road Infrastructure Projects in Uganda: A Procurement Approach

Tonny Muzaale¹, Christelle Auriacombe², Aloysius Byaruhanga¹;
Mbarara University of Science and Technology¹.

School of Public Management, Governance and Public Policy University of Johannesburg².

Abstract

Adequate infrastructure is critical to economic growth and competitiveness of a nation; hence the current inadequate infrastructure is impeding the expected growth of Uganda. This study examined the performance of road infrastructure projects in Uganda. The study relied on primary and secondary data which was analysed basing on content thematic analysis and regression analysis. Performance was measured in terms of time, cost and quality. Major road projects in the country have been completed with significant cost and time overruns. There were time and cost overruns on several road projects namely: Kyenjojo-Kabwoya-Hoima-Bulima road, Mubende-Kakumiro road, Kyenjojo road, Mukono-Katosi road and Kisoga-Nyenga road. Use of poor quality materials, poor scheduling, delayed procurement and specification have caused time overruns on the road construction projects. Delays have had an adverse impact on project success. Today the effects of road construction delays have not been confined to the construction industry only, but have ended up affecting the overall economy of a country. It is prudent and judicious that the contractor management and monitoring process should be improved for all ongoing road construction works.

Keywords: Time overruns, Cost overruns, Payment delays, UNRA

Introduction

The construction of infrastructural projects has attracted many studies, particularly in developing economies (Sambasivan & Soon, 2007; Ondari 2013). The construction industry plays a central role in Uganda's development process today (Mulumba, 2016). The industry provides work for manual labourers and many professionals such as architects, engineers, surveyors, as main contractors, sub-contractors and suppliers (Okello, 2016). Puri and Tiwari (2014) argued that many developing countries face the need for substantial infrastructure improvements. Infrastructure constraints have been responsible for as high as 58 per cent of the productivity handicap faced by Ugandan firms, as indicated in the World Bank AICD Report, (2012:4). To date in Uganda, performance of road infrastructure projects in terms of durability, timeliness, cost management is still difficult (Byabagambi, 2015:94). Although some studies and efforts have been made towards understanding project performance (Rendon, 2010; Kugonza, 2012; Oluka and Basheka, 2014:35); the underlying factors affecting road infrastructure performance with regard to timeliness, cost overruns and durability roads in Uganda remain hazy.

According to Wasike (2001), production costs, employment creation, market access, and investment depend on infrastructure, especially road transport. This is supported by Visse (2012) who asserted that the quality of infrastructure in general is the prime factor separating nations that are economic winners from those that lose ground or remain non-starters (Arrows, 2010).

In spite of the above, road infrastructure development is affected by procurement and supervision of contractors because of its complexity (World Bank, 2010). Given the challenges to road infrastructure in Uganda, government established Uganda National Roads Authority with the mandate to manage procurement and supervision of contractors. There are significant procurement challenges to the performance of Uganda's road sector. Contractors face financial problems in the course of a project, usually due to poor financial management and at times poor cost estimates at bidding (Arrows, 2010). Such problems can lead to delay in the payment of funds to the subcontractor, hence delaying work. In construction, timely payment of the subcontractor is regarded as one of the most serious aspects to resolve in order to create and maintain a long-term relationship between the contractor and the subcontractor. In spite of the efforts made, the reasons for poor quality roads, delayed service delivery and cost overruns on road infrastructure projects in Uganda (cited by Barasa, 2014:54) continue to elude project implementers. For example, take-off of seven projects was delayed for over one year due to complaints raised during the bidding process, causing intervention of the oversight agencies such as the Public Procurement and Disposal of Public Assets Authority (PPDA) or the Inspectorate of Government (IGG), and at times the Courts of Law (UNRA, 2016). In addition, UNRA could only absorb approximately 60 percent of the allocated funds for road construction and maintenance. Little has been done to establish the causes of the glaring lacunas resulting into continuous delays, shoddy work and escalation of costs in the implementation of road infrastructure projects so as to design appropriate mitigating strategies.

Objective of the Study

To assess the relationship between procurement practices and performance of road infrastructure projects in Uganda

Hypothesis of the Study

There is a significant relationship between procurement practices and the performance of road infrastructure projects in Uganda.

Rationale of the Study

The Auditor General Report (2016) indicated that loopholes in contractor selection have led to delays in commencement of a number of road projects. For example, the following road projects were delayed: Mukono-Kyetume-Katosi-Nyenga, Mubende-Kakumiro-Kagadi, Kigumba-Bulima-Kabwoya, Kamudini-Gulu and Kafu-Kiryandongo-Kamudini (Auditor General Report, 2015). The delay on these projects ranged between a period of one to three years. Contractor management, cost and time overruns were identified on these road projects. A total of 24 road construction projects out of 145 (17 per cent) did not have funds earmarked for monitoring in the financial year 2015/16. Bogere (2013:45) asserts that a lot of funds were set aside for monitoring and supervision in the budget for road projects between 2015 and 2017 but roads were found to be of poor quality compared to those works where there were no funds set aside for the same purpose. Therefore, assessment of procurement practices and their effect on the performance of road infrastructure projects in Uganda is critical.

Despite the said government efforts, there is slow implementation of road projects coupled with inability to implement road projects within the contracted time and cost as key performance gaps (OAG, 2016). The government has acknowledged the slow progress, which is attributed to challenges in the contract award process of the selected road contractors. This assertion was further confirmed by the minister responsible for works who said that 80 percent of the road contractors are incompetent and they do shoddy work, as cited in Mulumba (2016).

Commencement of several road projects like Mukono-Kyetume-Katosi-Nyenga, Mubende-Kakumiro-Kagadi, Kigumba-Bulima-Kabwoya, Mbale-Nakalama-Tirinyi has been delayed due to inefficiencies in procurement (OAG, 2016). Should the above inefficiencies persist, the industrialization goal of government may be difficult to achieve. Therefore, there is a need to investigate why there are persistent delays, rampant cost overruns and shoddy works in the implementation of road projects despite government efforts. Although Basheka (2014) made efforts towards understanding contract management and project performance in the road sector, a glaring lacuna was left as far as the challenges of road infrastructure performance in Uganda is concerned.

Literature Review

Procurement practices

Lingard, Hughes and Chinyio (2017:56) opined that under a competitive contractor selection process, the client puts the works to tender and interested contractors respond by submitting bids. Bidding is pursued either through open or selective tendering. Open tendering allows all interested parties the opportunity to bid for the works. In selective tendering process, contractors are subject to prequalification (Bubshalt and Al-Gobali, 2014:59). Firms are short-listed on the basis of this prequalification and only a limited number are then invited to bid. Contractor selection involves the evaluation and selection of contractors leading to the award of construction contracts which is a vital part of the road construction process.

According to Arrows (2010), awarding contracts to a single contractor repeatedly must be precluded; an impartial method must be used for selecting contractors who are to receive bid solicitations. Chetty and Eriksson (2002:34) posit that the selection of a contractor for a project is a critical decision for the developer because they often rely on the contractor to manage the process of transforming a feasible concept into a functioning project. Although some owners have the expertise, resources and desire to lead the development effort on their own, choosing the right contractor can greatly improve the likelihood of project success. Contractor selection in this study referred to procurement methods and evaluation criteria.

Puri and Tiwari (2014:32) posit that selection of contractors is often conducted during tendering which gives a client a choice in awarding a contract to a company which proposes the lowest price and short construction cycles. The study findings show that the cheapest tenderers often have problems with completing the project. Accepting the lowest price is the basic cause of project completion problems because very often lowering the price means lowering the quality. These practices, however, are characterized by major weaknesses, because achieving lower costs does not necessarily give the best value. On the other hand, studies in the United

States of America indicate that contractor selection is mainly by alternative procurement methods (APM) in which ownership (of decision making) and responsibility for design and operation is passed to the contractor with the state adopting a regulatory role (Regan, 2012:17). Regan posited that evidence suggests that the APM is achieving better time and cost performance than adversarial methods and contributing to improved service delivery and lower lifecycle costs. It is however, not proven whether the APM is applicable in the Ugandan set-up.

Other studies have been undertaken regarding the issue of contractor selection for implementing construction projects. For instance, Holt (1995:358) identified key prequalification criteria to be included in the quantitative model for choosing main contractors. The author explained the cluster analysis technique in a contractor valuation and selection setting. Although technical ability and financial soundness are critical requirements for the contractor to perform, the challenge may be the process and procedures of selecting the contractor (Holt, 1996). Bubshait and Al-Gobali (1996:50) determined the criteria that are considered in prequalification practices for private and semi-public projects in Saudi Arabia. Indeed, Hatush and Skitmore (1998:2) in their studies on criteria for contractor selection revealed that the choice of contractor should be made on a value for money basis rather than automatically accepting the lowest bid because the main objective is to identify the best tender, not lowest bidder. In the same study, Hatush and Skitmore (1998:1) described a systematic multi criteria decision analysis as a contractor selection method based on utility.

Similarly, Sodangi and Amra (2011:1358) investigated a selected sample of 150 construction professionals operating in Malaysia to identify the actual criteria used by clients for the selection of contractors from the current practice in Malaysia. Sodangi and Amra (2011) focused on the criteria and not the entire process of contractor selection and possible challenges. The findings indicated that track performance, financial capacity and technical capacity were the most important criteria for the selection of contractors in Malaysia, which is not the case for Uganda.

Schmitz and Platts (2004:56) noted that the most common issues that procurement staff face are the constant rush and lack of operational planning in selecting contractors. Other issues that make the work more difficult are a shortage of demand forecasts and poor information flow within the organization (Schmitz and Platts, 2004:58). They further asserted that the present content of procurement and the selection criteria do not encourage developing know-how, procedures or the product itself. The invitations for tenders are very precise and give no opportunity to offer innovative solutions. Flexibility in contractor selection can have an influential role in the procurement process, for example, in the definition of the contents of the procured item and its goals (Bagaka & Kobia, 2010:45). On the contrary, the aims and goal of contractor selection and how this is connected to the whole service delivery is often left out from the definition. The conclusion and recommendations of the above authors mainly focused on the criteria for contractor selection, but the researcher widened the scope to include the effect of staff competence and regulatory function in the conclusions and recommendations.

Contractor selection has become a priority for public entities. In a developing country like Uganda, having an effective contractor selection system is still a major challenge to many

public entities (Oluka, 2013:16). Oluka (2013) noted that contractor selection is an area that needs careful attention from all stakeholders in public entities because it has a huge impact on budget management and improved service delivery. Muhwezi (2013:45) contended that the Public Procurement and Disposal Authority (PPDA) must play a central role in providing training, technical guidance and ensuring compliance to all set rules.

Sabiti, Basheka and Muhumuza (2011:23) noted that proper contractor selection influences procurement performance. The nature and extent of contractor selection will vary between organizations (Muhwezi, 2012:34). It can be influenced by the nature and the type of relationship the agency has with the contractor both in the short and the long term. Muhwezi, (2012) noted that contractor selection revolves around selecting the right contractor using appropriate procedures. In line with this, the PPDA Act of 2003 specifies different procurement methods, namely: open competitive bidding, restricted bidding and direct award. The default method for procurement for road works is open competitive bidding. It is not clear as to how this and other methods would affect the performance of road projects in terms of time, cost and quality.

It is important to note that the criteria which spells out how evaluation of bids is to be conducted is also a critical stage in the process of selecting a contractor from a number of bidding contractors that have submitted bids for a specified project (Nguyen, 2015:31). Procurement and bid evaluation methods are critical steps in contractor selection, which involves the use of different procurement and evaluation methods (Singh & Tiong, 2005:62). Similarly the institutional theory is applicable given the organizational set-up. The multi-criteria theory in this context brings out the fact that different competences and capabilities are considered during evaluation of bids to arrive at an ideal contractor.

Huang (2011:41) argued that bid evaluation is one of the major challenges that owners and consultants face in the public and private sectors. There is need to objectively gauge the ability of a contractor to properly manage a construction project following the frameworks created to evaluate the contractors' bids (Nguyen, 2015:31). In the PPDA Act of 2003, the applicable bid evaluation methods for works are technical compliance selection and quality-cost based selection method. Evaluation of bids is done through a verification process that begins with categorizing whether the candidates are suitable or not. After that, the contracting authorities can exclude bidders from the tender competition if they meet the exclusion criteria (Muhwezi, 2013:45). Measuring the suitability of the candidates is based on the financial situation of the bidder as well as their technical performance and professional qualifications. The contracting authorities must select the offer that presents the most economically advantageous solution or the selection can be made based on the lowest price (Oluka, 2013:45). Ocharo (2013:35) noted that in many cases, the contracting authority mentions that alternative solutions and offers are not accepted, which limits the creativity of the suppliers. Where flexibility is allowed, however, productivity can be increased through new ideas and solutions. This can be achieved through emphasizing development responsibility and the effects of the procured item. The selection criteria is essential for ensuring that the needed services will meet the requirements and needs of the buying organization (Ocharo, 2013:43). Therefore, emphasis on the determination of the weight values should be established.

Holt (1996:358) identified prequalification criteria to be included in the quantitative model for choosing main contractors. Holt (1996:557) explained the cluster analysis technique in a contractor valuation and selection setting. Though technical ability and financial soundness are critical requirements for the contractor to perform, the challenge may be the process and procedures of selecting the contractor. Bubshait and Al-Gobali (1996:50) determined the criteria that are considered in prequalification practices for private and semi-public projects in Saudi Arabia. Hatush and Skitmore (1998:2), revealed that the choice of contractor should be made on a value for money basis rather than automatically accepting the lowest bid because the main objective is to identify the best tender not lowest bidder. Hatush and Skitmore (1997:15) focused on identifying universal criteria for prequalification and bid evaluation. Their results show that the most common criteria considered by clients are those pertaining to financial soundness, technical ability, management capability and health and safety performance of contractors.

Performance

Langston (2012:4) posited that performance is not just about efficiency but effectiveness. He identified performance indicators to measure the success of construction projects which include client satisfaction, stakeholder engagement, service delivery, investment return, urban renewal, defect minimization, trust, dispute avoidance, innovation, safety and standard. He noted, however, that the most commonly cited indicators are time of completion, project cost and workmanship (quality). For purposes of this study, performance of road infrastructure projects is measured in terms of the completion time, cost and quality performance.

Empirical studies, in both developed and under developed countries, identify that construction projects have performed poorly and have been characterized by delays, cost overruns and short life spans (Takim and Akintoye, 2002:18). Mahamid (2013:720) noted that time, cost and quality are key to project performance. He, however, observes that the history of the construction industry worldwide is full of projects that were completed with significant time and cost overruns. Fandi and El-Sayegh 2006:73 assert that shortage of skilled manpower, poor supervision and poor site management; unsuitable leadership; shortage and outdated equipment are among the factors that contribute to construction delays and subsequent poor performance of construction projects. This is further observed by Hanson et al. (2003:13), cited in Otim and Alinaitwe (2013:243), that conflict; poor workmanship and incompetence of contractors are among the factors affecting project performance. Otim and Alinaitwe further cited Meyer, Witt, Kashiwagi and Kashiwagi (2010:34) who posited that the problem of underperformance is not only affecting the road construction projects but also the construction industry. On the other hand, Ochary (2016:9) in his study on evaluation of risk events impacting highway and road projects in Nigeria noted that risk events associated with highway and road construction projects have a major impact on issues related to cost, time and quality of project delivery.

Ayudhya (2012:56) found that there have been significant improvements on project completion within planned time and budgeted cost for projects undertaken after the establishment of Tanroads in Tanzania as compared to projects implemented by then under UNRA in Uganda. The study also revealed important factors contributing to project time and

cost overruns such as fluctuations in materials in terms of quality and cost; fluctuations in labour including plant costs; construction delays (associated with time overruns); inadequate planning; inadequate design of projects; unforeseen circumstances due to third parties and variation orders issued by clients.

Delay as referred in construction is prolonged construction period and disruptions are events that disturb the construction programme. A delay is among the challenges faced in the course of executing construction projects. Various studies (Amer, 2002:32) have identified sources of and types of construction risks that need to be managed as part of the project management process. There are also risks and factors that affect construction project delivery time which are also causes of delays (Amoako, 2011:55). Causes of delays have been identified in various parts of the world. The results reveal that there are differences and similarities regarding the causes of delays. In bridging the gap, delays have had an effect on the construction projects in Uganda.

Payment to contactors or lack of it is a common cause of disputes in the construction industry. Timeliness of payments affects many contractors, for whom receiving delayed payments from their employers is a cause of friction between the two parties. Meng (2015:20) in his works stated that all problems in construction begin when payment is not received at the exact amount or date. Disagreements then lead to arguments as relationships sour, and the stage becomes a setting for conflict, blame, finger pointing, buck-passing and lawyers. In bridging the gap, projects exceed initial time and cost estimates and experience extensive delays; and it is contractors who suffer the most when things like this occur.

Methodological Orientation

A cross-sectional analysis was adopted where people who were similar in all variables, except the one variable which was under study, were sampled and data collected from them at a point in time. As noted before, the study applied a mixed-method approach by triangulating quantitative and qualitative research methods. The study population was 190, comprising 100 procurement professionals selected from PPDA and 15 high spend government agencies/entities (as per Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning classification, 40 engineers from UNRA, 30 civil works /road contractors from UNABSEC, 30 engineers from UACE, 20 members on the Infrastructure Committee of Parliament and 10 members of civil society organizations. A sample size of 119 respondents was drawn from this population. Quantitative data was generated from the surveys. As part of the deductive process, an interview guide was developed, piloted, refined and updated throughout the course of the empirical work. Interviews were conducted in a guided conversation style and most interviews were carried out face-to-face. However, certain interviews were conducted by telephone, as busy respondents were more prepared to find time for telephone interviews in their schedule. Quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS and qualitative data was analyzed using thematic and content analysis.

Empirical Findings

Performance of Road Infrastructure Projects

The items on the performance of road infrastructure projects were scaled using the five-point Likert scale where code 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Not sure, 4 = Agree and 5 = Strongly Agree. The categories of 'strongly agree' and 'agree' were merged to form a category of agreement and the categories of 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree' were merged to form a category of disagreement. The findings are based on the 116 responses.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics on Performance

Performance Attribute	% disagreement	% not sure	% Agreement	mean
The road project was not implemented within the contracted costs	6	2	92	4.35
The road was never completed within the budgeted cost	4	10	86	4.25
The road costs were inflated before the start of the contract	8	4	87	4.14
Prohibiting price negotiations is affecting cost of road projects	11	3	86	4.20
The compensation process led to the rise of costs for the road project	12	4	84	4.04
Delayed compensation of the project affected persons	8	4	87	4.22
There was delay in project commencement	7	5	88	4.22
The road projects was not completed in project scheduled time	7	6	87	4.33
The delayed compensation of the project affected persons affected the scheduled completion date	6	9	84	4.26

Source: Primary Data (2017)

However, the history of the construction industry in Uganda is characterized by projects with significant time and cost overruns (PPDA Annual Report, 2017). This study was conducted to investigate the how procurement practices relate to quality, cost and time overrun in road construction projects. The field survey included 11 interviews with respondents on cost, quality and time overruns. According to Mulumba (2016), the road construction industry is full of projects that were completed with significant time and cost overruns. According to Faridi (2006), delays have an adverse impact on project success in terms of time, cost, quality and safety. The effects of road construction delays are not confined to the construction industry only, but influence the overall economy of a country.

Findings revealed that, partly, the delayed payment of projects affected people and contractor advance affected the performance of Mubende- Kakumiro- Kibaale- Kagadi road, and Kyenjojo-Kabwoya-Hoima-Bulima road in terms of ability to complete the project within time which had an effect on the final project cost. Delayed payment of contractor claims, coupled with continuous design changes, slowed the road works. Puri and Tiwari (2014:66) noted that delays in payment have significant effects on works due to constrained cash flow to the contractor. Mulumba (2016:41) noted that delayed payment leads to delay in project progress which is a function of extension of time and insolvency. The findings from interviews and documentary reviews give the actual status of performance of road transport projects used to triangulate and concretize the findings from the surveys. A UNRA Engineer noted that:

The Kyenjojo-Kabwoya road which starts from Kyenjojo junction and two stretches Kyenjojo-Kagadi and Kagadi-Kabwoya and one big bridge at Muzizi and road connects to Kabwoya to Hoima is showing all signs that will not be implemented within the contracted time. He said the cost and time overruns on this road is due because they found new sections of swamps that were identified and yet the initial design did not identify such swamps which increased the cost.

This could be attributed to inadequacy of designing at planning stage by UNRA. As Ochary (2016:55) noted the swamps delay works as they need more time to be treated, filled and surfaced resulting into cost over runs.

There were mixed reactions about budget shortfalls basing on the interviews conducted. The interviewed respondents from UNRA and Consulting Engineers attributed the failure to absorb all the funds allocated for projects to have affected implementation, leading to delays in the selection procedures embedded in the procurement laws. Ochary (2016:40), in corroboration, noted that some of the issues affecting their absorption were beyond their control like delays in procurement, land acquisition and whistle-blowers whom a respondent said were interfering in road project implementation.

According to Mulumba (2016), some issues that lead to shortfalls emanate from lacunas within the procurement process for example failure to undertake market price assessment prior to commencement of the re-tender of the procurement. There was non-adherence to the construction schedule on the roads. According to UNRA Report (2016), the time overruns experienced on the project were attributed to the following factors: scope changes which resulted in the addition of the construction of the road, and delays in effecting payment to the contractor for completed civil works. The time overruns experienced on the project were attributed to design changes during construction stage, i.e. the construction of bridge foundations, unforeseen swamp filling, compensation and delays in effecting payment to the contractor for completed civil works.

Similarly, a UNRA Report (2016) noted that the time overruns experienced on the project are attributed to the following factors: design changes during construction which were effected to raise the road to counter the effects of floods in low-lying areas, fuel shortages which were experienced during the period, and lack of qualified personnel on the part of the contractor.

Similarly, Ochary (2017) noted that once a construction project is awarded, its time duration is identified, and the completion time of the project is then defined and included in the contract. It becomes the contractor's objective to schedule his construction activities and that of his subcontractors to meet the identified project duration and ensure project success.

A respondent from UNRA observed that, "*some delays on the roads are attributed to the contractor's slow mobilisation thus affecting project schedule*". She also observed that:

the contractor delay to engage a local sub-contractor as is required in the contract therefore UNRA could not remit payments before the local contract supposed to do the earthworks is on site. It is a requirement under the PPDA guidelines that a main contractor when foreign has to allocate a certain percentage of works to a local company as a subcontractor and that work is supposed to be accomplished with the main schedule in consideration.

Likewise, Amoako (2011) expanded further on the subject of completion time of the project and noted that a conflict may occur between the contractor and his subcontractors if any of the parties does not adhere to the schedule. This applies to both parties, the main contractor and subcontractor, because if any party delays the execution of his scheduled construction activities, it will consequently delay the progress of the activities of the other party (Sambasivan and Soon, 2007).

Findings further revealed that the Mukono-Katosi and Kisoga-Nyenga roads had a lot of complexities. However, the increase in complexity, the over-supply of specialist firms, and the declining construction output cultivated an adversarial atmosphere which had a negative effect on the contractor relationships (Wiguna, and Scott, 2015:11). Furthermore, relationship studies between main contractors have received little to no attention (Enshassi, Najjar, and Kumaraswamy, 2017:77). This is detrimental, considering the relevance the complexities had to the eventual contract termination of the Mukono-Katosi and Kisoga-Nyenga (74.2km) road. A respondent noted that:

Delaying payment to contractors has not only delayed UNRA road projects but has led to contractors abandoning sites and eventual contract termination. He noted that this problem is across all sectors in government hence requiring immediate policy shift if service delivery is to be enhanced.

The UNRA Annual Performance Report (2017) indicated that UNRA is determined to implement road projects in a timely manner but they are let down by delays by the Ministry of Finance in releasing funds for paying contractors and compensating land owners along project areas. Delay in payment at the higher end of hierarchy is likely to trickle down the chain of contracts. More specifically, delay in payment for completed works is likely to constrain contractors' cash flow, which in turn might affect timely payment of subcontractors, workers, suppliers, and service providers. Participants further associated delay in payment with slow progression of works and inefficient utilization of time; which in turn, had negative implications on time-related costs, such as maintenance of management.

An Engineer noted:

Payment delays may occur when the main contractor face financial problems during a project usually due to poor management, meagre cost estimates or payments delayed by the owner. Such problems can delay the payment of funds to the contractor hence delaying work. In construction, timely payment of the subcontractor is regarded as one of the most serious aspects to resolve in order to create and maintain a long term relationship between the contractor and the employer.

However, documentary evidence (URF Report, 2015) attributed the delays to mostly continuous design changes slowing work hence resulting into contract termination.

The views held by above respondent seem to be consonant with the earlier OAG report (2016). The OAG report noted that one of the causes of delays is design changes, faults in the bidding processes and failure by the government to pay compensation prior to project commencement. This creates what Danuri, Munaaim, Abdul Rahman, and Hanid (2006) described as ‘concentric circles of payoffs and delays.

Participants further noted that periodic discontinuation of works dragged the implementation of work plans into oblivion, which necessitated re-scheduling and re-sequencing of project activities, albeit with cost implications. Participants noted that re-scheduling and re-sequencing of project activities are expensive and complicated planning processes, requiring the participation of all stakeholders. Participants also linked delay in payment with the extension of timeframe and acceleration of works, which was intended to make up for lost time.

Table 2: Ranking of External Factor Related Causes of Time Overruns

Ranking	External Factor Related Causes of Time Overruns in Road Construction Projects	Frequency
1	Effects of weather on road construction works	61.7
2	Effects of sub-surface and ground conditions	60.6
3	Delays in certification and undertaking final inspections	56.4
4	Political interference	70.2
5	Delayed approvals for major changes in the scope of works	66.5

Primary Data (2017)

The five external factors which the literature review identified to be affecting time overruns in road construction projects were ranked using their frequencies in order to determine the frequent factors affecting road construction projects. Ranking results of factors affecting road construction projects based on their frequency indexes are presented above. Effects of weather were ranked highly on the untimely completion of road works. Results from the study indicated that “inadequate planning on the part of the client” was the major cause of time overruns in road projects resulting in resource idling due to incomplete/ errors in designs, compensation issues rendering sites inaccessible and delayed payments due to lack of funding. As such,

clients should ensure designs are completed, sites are accessible and secure funding is in place before awarding contracts as a way of minimizing time overruns in road construction projects.

On the quality of materials, 84% of the respondents agreed that the use of poor materials affects the performance of road infrastructure projects; 6% of the respondents disagreed; while 9% of the respondents, mainly the procurement professionals, were not sure of the effect of poor materials on the performance of roads infrastructure projects. Poor materials and material shortages slow activities and sometimes cause temporary abandonment of sites (Akaranga, 2008). The use of the incorrect equipment extends tasks while faulty equipment leads to delay due to the time spent to repair. Materials play an important role in the successful implementation of construction projects. However, projects experience material-related time due to several factors. An internet study carried out by Ochary (2016) established that poor quality materials, poor scheduling, delayed procurement and specification changes are likely to cause time overruns in construction projects. In very extreme cases, material type and quality can affect the safety of individuals on site.

In relation to this, a Consultant from UACE noted that:

Listed delays in approving major changes in the scope of work, poor coordination and communication, consultants' staff inadequate experience, discrepancies and mistakes in design documents, delays in the production of design documents, inadequate and unclear details in construction drawings, insufficient data collection and surveys before designs and lack of advanced engineering design software were the causes of inappropriate designs and time overruns in construction projects

A UNRA Report (2016) reiterated, if no effective evaluation of road designs was carried out to assess the worth of every phase of the road construction project, UNRA could not achieve the 6Rs – right quality, in the right quantity, in the right time, at the right cost, for the right purpose, and from the right source. Similarly, Mulumba (2016) noted that designs that were done without extensive investigation of site could contain potential errors. This is because such designs could lead to additional work, revision of scope of work, and contract revision as the actual site conditions begin to float up at the construction phase of the project. These will no doubt affect the overall project delivery time and cost. Causes of design errors cited in the UNRA Report (2015) are mostly due to inadequate field investigation, error in design and specifications, plan errors, design changes etc. In controlling project delay and cost overrun due to design errors, the basic thing to be considered is the involvement of professional skills and application of competent tools throughout the project.

Since the majority of projects are executed by contractors, it is important to note that the procurement process and contract management are critical to the successful completion of projects. Thus poor selection of contractors due to low bids, with no technical capability to handle the project will lead to cost overruns, schedule delays, poor quality, and a final result that is not acceptable. Also, a contract management system with clients that have a slow payment schedule could lead to delay and cost overrun.

Table 3: KMO and Bartlett’s Test for performance of roads projects

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.715
Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	122.169
	Df	105
	Sig.	.021

Source: Primary Data (2017)

The findings revealed a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of 0.715. This figure of the KMO implies that the factor analysis technique can be used to identify the principle components. This is triangulated by the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity which follows the chi square distribution that yielded a p value of 0.021, which is significant at the 95% level of significance. When using factor analysis, all components that yielded eigen values greater than 1 were extracted and the following seven factors were extracted and their respective factor loadings.

Table: 4 Variance explained by the principal components of performance of construction projects

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.622	10.812	10.812	1.622	10.812	10.812
2	1.378	9.185	19.997	1.378	9.185	19.997
3	1.324	8.826	28.823	1.324	8.826	28.823
4	1.259	8.395	37.218	1.259	8.395	37.218
5	1.128	7.518	44.736	1.128	7.518	44.736
6	1.086	7.241	51.977	1.086	7.241	51.977
7	1.045	6.967	58.944	1.045	6.967	58.944
8	.958	6.390	65.334			
9	.897	5.978	71.313			
10	.835	5.564	76.876			
11	.783	5.220	82.097			
12	.765	5.103	87.200			
13	.705	4.702	91.902			
14	.624	4.160	96.063			
15	.591	3.937	100.000			

Source: Primary Data (2017)

From Table 4 above, it can be seen that the extracted principal components explain 58.9% of the total variations in the performance of road construction projects. The individual loadings of the various individual attributes of performance to the extracted principal components are presented in Table 4

Procurement practices

The items on procurement practices are measured on a five-point Likert scale where code 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree and 5 = Strongly Agree. For each of the above items, descriptive statistics that include frequencies, percentages and means based on 116 observations are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics for Procurement practices

Selection Attribute	% disagreement	% not sure	% agreement	Mean
The contractor selection procedure is not appropriate for complex road projects	16	8	75	3.87
The selection procedure focus a lot on preliminary eligibility requirements for road construction projects	16	10	73	3.68
The procurement procedures allow unnecessary interference through complaints which causes road project completion delays	11	20	69	3.79
The selection procedure has many unnecessary approval stages	10	13	77	4.10
The selection criteria provides for methods to analyse of contractor competency of road projects	11	25	64	3.76
The selection criteria does not require for certified evidence from bidders to demonstrate their capacity to execute road project works	15	19	65	3.90

Source: Primary Data (2017)

On appropriateness of selection criteria, 75% of the respondents were of the view that the existing contractor selection criteria were not appropriate for complex road projects while 16% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. Attribute had a mean score of 3.87 which indicated that on average the respondents agreed to the statement.

Whether the main focus in selection was on preliminary eligibility, 73% of the respondents agreed that the selection procedure focused a lot on preliminary eligibility requirements, while 16% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. The attribute had a mean score of 3.68, which indicated that, on average, the respondents agreed with the statement. The respondents had mixed responses about worthiness of the contractors selected. The majority of the procurement professionals condemned the act by contractors who submit falsified documents, claiming to have adequate expertise and equipment at the preliminary stages. They noted that this in itself is affecting the performance of road projects in Uganda.

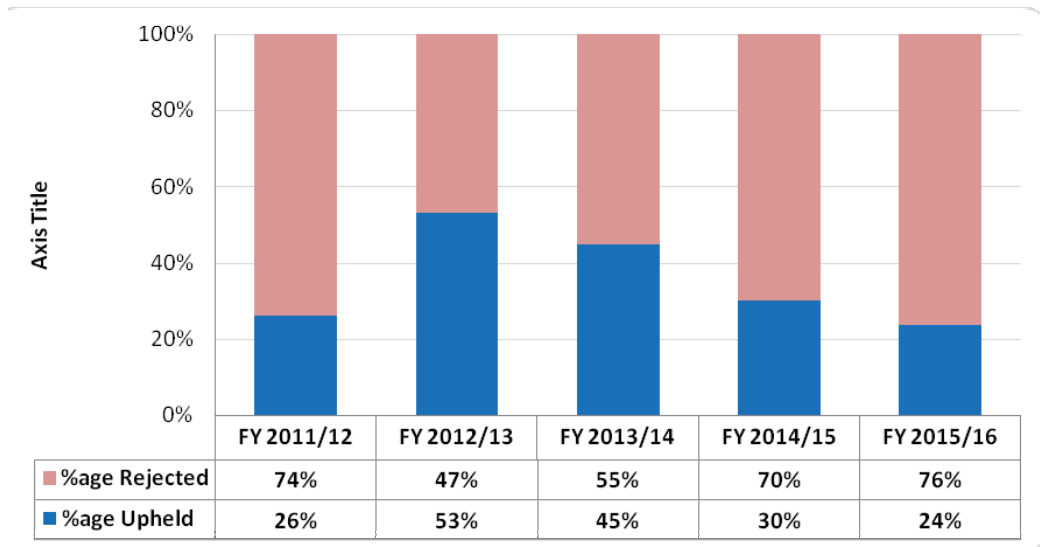
On the issue of interference with the contractor selection process, 69% of the respondents agreed that the contractor selection procedures allowed unnecessary interference through complaints which caused delays on major roads, while 11% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. The attribute had a mean score of 3.79 which indicated that on average the respondents agreed with the statement.

A UNRA official agreed with the question when he noted:

The interference by oversight agencies delays the completion of the selection process, this is common when bidders seek administrative review and PPDA as an oversight agency overturns the award. He noted that in all cases PPDA has order a repeat of the process the cost outcome is always higher than the earlier submitted costs.

According to the PPDA Annual Performance Report (2016), the Authority handled a total of 38 Applications for Administrative Reviews, some of which were on the selected study roads like Mukono-Katosi and Kisoga-Nyenga (74.2km), Kyenjojo-Hoima-Kabwoya-Masindi-Kigumba and Mubende-Kakumiro-Kagadi road, 24% (9) of these were upheld while 76% (29) were rejected. The administrative reviews handled were due to bidders' dissatisfaction with the evaluation process and quality of bidding documents, both of which affected the contractor selection process. The Authority recommended re-evaluating the bids to ensure fairness and transparency.

Figure 1: Administrative Reviews by PPDA handled in Five Years on major Contracts



Source: *Public Procurement and Disposal of Public Assets Annual Report 2015*

When the procurement professionals at PPDA were asked for their perception on the procurement structures, 77 per cent of the respondents agreed to the statement that the selection procedure had many unnecessary approval stages. As Mulumba (2016) noted, the contractor selection process in public procurement had various stages of approval manned by the various committees like the evaluation committee, contracts committee, user department and the accounting officer. All these approval stages had a bearing on the length of the contract process. A UNRA Report (2016) reiterated that many of the procurement processes for various key road infrastructure projects had taken longer than required to go through the procurement process, indeed it was the practice when it came to major road projects.

A senior Engineer Planning in UNRA, when interviewed on causes of delays in the selection process, noted that:

Evaluation process takes too long because evaluators concentrate on technical issues which ideally would be handles at negotiation with the selected contractor. He was of the view that the evaluation criteria should be adjusted such as site organization, method statement, mobilization schedule, construction schedule, quality assurance system, equipment, personnel, environmental and social management plans are handled at post qualification because these a bound to change at implementation". He further observed that the way due diligence is handled at UNRA is wrong, staff take long on travels, verifying projects even where the government has a mission, then who could handle these matters. He called for urgent policy shift and amendment of the law.

As to whether contract monitoring staff in UNRA did not care to prepare contractor monitoring plans, 94 per cent agreed. This was confirmed by findings in the PPDA procurement audit reports for Financial Years 2014/2015, 2015/2016 and 2016/2017 which highlight failure to prepare procurement plans as the most common no-compliance areas in PDEs.

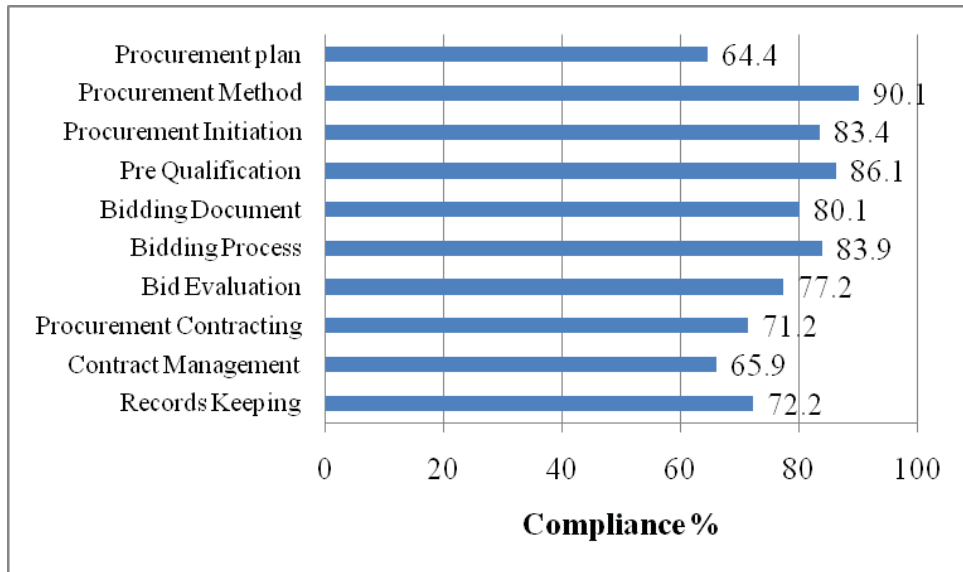
A Senior UNRA officer said:

Contract managers not appointed on time is a big problem and contract implementation plans not being prepared on time or not prepared and supervision lacking is another ulcer.

Hinton (2003) makes it clear when he asserts that it is essential to develop a contract monitoring plan to ensure that the contract is well monitored. He argues that a plan that depends on the complexity of the contract helps to guide both the client and contractor on their respective obligations. He notes that among the items to be included on the plan are identification of deliverables, milestones, due dates, a list of all contract modifications issued, summary of all invoices submitted and paid, and renewal dates. It should also detail the methods that the entity will use to monitor the contractor and the individuals or offices that will be responsible for the monitoring. Ochary (2016) concurs that in order to achieve laid down goals one has to draw a guiding work plan. This then explains the need to ensure monitoring plans are prepared to guide contract supervisors at UNRA to monitor the performance of the road construction projects in terms of time, costs and quality.

A UNRA top administrator felt that contractor performance appraisal is always done during project implementation in some agencies which UNRA also adopted. However, procurement professionals (57%) had mixed responses about contractor performance appraisal being done during project implementation. They felt that most contractor monitoring teams never take contractor performance appraisal exercise as important since no appraisal reports are ever submitted by supervisors. This explains why entities continue to award contracts to the same incompetent companies. The procurement process compliance scores are presented in Figure 2

Figure 2: Average Procurement Process Compliance Level for UNRA



Source: PPDA Annual compliance report (2017)

As per the figure above, it is evident that the compliance levels are all above average at UNRA in as far as procurement planning and contract management is concerned. Low compliance in procurement planning has direct impact on the contractor selection process and weak contract management is a sign of weakness in monitoring, hence poor performance.

Testing Hypothesis

Our hypothesis stated that there is a significant relationship between procurement practices and the performance of road infrastructure projects in Uganda. The hypothesis was tested using Regression Analysis and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) basing on the indicators of procurement practices

Table 6: Regression Analysis for the relationship between procurement practices and the performance of road infrastructure projects

Summary Out put						
Regression Statistics						
	R	.697				
	R Square	.485				
	Adjusted R Square	.401				
	Standard Error	.50252				
ANOVA						
		Sum of square	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
1	Regression	3969.98	1	3969.9	42.688	0.03
	Residual	7345.34	118	93.011		
	Total	11315.3	119			
Step	Variable	B	SE	Beta	T	Sig
1	Constant	60.712	.411		12.992	0.00
	Procurement practices	.708	.110	.697	5.021	0.03

Source: Primary Data (2016)

Table 6 indicates the R value (coefficient) of .697 henceforth R denotes the correlation between predicted and observed performance of road infrastructure projects. Since this is a high correlation, our model predicts performance of road infrastructure projects in Uganda rather precisely. The coefficient of determination (R square of .485) indicates the proportion of variance in the performance of road infrastructure projects in Uganda that can be “explained” by the legal framework. The R Square value (coefficient of determination) was 0.485. The R square value of .485 indicates how much of the dependent variable, performance of road infrastructure projects, can be explained by the independent variable, procurement practices. Therefore the r square value of .485 implied that procurement practices predict/explain the variance in the performance of road infrastructure projects by 48.5 percent. The influence of the procurement practices on the performance of road infrastructure projects is statistically significant. The moderate R square of 0.485 tells us that the model does a fair job in predicting the performance of road infrastructure projects in Uganda.

Analysis of Variance for procurement practices and performance of road infrastructure projects

The Error degree of freedom is the DF total minus the DF model, $119 - 1 = 118$. Mean Square are the Mean Squares, the Sum of Squares divided by their respective DF. The value for this table had total degrees of freedom of 119 because four observations had missing data and were not included in the analysis. The F-statistic is the Mean Square (Regression) divided by the Mean Square (Residual) $3969.688/93.011=42.688$. The full model is statistically significant ($F = .42.688$, $df = 119, 1$, $sig. = .03$). F-Statistics was 42.688, given the strength of the correlation, the model is statistically significant (p is $0.03 < .05$)

The Coefficient for procurement practices and performance of road infrastructure projects

As per the SPSS output generated above, the equation ($Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 + \beta_4X_4 + \epsilon$) becomes: $Y = 60.712 + .708X$. Overall, the procurement practices affect performance of road infrastructure projects ($\beta = .697$). The average class size (procurement practices, $b = .697$) is significant ($p = 0.03$), but only just so, and the coefficient is positive which would indicate that larger class sizes are related to performance of road infrastructure projects. As a rule of thumb, we say that a b coefficient is statistically significant if its p -value is smaller than 0.05. The b coefficients tell us how many units of performance of road infrastructure projects increase for a single unit increase in each predictor (procurement practices). The beta coefficients allow us to compare the relative strengths of our predictors. The regression equation above has established that taking all factors into account (adoption of procurement practices) constant at zero, effective management of public finances will be 60.712. The findings presented also show that taking all other independent variables at zero, a unit increase in the scores of procurement practices would lead to a 0.708 increase. The effect of the procurement practices ($\beta = .697$, $p = 0.03$) is statistically significant and its coefficient is positive, indicating that the greater the procurement practices, the higher the performance of road infrastructure projects. The magnitudes of the respective betas suggest that the relationship between procurement practices and performance of road infrastructure projects is statistically significant. The t -test for procurement practices equals 5.021, which is statistically significant.

Conclusion

The road construction industry has many projects that were completed with significant time and cost overruns. Delays have had an adverse impact on project success in terms of time, cost, quality and safety. The effects of road construction delays are not confined to the construction industry only, but influence the overall economy of a country.

Recommendations

Timely payment of contractors for completed works is crucial for ensuring the continuity of works and completion of infrastructural projects within time, budget, and quality specifications. Payment of contractors is likely to prevent cost and time overruns, which may have significant ripple effects. In view of this, payment of contractors should be planned properly by initiating appropriate mitigating measures against potential risks, such as delayed disbursement of funds by external financiers, delayed approval of contractors' payment requests, political interference, as well as financial misappropriation by employers, among others. Monitoring intensity should be increased in both the generally successful and the unsuccessful road construction projects

References

- Abdul, A, Rahman, H and Hanad, R. (2006). Production, Information Costs and Economic Organization. *The American Economic Review* 62: 777-79.
- Alinaitwe, H. Apolot, R and Tindiwensi, D. (2013). "Investigation into the Causes of Delays and Cost Overruns in Uganda's Public Sector Construction Projects". *Journal of Construction in Developing Countries*, 18(2), 33-47
- Amer, M. (2002). *Modeling the factors affecting quality of building construction projects during the construction phase in Gaza Strip*. Unpublished Master's Thesis: Palestine, Islamic University of Gaza
- Amoako, K. (2011). *The effect of delayed payment on cash flow forecasting of Ghanaian road contractors*. Unpublished master thesis, University of Science and Technology
- Akaranga, E. M. (2008). *The Process and effects of Performance Contracting in Kenyan Public Sector*. MA Dissertation submitted to the University of Nairobi
- Ayudhya, B. (2012). "Factors causing delay in payment of residential building projects in Thailand". *Construction Economics and Management* 5(2) 34-50
- Bagaka, O. (2010). *Enhancing Trust & Accountability in Government*. Presentation at the CAPAM African Regional Conference, Abuja, Nigeria, May 17 -19, 2010.
- Barasa, H. W. (2014). "Procurement Practices Affecting Effective Public Projects Implementation in Kenya: A Case Study of Kenya Civil Aviation Authority". *European Journal of Business and Management* 6(2)36-49
- Basheka, B. (2009). *Public procurement reform in Africa, a Tool for Effective Governance of the Public Sector and Poverty Reduction*. Unpublished. Kampala: UTAMU
- Basheka, B. C. (2008). Procurement Planning and Accountability of Local Government Procurement Systems in Developing Countries: Evidence from Uganda. *Journal of Public Procurement* 8 (3), 379-406.
- Bubshalt, A.A and Al-Gobali, K. H. (1996). Contractor Prequalification in Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Management in Engineering* 12(1), 50-54
- Basheka, B.C. (2014). Public Procurement Skills Requirements Framework for Local Government Procurement Professionals in Uganda: A self- Perceptive Approach. *Journal of Public Procurement and Contract Management*, 23(1), 1-25.
- Chetty, S. and Eriksson, K. (2002). Mutual Commitment and Experiential Knowledge in Mature International Business Relationships. *International Business Review* 14(2)305-324
- CIBD. (2013). *Competency and Competency Frameworks*. Retrieved on 27th August 2017 from <http://www.cipd.co.uk>
- Danuri, M., Munaaim, M., Abdul Rahman, H. and Hanid, M. (2006). *Late and non-payment issues in the Malaysian Construction Industry - Consultants' perspective*. Quantity Surveying National Convention, Sheraton Subang Hotel.
- Dunn, M. B. & Jones, C. (2010). "Institutional Logics and Institutional Pluralism: The Contestation of Care and Science Logics in Medical Education, 1967-2005". *Administrative Science Quarterly* 55(1): 114-149.

- Enshassi, A., Najjar, J. and Kumaraswamy, M. (2017). "Delays and cost overruns in the Construction projects in the Gaza Strip". *Journal of Financial Management of Property and Construction*, Vol. 14 No. 2, pp. 126-151
- Fandi, H. & El Sayegh, U. (2006). *Procurement Principle and Management*. England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Hatush, K. and Skitmore, M. (1998). "Contractor Selection using Multicriteria Utility Theory: an Additive Model". *Building and Environment Journal*, 33(2)31-45
- Hanson, D. (2003). Causes of client dissatisfaction in the South African building industry and ways of improvement. *The contractors' perspectives, in CIDB, South Africa*
- Hinton, J. (2003). *Best practices in government: Components of an effective contract monitoring system*. Retrieved on 20th November, 2017 from <http://www.docstoc.com>
- Holt, G. D. (1996). "Applying cluster analysis to construction contractor classification". *Building and Environment*, 31(6), 557–568.
- Holt, G. D., Olomalaiye, P. O. & Harris, F. C. (1995). "A review of contractor selection practice in the U.K. construction industry". *Building and Environment* 30(4) 553–561
- Huang, A. (2011). "Tendering theory revisited". *Construction Management and Economics*, 17(3), 285-296.
- Langston, C . (2012). *Comparing international construction performance. Mirvac School of Sustainable Development*. Retrieved on 2nd March, 2018 from <http://epublications.bond.edu.au/sustainabledevelopment>
- Kugonza, S.P.K. (2009). *Influence of formal and informal institutions on outsourcing public construction projects in Uganda*. PhD thesis submitted to the University of Birmingham.
- Meng, X. (2002). "Guarantees for contractor's performance and owners payment in China". *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management*, 13(3), 232-237.
- Meyer, G. Witt, T. Kashiwagi, L & Kashiwagi, L. (2010). *Purchasing Principles and Management*. U.K. Pearson Education Limited.
- Muhwezi, M. (2013). *Public procurement reform in Africa, a tool for effective governance of the public sector and poverty reduction*. Unpublished.
- Mulumba, S. (2016). "Causes of delay in large construction projects". *International Journal of Project Management*, 24(2), 349–357.
- Nguyen, B. (2015). *Purchasing and Supply Chain Management*. Pearson Education Limited.
- Ochary, J. (2016). *Factors influencing time and cost overruns on construction projects in Uganda*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Mbale: Islamic University in Uganda.
- Office of the Auditor General. (2016). *Engineering Audit of Uganda National Roads Authority (UNRA)* <http://www.ugandaroadsector.org/reports> accessed on 12th May 2017
- Okello, M. (2016). "The Management of construction company overhead costs in Uganda". *International Journal of project Management*, 19(1) 295-303.
- Oluka, N.P. and Basheka, B.C. (2014). "Determinants and constraints to effective procurement contract management in Uganda: a practitioner' perspective". *Int. J. of Logistics Systems and Management*, 17(1)104 – 124.

- Ondari, J. M. (2013). "Factors influencing successful completion of roads projects in Kenya". *International Journal of Arts and Entrepreneurship*, 1(5) 1-22.
- Otim, G. & Alinaitwe, H. M. (2013). "Factors Affecting the Performance of Pavement Road Construction Projects in Uganda". *Journal of ICTM* 2(2)34-56
- Puri and Tiwari. (2014). "Evaluating the Criteria for Contractors' Selection and Bid Evaluation: International". *Journal of Engineering Science Invention*, 12(3) 78-90.
- Regan, M. (2012). "Public infrastructure procurement: A comparative analysis of adversarial and non-adversarial contracting methods - Working for better procurement outcomes". *Public Infrastructure Bulletin: 1(2)* 13-25.
- Rendon, R.G. (2010). *Critical success factors in government contract management*. retrieved on 2nd March, 2018 from <http://www.ippa.org>.
- Sambasivan, M. and Soon, Y. (2007). "Causes and effects of delays in Malaysian construction industry". *International Journal of Project Management*, 25(3) 517-526.
- Scott, W. R. (2001). *Institutions and Organizations*. Thousand Oaks: CA, London: Sage
- Scott, W. Richard, (2004). *Institutional Theory*" 408-14 in *Encyclopaedia of Social Theory*. George Ritzer, ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Construction.
- Singh, G. & Tiong, A. (2005). "Delays in construction projects: The case of Jordan". *International Journal of Project Management*, 26(3) 665-674.
- Sodongi, I. and Amran, O. (2011). "Decision Criteria for Selecting Main Contractors in Malaysia". *Journal of Applied Sciences, Engineering and Technology*, 3(12): 1358-1365.
- Takim, F. and Akintonye, Y. (2002). "Role of procurement function in enhancing performance in devolved government: A case of Machakos County". *International Journal of Social Sciences and Entrepreneurship*, 1 (11) 168-190.
- Visse. (2012). Investing in the Global Infrastructure Boom. www.forwardinvesting.com accessed on 23rd March, 2017
- Wasike, W.S. (2001). "Road infrastructure policies in Kenya: Historical trends and current challenges. KIPPRA Working Paper No. 1. The Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis (KIPPRA)", *Infrastructure and Economic Services Division, Nairobi*, 1-42.
- World Bank (2013). *Infrastructure: Global Priorities, Global Insights*. Washington D.C World Bank Report (2012). *Public Expenditure and Financial Accountability*. Washington D.C World Bank Report (2011). *Comparative Analysis of Public Finance Management Reforms*. Washington DC.
- World Bank Report (2010). *World Bank Support for Public Financial Management: Conceptual Roots and Evidence of Impact*. Working Paper.

Critical Success Factors Influencing Effective Oil Exploration in Buliisa District, Uganda

Paul Buhenga Masiko
Uganda Management Institute, Kampala, Uganda.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explore the Critical Success Factors (CSFs) responsible for the effectiveness of oil exploration in Uganda. Descriptive cross sectional research design was employed. Qualitative and quantitative data were collected from 127 randomly selected respondents using questionnaires and focus group discussions. Multiple regression analysis was employed in testing the hypotheses. Research findings indicated that stakeholder management was the most critical factor for success of oil exploration in Buliisa District. This was followed by human resource competence. This study confirms that the CSFs have a direct influence on effective oil exploration in Buliisa District, Uganda. The paper contributes to literature on oil exploration in Uganda, an area that is still in its inception stages. The study thus recommends stakeholders' management plan to periodically monitor and evaluate the implementation programs of oil exploration. In addition oil exploration organizations should build both human resource and technology competences in terms of skills, knowledge and abilities since they are essential ingredients of knowledge transfer. Future studies should consider longitudinal research design to as well as extending to other oil exploration districts in the Albertine region considering that this study was considered for a short time and in only one oil exploration district of Buliisa.

Key words: Human Resources Competence, Technology Competence, Stakeholders' Management, Effective Oil Exploration, Quality Assurance, Cost Management

Introduction

Oil and Gas deposits occur naturally throughout the world in every continent and ocean (Olmstead, 2001). It is believed that most of the deposits are several thousand meters deep. The oil industry's mission is to find, develop, refine, and market these resources with high economic returns to the owners while protecting the fixed investment in the operation (Mooney & Smith, 2012). The main facets of the oil and gas industry are exploration, production, refining, transportation, and marketing. According to Lyons and Plisga (2005) exploration for oil and gas reservoirs consists mainly of geological testing and drilling of exploratory "wildcat wells". Oil and gas from the drilled well is produced through primary separation facilities, into individual streams and this process requires effective management.

Effective oil exploration represents the first piece of a long petroleum value chain referred to as the upstream. This is followed by the midstream, which includes transportation and oil trading, and lastly the downstream which includes oil refining and marketing (Moffet and Inkpen, 2011). Rockart (1979) describes CSFs as specific to the industry, sector, context sensitive and time. Organizations may need to continuously monitor the market to trace changes in the CSFs. Vasconcellos and Werikhe (2012) contend that CSFs are conditional in nature as they are highly dependent on industry situations. Specifically, Thompson and

Strickland (2005) and Grant (2010) assert that even within a sector of an industry, CSFs are context specific and will vary from time due to changes in industry environment such as competition, technological innovations and maturity of the industry. Kenney (1999) describes CSFs as contributors to achievement of business objectives, pursuing a superior position in the market for the organization in the market. For the organization to realize a superior position in the market, it may be conditioned on its strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) analysis. The study is triangulated demonstrating how CSFs influence effective oil exploration in Buliisa District, Uganda.

The context

In today's increasingly commoditized and globalized business environment, oil companies are finding it necessary to increase their competitive advantage and to boost their operating efficiency and effectiveness (Olmstead, 2001). Yet, achieving this is challenging, especially within the context of the complexity and excessive competition. One strategy that oil companies should employ is the full integration of all assets and processes into a single management system – participation, consultation and inclusion. According to Olmstead (2001) efficiency, effectiveness and strategy for oil exploration are simple.

The Problem

Mooney et al, (2012) observe that oil turned out to be a cursed resource for most oil producing African countries because of conflicts between foreign oil companies and local communities. Oil-related conflicts have evolved around land ownership and compensation for land appropriation as well as compensation for environmental damages due to oil exploration operations (Werikhe 2012). Most of all, the disputes in regard to oil concern oil spills and whether affected communities are eligible for compensation. At the national level, conflicts have centered on sharing of oil revenues, allocation of public goods between various ethnic-regional groups and technology competence (Muwanga & Barifaijo, 2006). Yet, Mooney & Smith (2012), reiterate that regardless of a company's size, location or even industry, one aspect of operational success and excellence that is often overlooked and underrated is "people". This is because; humans are a peculiar resource in any venture. Surprisingly, oil explorers, investors as well as business leaders have overlooked this most critical factor. However, for an oil company to succeed, people management, change management, cultural inclusion and conflict prevention must be at the helm of any venture such as oil exploration.

Literature review

The management competence theory by Prahalad and Hamel (1990) postulates that a core competence is a specific factor that a business considers central to the company or its employees' work. The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2012) describes human resource competence among the CSFs that people need to perform a job.

Edvinsson and Malone (1997); Sveiby (1997), relate the human resource competence to human capital which derives value from intellectual capital. This is illustrated as a tripartite model comprising

human capital, knowledge sharing and internal components. This possibly means that skilled human resource will invariably drive innovation and human capital will subsequently comprehend the benefits of favorable customer, supplier and broader external relations. Human capital is portrayed as critical for businesses to compete effectively (Sveiby, 1997). Fitz-enz, (2000), Bontis and Fitz-enz (2002) singled out human resource competence as critical for business to compete effectively, suggesting that people, not cash, buildings or equipment are critical differentiators of business enterprise to realize success (Fitz-enz, 2000). Kaplan and Norton (1996), Guthrie and Petty (2000) affirm the need for intellectual capital as an asset in terms of competences. Therefore, organizations in the oil sector of Uganda will require personal knowledge management, skill and abilities which depict knowledge sharing as a catalyst to the organization's workforce to realize human resource competence and obtain general success.

At the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development, stakeholders were defined as those who have an interest in a particular decision, either as individuals or representatives of a group. This includes people who influence a decision, or can influence it, as well as those affected by it. Stakeholders might include local community members, non-government organisations, governments, shareholders and employees. It should be recognized that some stakeholders have different value systems, protocols and customs. A critical element of the development of the oil sector is the establishment of a strong partnership between the International oil organizations and the Government of Uganda (Ministry of Energy and Mineral Development, 2008). Stakeholder participation theory has over the years been applied in research, policy and management of natural resources among others (Dearden et al. 2005, Reed 2008, Chapin et al. 2010). The argument for involvement of stakeholders includes; increased efficiency and ownership of decisions (as people are more likely to support and implement decisions they have participated in making); improved accuracy (as a more diverse and broader knowledge base is utilized), and strengthened legitimacy (as people affected by decisions are invited into the process of making them) of management and conservation efforts (McCool and Guthrie 2001, Beierle and Konisky 2001, Colfer 2005).

However, stakeholder engagement is not without critique. Authors such as Brody (2003) contend that the process slows down decision-making, causes conflicts and results in undue compromises. In support, Galaz (2005) argues that decision-making by various stakeholders may block strategic decisions such as avoidance of costly measures in favour of cheap negative consequences among participating resource users. Such outcomes might erode social capital rather than build it (Conley and Moote (2003). The supposition that local participation automatically improves legitimacy of decisions has also been questioned. Powerless and poor people may lack the capacity to participate fully, and so the decisions made in participatory processes might become more biased towards enforcing existing power structures than would decisions made by democratically elected and representative bodies. This process, labeled 'elite capture', has been described several times in the development literature (Platteau and Abraham 2002).

Technology is fundamental to human existence (Burke and Ornstein, 1995; White, 1962). At every stage within the cycle of life, humans continuously attempt to acquire new skills to refine existing skills hoping to enhance productivity and quality of life. However, measuring technological competence as a construct may be achieved by extending the work of Dyrenfurth and Layton as cited in Autio (2011). The scholars identified three components considered the dimensions of technological competence which

include; technological knowledge, technical and technological skills. These skills are often labelled by psychologists as psychomotor skills and are an important component of technological competence. They involve manual coordination and steadiness when using welding or soldering equipment. The third dimension is technological will and relates to being active and enterprising in the area of technology. This means technology is determined by human emotions, motivations, values and personal qualities. Consequently, the development of technology in society is dependent on citizens' will to participate in, and have an impact on technological decisions. Technological competence, in summary, will involve a balance between knowledge, skill, and emotional engagement. This means technological competence is the act of using human inventiveness (Hansen, 2008). Technology innovation will drive innovative projects and processes on budget and on time, requiring constant pressure to learn among the organization members and thus producing more with less. Van Zyl et al., (2011) confirm the constant pressure for organizations to learn because of globalization demands. However, this necessitates organization to work smarter and takes more risks than ever before.

However, the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) by Venkatesh *et al.* (2003), postulate user intentions for new technology and subsequent usage behaviour. The theory assumes four key constructs (performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, and facilitating conditions) which directly determine usage intention and behavior. Gender, age, experience, and voluntariness of use are posited to mediate the impact of the four key constructs on usage intention and behavior. Subsequent validation of UTAUT in a longitudinal study found that it accounts for 70% of the variance in usage intention (Venkatesh *et. al.*, 2003).

Methodology

The research that informed this paper employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches as supported by Sekaran (2002). This was augmented by descriptive cross sectional designs. The triangulation of two designs was found by Babbie (2007) to strengthen quality, validity, as well as affirming the theoretical propositions. She further opines that cross sectional design is more appropriate in this kind of study because there is no need for repeated visits. A sample of 127 knowledgeable oil exploration experts was randomly selected. The response rate was 103, accounting for 81%. Data was analyzed using Factor analysis with the help of SPSS. On the other hand, qualitative data was analyzed through content and thematic analyses.

Findings

Table 1: Demographic Data

1	Respondents' Category	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative
	Senior Management	5	5	5
	Technical Staff	79	79	79
	HR Departments	2	2	2
	Corporate Affairs	2	2	2
	Local Leaders	7	7	7
	Local Councils	4	4	4
	Total	99	100	100
2	Education Levels	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative
	Secondary	25	24.3	24.3
	Diploma	10	9.7	34.0
	Degree	30	29.1	63.1
	Professional	6	7.8	70.9
	Masters	19	20.4	91.3
	Others	9	8.7	100.0
		99	100.0	100
3	Distribution by Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative
	Male	78	78.7	78.7
	Female	21	21.2	21.2
	Total	99	100	100

According to Table 1, majority respondents are technical staff (79%) and most of the respondents have attained post-secondary education. This implies that the workforce had sufficient knowledge and skill to understand the questionnaire and provide relevant responses. On the other hand, only 21 percent of the respondents were female. This can be explained by the socialization around gender roles in the study community where females are less involved in manual tasks associated with the oil and gas sector.

Table 2: Relationship between Study Variables of the Critical Success Factors affecting oil exploration

		Human Resource Competence	Technology Competence	Stakeholder Management	Oil Exploration Effectiveness
Human Resource Competence	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	103			
Technology Competence	Pearson Correlation	.480**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	103	103		
Stakeholder Management	Pearson Correlation	.440**	.361**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		
	N	103	103	103	
Oil Exploration Effectiveness	Pearson Correlation	.413**	.351**	.683**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	103	103	103	103
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

Source: Primary data (2015).

According to Table 2, there was a significant positive relationship between human resource competence and effective oil exploration ($r=.413$; $p=.000<0.05$) at 95% level of significance. This implies that enhancing the human competence such as knowledge, skills and abilities will contribute to an improvement in oil exploration effectiveness. Findings further indicate a significant positive relationship between technology competence and oil exploration ($r = .351$, $P = .000 < 0.05$) at 95% level of significance. This shows that enhancing technology competence such as industry-wide technical competences and industry-specific technical competences will contribute to the success of oil exploration in Buliisa District. Finally, results showed a significant positive relationship between the stakeholder management and oil exploration ($r = .683$, $P=.000 < 0.05$) at 95% level of significance. This implies a strong positive and significant relationship, which means that efforts to enhance stakeholder management can substantially contribute to the success of oil exploration in Buliisa District.

Relatedly, interviews with local practitioners and community leaders in Buliisa district indicated awareness and sensitivity to quality of human resource, stakeholder management, emerging technology and preservation environmental issues. The Drilling Supervisor in the Bugungu Oil Camp observed that human resource should be exposed to enhanced efficient competencies through research and development and adopt to the most efficient means of production (use of technologies) to operate at the minimum cost possible.

The elder of the Bagungu community in Buliisa District observed that the structure of Uganda’s economy is still at infant level and suggested that local practitioners in the oil sector should strive to acquire knowledge from the foreign oil companies.

The town clerk and Chairman of the Land Board in Buliisa District observed that there is need to specify the roles and responsibilities of each stakeholder to deter duplication of roles. He pointed out that there is a constant threat of the possibility of CSOs and the World Bank not allowing the region to be exploited for oil considering the fragile ecosystem in the Albertine Graben region.

Multiple regression results

Multiple regression analysis was used to find out the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable. The dependent variable considered was effective oil exploration. Table 3 presents the regression model of the variables.

Table 3: Coefficients for the Critical Success Factors affecting oil exploration

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.985	.353		2.789	.006
	Human Resource Competence	.108	.087	.107	1.236	.219
	Technology Competence	.088	.091	.081	.966	.336
	Stakeholder Management	.551	.074	.607	7.439	.000
a. Dependent Variable: Oil Exploration Effectiveness						

Source: Primary data (2015).

Table 3 shows the effect of the independent variable as measured by a standardised regression (B). This was used to determine whether the independent variable had a controlling effect on the dependent variable. The results show that statistically, human resource competence has a standardised coefficient (B) of 0.107, meaning that human resource competence explains the variations of the dependent variable by 10.8 percent, which further implies that human resource competence has a positive effect on the success of oil exploration in Buliisa district. Hence, if there is any improvement in human resource competences, there is likely to be a corresponding effect in terms of effectiveness of oil exploration. The results further show that statistically, technology competence has a standardised coefficient (B) of 0.088, meaning that technology competence explains variations of oil exploration effectiveness by 8.8 percent. Hence, any alteration on technology competence is likely to lead to a corresponding effect on effectiveness of oil exploration in Buliisa District. Finally, the model shows that stakeholder management had a standardised coefficient (B) of 0.551, implying that it explains the variations in effectiveness of oil exploration in Buliisa District by 55.1 percent. This is further explained in model summary in the Table 4.

Table 4: Model summary for Critical Success Factors affecting oil exploration

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.698 ^a	.487	.472	.43469
a. Predictors: (Constant), Stakeholder Management, Technology Competence, Human Resource Competence				

Source: Primary data (2015).

The regression model summary in Table 4 shows that stakeholder management, technology competence and human resource competence all had a positive effect on the effectiveness of oil exploration in Buliisa District. This was evidenced by the adjusted R squared (R^2) = 0.472 or 47.2%, implying that all the three independent variables combined accounted for 47.2 percent of the variations in oil exploration effectiveness. The rest of the variation could be attributed to other factors outside of this study. To explain this further, the analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed as shown in Table 5;

Table 5: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA^b)

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	17.791	3	5.930	31.384	.000 ^a
	Residual	18.707	99	.189		
	Total	36.497	102			
a. Predictors: (Constant), Stakeholder Management, Technology Competence, Human Resource Competence						
b. Dependent Variable: Oil Exploration Effectiveness						

Source: Primary data (2015).

The analysis of variance was used to confirm the quality of the regression model summary results. The analysis of variance “F” as shown in Table 5 is 31.384 with a significance of 0.000. This shows that “F” is statistically significant and implies that stakeholder management, technology competence and human resource competence have a statistically significant effect on oil exploration effectiveness in Buliisa District.

Discussion of findings

The first objective of this study was to establish whether human resource competence has an effect on effectiveness of oil exploration as a tripartite model which comprises of human capital, knowledge sharing and internal components and thus making the role of human capital central to the organization as a whole. The findings indicated that human resource competence has a significant positive relationship with effectiveness of oil exploration. The correlations indicate that human resource competence tends to pair with relatively high project success after the factor analysis, and vice versa. Kaplan and Norton (1996); Guthrie and Petty (2000) affirm the need for intellectual capital as an intangible asset in the form of competence processes and people have become vital resources for an organization in the twenty first century in transit to the information age to comprehend current wealth and future wealth. The previously mentioned

reasons affirm human capital as critical for businesses to compete effectively (Sveiby, 1997). Fitz-enz, (2000); Bontis and Fitz-enz, (2002) confirm human capital as the most critical factor if business are to compete effectively, suggesting people, not cash, buildings or equipment are critical differentiators of business enterprise to achieve success (Fitz-enz,2000,p.1).

Kaplan and Norton (1996); Guthrie and Petty (2000), also affirm the need for intellectual capital as an intangible asset in form of competence processes and people to become vital resources for an organization in the twenty first century.

The second objective of the study was to find out the effect of technology competence on oil exploration. The research findings indicated that technology competence as an organization strategy has a significant positive relationship with enhancement of effectiveness of oil exploration. Appropriate organization strategy for technology competence strongly contributes towards project success and technology competence emphasizes technology as basic to human existence (Burke and Ornstein, 1995; White, 1962). This means that at every stage within the cycle of life, humans continuously attempt to acquire new skills to refine existing skills in pursuit of enhanced productivity and quality of life. Skilled labor motivates nearly every human activity. In a democratic society, citizens get to know something about technological concepts and principles, as well as the nature and history of technology. Technical and technological skills are two skills that are part of most human activities and are vital for the survival of humankind. Skills are often labeled by psychologists as psychomotor skills and are an important component of technological competence. They involve tangible ability, as well as practical intelligence, which relates to being active and enterprising. This means technology is determined by human emotions, motivations, values and personal qualities. Consequently, the development of technology in society is dependent on citizens' technological will to participate and have an impact on an individual or society (Hansen, 2008).

The third objective of the study was to determine the effect of stakeholder management and effectiveness of oil exploration among its partners. The research findings indicated that the organization's strategy for stakeholder management has a significant positive relationship with effectiveness of oil exploration among the partners. As an organization strategy,

Stakeholder management strongly contributes towards project success (Turner and Muller, 2003; Bourne, 2005, 2006 and 2007; Kerzner, 1997). Reviewed literature also indicates that project success is linked to the strength of the relationships created by effective regular planned and adhoc communication with all stakeholders (Bourne & Walker, 2005). In another perspective, Kerzner, (1997) states that project success is often measured by the actions of three groups namely; project manager and project team, the parent organization and customer organization. This implies that interplay between and among project stakeholders have a bearing towards project success. Further, Bourne, (2005, 2006) notes that categorization and charting of stakeholders holds the key to targeting the right stakeholders at the right time in the project life cycle and provides them with appropriate engagement, information and communication according to their direction of influence. This notion implies that stakeholder identification should be continuous to have an update organization strategy for stakeholder management. This means that an organization will have to be alert and flexible to suit the dynamism of their stakeholders. Similarly Kerzner, (1997) notes that the modern project

manager relies on the need to have dynamic organizational structures to enhance project success. An organization with poor stakeholder relationship management is bound to have an inappropriate organizational strategy for stakeholder management and hence compromise its success. This means organizations should strive to maintain good relationship with its stakeholders a condition which will determine the success of the project undertaking. There is great chance for organizations that score highly in project success to register good relationships with their stakeholders.

Conclusions

Human resource competence affects the organization strategy for Information management, technical skills development and influence of managerial hierarchy which are the most CSF within human resource competence. Thus, to achieve effectiveness of oil exploration in Uganda's oil sector, the learning organization may conduct benchmarking with the more experienced organizations. The learning organization is understood through social networking analysis, which means effectiveness of oil exploration will be synonymous with growth of personnel knowledge which translates into better services or products.

Results for this study indicate that collaboration network and recognizable application of new technology were the most CSF within technology competence. The effectiveness of oil exploration should be engaged within the organization strategy to manage technology competence. The collaboration network and recognizable operation of new technology is achieved through knowledge sharing with the external business environment through communities of practice.

The research findings indicated leadership as key in the management of Uganda's oil exploration sector. The most CSFs in stakeholder management have been identified as; Leadership accessibility to accurate information and its exploration, leadership commitment to oil exploration because other stakeholders expect them, leadership goodwill to oil exploration, leadership commitment to oil exploration as a result of mutual benefit, leadership with the highest influence in the management of the oil sector and influence of the local government administration with regards to oil exploration.

Recommendations

Government of Uganda should improve technical know-how and technology transfer through partnerships with higher institutions of learning as a means to uphold high skills in the oil sector and ensure oil career development. Government of Uganda should utilize the oil expatriates, benchmark with experienced oil companies, train staff externally and devise competitor strategies to improve quality of personnel in the oil sector.

The Government of Uganda should monitor data entry, analysis and sharing in order to make evidence-based decisions. Government needs to uphold the existing information management systems and sensitize employees on their usage and merits.

Government of Uganda and the relevant sectors should encourage and support geologists and other scientists in their quest for research and development in oil exploration and related activities.

Top management should work hand in hand with middle management because middle managers have a direct supervisory role in field operations which makes them privy to information on practical issues affecting personnel performance and which may inform decision making at top management level.

The Government should support local enterprise development by hiring local suppliers and collaborating with local organizations in Buliisa District to achieve enterprise development through oil exploration. Community development programs such as Buliisa Health Outreach Program, Education Programs and Enterprise Development should be enforced as well.

Stakeholder management should be enhanced but premised on the fact that oil exploration can only exist with informed consent of stakeholder community.

Government of Uganda should provide a recovery oil fund to implement conservation projects and mitigate specific implications of oil on the social, economic and political landscape along Albertine Graben. Safeguarding local culture, species such as birds and marine life should be conducted jointly across the concerned ministries.

The Ministry of Energy and other stakeholders should design restoration projects to prevent and reduce further loss of; savannah grass, fish and wild life and promote conservation to preserve Buliisa District's Eco system.

Government should fund research to investigate the effect of compensation on the community as a result of oil exploration in Buliisa district, safety at the oil sites, community concerns as a result of their experience with major oil projects at the exploration stage.

Government of Uganda through the concerned sectors should conduct an in-depth study of stakeholder relationships in the Albertine Graben region to address individual stakeholder concerns and forestall stakeholder conflicts.

Government of Uganda and Partners to study the entire Upstream of the Petroleum value chain in Uganda's context.

References

- Amin, M. (2005). *Social science research, conception, methodology & analysis*: Makerere University.
- Ansell, C., & Gash, A. (2006). *Collaborative Governance in Theory and Practice*. Paper presented at the Center for Organizational Research. University of California, Irvine.
- Aran., (2009). Case study research design and methods. Available:
<http://littlecomputerscientist.wordpress.com/2009/06/18/notes-on-case-study-research-design-and-methods/> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Autio., O. (2011). The Development of Technological Competence from Adolescence to Adulthood. *Journal of Technology Education*, Vol. 22 Number 2, pp.72.
- Babbie., E. (2007). *The practice of social research*, (11th edition). Thomson Wads Worth.
- Beierle, T. C., & Konisky, D. M. (2001). What are we gaining from stakeholder involvement? Observations from environmental planning in the Great Lakes. *Environment and Planning C*, Vol. 19 Number 4, pp. 515-528.

- Billikopf, G. (2006). Managing people on the farm. Available: <http://www.cnr.berkeley.edu/ucce50/ag-labor/7labor/01.htm> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Bontis., N., and Fitz-enz, J., (2002), —Intellectual capital ROI: a causal map of human capital antecedents and consequentsl, *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, Vol3 Number 3, pp.223-247.
- Brody, S. D. (2003). Measuring the effects of stakeholder participation on the quality of local plans based on the principles of collaborative ecosystem management. *Journal of planning education and research*, Vol. 22, Number 4, pp. 407-419.
- Brooking., A. (1996). *Intellectual Capital: Core Assets for the Third Millennium Enterprise*, Thompson Business Press, London.
- Burke., J, Ornstein, R. (1995). *The axe maker's gift: A double edged history of human culture*. New York: Putnam's.
- Cassiman, B and Valentini, G., (2009), Strategic organization of Research and Development: the choice of basicness and openness, *Journal of Strategic Organization*, Vol.7, Number 1, pp.43-73.
- Chapin, F. S., Carpenter, S. R., Kofinas, G. P., Folke, C., Abel, N., Clark, W. C., ... & Swanson, F. J. (2010). Ecosystem stewardship: sustainability strategies for a rapidly changing planet. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, Vol. 25 Number 4, pp.241-249.
- Chartered Institute of personnel and development. (2012). Competence and competency 138 Frame works. Available: http://www.cipd.co.uk/hr-resources/factsheets/competence-competency-frameworks.aspx#link_cipd_view (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Colfer, C. J. P. (2005). *The complex forest: communities, uncertainty, and adaptive collaborative management*. Resources for the Future.
- Conley, A., & Moote, M. A. (2003). Evaluating collaborative natural resource management. *Society & Natural Resources*, Vol.16, Number 5, pp. 371-386.
- Council on Library and Information Resources., (2005). The business risk model. Available: <http://www.clir.org/PUBS/reports/pub90/appendix1.html> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Dan, Z and Barclay, I (2006). Complexity theory and knowledge management application: The electronic *Journal of Knowledge management*, Vol. 4, Number 1, pp.11-20.
- Dearden, P., Bennett, M., & Johnston, J. (2005). Trends in global protected area governance, 1992–2002. *Environmental management*, Vol.36 Number 1, pp.89-100.
- De Wit B., Meyer R., (2004). *Strategy: Process, Content, Context: An International Perspective*. London: Thomson Learning.
- DenzinN., and Lincoln Y. (Eds.) *The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues*. Duit, A. (2012). *Stakeholder participation, learning and ecosystem management*. Statsvetenskaplig tidskrift, 77.
- Duit, A., Galaz, V., Eckerberg, K., & Ebbesson, J. (2010). Governance, complexity, and resilience. *Global environmental change*, Vol. 20 Number 3, pp.363-368.
- Earl, M J., (1994). The new and the old of Business Process Redesign. *Journal of Strategic Information Systems*, Vol.3 Number 1, pp.5-22.
- Edvinsson, L., and Malone, M., (1997). *Intellectual capital: Realizing your company's true value by finding its hidden brainpower*. New York, NY: Harper Business.

- Energy Information Administration., (2008). *U.S. crude oil, natural gas and natural gas liquids reserves 2008 annual report*. Washington: Energy Information Administration.
- Ennis, R, M. (2008).Competency models: A review of the literature and the role of the Employment and Training Administration (E.T.A). Available: http://www.careeronestop.org/competencymodel/info_documents/OPDRLiteratureReview.pdf (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Fai, F and Tunzelmann, N, V (n.d). Industry-specific competences and converging technological systems: evidence from patents. Available: www.bath.ac.uk/management/research/pdf/2000-08.pdf (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Fitz-enz, J., (2000), *The Return on Investment of Human Capital*. Amacom, New York. Fontaine, C, Haarman, A and Schmid, S. (2006).The Stakeholder theory. Available: <http://www.edalys.fr/documents/Stakeholders%20theory.pdf> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Freeman, R.E, Andrew C.W and Parmar, B. (2004).Stakeholder Theory and The Corporate Objective Revisited. *Organization Science*. Vol.15, Number 3, pp.364-368.
- Fries B, Baumgartner RJ (2008). *Success factors of petroleum exploration and production companies*. Int. J. Serv. Oper. Manage. 4: 145- 164.
- Galaz, V. (2005). Social-ecological resilience and social conflict: institutions and strategic adaptation in Swedish water management. *AMBIO: A Journal of the Human Environment*, Vol.34 Number 7, pp.567-572.
- Global Witness., (2010).Donor engagement in Uganda’s Oil and Gas sector. An agenda for Action. Available: <http://allafrica.com/download/resource/main/main/idatcs/00020330:2d7455ab043ea47579c c34 3c2a1a9fb4.pdf> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Grant, R, M., (2010).*Contemporary Strategy Analysis: Text & Cases (7 edition.)*.Chichester: John Wiley and Sons.
- Grunert K.G, Ellegaard C (1993). *The concept of key success factors: theory and method*. Chichester: John Wiley.
- Guthrie, J., and Petty, R., (2000) —Intellectual Capital: Australian Annual Reporting Practices!, *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, Vol 1, Number 3: pp.241–51.
- Hahn-Hägerdal, B., Galbe, M., Gorwa-Grauslund, M. F., Lidén, G., & Zacchi, G. (2006). Bio-ethanol—the fuel of tomorrow from the residues of today. *Trends in biotechnology*, Vol. 24 Number 12, pp.549-556.
- Hansen, R. (2008). *Human ingenuity research project*.5th Annual International Conference on Technology Education Research. Griffith Institute for Educational Research, Brisbane, Australia.
- Hewlett, Barry, S., and Bonnie, H., L. (2008). *Ebola, Culture and Politics: The Anthropology of an Emerging Disease*. Belmont, USA: Thomson Wards Worth.
- Imaka, I and Tamale, M. (2012, November 27th) *The Petroleum Bill 2012*, Daily Monitor.
- Inkpen, A., and Moffett,M., H. (2011).*The Global oil and Gas Industry*. Penn Well Corporation. Tulsa, Oklahoma.
- Jjumba, R.J. (2002). *An Analysis of Human Resource capacity Development Function in NGOs in Uganda. A Case Study of YMCA and foundation of human rights initiative*. Uganda management institute.

- Jingjing W (2006). *A Study of perceived Key Factors of Success among salmon importers and distributors in shanghai*. Norway: University of Tromso.
- Jones, G.R. (2004). *Organizational Theory, Design, and Change*, (4th edition). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Kabagambe, F.K. (2012, August 25th) *we will start using our oil by 2014*, Saturday Vision. Kabanda, F: *Overview of Uganda's Upstream Petroleum Sector*. (2008). A presentation at a workshop of lawyers on Energy Law and Policy: Kampala: Ministry of Energy and Mineral development.
- Kalkan, V. D. (2008). An Overall View of Knowledge Management challenges for Global Business. *Business process Management*, Vol.14 Number 3. pp.390-400.
- Kanter, R. M. (2000). The enduring skills of change leaders Ivey. *Business Journal*, Vol.64 Number 5 pp. 31-37.
- Kaplan, R., and Norton, D., 1996, Using the Balanced Scorecard as a strategic management system, *Harvard Business Review*, January-February.
- Karugaba, M. (2011, November29th).*Oil firm licences still valid-energy officials*, New Vision.
- Kasita, I. (2012). Uganda Oil Exploration Company Finds Empty Well, Looses Millions. Available: <http://www.africa-uganda-business-travel-guide.com/uganda-oil-exploration-company-finds-empty-well-looses-millions.html> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Kathman, J and Shannon, M. (2011).Oil Extraction and the Potential for Domestic Instability in Uganda. *African Studies Quarterly*, Vol.12 Issue 3, pp24-45.
- Kenney, D.S (1999). *Are community-based watershed groups really effective?* Confronting the thorny issue of measuring success. *Chronicle Community*, 3: 33-37.
- Kiiza, E. (2012, May 29th) *Bunyoro deserves 10% of oil revenue*,New vision.
- Kisambira, E. (2009). Uganda: Oil Reserves Rival Saudi Arabia's, Says U.S. Expert.Available: <http://allafrica.com/stories/printable/200906020555.html> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Know Kapital. (2012). What is Knowledge capital? Available: http://www.knowkapital.com/index.php?option=com_content&view=category&id=48&Itemid=26&lang=en (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Krejcie, R, V. (n.d). Determining Sample size for research activities. Available: <http://people.usd.edu/~mbaron/edad810/Krejcie.pdf> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Lebel, L., Anderies, J. M., Campbell, B., Folke, C., Hatfield-Dodds, S., Hughes, T. P., & Wilson, J. (2006). *Governance and the capacity to manage resilience in regional social-ecological systems*.
- Levin, D, Z, Cross, R, Abrams, L, C and Lesser, E, L. (2002).Trust and Knowledge sharing: A critical combination. *IBM Institute for knowledge Based Organizations* Vol.1 Number 9. Available: [http://www.ibm.com/services/insights/ibv-trust and know.htm](http://www.ibm.com/services/insights/ibv-trust%20and%20know.htm) (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Lincoln, Y.S and Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA:Sage. Loo, R. (2002). The Delphi method: A powerful tool for strategic management. *Policing*, Vol.25 Number 4 pp. 762-770.
- Maak, T. and Pless, N. M. (2006). Responsible leadership in a stakeholder society: A Relational perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol.66, 99-115.
- Management study guide. (2012).McClelland's Theory of Needs. Available: <http://www.managementstudyguide.com/mcclellands-theory-of-needs.htm> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).

- McCool, S. F., & Guthrie, K. (2001). Mapping the dimensions of successful public participation in messy natural resources management situations. *Society & Natural Resources*, Vol.14 Number 4, pp. 309-323.
- Mugenda. O and Mugenda. G. (1999). Research methods: Quantitative and qualitative approaches.
- Mugerwa, F. (2012, June 26th). Dire state of oil communities shocks MPS, Daily Monitor.
- Mugisha, A. R., & Jacobson, S. K. (2004). Threat reduction assessment of conventional and community-based conservation approaches to managing protected areas in Uganda. *Environmental conservation*, Vol. 31 Number 03, pp. 233-241.
- Mwakali, J.A and Byaruhanga, J, N, M., (n.d). Local content in the Oil and Gas Industry: Implications for Uganda. Available: <http://news.mak.ac.ug/documents/Makfiles/aet2011/Mwakali.pdf> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Mintzberg H, Ahlstrand B, and Lampel J. (1998). *Strategy Safari: A Guided Tour through the Wilds of Strategic Management*. New York: The Free Press.
- Ministry of Energy and Mineral development: Annual report (2010). Kampala: Ministry of Energy and Mineral Development.
- Ministry of Energy and Mineral Development: National Oil and Gas Policy for Uganda. (2008). Kampala: Ministry of Energy and Mineral Development. Available: <http://wildugandablog.com/wp-content/uploads/2010/06/national-oil-and-gas-policy-for-uganda.pdf> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Ministry of Water and Environment: Performance report (2011). Kampala: Ministry of Water and Environment.
- Moesinger, K and Maglio, A. (1997). Ogoni and Nigeria conflict over oil. Available: <http://www1.american.edu/ted/ice/ogonioil.htm> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Musisi, N, A. (2009). *Stakeholder Management & Compliance with election guidelines in Uganda. A case study of the 2006 elections in Kasese Town Council* Unpublished dissertation for masters in management studies (project planning and management). Uganda Management Institute.
- Nakiyemba, J. (2009). *Management of stakeholder and project success among humanitarian organizations northern Uganda. A case study of war child Holland* Unpublished dissertation for masters in management studies (project planning and management). Uganda Management Institute
- Njuba, D. (2010). *Contribution of rewards to teachers' retention in private secondary schools in Luwero District: A case study of Wobulenzi Town Council*. Unpublished dissertation for masters in Management studies (HRM). Uganda Management Institute.
- Nonaka, I, and Takeuchi, H. (1995). *The knowledge-creating company*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Nguyen, S. (2010). Implementing Change and Overcoming Resistance. Available: <http://workplacepsychology.net/2010/02/05/implementing-change-and-overcoming-resistance/> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Nsamba., Y, Mugasa, B., Kitalibara, I, Bitamale, I, Muliinda, W, Irumba, A, Jilly, N, Byarufu, M, K, Muhumuza, J, Nyakatura, P, Kajura, J, Rwamukaga, E and Akugizibwe, I. (2012). Action oriented research to strengthen Bunyoro Kingdom to defend her cultural heritage from negative impacts of Oil and gas industry development in Uganda. Available: http://www.nape.or.ug/lib/RESEARCH_BUNYORO_HERRITAGE_&_OIL-GAS_INDUSTRY_2012.pdf (Accessed on 28th June 2012).

- OmukamaIguru 1, S, G. (2012, June20th).*Colonial agreement on resources still stands, says Bunyoro king*, Oil in Uganda.
- OpenLearningWorld.com (2011).Stakeholders in the Process. Available: <http://www.openlearningworld.com/books/Introduction%20to%20Strategic%20Management/Stakeholders%20in%20the%20Process/Stakeholders%20in%20the%20Process.html> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Platteau, J. P., & Abraham, A. (2002). Participatory development in the presence of endogenous community imperfections. *Journal of Development Studies*, Vol.39 Number 2, pp.104-136.
- Pretty, J., & Ward, H. (2001). Social capital and the environment. *World development*, Vol.29 Number 2, pp.209-227.
- Reed, M. S. (2008). Stakeholder participation for environmental management: *a literature review*. *Biological conservation*, Vol.141 Number 10, pp. 2417-2431.
- Rockart J. (1979). —Chief executives define their own information needs. *Harvard Business Review*, March - April 1979, pp. 81-92.
- RWE Dea.(n.d).More gas and oil through expertise. Available: <http://www.rwe.com/web/cms/mediablob/en/53802/data/54434/17/rwe-dea-norge/media-centre/RWE-Dea-More-gas-and-oil-through-expertise.pdf> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Sandersen, H. T., & Koester, S. (2000). Co-management of tropical coastal zones: The case of the Soufriere marine management area, St. Lucia, WI. *Coastal Management*, Vol.28 Number 1, pp.87-97.
- Sarantakos, S. (2005). *Social Research* (3rd Edition).Pelgrave Macmillan, Newyork.
- Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research methods for Business: A skill Building Approach*. Southern Illinois University, (4th Ed).New jersey: John Wiley & sons, Inc.
- Sheikhzadeh, M, Arasti, M.R and Kotobzadeh, R. (2012).Identifying key success factors in upstream sector of oil and gas industry in Iran. *African Journal of Business Management*, Vol.6 Number 20, pp.6156-6165.
- Sirota, D. Mischkind, L.A. and Meltzer, M.I. (2005).*The enthusiastic employee: How companies profit by giving employees what they want*. Prentice Hall, New Jersey USA.
- Stringer, J. S., Zulu, I., Levy, J., Stringer, E. M., Mwango, A., Chi, B. H., & Sinkala, M. (2006). Rapid scale-up of antiretroviral therapy at primary care sites in Zambia: feasibility and early outcomes. *Jama*, Vol. 296 Number 7, pp. 782-793.
- Sudtongkong, C., & Webb, E. L. (2008). Outcomes of state-vs. community-based mangrove management in southern Thailand. *Ecology and Society*, Vol. 13 Number 2, pp. 27.
- Summit, J. (2002). World summit on sustainable development. *Johannesburg Summit. org*. nd Web.
- Sveiby, K. E. (1997), *The New Organizational Wealth: Managing and Measuring Knowledge based Assets*, Berrett-Kohler, San Francisco, CA.
- Thierauf R. 1982. “*Decision Support Systems for Effective Planning and Control: A Case study Approach*”. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs USA.
- Thompson J.D, Strickland A (2005).*Crafting and Executing Strategy*. New York: McGraw- Hill.
- Tullow Oil plc. (2012). Exploration Success. Available: <http://www.tulloil.com/index.asp?pageid=48> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).

- Uganda Wildlife Authority. (2009). Maintaining the conservation and tourism value of protected areas in petroleum development zones of the Albertine Rift: Ensuring Win-Win Policy Approaches. Available: http://www.uws.or.ug/wp-content/uploads/Oil_Document3.pdf (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- United Nations Education and scientific and cultural organization. (2003). Social and human sciences: Best practices on indigenous knowledge. Available: <http://www.unesco.org/most/bpindi.htm> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- United Nations. (2002). Report of the world summit on sustainable development. Available: www.unmillenniumproject.org/.../131... (Accessed on 28th June 2015).
- Valle, V. (2000). Chaos, Complexity and deterrence. Available: <http://www.au.af.mil/au/awc/awcgate/ndu/valle.pdf> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- Van Zyl, E. S., Kleynhans, R., & Du Plessis, M. (2011). Understanding and approaching the cultural gap between first world leaders and their third world workforce: An African focus. *Afr. J. Bus. Manage*, Vol.5 Number 17, pp.7171-7178.
- Vasconcellos, E.S, Hambrick, D.C (1989). Key Factors of Success: Test of a General Theory in the Mature Industrial- Product Sector. *Strategy. Manage. J.*, 10: 367-382.
- Venkatesh, V, Morris, MG, Davis, G.B. Davis, F.D. (2003). User Acceptance of Information Technology: Toward A Unified view. *MisQuarterly* Vol. 27 Number 3, pp.425-478.
- Walonick, D.S. (1993). General systems theory. Available: <http://statpac.org/walonick/systems-theory.htm> (Accessed on 28th June 2012).
- White, L. (1962). *Medieval technology and social change*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Wiig, K. (1993). *Knowledge Management Foundations: Thinking about Thinking How Organizations Create, Represent and Use Knowledge*. Schema Press.
- Yaffee, S. L. (1996). *Ecosystem management in the United States: an assessment of current experience*. Island Press.
- Yang, J, Shen, G,Q, Ho, M, Drew, D,S and Chan, A,P,C (2009) Exploring critical success factors for stakeholder management in construction projects. *Journal of civil engineering and management* Vol. 15 Number 4 pp. 337-348.

Challenges and Emerging Issues Affecting the Management of Refugees in Uganda

Pius Gumisiriza

Uganda Management Institute, Kampala, Uganda, piusgumisiriza@yahoo.com

Abstract

Uganda is well known globally for its favourable refugee policies and now hosts over one million of them. However, this has come with many complex refugee management challenges especially given that most of these refugees entered the country sporadically in 2016 after the outbreak of fighting in South Sudan. This article uses secondary sources and primary data gathered from refugees, refugees' host communities, the government, development partners, UN refugee agencies and NGOs to examine these challenges. Key among them are logistical difficulties; high costs of access to services by refugees in the face of limited resources; syndicated corruption within core refugee management institutions; emerging conflicts between host communities and refugees over access to scarce resources especially firewood, water, land for cultivation, health services and schools; bureaucratic challenges that stifle reunification of refugees who came later with their families; security threats to refugees, especially illegal kidnaps and repatriation but also terrorists and spies disguising as refugees. The most sustainable solution echoed by refugees, government officials, aid workers and host communities is resolving conflicts in the countries generating them, especially within the region.

Keywords: Challenges, Refugees, Management, Conflict, Repatriation

Introduction

Uganda is not alone in receiving a huge influx and hosting of protracted refugees (those staying for a period above five years) in recent years. By the year 2010, it was estimated that 15.2 million people were refugees outside their country of nationality or country of habitual residence globally (Gomez and Christensen, 2010). By 2018, this number had increased to 22 million mainly because of the protracted conflict in the Palestinian territories and wars in countries such as Syria, Yemen, Somalia, Afghanistan and South Sudan. The 1951 UN Refugee Convention stated voluntary repatriation, third country resettlement, and local integration as equal, complementary and durable solutions for protracted refugee situations (Kibreab, 1989; Jacobsen, 2001). However, concerns about the negative economic, cultural, environmental, and security impacts of large-scale refugee populations in their countries led developed countries to renege on their share of responsibility to receive refugees for resettlement in favour of repatriation or settlement in countries next to those producing the refugees (Crisp, 2003, 2004). In more recent years, the rise of nationalist leaders and parties in the United States and in Europe, especially in Hungary, Austria, Poland, Greece, Italy, France and Spain, have significantly complicated resettlement or receiving of refugees in these countries. As a result, many developing countries such as Uganda, Kenya, Pakistan, Jordan, and Turkey, among others, have been left with a huge burden of hosting refugees from South Sudan, Somalia, Afghanistan, Palestine and Syria respectively. However, even these developing countries have different capacities and face different challenges in their ability to host and manage refugees in

their territories. Uganda has a lot of experience in hosting refugees extending back to the 1940s when Polish refugees were settled at Nyabyeya (in Masindi District) and Koja (in Mukono District) before resettlement in Australia, Britain and Canada. In the mid 1950s, another wave of refugees from the Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Burundi, Sudan, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Sierra-Leone, Senegal, Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe also started arriving in Uganda (Pirou, 1988). Continuous political and military upheavals, especially in Burundi, the DRC and South Sudan, resulted in a continuous influx of refugees into Uganda. With support from the international community, Uganda was coping well with hosting refugees up to 2016 and received constant praise globally for its progressive refugee policies (Vogelsang, 2017). However, in July 2016, a new war manifesting terrible fighting erupted in South Sudan and millions of people fled for their lives, with an estimated one million refugees thought to have poured into Uganda in a period of less than one year. This was an unprecedented experience and it came with new challenges and new issues have since emerged. This article specifically examines these challenges and emerging issues in the management of refugees in Uganda now. The article includes a literature review, a methodology, concurrent presentation and discussion of findings, recommendations, conclusion and references.

Literature Review

Most refugees in Uganda live and are managed in established refugee settlements at Nakivale, Oruchinga, Kyaka II, Kyangwali, Rhino Camp, Imvepi, Kali, Palorinya, Acholpii, Nyeu, Nyumanzi I, Nyumanzi II, Olijji, Ukusijioni, Ramogi, Robidire, Umwiya, Uhirijoni, Obilikogo, Kolididi, Maaji Alere I, Alere II, Arra, Baratuku, Biyaya, Elema, Ibibiaworo; Keyo I, Keyo II, Keyo III, Magburu, Mongola and the transitory camp of Miriye, all scattered in different regions of the country. While they are considered a minority compared to the overall refugee numbers, there is quite a huge urban refugee population in Uganda that live on their own and get no or very limited day-to-day services from refugee agencies. This is mainly due to the fact that according to the Ugandan government's policy, refugees opting to live outside the settlement are undocumented 'aliens' who do not get protection or recognition by the UNHCR and therefore receive no direct or indirect assistance (Vogelsang, 2017). Studies have indicated that refugees do not know whether their future lies in their home country, host country or a third country for seventeen years on average (Jacobsen, 2002b). Between 1999 and 2013, the number of protracted refugee situations – those that last more than five years increased significantly (Kreibaum, 2016). And yet they live (especially those in Africa) in insecure, neglected, peripheral border areas with harsh climatic conditions, and are usually people with special needs (Crisp, 2004). Due to limited international attention as a consequence of donor fatigue, restricted refugees' rights and limited possibilities for local integration, local settlement and self-reliance strategies, which cut costs for humanitarian donors when providing essential needs to refugee populations, became an alternative strategy to cope with protracted refugee situations (Kaiser, 2005). In Uganda, with support from the UNHCR, the government began implementing the Self-Reliance Strategy (SRS) in 1999 by integrating services between refugees and nationals into regular government structures and policies and systematically tried to move away from relief to development by providing refugees with a starter's kit of non-food items, plots of land for shelter and agricultural production especially in settlements, food aid that is gradually withdrawn over a period of four years except for

people with special needs (PSNs), allowing refugees to settle with freedom of movement, integration with the local communities, have the right to work, establish businesses and access to social services (*Refugee Act 2006*; Hunter, 2009; *Refugee Regulations 2010*; Kreibaum, 2016). The major achievements of the SRS have been in the foundations laid for integrated programming, improved service delivery by refugee-hosting district local governments and an improved legal regime all of which have earned Uganda praise from the international community (Vogelsang, 2017). However, several scholars have consistently described Uganda's settlement approach and SRS as a failure because it is predominantly used to serve the political agenda of the Government of Uganda, the UNHCR, the donor community, and does not necessarily improve the lives of refugees in Uganda (Crisp, 2003; Hovil, 2007). Others have argued that it is the refugee assistance that is integrated rather than refugees themselves (Kaiser, 2005). Internationally, from the very outset, the SRS was deliberately and solely designed to serve the interests of UNHCR and the international donors by decreasing material output and costs, which left refugees disempowered (Meyer, 2006; Hunter, 2009). Domestically, it has been pointed out that the government of Uganda and the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) allocate refugees land that is neither adequate for nutritional self-sufficiency and deliberately locate settlements in sparsely populated rural areas that in many ways reinforce differences, make refugees socially and economically vulnerable and unable to access key services such as healthcare yet they are at a high risk of experiencing high-profile epidemics such as malaria, hepatitis B, measles, typhoid and cholera, among others (Pommier, 2014; Schmidt, 2014; Darby, 2015; Hovil and Kigozi, 2015; Ambroso, 2016; Amvesi, 2016).

As Uganda and its refugee managing stakeholders were dealing with the day-to-day issues of refugees; a new refugee crisis erupted in 2016 when fresh fighting broke out in South Sudan and millions of people fled the country. It is estimated that over a million people sought refuge in Uganda and the entire process of receiving, settling and taking care of them created new challenges. New issues have since emerged including emergency creation of new settlements irrespective of the previous challenges with settlements (Jacobsen, 2002a; Hunter, 2009). For example, Bidi Bidi which was largely an empty overgrown savannah land in Yumbe District quickly became a sprawling settlement hosting some 272,000 refugees in period of four months (August – November 2016) making it one of the largest refugee-hosting sites worldwide (Boyce and Vigaud-Walsh, 2017). Besides very huge and expensive operation costs for providing basic services such as water, which was estimated between US\$200,000 and US\$400,000 per month (Uganda Response Plan, 2017), this kind of rapid and very huge settlement creation comes with devastating environmental and ecological challenges and issues as witnessed in previous refugee crises. For instance, during the 1990-1994 Rwandese war and following the genocide, many Rwandese refugees (close to 2 million) ended up in DRC, Tanzania and Uganda with devastating impact on the environment (forest and water resources, biodiversity and protected areas) of the places they settled on. Those that fled to DRC were settled in five large camps of Kibumba, Mugunga, Katale and Lac Vert and Kahindo in or around Virunga National Park. At the beginning of the crisis, 40,000 people on average entered the park every day in search of wood, which led to an average harvest of wood of 1,000 tonnes per day. These refugees remained on the edge of the Park for more than two years and within this period, 105 square kilometres of forestland were impacted by deforestation and

thirty-five square kilometres were totally denuded. The Rwandan refugee crisis posed such an unprecedented threat to Virunga National Park that the World Heritage Committee placed the park on its list of endangered World Heritage sites. An estimated 524,000 people fled to the Ngara area of northern Tanzania, which became the second largest town in Tanzania after Dar es Salaam as a result of this refugee influx. Within six months of these people's arrival, tree resources within 5 km of the four Ngara camps had been cut down and the average distance for getting fuel was 10 km or more by June 1995. The thousands of cattle, sheep and goats that came along with the refugees had seriously overgrazed much of the pastureland in the vicinity of the camps and there was acute shortage of water and serious pollution of water resources (soil and groundwater). In some places the vegetation was completely cleared for refugee settlements and over 47,000 hectares of forest reserves in Gagoya in Ngara District, Kasogeye, Nyantakaraya and Biharamulo were overexploited. Between 1994 and 1996 a total of 570 square kilometres of forest in Tanzania was affected, of which 167 square kilometres was severely deforested (Mark van Dorp, 2009). Thus, the environment impact from the sprawling Bidi Bidi, Imvepi, Rhino Camp, Kali, Palorinya, Acholpii, and Nyeu refugee settlements is going to be devastating (see Jacobsen, 1997). Besides the obvious and expected environmental devastation, there are other challenges and issues that have emerged from hosting such huge refugee numbers but have not been academically researched. This research was undertaken to untangle the challenges and emerging issues faced by different stakeholders including refugees themselves, host communities, governments, NGOs and UN agencies in the management of refugees in Uganda.

Methodology

The study adopted a qualitative case study design to obtain detailed information from stakeholders (Yin, 1987; Levy, 2008) focusing on the current challenges and emerging issues affecting the management of refugees in Uganda, especially the processes and explanations of current institutional position on refugee matters. The whole process from receiving, registering and settling refugees was investigated mainly focusing on the 2016 refugee crisis. On sampling, a multiple case study approach was adopted with Bidi Bidi, Rhino Camp and Invepi refugee settlements in the West Nile selected because they are hosting the highest number of refugees in the country at the moment. The multiple case study approach was considered because it enhances external generalization of the study, establishes wider data analysis in one context and helps to raise the level of confidence in the robustness of the method (Baxter and Jack, 2008; Baškarada, 2014; Creswell, 2014; Khan, 2014). In-depth interviews were conducted in April with members of staff of the UNHCR, OPM, NGOs and host communities, business people, local leaders and refugees in the sampled settlements. Because of the sensitivity of the subject, respondents' names or identifying features remained confidential. Primary data was supplemented with content analysis, a method that involves detailed and systematic examination of contents of a particular body of materials for the purpose of identifying common patterns, themes, biases in order to come up with an accurately analyzed qualitative article (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001).

Findings

While the challenges and emerging issues are presented and discussed at different points in this article for easy analysis, it is important to emphasize that in real life they are complexly intertwined and usually go hand in hand. Therefore, any kind of solution must be comprehensive and holistic so as to have any kind of effect.

Failure to register refugees at entry points

The OPM and UNCHR in Uganda require that all refugees must be screened and initially registered at their first point of entry. Initial registration of refugees at the border is important because it helps to protect refugees from arbitrary arrests, detention, forced return, establish genuine refugees and protect the system from abuse by people who are not refugees but would want to register as refugees, especially those that understand the language, culture and even share the same ethnicity with the refugees or had lived or have relatives in those countries where refugees are coming from such as Rwanda, DRC and South Sudan. It is also during this initial registration that health screening is done to prevent and manage epidemic outbreaks. Normally refugee populations are vulnerable to communicable diseases, as they often travel through endemic areas and reside in crowded refugee settlements where infections are easily spread. For instance Uganda has to screen refugees coming from DRC during Ebola outbreaks. Between August and September 2016, a cholera outbreak occurred in refugee reception facilities in Pagirinya, Boroli, Maaji and in Bidi Bidi settlement that was linked to the cholera outbreak in South Sudan from where refugees were trekking. While this was contained, sporadic cases continued to be reported; requiring continued preventive measures to reduce the risks of further outbreaks (Uganda Response Plan, 2017). The Ugandan government through its refugee department in the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM) and the UN country team has a fairly efficient and effective system that receives, processes and settles refugees at various entry points in new or already existing settlements. However, the experience of 2016 when over a million South Sudanese refugees flocked into the country running away from appalling acts of violence (Boyce and Vigaud-Walsh, 2017) demonstrated that the personnel tasked with the responsibility of registering refugees at the border could not cope with huge numbers of refugees mainly due to thin facilities at the reception centres, inadequate staff and lack of appropriate skills to handle refugees from different social, political and economic grounds. The high number of arriving refugees overwhelmed the staff and, as a result, many mistakes were made, including multiple registrations and failure to register many of the refugees and these have had severe consequences in the day-to-day management of refugees. Many refugees that were not registered at the border later showed up in the refugee settlements. Yet as a rule, the OPM and UNCHR cannot allocate a plot, give building materials, attestation or food ration cards to people who just turn up in settlements and were not registered at the borders. Genuine refugees who had not been initially registered at the Uganda-South Sudan border were requested and others are still being requested to go back to the border for initial screening and registration. Many especially pregnant women or those with babies, unaccompanied children and the elderly have failed to do so and remain unregistered and unable to access refugee services. Many are languishing in the settlements, depending on registered refugees for food, beddings and shelter. This complicates life considering that even those who are registered as refugees receive limited resources.

Capacity and Coordination Challenges

The state in Uganda does not have enough financial, human, technological and equipment capacity to manage refugees on its own. This lack of capacity is not accidental but actually rooted in the neo-liberal orthodoxy of the last thirty years that deliberately reduced the role of the state in the economy and service provision while promoting the growth of NGOs as key providers of humanitarian services in developing countries on the argument that NGOs are cost-effective in providing better welfare services to those who cannot be reached through markets (see Colclough and Manor, 1991; Meyer, 1992; Robinson, 1993; Edwards and Hulme, 1997; Tvedt, 1998). Uganda embraced this development thinking and it is no surprise that most of the management of refugees in Uganda is delegated to other stakeholders other than the state. The overall inter-agency planning and implementation of refugee emergency situation is coordinated by the department for refugees in the Office of the Prime Minister and the United Nations High Commission for Refugees. At the field level, the OPM and UNCHR are supported by District Local Governments (DLGs), other United Nations agencies (UNICEF, FAO, IOM, UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women, WFP and WHO) and over 40 Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) to carry out refugee responses (UNDAF 2016-2020). It sounds fantastic to have over 40 NGOs doing or acting like they are doing a great job to support vulnerable refugees. However, there is a lot of costly duplication of roles evidenced in the operation of more than one NGO dealing in the same activity or service in a particular area, which is a huge strain to the already meager resources. Apart from the duplication of roles and activities, delegating the direct role of providing most refugees' services to NGOs comes with many challenges. The OPM lacks financial, technological and human resources to effectively supervise these NGOs. Thus, in most cases they rely on reports provided to them by the very NGOs they are supposed to supervise. This makes it difficult to unearth vices against refugees done by some elements within NGOs including sexual exploitation of female refugees. Cases of terrible sexual exploitation and concealment of these activities by NGO officials are very common in such crises as evidenced in recent revelations where senior officials in respected organizations such as Oxfam have participated in sexual exploitation of vulnerable people and their organization concealed these activities (Gayle, 2018; Elgot and McVeigh, 2018). Besides, most of the NGOs are not accountable to the refugees or the OPM because they come with or raise their own resources and others are accountable to their funders or foreign governments, many of whom may have different interests. The government did a lot of fundraising and donors came together in 2017 at the peak of the refugees' crisis and promised a lot of money to support them in Uganda (Bwambale, 2017). However, in recent days, government has expressed a lot of frustration over donors' non-committal of the promised funds and channeling funds through non-governmental organizations because of corruption in government (Ahabwe, 2018).

Overstretching Meager Resources

The OPM, UN agencies supporting refugees, NGOs, host communities and development partners have invested tremendous amount of resources including money, medicines, food, land and clothing, among others, to ensure that refugees access basic services and settle with dignity in Uganda. However, unlike highly developed countries like Germany that absorbed

over a million refugees from Syria in 2015, Uganda is a low-income country struggling to provide even basic services or opportunities to its own citizens, especially in areas where most refugees are hosted such as in Yumbe, Arua, Moyo and Adjumani, and thus cannot meet the educational, health care, housing, energy/firewood, nutritional/food needs of huge numbers of refugees, especially those in the settlements. There are few health centers in the refugee settlements and they are understaffed, operate with a limited supply of drugs and on average receive over 4000 patients monthly.

The limited drugs, diagnosis equipment and other hospital facilities have made treatment of diseases like hypertension, eye and ear problems, cancer, C-section deliveries impossible tasks in refugee settlement health centres. Most cases and operations are referred to hospitals in Arua or Gulu, Kampala, which are very far from most refugee settlements and very costly. For example, refugees are required to travel to Arua if they are to do an ultra-scan and one ambulance serving the whole settlement is not sufficient to carry all the refugees in need of the service. Education provisions in the settlements are inadequate with few schools and teachers, especially for science subjects. This is worsened by the limited education facilities like science laboratories, libraries, computer laboratories and the limited subject combinations. Many refugees at secondary school and tertiary institution levels are finding difficulty being accepted in the Ugandan school system. For instance, when the latest wave of violence first broke out in South Sudan in July 2016, most people simply ran for their lives, leaving behind most of their important academic documents. Yet to be accepted in Ugandan secondary and tertiary institutions of learning requires proof of one's previous education. Thus most students who have failed to show documentation of their previous education have dropped out of school. Those who are accepted in schools find it difficult to cope due to lack of basic requirements; failure to concentrate on their studies; and difficulty to get along with other students due to the aggressiveness and trauma emanating from the horrors of war in their country.

The collective food bill for refugees is massive. Some of the reasons for this costly bill are logistical. Suppliers source for this food from different parts of the country and sometimes import it to provide food to feed the refugees. It is expensive to put all the logistics together because of the distance involved and the storage facilities needed. To reduce this burden, the government and other partners suggested that refugees should be provided with land to cultivate and indeed land has been provided by government and host communities. The land provided by host communities to refugees collectively is huge. However, individually or at refugee household level, the land apportioned is small (a 30 x 30 feet plot) and is insufficient to provide space for accommodation and cultivation.

This has left refugees totally dependent on monthly food handouts from refugee-managing stakeholders. While the stakeholders are trying their best in difficult circumstances, the food provided leaves most refugees struggling to survive. Each refugee is given 12 kg of maize or sorghum and 12 kg of beans per month that are not enough and also do not meet the nutritional diet requirements especially for children. In addition, many refugees complained that even the containers used to measure food are not accurate and they are cheated in the process. Others complained that the suppliers do not bring people to offload the items from the trucks, leaving the refugees at the mercy of predatory offloading porters that charge two kilograms of food items from each refugee. A child of four years gets the same food per

month as an adult of forty. Yet their food and diet requirements are significantly different. Because of these challenges many refugees registered themselves multiple times or changed their family sizes by registering other people's children as their own purposely to receive more food and non-food items. Upon realizing this problem the OPM and UNCHR decided to do a re-verification exercise to establish the actual numbers of refugees and their appropriate family sizes. Most refugees whose multiple registration trick has been discovered and thus can no longer get more food through this method have also decided to go back to South Sudan like their fellow countrymen and die there than starve in Uganda (see MSF, 2017). Several aid workers have been arrested, sacked or prosecuted for stealing food and other supplies meant for refugees in refugee settlements (AFP, 2018). Resultantly, there is now growing debate and trial experiments in other parts of the world are ongoing to try and change the current Government-UNCHR-NGO model to a Government-UNCHR-Private Sector model where private sector players such as banks, telecommunication and technology companies can suggest innovative and efficient ways to reduce the inefficiencies in refugee services.

One of the suggested innovations is provision of refugees with cash to purchase food of their own choice on the open market. If the model works, then other aspects can be tried. This is still a debatable suggestion in Uganda and on trial in other places like Jordan and Lebanon (Lutaya, 2016; Bolton Consulting Group, 2017; Seetashma, 2018; BBC, n.d.). Most stakeholders interviewed in Uganda -- including refugees, host community members and NGOs -- were mostly opposed to this kind of arrangement. The main argument given is that the money given may not be enough; refugees live in areas such as Bidi Bidi and Invepi that have food production and supply stress because of climate, distance and transport problems. Private sector players may take advantage to hike prices. Most women refugees emphasized that if food supplies were substituted with cash, most men would waste the money on alcohol or use it for purposes other than supporting their families. Thus if there are to be any kind of innovations or changes in the current refugee management regime in areas such as food supply, these changes have to be incremental, well thought out and implemented in ways that do not benefit NGOs and profit-making companies at the expense of refugees.

Low Morale among Employees

For most employees, especially graduates, the excitement of working with big-name organizations such as UNCHR, Oxfam, World Vision, among others, quickly fades when the reality of the difficult conditions in these settlements sinks in. This results in high work turnover, low morale and poor service provision among workers. On the other hand, while these challenges were common among NGO workers in the settlements, unemployed refugees seriously complain about unemployment and job discrimination practices by several NGOs. Most working-age refugees in the settlement are idle with nothing to do other than loiter around the settlements. Many complained that even the petty jobs like digging pit latrines or looking after refugee children in safe centers in the settlements are reserved for Ugandans. This leaves them with nothing to support themselves or their families except to become totally dependent on other people, which in itself is humiliating. Many who have failed to come to terms with this form of existence have gone back to their countries; others have entered into other forms of survival such as prostitution and cases of suicide are regular in settlements. Part

of the blame for lack of jobs is placed on the NGOs that work in these settlements because they do not employ refugees

Most working-age refugees in the settlement are idle with nothing to do other than loiter around the settlements. Many complained that even the petty jobs like digging pit latrines or looking after refugee children in safe centers in the settlements are reserved for Ugandans. This leaves them with nothing to support themselves or their families except to become totally dependent on other people, which in itself is humiliating. Many who have failed to come to terms with this form of existence have gone back to their countries; others have entered into other forms of survival such as prostitution and cases of suicide are regular in settlements. Part of the blame for lack of jobs among refugees is placed on the NGOs that work in these settlements because they do not employ them.

For special consideration, most NGO projects in the settlements mainly focus on People with Special Needs (PSNs) like the pregnant women, orphans, the elderly, leaving out other categories of people like the youth and adult males, yet these are the majority and would actually support the PSNs if they were empowered to work. High unemployment among refugee populations can be a serious challenge as studies have indicated that it results in most refugees being forced into unregulated work sectors with limited protection including domestic work and prostitution (Alexander, 2008; Buscher and Heller, 2010).

Corruption among Refugee-managing Stakeholders

For over twenty years now, corruption has been a systemic problem in Uganda affecting most government institutions including the OPM that oversees refugees' responses in the country (see UDN, 2013; Human Rights Watch, 2013; Tangri and Mwenda, 2013; Badru and Muhumuza, 2017). Corruption came out strongly from both secondary and primary data sources as a serious challenge affecting current refugee management in Uganda. Some corruption practices affecting refugees are grand in nature perpetrated by high-ranking individuals in government or non-government institutions. For instance, in February 2018, reports emerged that senior government officials in the OPM colluded with staff from the UN refugee agencies -- UNHCR and the World Food Programme (WFP) -- to inflate refugee figures purposely to swindle money and it is believed that millions of dollars in aid have been lost as a result. These officials were also accused of stealing relief items meant for refugees, appropriating government land meant for refugees, trafficking refugee women and interfering with the election of community leaders (Okiror, 2018; Onyulo, 2018; Sserunjogi, 2018). In March 2018, the Commission of Inquiry into Land Matters discovered that in 2016, senior officials in the OPM colluded to forcefully evict people and acquire huge chunks of land for themselves claiming that it was meant for refugees.

This scandal involved the Principal Settlement Officer in the Office of the Prime Minister, Mr. Charles Bafaki, who was alleged to have colluded with other senior officials in the OPM to violently evict Mr. Stephen Irumba the former Tooro Prime Minister from a 200-acre farmland in Kazinga Village, Rwentuha Sub-county in Kyegegwa District in 2016, claiming that the land belonged to Kyaka I Refugee Settlement and was needed to settle Ugandans who had been expelled from Tanzania. However, Bafaki and his accomplices who have also been implicated in the eviction of more than 60,000 people from 28 villages in Kyangwali, Hoima

District, failed to present evidence and respond to questions on how the disputed refugee camp was established or to show the actual boundaries of the camp (Kasozi and Namyalo, 2018). Other corruption practices affecting refugees are carried out by individual public officials on their own and they are petty or bureaucratic in nature but nonetheless have a detrimental effect on the overall management of refugees and service delivery. For instance, many refugees were able to register themselves or increase their family sizes after offering bribes to officials conducting registration. Similar allegations were made that non-refugees in the host communities get access to refugee's food and other items through bribery. This has serious cost implications for those responsible for providing these items to the refugees. Other acts of individual or collusive corruption where public officials abuse their entrusted authority have been cited to affect refugees not in a settlement setting. For instance, Senior Ugandan police officers have been prosecuted for working with foreign governments to repatriate refugees back to countries that they ran away from, putting their lives in harm's way (URN, 2018). Other cases where foreigners, especially those of Asian and Middle Eastern origin who are not refugees but with business interest in Uganda managed to acquire refugee status in Uganda have been reported. Ugandans and non-Ugandans who are not refugees have registered as refugees through corruption specifically to benefit in resettlement schemes to countries such as Canada, UK, USA and Australia, among others.

Conflicts between Refugees and Host Communities

Studies on protracted refugee-hosting experiences (hosting refugees for more than five years) in other developing countries have indicated that right from the moment of arrival, refugees compete with local citizens for scarce resources such as water, food, housing, firewood, grazing land, transportation services, sanitation and medical services (UNHCR, 2004). Competition and misunderstandings between refugees and host communities emanating from the sharing, ownership or use of resources, especially land, water and fire, have resulted in serious conflicts, animosity and in many areas threaten the coexistence of these different groups (see Summers, 2017). For instance, in most refugee-hosting communities in the West Nile region, tensions over sharing resources, especially firewood, are getting out of hand. Firewood or charcoal constitutes more than 90% of cooking energy for Uganda's rural population. For most of the rural population, family members -- especially women and children -- collect this firewood more often from distant and risky places, while other families buy firewood or charcoal. When you move around West Nile, especially in places around refugee settlements you see large swathes of land full of would-be firewood or charcoal. Probably these vast lands may have guided the government or UNHCR's assumption that refugees could easily access firewood. However, these vast pieces of land are not without owners and all refugees interviewed during this study revealed that access to firewood is their biggest nightmare forcing many to relocate back to South Sudan. Every attempt to fetch firewood is repulsed by host communities sometimes with bows, machetes or sticks. Women are threatened with rape and many children have experienced several abuses. Members of the host community and local government officials in the area interviewed during this study acknowledged awareness of this challenge.

Many host communities, especially in the West Nile region, gave out their land to the refugees on the promise that the government would compensate them with other pieces of land for grazing, cultivation and firewood collection; they would receive 30% of all the resources

intended to benefit refugees; and get business and employment opportunities from ongoing refugee settlement activities. However, most of these promises and expectations have not come to fruition and this has generated frustration among the host communities and refugees. Cases of competition and violence over scarce resources between host communities and refugees have been reported and worsened by the fact that authorities, including the police and development actors tend to ignore refugees because they view settlements as temporary phenomena (Pommier, 2014; Darby, 2015; Krause, 2016).

In other instances, tensions between refugees and host communities arise because of the perception that refugees are privileged in accessing resources unavailable to the local host population such as opportunity for education, literacy, vocational training, health, sanitation, basic livelihood and these are a source of tensions (Betts, 2009). Refugees that are not in settlements such as Somali refugees in Kampala, still experience deep animosity or fear to integrate with the local communities because of previous experiences such as the savage terror attacks that killed many Ugandans during the 2010 World Cup finals masterminded by Somali Al Shabab terrorists. It is not true that Somali refugees are Al Shabab agents or sympathizers but as one African proverb says that when one girl becomes pregnant, all the girls in that village are accused of fornication. Thus like in Kenya where Al Shabab terrorist have disguised as refugees and later caused mayhem, in Uganda, Somalis are viewed skeptically and most Ugandans keep a distance from Somali refugees in Uganda (Hovil, 2017). It has also been revealed that there are foreign spies who disguise and register as refugees but with a purpose of carrying out espionage or disrupting the security of the country (Mukombozi, 2018). Given the recent wave of atrocious killing of Ugandans by highly sophisticated murderers using motorcycles, one cannot rule out that terrorists from non-friendly countries may disguise as refugees and carry out these heinous crimes.

Conclusion and Recommendation

While the Ugandan government, refugee agencies, NGOs, host communities and generally the Ugandan population have tried and are still trying their best to make sure that people who seek refuge in Uganda feel welcome and settle in a dignified manner, the entire process is very complicated and imbued with a lot of challenges especially when overwhelming numbers flock in at a short time. Some of the challenges come from genuine constraints regarding resources while others such as corruption come from the way these resources are managed and processes handled. While recommendations such as reducing corruption in the country; giving refugees more land; and increasing resources especially by the UN and other aid agencies are surely made, the most sustainable solution echoed by refugees, government officials, aid workers and host communities is resolving conflicts in the countries generating the refugees especially within the region.

References

- AFP. (2018). 10 Ugandan aid workers held for stealing refugee rations. *The New Vision*. <https://www.newvision.co.ug/new.../ugandan-aid-workers-held-stealing-refugee-ration>.
- Ahabwe, C. (2018). Government frustrated as donors channel refugee cash through NGOs. PM Daily, Kampala, November 8. www.pmeldaily.com/.../govt-frustrated-as-donors-channel-refugee-cash-through-ngos
- Alexander, A. (2008). Without Refuge: Chin Refugees in India and Malaysia. *Forced Migration Review, Issue 30*: 36-37.
- Ambroso, G. (2016). Evaluation of UNHCR's response to the L3 South Sudan refugee crisis in Uganda and Ethiopia. UNHCR. <http://reliefweb.int/report/ethiopia/evaluation-unhcrs-response-l3-south-sudan-refugee-crisis-uganda-and-ethiopia>.
- Amvesi, A. (2016). M7 blames hepatitis B on refugees. <http://www.redpepper.co.ug/m7-blames-hepatitis-b-on-refugees/>.
- Başkarada, S. (2014). Qualitative Case Study Guidelines. <https://nsuworks.nova.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1008&context=tqr>.
- Baxter, P. and Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative Case Study Methodology: Study Design and Implementation for Novice Researchers. McMaster University.
- BBC (nd). A solution for refugee suffering: Give them cash - BBC News - BBC.com. Retrieved from <https://www.bbc.com/news/av/.../a-solution-for-refugee-suffering-give-them-cash>.
- Betts, A. (2009). Development Assistance and Refugees, Towards a North-South Grand Bargain: *Forced Migration Policy Briefing*. Refugee Studies Centre, University of Oxford. United Kingdom.
- Bolton Consulting Group. (2017). Food-restricted voucher or unrestricted cash? - World Food Programme. Retrieved from <https://docs.wfp.org/api/documents/WFP-0000068827/download/>.
- Boyce, M. and Vigaud-Walsh, F. (2017). Getting it right: protection of South Sudan refugees in Uganda, Refugees International. Retrieved from <https://www.refugeesinternational.org/reports/2017/3/10/uganda>.
- Bukenya, B. and Muhumuza, W. (2017). The politics of core public sector reform in Uganda: behind the façade, ESID working paper no. 85.
- Buscher, D. and Heller, L. (2010). Desperate Lives: Urban Refugee Women in Malaysia and Egypt. *Forced Migration Review issue 34*: 20-21.
- Bwambale, T. (2017). Donors raise over sh1.2 trillion for refugees in Uganda. *The New Vision*, Kampala, August 28. https://www.newvision.co.ug/new_vision/.../donors-raise-sh12-trillion-refugees-uganda
- Colclough, C. and Manor, J. (1991). *States or markets? Neo-liberalism and the development policy debate*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed methods approach*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- Crisp, J. (2003) *No solution in sight: the problem of protracted refugee situations in Africa*. Center for Comparative Immigration Studies.

- Crisp, J. (2004). *The local integration and local settlement of refugees: a conceptual and historical analysis*. UNHCR, Evaluation and Policy Analysis Unit.
- Darby, S. (2015). Unified or divided? The effect of Uganda's refugee settlement structures on refugee identity and group relations. University of York. <http://www.thinkhumanity.org/uploads/files/Dissertation.pdf>.
- Edwards, M. and Hulme, D. (eds) (1997). *NGOs, states and donors. Too close for comfort*. MacMillan, London.
- Elgot, J. and McVeigh (2018). Oxfam loses 7,000 donors since sexual exploitation scandal <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2018/feb/20/oxfam-boss-mark-goldring-apologises-over-abuse-of-haiti-quake-victims>.
- Gayle, D. (2018) Timeline: Oxfam sexual exploitation scandal in Haiti *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/world/.../timeline-oxfam-sexual-exploitation-scandal-in-ha>.
- Gomez, M. P. and Christensen, A. (2010). The Impacts of Refugees on Neighboring Countries: A Development Challenge. Background Note. *World Development Report 2011*
- Hovil, L. (2007). Self-settled Refugees in Uganda: An Alternative Approach to Displacement? *Journal of Refugee Studies*, 20(4), 599-620.
- Hovil, L. and Kigozi, D. (2015). South Sudanese refugees in Adjumani District, Uganda: telling a new story? International Refugee Rights Initiative. <http://www.refugee-rights.org/Publications/Papers/2015/TellingADifferentStory.pdf>.
- Human Rights Watch, (2013). Letting the big fish swim. Failures to prosecute high-level corruption in Uganda: United States of America.
- Hunter, M. (2009). The failure of self-reliance in refugee settlements, *Polis Journal*, 2, 1-46.
- Jacobsen, K. (1997). Refugees' environmental impact: the effect of patterns of settlement, *Journal of Refugee Studies*, 10(1), 19-36.
- Jacobsen, K. (2001). *The forgotten solution: local integration for refugees in developing countries*. (UNHCR).
- Jacobsen, K. (2002a). Can refugees benefit the state? Refugee resources and African state building, *The Journal of Modern African Studies*, 40(4), 577-596.
- Jacobsen, K. (2002b). Livelihoods in conflict: the pursuit of livelihoods by refugees and the impact on the human security of host communities, *International migration*, 40(5), 95-123.
- Kaiser, T. (2005). Participating in Development? Refugee protection, politics and developmental approaches to refugee management in Uganda, *Third World Quarterly*, 26(2), 351-367.
- Kasozi, E. & Namyalo, J. (2018). Senior OPM official arrested over land grabbing, Daily Monitor, March 13. Available: www.newvision.co.ug.
- Khan, N. (2014). Qualitative Research Method: Grounded Theory. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 9(11).
- Kibreab, G. (1989). Local settlements in Africa: a misconceived option? *Journal of Refugee Studies*, 2(4), 468-490.
- Krause, U. (2016). Limitations of development-oriented assistance in Uganda. *Forced Migration Review* (52), 51-2. <http://www.fmreview.org/solutions/contents.html>.

- Kreibaum, M. (2016). Their suffering, our burden? How Congolese refugees affect the Ugandan population, *World Development*, 78, 262-287.
- Leedy, P. and Ormrod, J. (2001). *Practical Research: Planning and Design*. 7th Edition, Merrill Prentice Hall and SAGE Publications, Upper Saddle River, NJ and Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Levy, J. S. (2008). Case studies: Types, designs, and logics of inference. *Conflict Management and Peace Science*, 25(1), 1-18.
- Lutaya, H. (2016). More refugees in Uganda to get cash for food, says WFP – Sunrise. Retrieved from www.sunrise.ug/news/.../more-refugees-in-uganda-to-get-cash-for-food-says-wfp.htm.
- Mark van Dorp, D. (2009). Dealing with energy needs in humanitarian crisis response operations. A Quick Scan of policies and best practices of humanitarian aid organizations and potential alternative energy sources and technologies. Institute for Environmental Security (IES) & IUCN-Netherlands Committee (IUCN-NL).
- Meyer, C. (1992). A step back as donors shift institution building from the public to the private sector, *World Development*, 20 (8), 1115-26.
- Meyer, S. (2006). *The “refugee Aid and Development” Approach in Uganda: Empowerment and Self-reliance of Refugees in Practice*. UNHCR.
- MSF, (2017). Despite generous policy, basic needs of refugees are not being met. Retrieved from <https://www.msf.org/uganda-despite-generous-policy-basic-needs-refugees-are-not-be>.
- Mukombozi, R. (2018). Government warns foreign spies disguising as refugees. *Daily Monitor* June 21. Accessed from www.dailymonitor.co.ug.
- Okiror, S. (2018). ‘They exaggerated figures’ Ugandan aid officials suspended over alleged fraud, *The Guardian*, February 08. Accessed from www.theguardian.com.
- Onyulo, T. (2018). The U.N. found only 7,000 refugees, despite Uganda’s claim that thousands more needed aid. *USA Today*, March 22. Accessed from www.usatoday.com.
- Pommier, A. (2014). The security of South Sudanese refugees in Uganda: assessing the physical security implications of ethnic conflict-induced displacement. http://digitalcollections.sit.edu/isp_collection/1777.
- Refugees Act* (2006). Uganda Law Reform Commission. Retrieved from www.ulrc.go.ug/content/refugees-act-2006.
- Robinson, M. (1993). Governance, democracy and conditionality: NGOs and the new policy agenda in A. Clayton (ed.), *Governance, Democracy and Conditionality: What Role for NGOs?* Oxford: INTRAC
- Schmidt, L. (2014). Agency of the South Sudanese: compensating for health care in Mungula refugee settlement. SIT Graduate Institute http://digitalcollections.sit.edu/isp_collection/1922.
- Seetashma T (2018). WFP transition from in-kind food to cash assistance to refugees from Bhutan, WFD. Accessed from <https://www.wfp.org/news/.../wfp-transitions-kind-food-cash-assistance-refugees-bhut>.
- Sserunjogi, E. M. (2018). OPM hit by refugee corruption scandal. *Daily Monitor*, February 05. Accessed from www.dailymonitor.co.ug.

- Summers, H. (2017). Tensions rise as Uganda neighbourly refugee policy starts to feel the strain. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/global.../2017/.../Uganda-refugee-policy-breaking-point>.
- Tangri, R and Mwenda, A. (2013). *The Politics of Elite Corruption in Africa. Uganda in Comparative Africa Perspective*. Routledge, London.
- Tvedt, T. (1998). *Angels of mercy or development diplomats? NGOs and foreign Aid*. Oxford. James Currey.
- UDN. (2013). *Dossier on Corruption in Uganda from 2002-2012*. Available at www.udn.or.ug.
- United Nations Development Assistance Framework for Uganda (2016-2020). Available at www.ug.undp.org/...-/united-nations-development-assistance-framework-for-uganda-
- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, (2004). Economic and Social Impacts of Massive Refugee Populations on Host Developing Countries, as well as other Countries. Standing Committee. UNHCR, EC/54/SC/CRP.5.
- URN, (2018). Kayihura charged for repatriation of Rwandan refugees. *The Observer* August 24. Available at <https://observer.ug/.../58516-kayihura-charged-for-repatriation-of-rwandan-refugees>
- Vogelsang, A. (2017). Local Communities' Receptiveness to Host Refugees. A case study of Adjumani District in times of a South Sudanese Refugee Emergency. Masters Dissertation, Utrecht University.
- Yin, R. K. (1987). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. London: Sage Publications.

Influence of Competence-Based Education Approach on Employee Productivity and Efficiency: A Case of Uganda Revenue Authority Education Programs

Joel Emojong
Uganda Management Institute, Kampala, Uganda.

Abstract

This article is part of a study on the influence of competence-based education (CBE) programs on the productivity of workers in Uganda's public institutions. The study's specific objective was to ascertain if CBE approach adopted by the Uganda Revenue Authority (URA) education programs contributes to efficiency of employees. The study employed a mixture of descriptive and correlation research designs premised on mixed methods. The primary data was collected from a sample 281 respondents comprising 271 from operations and 10 from management staff obtained by probability sampling and snowball methods. Data collection was by questionnaire and interview schedule. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the questionnaire-generated data while content analysis was used for the interview-generated data. The study found that the CBE approach used in the implementation of URA education programs has a significantly positive correlation with employee efficiency in all their job roles of registration, assessments and collections. It is on this basis that this paper recommends that government should make policy changes in the education sector to introduce CBE curricula in different magnitudes at the higher education levels to equip learners with the requisite competences that can enable them to improve their efficiency at work.

Key words: Competence-Based Education, Competences, Education Programs, Productivity, Efficiency, Public Institutions

Introduction

World over, employees of public institutions are considered to be the most important drivers of productivity and development. This is why managers of public institutions focus on the recruitment, development and retention of the right calibre of employees amidst the ever-changing work environment, to achieve the goals of their institutions and government (Ghosh, 2011; Armstrong, 2003; Browring & West, 1997). Some of these institutions like the Uganda Revenue Authority (URA) have training schools in which competence-based education approach (CBE) is used to implement multiple education programs for purposes of guaranteeing quality education that matches workplace needs (Drucker, 2007; Blank, 1982). Sufficient literature exists suggesting that adopting the CBE approach in the implementation of education programs can foster high self-efficacy, changed behavior and practical abilities among employees and could be a means of obtaining and maintaining a productive workforce (Irakliotis & Sally, 2014).

Despite the positive relationship between CBE and employee productivity, little is known about whether using it in the URA education programs has had impact on employee productivity. This study therefore focused on the CBE programs of the URA by ascertaining whether it contributes to the employees' productivity in terms of efficiency in their job roles.

The first part of this article discusses the background of the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, its guiding question and hypothesis. The last part is the theoretical review, literature review, methodology, findings, discussion, conclusion and recommendations.

Background of the study

URA was created under the URA Statute number 6 of 1991, as a body corporate with the mandate of collecting central government tax revenue (Bahemuka, 2012). Within this mandate, URA was required to deal with the escalating productivity challenges of the workforce in the then Ministry of Finance which in 1986 was able to collect only 4.8 % tax to GDP ratio (Chen & Reinkka, 1999; URA, 2005a; Bahemuka, 2012). With these meagre collections, the government could not finance its budget and had to rely on external borrowing, precipitating a viscous cycle of economic dependence on donors. The productivity challenges of employees were not resolved instantaneously by the provisions of the parliamentary statutes because, like in other public institutions, the URA was embroiled in a paradox where most of her employees' abilities fell short of the requirements of the ever-emerging global job demands. This is envisaged to be among the reasons why even the government recovery policies to revamp the economy did not translate into increased revenue collections (Wiegratz, 2009). Worse still, URA's pronounced human resource policies involving the attraction of self-motivated, highly qualified and paid employees did little to resolve productivity issues because collections from 1996 to 2002 were on average 5% below the target; yet at the same time, corruption had risen so high that the commission instituted to investigate it recommended, among others, the streamlining of staff development (URA, 2007b; 2010).

Astounded by the revelations of this commission, the government restructured the URA in 2004. According to records, the ethos of restructuring was to develop a workforce with heightened capacity and will to change the image and the performance of the organization (URA, 2007a). However this should have been preceded by reforms in the country's education system to make it relevant to the ever-emerging needs of the institutions (Materu, 2006). That notwithstanding, and as conventional wisdom would dictate, restructuring URA created new job tasks requiring new talents, tact and competences. This could explain the URA reports positing that the new URA undertook vigorous staff training and retraining at its Training School using CBE programs that address its employees' new job demands (URA, 2006; URA 2012).

Records suggest that CBE at URA involves training existing workforce of all cadres on various courses to equip them with the skills, knowledge and behaviors that are desirable for the execution of job roles. The training involves various education programs which are imbued with CBE characteristics and involve induction, basic, core, and essential courses in all aspects of tax administration. They are based on training needs analysis, employ own staff with integrity and proven skills after training of trainers' training (TOT) as instructors. Although the training programs offered are not accredited by national or international accrediting body, some of them are considered to be of high standard because they involve internships and are assessed on the basis of practical, written examinations, course work and feedback from participants (Emojong, 2004).

In addition, although Nduhire (2008) observed that URA education programs are not full-time and well organized as those of Kenya Revenue Authority (KRA) training schools in the East African region, hundreds of employees have graduated from URA training school since 2005 with the expectations that the heightened competences obtained could lead to increased employee self-efficacy and changed behavior culminating into improved efficiency in tax collections.

However, according to URA reports (URA, 2005b, 2011, 2015), there is no evidence to suggest that all performance targets have been met, instead, they suggest a continued accumulation of arrears portfolio which in 2015/16 rose to 9% of targeted collections and, among others, culminated into dismal revenue performance. Moreover, the productivity indicator of tax to GDP ratio used in Uganda and other countries (Collins, 2007; Bird & Milka, 1992; Gill, 2003) is still low. Tumuhimbise (2000) has confirmed these appalling low productivity levels of URA by lamenting that Uganda's tax effort is very low compared to other sub-Saharan countries. According to Tumuhimbise (2000), the average tax to GDP ratio for sub-Saharan Africa is 20% and yet that of Uganda has stagnated at 13% implying that little revenue is generated through taxation and the efficiency levels of URA employees are low. This implies that the highest ratio so far achieved in 2013 of 13%, is far below the URA and Africa's target of 16% and 20% respectively (URA, 2010, 2015; KRA, 2010) and is too meagre to make one believe that the employees are efficient and on course in doing their roles of registration, assessments and collections.

Moreover, amidst these meagre revenue collections, government expenditure has persistently continued to be higher than the revenue receipts, implying budget deficits year after year. According to Agaba and Kaberuka (2014), the tax revenue collected by URA for the financial years 2004/05 to 2009/10 averaged 12.6% while the government expenditure averaged 20% of GDP. Inevitably this resulted into a high budget deficit of 7.4% of GDP which implies serious deficiencies in employee productivity in the URA and a big concern to the policy makers.

Statement of the problem

The government of Uganda has since the 1990s implemented sound economic policies to revamp the economy which attained and sustained an accelerated economic growth of 6% of gross national product (GNP) up to 2008 (Wiegratz, 2009). These high levels of growth also created a Pandora's box of tax evasion and tax avoidance schemes by taxpayers. Subsequently, they have made the task of revenue collection hard, enormous and complex thus requiring the URA to have an efficient workforce at all times (PWC, 2014; OECD, 2009).

URA adopted CBE programs to develop its employees' capacity to curb tax evasion and avoidance (URA, 2007a). This presupposed that the employees being products of these programs obtained competences that influenced their efficiency in terms of quantitative changes in taxpayer registration and assessments culminating not only into increased revenue collections but also in collections that can fully finance the government's budget. However, this seems not to be the case as URA has never met its goal of collecting enough revenue to fully finance the government's budget. So far, the highest revenue collections of 13% tax to GDP

ratio is far below the target of 20% (Tumuhimbise, 2000; URA, 2010), leading to inevitable situation of high fiscal deficits where government has not been able to fully finance its budget year after year to the tune of over 7% of GDP (Agaba, 2014; MOF, 2009). Failure to reverse this trend may lead to the escalation of government borrowing and economic dependence.

This low revenue collection could imply that in spite of the adoption of CBE programs to increase the value of the workforce, there are still unknowns about the potential influence of such an approach on the productivity of the employees. These unknowns necessitated this investigation.

Purpose of the study

The focus was on ascertaining whether the CBE approach used in the URA education programs contributes to employees' productivity in terms of efficiency in their job roles.

Study question

What is the contribution of competence-based education approach used in the URA education programs to the efficiency of employees in their job roles?

Study hypothesis

The competence-based education approach used in the URA education programs does not contribute to the efficiency of employees in their job roles.

Theoretical review

This study based on the integration of ideas from social learning theory which was considered comprehensive enough as it embraces self-efficacy which is espoused in the self-efficacy theory and is believed to be a bridge between the behaviorist and cognitive learning theories; and also espouses mixed research design and mixed research methods within the context of the post positivists' views to provide more validity and usefulness to the study findings (Bandura, 1977; Stewart, 1999; Creswell, 2007). Social Learning theory posits that effective learning occurs when an individual is in a social environment and is able to freely participate in both the dynamic and reciprocal interactions between the individual learner, the environment and the behavior. The fact that this study focused on the education approach used in the transfer of knowledge to enhance the mastery of competences justifies the use of social learning theory.

Literature review

Workforce productivity in terms of effectiveness

Effectiveness of the workforce has been a subject of concern among scholars for some time with some claiming that it is a vital component of productivity which must be taken care of in assessing true performance of employees (Hammond, 2014). Others think that effectiveness is a necessary condition for efficiency implying that there cannot be efficiency without

effectiveness (Drucker, 2001). Mullin (2016) concurs that effectiveness is mainly concerned with doing right things, implying that effectiveness of employees relates to how well they have done their work to produce a given output. It can be seen in these claims that institution executives need to manage the quantity and quality of their workers and so the workers in turn need to focus on quality and quantity in the execution of their job roles.

While literature suggests that management practices like work for pay and other rewards, leadership styles, work climate and economic policies engender positive work culture that leads to improvements in performance, little has been researched on harnessing the potential of workers through staff development initiatives aimed at their competence development. It was critical to explore this under-researched area in order to draw links between institutions' commitment to develop employee competences and the employees' commitment to make improvements in their productivity in terms of quantity and quality. Connectivity between these variables is considered important in enabling producers of goods and services to meet the challenges of the increasing demand for them.

It is evident from the literature that the increasing global population has orchestrated the need for greater output of goods and services more than ever before. This has subsequently pressured public institutions to maintain an efficient workforce at all times because it is through their efforts that the quality of output and outcome can be achieved (Armstrong, 2005). It has been suggested that achieving optimal production and delivery of goods and services is possible when the workforce in the service institutions have the right competences even though it is an uphill task considering the limitations in their budgetary provisions (World Bank, 2005). Nonetheless, the pressure to produce more and better goods and services will always dictate these public institutions to rationalize the use of the available resources to produce and sustain a workforce that produces quality work. This study wondered whether URA, which is mandated to collect tax revenue on which all government expenditure is based for service delivery, has a workforce with the qualities to do quality work. Doing this empirical study was an attempt to answer this big question.

Competence-based education approach and contributions to workforce productivity

Although there is no sufficient literature about competence-based education in the Ugandan context, its proponents argue that it is an approach through which educational institutions refocus education to competences that are linked to the workplace needs, is anchored on the frameworks of lifelong learning and that it sets the basic foundations upon which to leverage the strengths of individual trainees and their potential to produce the desired work in their workplaces (Dubois et al, 2010; Breathnach, 2015). Kouwenhoven (2009) intimates that CBE is anchored in the learner-centred paradigm because of its emphasis on what the learner should be able to do and also make a social change in the workplace when he or she has completed a particular education program. According to Blank (1982), the main principles of CBE are the ability to perform, quality instruction and sufficient time for learning, link between the education institution and work environment, practice in the real work environment and mastery of higher-level skills.

Basing on these foundational principles, it is presumed that education programs premised on this approach will churn out products that can apply the newly acquired knowledge, skills and attitudes to their workplace. Institutions that use this approach in their training may develop and sustain a cadre of workforce with increased self-efficacy because they are able to apply the acquired competences and make positive changes in terms of increased productivity at their workplaces. This suggests that by producing graduates who are able to apply what they have learned in their places of work, CBE could rid the public institutions of the inherent productivity deficiencies because most of them lack the requisite competences which were not provided by the traditional formal education system they went through (NCHE, 2011). It is therefore a worthy and yet arduous and costly task for public institutions to equip and re-equip their workers with the requisite competences if they have to achieve their productivity goals.

In spite of these challenges, research has shown that organizations worldwide continue to invest huge amounts of resources into enhancing the knowledge and skills of their workforce (Aquinis & Kraiger, 2009). There is also a growing concern about the justification of such heavy investments in staff trainings and development, and the wonder as to whether these investments really lead to improved productivity of employees (Chuang & Liano, 2010; Sala & Cannon, B., 2001). According to Hutchins et al. (2010), getting out of this paradox requires investing in the education and training that provides competences for application in the workplaces. This brings into the limelight the need to adopt education approaches that enhance the transfer of learning. There is evidence from research arguing that offering institutional education programs may not necessarily lead to improvement in employee productivity unless their focus is on acquisition of the right competences, and that the acquired competences are applied in the everyday work, tasks, and duties of these trainees (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Cheng & Hampson, 2008; Velada et al., 2007; Kirkpatrick, 2008; Salas et al., 2012; Noe, et al., 2006; Gegenfurtner et al., 2013).

Although there is yet no clear understanding about the factors that influence the application and transfer of training (Blume et al., 2010), research has identified the key factors influencing the transfer of training to be: the characteristics of trainees, the training program characteristics, the work setting, the training content, the program design, and trainee self-efficacy (Baldwin and Ford, 1988, Grossman & Sala, 2011; Cogenfurtner et al., 2009; Bhatti and Kaur, 2011; Velada et al., 2007). While underscoring the importance of these factors, Anastasios (2014) has suggested that successful education programs are those that are anchored through a training process which involves well designed programs that inspire participants to apply what is learnt at the workplace. Such programs should also be practice-based and focused on behavioral change, both of which will stimulate the trainees' desire to practice the same in the workplaces.

Notwithstanding the prevalence of conditions that affect the application of competences obtained from competence-based education programs, the fact that this approach is related to employee productivity is well documented (Mulder et al, 2008). Albert (1993) regards Germany as the paradigm case of a high-skills society built through competence-based education that has produced workers with high levels of skills, high wages and high labor productivity. The trend in other developed countries is similar because research has found competence-based education approach useful in building employees' ability to perform (Barringer, 2005;

Zhu, 2004; Pfeffer, 1998; Ahmed and Schroeder, 2003). These assertions concur with other studies on human resource practices such as training, that provide employees with the right competences, improved work environment, offer opportunities for hands-on training and have led to improvements in general performance (Becker, et al, 2001; Huselid, 1995).

Scholars have further suggested that across the different contextual environments, providing employees with relevant competences increases their employability, job security, higher pay and motivation, all leading to increased productivity (Abdul & Ahmed, 2011; Camps and Luna, 2012; Maseko et al., 2008; Kolo, 2012; Menon, 2010). However, while there could be similarities in the educational environments such as geographical locations and historical relationships based on colonialism that influence successful transplant of education systems and practices, the magnitude of transplant and their influence is affected by the disparities in economic, political, cultural and technological jurisdictions where the teaching and learning processes take place. It is in this regard that employees in poor economies like Uganda may not benefit from CBE in the same way as those from the rich economies of the western world. This study focused on CBE approach in Uganda public institutions with hope of obtaining empirical data and adding to existing literature on competence-based education in the Ugandan context.

Methodology

The study adopted a mixed research design and mixed methods in the context of the post-positivists' paradigm and the pluralistic nature that this study took (Creswell, 2014). Since the focus was to empirically establish the contributions of CBE to employee efficiency, a self-administered-semi structured questionnaire was used to obtain quantitative data from the 271 employees from the URA operations departments of Customs Department (CD) and Domestic Taxes (DT) determined through the Krejcie and Morgan table (1970), stratified sampling using simple probability sampling techniques (Sortirios, 2013, Piadget, 2010; Miller & Brewer, 2003). This was prompted by the need to optimize the use of the limited resources and reach a large and diverse population of CD and DT employees across the country for purposes of obtaining representative and plausible data (Yin, 2009; Walliman, 2011).

The questionnaire had questions and items on three major areas namely: focus of education approach used in the URA education programs, benefits of URA education programs, and contributions of CBE approach to the productivity of employees in terms of efficiency. Using Cronbach's alpha coefficient test statistic, the questionnaire was found to be reliable for the study because the alpha coefficient was above 0.8 (Amin, 2005). Although the resultant data was ordinal, it was considered as continuous because of the different values that were placed for the responses of strongly agreed, agreed, not sure, disagreed and strongly disagreed and was accordingly measured on the interval scale (Walliman, 2011). As a result, the data was analysed at univariate and bivariate levels of analysis using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) involving descriptive statistics in terms of frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviations at the univariate level, and inferential statistics using correlation and regressions at the bivariate level to the test hypothesis.

Furthermore, qualitative data basing on interviews were solicited from 10 top management employees who because of the administrative changes involving cross transfers of commissioners during the course of this study, were selected on the basis of snowball sampling method (Blackie, 2010). Content analysis was used to analyze this qualitative data according to the study variables and results were compared with the questionnaire-generated data (Strauss, 2008).

The study followed all due procedures for carrying out research in Uganda including adhering to the Uganda Management Institute administrative protocol for research; permission from URA management, ethical clearance from Gulu University Research Ethics Committee (GUREC), and clearance from Uganda National Council of Science and Technology (UNCST).

Findings

The study findings focus on the contributions of CBE approach used in the URA education programs. The investigation was done in three different steps starting with ascertaining the strategy in the focus of the CBE approach that the URA was using, the benefits of CBE and finally whether the CBE approach contributes to the efficiency of the employees in their job roles.

Focus of education approach used in URA

Results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Focus of the education approach used in URA education programs

Statements on focus of education approach used in URA education programs	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Mean	Stdv
Enhancing trainee abilities	1(.4%)	7(2.6%)	17(6.3%)	121(44.6%)	125(46.1%)	4.3	0.7
Using quality instruction methods	2(.8%)	18(6.8%)	33(12.5%)	143(54.0%)	69(26.0%)	4.0	0.9
Mastery of higher level skills	4(1.6%)	25(9.8%)	34(13.3%)	130(50.8%)	63(24.6%)	3.9	0.9

Source: *primary data*

Table 1 shows that more than three-quarters of the responses depict a similarity of strong positive agreements among the employees about the three areas of focus of the education approach used by URA trainers. The greatest focus seems to be on enhancing trainees' abilities, then followed by using quality instruction methods and, lastly, by mastery of higher-level skills. The findings indicate that 90.7% (n=246) with a mean of 4.3 and (stdv.=0.7) agreed, followed by 3% (n=8) who disagreed while 6.3 % (n=17) were not sure, that the education approach used by URA trainers focuses on abilities. This means URA trainers mainly focus on enhancing the abilities of trainees while disseminating education programs. This is supported by one respondent from the interviews, codenamed A, who elaborated thus; "...the purpose of URA education programs is to enhance the ability of employees to deliver on their various

programs.” This elaboration means that the implementation of URA education programs is done in a manner that enhances the trainees’ abilities. This was complemented by another interviewee code-named H, who argued thus; “URA uses trainers drawn from within the institution because of their knowledge and experience while others are specialists in specific areas and have wide knowledge and experience in taxation.”

It can be discerned from H’s response that URA trainers have the expertise and experience which they can employ to enhance the trainees’ abilities in taxation. This implies that the URA trainers’ strategy during the implementation of the education programs is to develop the abilities of their trainees. However, since their experience and expertise is limited to URA tax administration, it subsequently curtails their implementation strategy which remains limited to their exposure within URA and may be limited in external perspective.

The effectiveness of instruction by such trainers depends on their mastery of the knowledge in taxation, and their ability to translate their experience into motivation for their learners. As for the proportion of 10% of the questionnaire respondents disagreeing and not being sure about this statement, it means the focus of the training approach used by URA trainers does not appeal to ability enhancements of some employees. This could be attributed to the differences in age and work experience amongst these employees where different cohorts may have different perceptions about enhancement of abilities during the training sessions.

Regarding quality instruction as another area of focus of the education approach, the questionnaire results still indicate that the majority 80% (n=212) with a mean of 4.0 and (stdv=0.9) were in agreement, while 7.6% (n=20) were in disagreement and 12.5% (n=33) not sure. This means that much as most of the URA employees think that their instructors use quality instruction methods to deliver the programs at the URA training school, there are a few of them who are doubtful and could be thinking there are other approaches other than quality instruction methods that are used in the dissemination of these programs. It implies that while some instructors could be focusing on new approaches geared towards quality instruction, there could be others who do not. It would also imply that the type of instruction may depend on the type of education program, where quality instruction cannot easily be experienced by some trainees.

Various views were obtained from the interviews on this matter and most of them concurred:

While training, the trainers should focus their attention on the job roles their trainees do, and hence the instruction approach used to disseminate these programs should be qualitative enough and tailored to enhance the abilities of the trainees in their work roles. This implies that the top management and their subordinates in operations concur that the instructional approach used in URA training is of high quality to guarantee transfer of the requisite competences.

The above response means that the quality of instruction at the URA training is considered a critical strategy in the building of the trainees’ abilities.

Finally, regarding higher-level skills as an area of focus of the education approach used in URA, Table 1 indicates that three-quarters with a statistical mean of 3.9 and (stdv.=0.9) were in agreement that the education approach used by URA trainers focuses on mastery of higher-level skills. This means that most of the employees believe their trainers focus on the mastery of higher-level skills during the training sessions. This was confirmed by a respondent from interviews code-named C, who submitted, "...the training approach used by the URA trainers focuses on mastery of skills at higher levels since they always aim at enhancing creativity, imaginativeness, and discovery."

The above interview results suggest that the URA trainers should deliver the education programs in such a way that it enhances the trainees to master higher-level skills. The training that focuses on higher-level skills development is likely to produce trainees who can manage the challenges of the changing job environments which require creativity and innovation.

However, the negative responses represented by the 11% disagreeing with this statement suggest there could be some employees who, prior to URA training, experienced very high-level training through which they obtained higher or same level of skills and, therefore, their attendance of the URA education programs could be a matter of formality and of no impact to them. It could also imply that there are some employees who prior to joining URA have had very little exposure to trainings offering mastery of higher level skills and may not cope with the type of instruction which provides numerous skills at heightened levels at one training as URA training may be doing. By conventional wisdom, such people will not agree with the view that a similar training offered at slightly inferior or superior level can be more superior or inferior to what they have gone through before. This was also confirmed by a key informant code-named F, who implied that learning is a gradual process saying;

The skills focused on by URA trainers are progressive from lower to higher levels as is the case with the new program, ITRAT, because it is not worth pumping all skills at one going in a program to attain mastery of higher level skills".

By and large, the results show that most of the employees think that the URA trainers focus on enhancing abilities, quality instruction and mastery of higher-level skills in the process of disseminating education programs at the training school. This implies that URA trainers focus mostly on the education approach which is in keeping with the basic principles of competence-based education (Blank, 1982). It follows therefore, that URA education programs are competence-based.

Benefits of CBE programs

The results are shown in Table 2:

Table 2: Benefits of URA education programs

Benefits of URA education programs	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Mean	Stdv
Have ability to facilitate more taxpayer registrations	4(1.5%)	11(4.2%)	12(4.5%)	121(45.8%)	116(43.9%)	4.3	0.8
Have ability to facilitate more assessments	1(.4%)	7(2.7%)	20(7.7%)	138(53.1%)	94(36.2%)	4.2	0.7
Have ability to collect more revenue	3(1.1%)	4(1.5%)	8(3.0%)	140(52.2%)	113(42.2%)	4.3	0.7
Am capable of doing quality registrations	2(.7%)	7(2.6%)	16(5.9%)	143(53.0%)	102 (37.8%)	4.2	0.7
Am capable of producing accurate assessments	5(1.9%)	11(4.1%)	24(8.9%)	154(57.0%)	76(28.1%)	4.1	0.8
Am capable of mobilizing revenue from more taxpayers	4(1.5%)	9(3.4%)	21(7.9%)	144(54.1%)	88(33.1%)	4.1	0.8
Use strengthened skills to expand the taxpayer register	4(1.5%)	12(4.5%)	25(9.5%)	149(56.4%)	74(28.0%)	4.0	0.8
Use strengthened skills to produce viable assessments	5(1.9%)	17(6.5%)	35(13.3%)	139(52.9%)	67(25.5%)	3.9	0.9
Use strengthened skills to enhance tax collections	4(1.5%)	13 (5.0 facilitate %)	17(6.5%)	145(55.8%)	81(31.2%)	4.1	0.8

Source: *Primary data*

Based on the five statements that were made, more than 80% of the respondents were strongly in agreement that the CBE programs of the URA benefited them in terms of abilities, capabilities and strengthened skills with which to expedite their various job roles. In the first lot of items, more than 90% with means > 3 and standard deviation (stdv) < 1 agreed that they benefited in terms of ability to register more tax payers, do more assessments and collect more revenue. This means that the education programs empower them to produce more output, indicating that employee efficiency is accordingly propelled. Besides this, the findings also show that about 80% with relatively higher means exceeding 4 and stdv much less than one, were in agreement that their benefit was in terms of capability to perform better in their job roles. The similarity in these findings suggests that URA education programs do not only provide trainees with the potential to work, but also the will to do so. Another area of benefit was use of strengthened skills to enhance tax collections which majority of the respondents believed had been achieved. CBE focuses on mastery of higher-level skills as revealed in Table 1 and the trainees acquire skills at similarly high and strengthened levels.

It can be concluded from these findings that the CBE approach used in the URA education programs provides employees with abilities, capabilities and strengthened skills with which to increase efficiency in all their job roles.

Contributions of CBE approach to efficiency of employees

The findings are presented in Table 3:

Table 3: Responses on contributions of CBE approach used in URA education programs to efficiency of employees

Statements on increases of employee output (efficiency)	SD	D2	NS	A	SA	Mean	stdv
More clients obtain comprehensive services at my desk in less time	3(1.1%)	5(1.9%)	15(5.6%)	105 (39.3%)	139(52.1%)	4.4	0.8
More data from potential taxpayers is generated	4(1.5%)	9(3.3%)	25(9.3%)	122(45.4%)	109(40.5%)	4.2	0.9
More taxpayers obtain TINS in the same period of time than before	5(1.9%)	8(3.0%)	25(9.3%)	113(42.0%)	118(43.9%)	4.2	0.9
More self-assessments/ declarations are received due to technical guidance	3(1.1%)	8(3.1%)	30(11.5%)	138(52.7%)	83(31.7%)	4.1	0.8
More verification checks are completed in time	6(2.3%)	13(5.0%)	30(11.5%)	124(47.5%)	88(33.7%)	4.1	0.9
More tax Audits are completed on time	6(2.3%)	25(9.6%)	45(17.3%)	114(43.8%)	70(26.9%)	3.8	1.0
More tax yields from audits are realized due to technical support	9(3.4%)	25(9.4%)	46(17.2%)	119(44.6%)	68(25.5%)	3.8	1.0
Increasing collections from arrears are realized	5(1.9%)	13(5.0%)	37(14.2%)	138(53.1%)	67(25.8%)	4.0	0.9
More collections are received due to team working	3(1.1%)	5(1.9%)	21(7.8%)	127(47.2%)	113(42.0%)	4.3	0.8

Source: *Primary data*

From Table 3, almost all of the respondents appear to be in agreement with the statement that their output increases as a result of URA CBE programs since they make more clients obtain comprehensive services in less time, suggesting that when employees undertake more of the URA education programs they will be able to provide assistance to more taxpayers to deal with their tax matters.

In addition, Table 3 indicates that a majority of 85% of the respondents were strongly in agreement that URA generates more data from potential taxpayers and subsequently registers more of them in line with TIN registration guidelines as a result of the URA CBE programs. This means that the number of taxpayers who obtain TINs is more after employees undergo training than before, suggesting that the more CBE programs the employees go through, the more TIN registrations they will work on.

A closer examination of these three statements reveals that they refer to quantitative changes in employee efficiency in taxpayer registration. First, part of them is about employees being able to achieve increased customer care where proper taxpayer education is given to more clients to make them understand and appreciate the need to register for taxes. Second, these employees are able to extract increased amounts of data upon which new and potential taxpayers are identified as fit for registration. Finally, the same employees are able to analyze this data and register more taxpayers through issuance of TINs. This implies that employees apply the competences acquired from URA CBE programs to improve their efficiency in taxpayer registration. This suggests that the CBE approach used in URA education programs positively contributes to employee productivity in taxpayer registration.

The table further reveals that more than three-quarters of the respondents reported that their output in assessments increased after interacting with the CBE approach. The responses suggest that the increases in assessments were more in terms of self-assessments received, and verification checks on these assessments than on tax audits done and yields realized out of them. This is not only explained by the variations in the respective proportions of the responses, but also by the means >4 as opposed to mean $>3 < 4$ and standard deviation less close to and more closer to 1 respectively for the former and latter. These findings can be interpreted to mean that CBE programs improve the performance of employees in their task of vetting and verifying more tax declarations and that the audit role which requires high-level skills to interpret and apply tax laws is simplified, and becomes easier to expedite.

On the other hand, because the level of the respondents' agreements on statements on audit was lower, it could mean that while most of the audits are done well enough and taxpayers appreciate the assessed tax and pay it as agreed; there are some URA employees who cannot distinguish between yields from normal collections and those of audits. This implies that a section of employees are not in the mainstream collections or audits and may not be sure of this distinction.

More than three-quarters of the respondents were in agreement that their output in terms of collections from arrears increased as a result of the CBE approach used in the URA education programs. This means that URA CBE programs make employees more efficient in terms of monitoring taxpayers' arrears, ultimately resulting into more of the defaulters paying and adding more onto the collections. This implies that the CBE approach in URA education programs makes employees more competent and able to collect more revenue from tax arrears.

Furthermore, the table shows a whopping 89% ($n=240$) of the respondents with a mean >4 and standard deviation of <1 were in agreement that the consequence of URA competence-based education programs is their being able to work in teams and increase on collections. It

implies that collection being the ultimate goal of URA needs people with changed attitude, who are able to work well with others and in teams and increase collections. This statement correlates with the previous one because they are both concerned with collections. This being the case and more so because the descriptive statistics show a convergence of the responses leaning towards agreement, implies that CBE used in URA education programs contributes to quantitative changes in taxpayer collections.

When these findings were compared with those from the face-to-face interviews, it was found that they revealed a similar pattern of results. One respondent from interviews code-named F, who was asked to comment on the productivity of employees who had gone through URA CBE programs compared to those who had not said, “Those who have gone through (CBE) are better.”

The conclusion that can be made from the quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative data (interviews) is that the CBE approach used in the URA education programs enables employees to increase their output.

Testing the hypothesis

The test results of the null hypothesis:-H₀= The CBE approach used in the URA education programs does not contribute to the employee efficiency in their job roles as shown in Table 4:

Table 4: Correlation between CBE approach and employee efficiency in URA

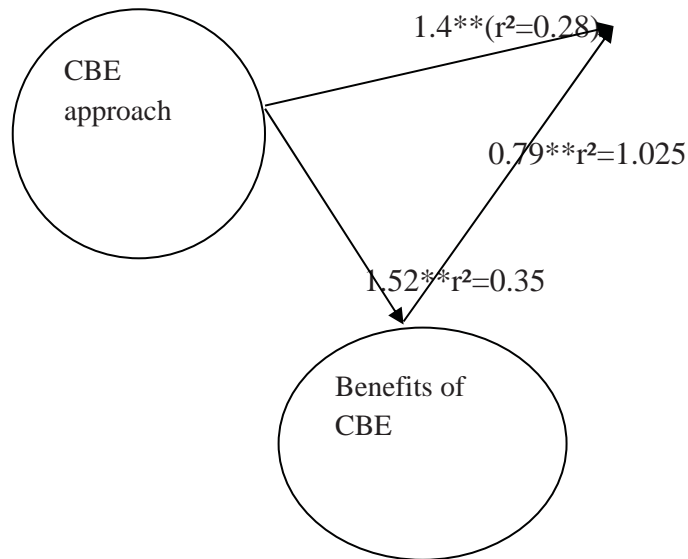
		Competence based education approach	Productivity in terms of efficiency
Competence based education approach	Pearson Correlation	1	.524(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	270	270
Productivity in terms of efficiency	Pearson Correlation	.524(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	270	270

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

Table 4 reveals a statistically significant positive correlation ($r=0.524$, $p=0.000$, <0.05) on employees' efficiency in their job roles, implying that using competence-based education approach in implementing URA education programs has a positive contribution to efficiency of employees in their job roles. This means that when more and more of the competence-based education approach is used to implement education programs in URA, there is also a possibility that employee efficiency in their job roles will increase. This suggests that the employee efficiency in terms of quantity of output in registration, assessments and collections is enhanced because of the competence-based education approach used to implement URA education programs. These findings therefore reject the hypothesis H₀= “the competence based education approach used in the URA education programs does not contribute to efficiency of employees in their job roles”, meaning the alternative hypothesis: “Competence-

based education approach used in the URA education programs contributes to the productivity of employees in their job roles”, is accepted in favor of the null hypothesis.

However, because the correlation tests of this hypothesis only signify a linear relationship between CBE and employee efficiency, the nature and significance of this relationship was further investigated using a hypothesized model of CBE programs and productivity of employees in terms of efficiency, to dispel any doubts that CBE programs have influence on employee efficiency in URA. The results of the empirical test of this model are shown in Figure 1.



** Significant at 0.01

Figure 1: Empirical results of the hypothesized path model

According to Figure 1, the path coefficient of productivity in terms of efficiency took a positive value of 1.4, an indication that where competence-based education approach is used to implement the URA education programs, the contributions made to employee productivity in terms of efficiency are made to a statistically significant extent ($p < 0.01$). Likewise, the indirect paths from benefits of CBE to efficiency and from CBE to benefits also took positive values of 0.79 and 1.52 respectively. This means that those employees who prefer CBE will likely improve on their efficiency while executing their job roles. The results further indicated that the magnitude at which the CBE –the Independent variable (IV) affects productivity in terms of efficiency –the dependent variable (DV), is indicated by r^2 of 0.28, implying that 28% of productivity in terms of efficiency is accounted for by CBE while the remaining 72% of it could be accounted for by the multitude of other factors constituting the nature and scope of learning. The path coefficients therefore suggest that there is no doubt that there is a cause and effect relationship between CBE used in the URA education programs and employee productivity in terms of efficiency.

Discussion

The study findings allude to the predictions that can be made about the changes in employee behavior after the interventions of training. Although these predictions are not easy to come by because of the complexity in the nature and scope of the phenomena underpinning the learning process that takes place during training (UNESCO, 2009), the recourse to the ideas from social learning theory unraveled the mystery of learning. According to UNESCO (2009), learning is a complex phenomenon that involves many contexts, many purposes, and governed by many policies, and involves many actors. The findings of this study provide that trainers use the URA training school infrastructure, and the CBE approach to cause behavioral change that impacts on their performance.

Scholars have argued that CBE is the cornerstone of lifelong learning and aims at matching education to the needs of the workplace (UNESCO, 2008), is practice based (Fisher, 2018), and produces graduates able to cope with the fast-changing world. Other scholars suggest that training should focus on behavioral characteristics of employees, and should be a gradual process whenever and wherever it is provided (Bloom et al., 2006; Ghosh, 2011). This means that practice-based learning approaches like the CBE professed in this study, provide avenues for gradual learning in a social context through observation of trainers, modeling and imitation. The social learning theory is juxtaposed with CBE to explain and predict employee behavioral change after training.

Therefore this study demonstrates the strengths of social learning theory in a number of ways. The results indicate that URA training is conducted at its training school which constitutes a natural environment similar to the places of work. Such an environment provides the social context in which observational learning espoused in the social learning theory takes place. In addition, the learning process is facilitated by trainers who are the live models that demonstrate and explain to the trainees the behavior that is required in the workplace. According to Bandura (1977), the learning takes place through observation of the behavior of the trainers, their attitudes and the outcomes of those behaviors; and is a continuous process of reciprocal interactions. This means that the behavior demonstrated by the respondents of this study was based on their experiences at the training school.

The findings of this study suggest that the teaching and learning process at the URA training bases on competence-based education approach which has been adopted with success in different magnitudes in some institutions of the western world. According to Blank (1982), competence based education approach is premised on the key principles of abilities, quality instruction and mastery of higher-level skills. This approach has been attributed to improvements in performance of employees in the developed countries (Smalley and Kato, 2011) because it bases on the learner-centred methods and refocuses the attention of education to the needs of the workplaces (Dubois et al, 2010; Sally & Irakliotis, 2014) and ultimately fosters positive learning. According to Leamson (1999) positive learning is a product of quality instruction that results into abilities, capability and strengthened skills with which employee self-efficacy is improved. Consequently, such employees are able to practice what they have learned in their workplaces and eventually provide them with the ability to improve their productivity (Szulanski et al., 2016; Tumusiime et al., 2015).

Much as the study findings, just like the efficiency trends in URA records indicate a possible relationship between URA education programs and employee productivity, they do not juxtapose that every aspect of the change in employees' efficiency is triggered by the CBE approach used in the URA education programs. Scholars have suggested that maximization of employee output requires that all other necessary provisions are put in place (Scocco, 2014; Harmond, 2014). This means that other than using the CBE approach during training, institutions will also need to improve on other factors such as training facilities, working climate, employee welfare and health among others.

This suggests that it may be misleading to assume that whenever there is an increase in productivity of an institution, there is also a proportionate increase in the efficiency of its employees. This is because, whereas the different employees go through the same training, the levels of competences they acquire and apply will depend, among other things, on what motivates them to work. According to Maicibi (2013), varying needs espoused in Maslow's theory have significant influence on the ways employees work. Furthermore education programs on their own are not the only triggers of productivity. In the case of productivity in terms of tax collection, scholars have argued that there are many socio-economic and political factors that have impacts on business activity and subsequently, revenue collections. This partly explains why the country is still unable to fully finance its budget from local revenue collections despite the dramatic political and economic changes initiated by the government of Uganda, and which have led to a sustained high economic growth for most of 2004/5 to 2008/09 (Nsonko, 2010; Wiegratz, 2009).

Conclusions

The study concludes that the URA education programs are competence-based because they focus on enhancing the trainees' ability, quality instruction and mastery of higher-level skills. As a result of education programs based on this approach, the trainees get tremendous benefits in terms of ability, capability and strengthened skills. The study further concludes that the competence-based education approach used in the URA education programs contributes to the efficiency of employees in URA. This was confirmed from the correlation and path analysis tests which showed that there is a statistically positive significant correlation between competence-based education approach used in the URA education programs and the productivity of URA employees in terms of positive changes in their efficiency.

Recommendations

The study findings which reveal that competence-based education approach makes positive contributions to employee productivity confirms the scholarly views in the literature suggesting that the time for the old-faceted traditional means of search for knowledge that were subject and teacher-centric are gone; and today's world instead urgently needs to organize and search for knowledge around the areas of application (Drucker & Maciceriello, 2007), implying that knowledge is no longer an end in itself but a resource that is a central energy which translates into increased productivity when it is put into application.

The researcher therefore recommends that in order to resolve the problem of incompetence and lower-than-expected productivity in public institutions, the government of Uganda should make policy changes in the Ugandan education system by 2025 in three stages. The first is that government of Uganda should moot clear and enforceable education policies to guide educationists in the design and implementation of competence-based education programs for the in-service training of employees in public institutions. Secondly, government of Uganda should plan to introduce competence-based tax education programs right from college to university so as to improve on learners' self-efficacy, abilities, attitude and resolve the would-be productivity challenges when they get into the world of work in URA and other related public institutions. Thirdly, the government should make policy changes in the education sector aimed at introducing competence-based education curricula in different magnitudes at all levels of the education system to change the learners' attitudes and prepare them to be job creators after the completion of any level. This will be a departure from the current situation where most of the products of the education system are job seekers.

References

- Abner, B. Bartosh, O. Unggeleider C. & Tiffin R. (2014). *Productivity implications of a shift to competence based education: An environmental scan and review of relevant literature*. Toronto: Higher Education Quality Council of Ontario.
- Agaba, S., B & Kaberuka, W. (2014). Determinants of tax effort in developing countries: empirical evidence from Uganda, *The Ugandan Journal of Management and Public Policy Studies*, Kampala, 8(1), 44-54.
- Aguinis, H. & Kraiger, K. (2005). Benefits of training and development for individuals and teams; organizations, and society. *Annual Review of Psychology*. 60,451-74.
- Albert, M. (1993). *Capitalism against capitalism*. London, Whurr Publishers.
- Amin, E.M. (2005). *Social science research: conception, methodology and analysis*. Kampala: Makerere University.
- Armstrong, M. (2005). *A handbook of human resource management practice*, 9th.ed. London: Kogan Page
- Anastios, D. Diamantidis & Prodramos D., C. (2014). Employee post training behavior and performance: evaluating the results of the training process, *International Journal of Training and Development*, U.K.: John Wiley.
- Babbie, E. (2010). *The practice of social research*. Belmont, U.S.A: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.
- Bahemuka, P. K. (2012). *Income tax in Uganda*, (3rd Edn.). Kampala: The New Vision Printing and Publishing Company Ltd.
- Baldwin. (2008). *Improving learning transfer in organizations*. San Francisco : John Willey.
- Baldwin, T.T. and Ford, J. K. (1988). Transfer of training: a review and direction for future research, *Personnel Psychology*, 41, 63-105
- Bandura, A (1977). Self-efficacy: Towards a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84,191-215.
- Blank, W. E. (1982). *Handbook for developing competency-based training programs*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice – Hall Inc.

- Blume, B., D., Ford, J. K., Baldwin, T., T. & Huang, J., L. (2010). Transfer of training: a meta-analytic review. *Journal of Management*, 36, 1065-105.
- Becker, G. S. (1964). *Human capital: a theoretical and empirical analysis with special reference to education*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Berman, E., Bowman J., S, West, P., J & Van Wart R., M. (2013). *Human resource management in public service: paradoxes, pressures, and problems*, (4th. Ed), Los Angeles: Sage.
- Bird, M., R. & Milka C., J. (1992). *Improving tax administration in developing countries*. Washington DC: IMF.
- Black, S. E. & Lynch, L., M. (1996). Human capital investment and productivity. *The American Economic Review*. 86(2)263-267.
- Bloom, C., Canning, D. & Chan, K. (2006). Higher education and economic development in Africa: African regional Human development working paper series no. 2. World Bank, Washington D.C. 2006
- Brown, J. (2006). Meeting the competence needs of global leaders. *A partnership approach human resource management*, 45, 309-336.
- Brumm, T., J, Mickelson, S., K., Steward, B. & Kaleita, A., A. (2006). Competence based outcomes assessment for agricultural engineering programs. *International Journal of Engineering Education*, 22(6), 1163-1172.
- Bryman, A. (2000). *Research methods and organization studies*. London, Routledge.
- Chen, D. and Reinkka, R. (1999). Business taxation in low revenue economy: a study on Uganda in comparison with neighboring countries, June 1999. African regional working paper series no. 3.
- Chuang, C. & Liao, H. (2010). Strategic human resource management in service-context: taking care of business taking care of employees and customers. *Personnel Psychology*, 63, 153-96
- Collins, P. (2007). Public administration and development. *International Journal of Management Research & Practice*. West Sussex, Wiley & Sons.
- Creswell, J., W. (2014). *Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.), Los Angeles, Sage.
- Drucker, F., P. (2003). *People and performance: the best of Peter Drucker on management*. Oxford: Butterworth, Heinemann.
- Drucker, F. P. & Maciceriello, J. A. (2007). *The daily Drucker: 366 days of insight and motivation for getting the right things to do*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth, Heinemann, U. K.
- Dubois, D. D. Rothwell, J. W., Kemp, K. L. & Stern, K. D. (2010). *Competency-based human resource management*. USA: Davis – Black.
- East African Community. (2012). Post-graduate diploma in customs administration: management training materials (level 11). Directorate of Customs, East African Community.
- Emojong, J. (2004). In-service training programs and their effects on the performance of staff at the Uganda Revenue Authority. Kampala, Unpublished M.A. Dissertation Makerere University.
- Ghosh, B. (2011). *Human resource development and management*. New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House.

- Hammond, B. (2014). What is the difference between efficiency and effectiveness? Retrieved on September, 2014 from http://www.answers.com/Q/what_is_difference_between_efficiency_and_effectiveness
- Hoffmann, T. (1999). The meanings of competence. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 23(6)257-285.
- Holmes, K. (2006). *The Income Tax Act 1997: a primer on concepts and structure*. The Netherlands, IBFD
- Huselid, M. A. (1995). The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity and corporate financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 635-72
- Irakliotis, L. & Sally, M. J. (2014). *Educause review online-educause research and publications*.
- Kenya Revenue Authority. (2010). *Revenue administration reforms: experience and lessons*. Nairobi: Kenya Revenue Authority.
- Klein, Collins. (2012). *Competence based degree program in the US post-secondary credentials for measurable student learning and performance*. Council on Adult and Experiential Learning.
- Krejcie, R. V. & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30,606-610.
- Leamson, R., N. (1999). *Thinking about teaching and learning with first year college and university students*. Accessed on <https://www.goodreads.com>sh>
- Maicibi, N. A. (2013). *The manager's companion and manual: organizational behavior*. Kampala: Fountain Publishers.
- Materu, P. (2006). Talking notes. Conference on knowledge for Africa's development, Johannesburg, South Africa, May, 2006.
- Mendenhall, R. (2014). *What is competence based education?* Western Governors University: The Huffington Post.
- Milksen, C. (2014). What is the difference between efficiency and effectiveness in business? Retrieved September, 2014 from <http://smallbusiness.chron.com/difference-between-efficiency-effectiveness-business-26009.html/>
- Miller, R., L. & Brewer, J. (2003). *A-Z of social research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Mugume, C. (2014). *Managing taxation in Uganda*. Kampala: CMK Consulting limited
- Mulder, M. (2007). Competence – the essence and use of the concept in ICVT. *European Journal of Vocational Training*, 40, 5-22.
- Mulder, M, Gulikers, J, Wesselink, R. & Biemans, H. (2008). The new competence approach in higher education: error or enrichment? Paper presented at the AERA, New York, Mar, 25.
- Mullins, L., J. (2016). *Management & organizational behavior*. U.K., Pearson Education Limited.
- Noe, R. A., Hollenbeck, J. R., Gerhart, B. & Wright, P. (2006). *Human resource management: gaining a competitive advantage*. Boston: M.A: McGraw-Hill.
- NCHE. (2013). *Tracer study of 2005 graduates from five universities and four colleges*. Kampala: NCHE.

- OECD, (2009). Forum on tax administration: compliance management of large business task group: Guidance note – Experiences and practices of eight OECD countries.
- Pfeffer, J. (1998). Seven practices of successful organizations. *California management Review*, 40(2):96-124.
- Raymond, A., N. (2010). *Employee training and development*. New York, McGraw-Hill.
- Rugumayo, A., & Kyobe, E. (2005). Competency based education and training (CBET): a case study of Uganda. 31st WEDC International Conference, Kampala, Uganda, 2005
- Salas, E., Tannernbaum, S.I., Kraiger, K. & Smith-Jentsh, K., A. (2012). The science of training and development in organizations: what matters in practice. *Psychological Science in Public Interest*, 13, 74-101.
- Sallis, E. and Gary, J. (2002). *Knowledge management in education: enhancing learning and education*. London: Kogan Page.
- Sally, J., M & Soares, L.(2014). Principles for developing competence-based education programs. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 46:2,12-19 DOI:10.1080/0091383.2014.896705.
- Scocco, D. (2014). Effective vs. efficient: Do you know the difference? Retrived 14 September 2014 from <http://www.dailyblotips.com/effective-vs-efficient-difference/>
- Smalley, A & Kato, I. (2011). *Toyota kaizen methods: Steps to improvement*. London: CRS Press
- Ssonko. (2010). Achieving Uganda’s national development visions: what role has public administration played. A paper presented at the 32nd. APPAM Annual Roundtable Conference, Durban, South Africa, 15-19 November 2010.
- Sotirios, S. (2013). *Social research*, (4th. Ed.). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Stewart, J. (1999). *Employee development practice*. England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Szulanski, G, Ringov,D & Jensen R., J.(2016). Overcoming stickiness: how the timing of knowledge transfer methods affects transfer difficulty. *Organization Science*, 27(2): 304-322
- Tumuhimbise. (2000). Introduction to taxation in Uganda, Kampala, Makerere University Business School.
- Tumusiime,J., Nanziri, S., Atukunda,M. and Zzimbe, P. L.(2015). Expanding Uganda’s tax base by tapping into informal sector. *URA Research Bulletin*, FT,201/15
- UNESCO. (2009). Resolution of member states of UNESCO on Adult education and development. United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation, sixth Internaional Conference on Adult Education, Belgium, 1-4 Dec.. 2009.
- URA. (1991). *Uganda revenue authority code, no. 6,1991*, Kampala, Uganda.
- URA. (2005a). *Taxation handbook: a guide to taxation in Uganda*, 2nd. Ed. Kampala, URA.
- URA. (2005b). *The taxman*: Kampala, Corporate Affairs Aanagement Division, URA.
- URA. (2007a). Annual revenue, 2006/07: *URA Bulletin*. Nakawa, Research and Statistics Unit.
- URA. (2007b). Human resource management manual. URA
- URA. (2010). *Human resource management manual*: Kampala, Uganda Revenue Authority Publications.

- URA. (2011). *Human capital management*. Nakawa, URA Newsletter.
- URA. (2012). *Human resource management manual*. URA
- URA. (2013). A new dawn in URA: Managing compliance programs. *URA Bulletin*, January.
- URA. (2015). *URA quarterly and cumulative revenue performance for 2015/16: report to Parliament of Uganda*, Mar. 2016. Kampala, URA.
- Velada, R., Caetane, A., Michael, J., W, Lyons, B., D. & Kavangh, M., J. (2007). The effects of training design, individual characteristics and work environment on transfer of training. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 11, 282-94
- Walliman, N. (2011). *Research methods: the basics*. London: Routledge.
- Wiegratz, J. (2009). *Uganda's human resource challenge: training, business culture and economic development*. Kampala: Fountain Publishers.
- World Bank. (2005). *World Development Report*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Yamazaki, Y. (2013). Using a competence approach to understand host country national managers in Asia. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, vol. 25. Routledge.
- Yin, Robert K. (2009). *Case study research design: design and methods (4th Ed.)*. London: Sage..
- Zhu, Y. (2004). Responding to challenges of globalization: human resource development in Japan. *Journal of World Business*, 39,337-348.
-

Staff Development and Quality Education in Uganda: analysis of Quality Teaching and Research in Private Chartered Universities

Juliet Atwebembeire¹ and Paul Netalisile Malunda²
 Uganda Management Institute julieatwe@gmail.com¹
 Uganda Management Institute malundap@yahoo.com²

Abstract

This study explored the contribution of staff development to quality education in Uganda. The study was triggered by persistent public criticism of the quality of education especially in private universities in Uganda. A positivist research paradigm and descriptive cross-sectional survey research design were used to conduct the study. Data were collected from four private chartered universities registered in Uganda. Respondents included 181 lecturers, 23 heads of department, 5 deans, 3 quality assurance officers, 3 directors of research, 3 senior staff from the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE). Descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and content analysis were used to analyze the data collected. The results indicated a significant positive relationship ($r=0.587$, $p=0.000<0.05$) between staff development and quality teaching and research. The results suggest that improved staff development initiatives correspond to improved quality teaching. The study recommended that private universities should share knowledge through collaborations, experience-sharing, workshops and exchange teaching and research material and ideas to learn good teaching, research and management practices from each other.

Key words: Staff Development, Quality Education, Private Chartered Universities, Positivist Research Paradigm, Cross-Sectional Survey

Introduction

Higher education environments across the globe are frequently described as turbulent and dynamic (Brookes & Becket, 2007). Global and national forces are driving change within higher education institutions across countries. These changes heightened demand for the expansion of higher education services leading to the emergence of private universities to meet the growing demand. The increase in the number of private universities has led to commercialization of higher education and the introduction of market-oriented courses and programmes and created a challenge of maintaining the quality of education (OECD 2007; Mamdani, 2007). Several strategies are therefore needed to help these institutions to improve and maintain quality by employing qualified teaching staff and devising staff development initiatives that increase opportunities for teaching staff to attain knowledge improvement and skills development.

This study was anchored on the Total Quality Management (TQM) theory and the Plan, Do, Check, Act (PDCA) model by Deming (1986). The TQM theory focuses on continuous improvement as one of the ways of improving quality (Deming, 1986) while the PDCA model specifically emphasizes and demonstrates that improvement of programmes or any performance should go through four consecutive steps (Plan, Do, Check, Act). The model was specifically used as a lens for appreciating the need for managers of universities to incorporate staff development strategies in their plans, implement those strategies, check to see if they are working and act by either concretizing those plans or devising other means.

This study focused on staff development and quality education as the main concepts. Staff development was conceptualized as a management practice which aims at bettering the efficiency of individuals and groups in organizational settings through enhancing their personal growth, preparing them for positions of greater responsibility and helping them to improve their analytical, human, conceptual and specialized skills for performance improvement and innovativeness (Garavan et al., 1995; Tiberondwa, 2000; Karemire 2013; Bloom, Genakos, Sadun & Reenen, 2011). Several scholars (Armstrong, 2009; Lumpkin, 2009; McCormack et al., 2013; International Coach Federation, 2012; McCarthy & Milner, 2013; Wheeler, 2011) have advanced different approaches to staff development including: induction, mentoring, training, attendance of seminars, workshops, conferences, short courses within or outside the institution and sabbatical leave, among others.

Basing on these approaches, staff development in this study was conceptualized as a process of orienting, mentoring, training and developing lecturers in universities with knowledge, skills and positive attitudes to enable them work better and empower them to maximally utilize their abilities.

Quality education, on the other hand, has no single definition; but different scholars have defined it basing on the differences in stakeholders' interests and expectations, and the different indicators and strategies used to achieve it (Campbell & Royzsnayai, 2002; Muguad & Krone, 2012; Akareem & Hossain, 2016). It is often difficult for an education institution to meet all the expectations or needs of the various stakeholders at the same time. Therefore, different indicators may be developed to give information about the performance of an education institution in different aspects of input, processes and outcomes, and these can be based upon to define quality education. This study therefore based on the two core processes -- quality teaching and quality research -- to define quality education.

Quality teaching, according to Hénard and Roseveare (2012), is the use of pedagogical techniques to produce learning outcomes for students. Quality teaching involves the effective design of curriculum and course content, use of a variety of learning contexts including guided independent study, project-based learning, collaborative learning, experimentation, among others, to solicit and use feedback, effective assessment of learning outcomes, well-adapted learning environments and student support services (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012; OECD, 2012; NCHE, 2014; OECD, 2012). Quality research, on the other hand, is the creative work undertaken by a university on a systematic basis in order to increase the stock of knowledge, including knowledge of humankind, culture and society, and the use of this stock of knowledge to devise new applications (Tibenderana, 2013). The National Council of Higher Education (NCHE, 2014) defines quality research basing on the percentage of the university budget devoted to research and publications, support to research by policy committees, funds earned from research projects by the institution and individual staff, support that universities give to staff to promote research and staff research outputs including staff publications, citations, supervision of students in research, staff paper presentation in internal and local conferences, research groups and research grants. Quality teaching and research in this study was conceptualized basing on the OECD (2012) and NCHE (2016) indicators of the two concepts.

Statement of the problem

There is a growing criticism of university education in terms of its role in society, the effectiveness of its teaching, and the usability of the trained graduates. Literature shows that the teaching in private institutions of higher learning in Uganda is compromised by poor pedagogical skills, surface learning and inadequate skilling for the current work demands (Ssentamu, 2014; Tibenderana, 2013; Mamdani, 2007). The graduates are ill-prepared for the job market, and often criticized for failure to display the type of knowledge, initiative, maturity and capacity to contribute to national development (Agaba, 2011). The teaching in these universities concentrates more on theory than practice which creates a mismatch between training received and practical skills required by employers (Tibenderana, 2013; Bagarukayo, 2012; OECD Report, 2012). Reports also indicate some lecturers interact with students for only half of the expected contact hours, miss lectures or are not consistent in class. In addition, the quality and quantity of research done in these universities is not satisfactory (Mahmood, 2011; *New Vision*, 2011; Baryamureeba, 2016) and yet research is what differentiates a university lecturer from a secondary school teacher (NCHE, 2016).

Furthermore, reports indicate that some universities are employing unqualified staff to teach and yet Section 119 of the University and Other Tertiary Institutions Act [UOTIA] (2001) provides that, “No University or tertiary institution shall employ a lecturer, instructor, or other persons recruited for the purpose of teaching or giving instructions to students whose qualifications do not conform with the standards set by NCHE”. These regulations have been set by NCHE in statutory instrument No.50 of 2010.

The profit-oriented approach of running these private universities appears to have compromised the attempts of these universities as far as coming up with mechanisms of developing the staff knowledge and skills are concerned; and if this gap is not addressed, then these universities risk to continuously compromise the quality of their teaching and research.

Study Objectives

The purpose of the study was to establish the relationship between staff development and quality teaching and research in private universities. The study specifically focused on the relationship between induction, mentoring, coaching, training and quality teaching and research in private universities in Uganda.

Literature Review

The importance of staff development as a management practice to improve the efficiency of individuals and groups within organizational settings and helping them to improve their human, analytical, conceptual and specialized skills has been emphasized by several scholars (Garavan et al., 1995; Tiberondwa, 2000; Bloom, Genakos, Sadun & Reenen, 2011; Karemiri, 2013; Tibenderana 2013 Greatbatch & Holland, 2016). The authors affirm that staff development is central to the quality of higher education because it helps to build a culture of excellence and a professional team of motivated workers crucial to the achievement of national inspirations for economic development (UNESCO, 2017; Tiberondwa, 2000; World Bank, 1994; Malunda,

2017b). A study by Suhaemi and Aedi (2015) emphasized that staff training is the most essential component in a Higher Education system because lecturer competence development is inseparable from the university development programmes. Therefore if one is to look for an area to improve the quality of teaching and research in an educational institution, it is sensible to look for the continuous education of educators. The authors, however, do not offer suggestions on how this training should be conducted. Other crucial areas to consider in staff development are induction mentoring and coaching since they support learning from each other and help employees develop and learn new skills under the direction and advice of a seasoned expert (Malunda, 2017a; Jones, Woods and Guillaume, 2015; Zepeda, 2013; McCarthy & Milner, 2013; Wheeler, 2011). Therefore, universities should continuously enhance lecturers' knowledge, skills, attitudes and beliefs necessary to create high levels of learning for students considering that the volume of human knowledge is doubling every five or ten years. It is thus almost impossible for an individual staff member to remain in touch with the subject without a conscious investment in scholarship and self-tuition (Karemire, 2013; OECD, 2010; World Bank, 2000; UNESCO, 1996).

Methodology

A cross-sectional survey design was used to conduct the study. The study targeted four private universities in Uganda. The sample was selected from the private chartered universities. The choice of chartered universities in this study was based on the premise that they have all the minimum requirements needed to offer quality education. The selected four private chartered universities were selected from the eight private chartered universities, representing 50% of the target population. Disproportionate stratified random sampling technique was used to enable representation basing on the foundation status. The selected universities included two faith-based universities and two private-for-profit universities. From the selected universities, 356 lecturers and 44 student leaders were randomly selected. Deans, heads of department, directors of research and quality assurance and senior officers from NCHE were purposively selected as key informants.

Questionnaire, interview and document review were conducted to collect data. The instruments were pre-tested before they were administered. The results of the descriptive analysis were presented in tables indicating frequencies and percentages. Correlation analyses were done to test the degree, strength and direction of the influence of staff development on quality teaching and research. The tests of significance were performed at the probability level of $p < 0.05$. Data collected using the structured interview guide, the observation checklist and document review guide was deductively analyzed basing on pre-determined variables from the conceptual framework of the study.

Results

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of the study respondents

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percent
Age	Below 25years	2	1.1
	25 to below 35 years	62	34.3
	35 to below 45 years	89	49.2
	45 to below 55 years	13	7.2
	55 years and above	15	8.3
Level of education	Bachelors	15	8.3
	Post graduate	53	29.3
	Masters	87	48.1
	PhD	24	13.3
	Missing	2	1.1
Sex	Male	111	61.3
	Female	70	38.7
Length of service	less than 2 years	28	15.5
	2 to less than 5 years	104	57.5
	5 to less than 8 years	36	19.9
	8 to less than 11years	10	5.5
	11 years and above	2	1.1
	Missing	1	0.6
Employment status	Full time	171	94.5
	Part time	10	5.5

Source: Primary data

A summary of the demographic characteristics shows that the majority of the respondents (49.2%) were aged between 35 and 45 years. Qualifications however indicate that the number of PhDs were few (6.6%), yet according to the NCHE qualification framework, for one to qualify to teach at university level, one must hold a PhD or be in the process of acquiring one (NCHE, 2016). This meant that private universities were severely understaffed in regard to qualified staff for teaching and spearheading the research function. Results further showed that there were more male lecturers (61.3%) compared to their female counterparts (38.7%). On the issue of tenure of service, results showed that the majority of the lecturers (57.5%) had worked less than 5 years in their respective universities, which indicates lack of stability of lecturers. Demographic results also show that more full-time staff (94.5%) than part-timers (5.5 %) took part in the study, indicating a positive move of the universities towards acquiring full-time teaching staff compared to the past years where private universities were dominated by part-timers.

Descriptive Results on Staff development

The study sought the views of respondents on staff development in terms of induction, mentoring, coaching and training. A summary of their responses is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics on the lecturers' views on Staff development

Staff development	Agree	Non-committal	Disagree
There is a thorough program for induction of new staff in my department in the areas of teaching	54(29.8%)	17(9.4%)	110(60.8%)
I was properly inducted when I joined this University in the area of teaching	52(28.8%)	7(3.9%)	116(64%)
My department has a well-coordinated scheme for mentoring staff in research activities	33(18.2%)	26(14.4%)	120(66.3)
Peer coaching is encouraged in our department	45(24.9%)	19(10.5%)	116(64%)
My department has put special strategies in place to facilitate staff to improve on their teaching skills	91(50.3%)	23(12.7%)	66(36.5%)
My department organizes in-service trainings to address staff training needs in teaching and research	49(27%)	13(7.2%)	119(65.7%)
There is a policy in my department that is used to recommend staff for further training	118(65.2%)	27(14.9%)	36(19.9%)
My department has a scheme in place for sponsoring staff for further studies	48(26.5%)	28(15.5%)	105(58%)
My department organizes workshops and seminars to enable staff learn from one another.	123(68%)	32(17.7%)	24(13.2%)
My department facilitates teaching staff to become innovative in their approach to teaching	125(69.0%)	15(8.3%)	41(22.7%)

Source; primary data 2017

Results in Table 2 indicate that the majority of the respondents (more than 60%) feel that staff development practices that include induction of new staff, well-coordinated schemes for mentoring staff in research activities, peer coaching and in-service trainings and research are not being properly carried out in their departments. On the positive side, however, the majority of the respondents (50.3%) indicated that their departments had put special strategies in place to facilitate staff to improve their teaching skills and were facilitating teaching staff to become innovative in their approach to teaching (69%) such as organizing workshops and seminars to enable staff to learn from one another. In addition, the majority (65.2%) agreed that departments had put in place policies to recommend staff for further training, although only (26.5%), agreed that schemes had been in place to sponsor staff for further studies. These results therefore suggest that the majority of the lecturers working in these private universities were not properly inducted, mentored, or even sponsored for further studies.

Interviews with the deans and heads of department confirmed that, indeed, staff development initiatives in these universities were lacking due to insufficient funds. The document reviewed indicated that three out of the four universities had not allocated funds to the staff development function in the last two academic years. The lack of sponsorship was

attributed to the unreliability of the lecturers who seek for employment elsewhere after being trained, causing financial loss to the universities that fund their studies.

Descriptive results on quality teaching

The study sought views of lecturers on the quality of teaching in private universities in Uganda, and below in Table 3. are descriptive results.

Table 3: Lectures' responses on quality teaching

Response on Teaching	Agree	Non-committal	Disagree
The teaching and learning materials in my department are adequate	74(40.9%)	5(2.8%)	102(56.4%)
Teaching and materials are availed easily in my department	72(39.8%)	8(4.4%)	101(55.8%)
Initiatives aimed at improving aspects of teaching have been put in place in my department	65(35.9%)	5 (2.8 %)	109(60.2%)
My department has put in place special programmes to help weak students	53(29.3%)	20 (11%)	108(59.7%)
Actions to improve student knowledge of education paths and placement/internship opportunities through specific services such as career advice are available	132(72.9%)	19(5.5 %)	37(20.5%)
The department makes effort to follow up students to know what they are doing in their internship	166(91.8%)	7(3.9%)	8(4.5%)
I assess students' performance in internship basing on their reports	142(78.5%)	11(6.1%)	28(15.5%)
The teaching and learning environment is conducive	70(38.6%)	4 (2.2%)	107(59.1%)
There is always enough space to conduct my lectures from	65(35.9%)	10(5.5%)	106(58.6%)
I prefer using the lecture method of teaching	84(46.4%)	9(5%)	86(47.6%)
I find the use of learner based methods of teaching more friendly	53(29.3%)	9(5%)	117(64.6%)
My way of teaching promotes students' critical thinking	153(84.6%)	15(8.3%)	11(11.5%)
I give assignments and projects to my students on time.	167(92.3%)	3(1.7%)	11(6.1%)
I give feedback on academic work of students promptly	171(94.5%)	6(3.3%)	2 (1.1%)
Assessment of students are planned as an integral part of teaching	167(92.2%)	3(1.7%)	11(6.1%)
Course outlines are consistent with the approved curriculum	154(85.1%)	9(5%)	18(10%)

Source: Primary Data

In Table 3 respondents were asked to give their opinions on the initiatives in their departments that were aimed at ensuring quality teaching. These included: the adequacy and availability of teaching and learning materials, the teaching methods, assessment and giving feedback to students, the teaching environment, students support services and the curriculum design.

In their response, the majority 56.4% of the lecturers indicated that the teaching and learning materials were inadequate; 55.8% said that the materials were not easily available as well. These results suggest that the required teaching and learning materials were not enough to support the lecturers to deliver the required learning content. Results, however, indicate that departments had tried to put in place initiatives to improve teaching such as: providing students with knowledge of education paths and internship opportunities (72.9%), and following up students to know what they were doing in their internship (91.8%). The results indicate, however, that learner-based approaches of delivery were hardly employed (29.3%); minimal effort was being put in place by the departments that have special programmes for weak students (29.3%); and the teaching and learning environment was largely not conducive (59.1%). On the positive side, results show that the majority of the respondents (over 85%) indicated that assessment of students was planned as an integral part of the teaching process and that lecturers (94.5%) promptly gave feedback on students' assignments. Results also suggest that course outlines were consistent with the approved curriculum.

Interviews with heads of department and senior quality assurance officers in all the selected universities pointed out inadequacy of teaching and learning materials as one major factor affecting quality teaching. One senior quality assurance officer explained thus:

Lack of equipment and sometimes even teaching space especially for those classes that require computers compels some lecturers to teach outside the scheduled timetables. This is a quality issue because it compromises the students' attendance and in most cases such lecturers don't teach up to the required contact hours. It also leads to disgruntlement since students look at it as being cheated and intimidated.

Interviews further reported unethical behavior by some lecturers like hiding equipment like projectors from other potential users. Such behavior not only inconvenienced other users but also impacted negatively on the teaching.

Descriptive results on quality research

The study also set out to assess the quality of research done by the private universities in Uganda. Respondents were asked about their opinions on the quality of research in their universities in relation to the research processes, the support they were getting at the departmental level to promote the research function, and their contribution to the research output. Results are presented in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Responses of academic staff on quality research

Research	Agree	Non-committal	Disagree
There is a clear policy in my department that guides staff engagement in research activities	53(29.3%)	30(16.6%)	98(54.2%)
My department has a scheme in place for sponsoring academic staff to attend international conferences	45(24.9%)	22(24.9%)	114(63%)
The budget for research activities in my department is adequate	39(21.4%)	5(2.8%)	136(75.1%)
Promotion to a higher position in my department is based on research output	95(52.5%)	16(8.8%)	69(38.1%)
My department assists academic staff to publish their research work	24(13.2%)	32(17.7%)	123(68%)
The budget for research activities in my department is adequate	39(21.4%)	5(2.8%)	136(75.1%)
Collaborating with colleagues to do research makes it easy	165(91.1%)	5(2.8%)	10(11%)
I am always involved in carrying out research for my department	61 (33.7%)	3(1.7%)	116(64.1%)
Research groups in my department are very active	43(23.8%)	10 (5.5%)	160(88.4%)
Staff are facilitated with funding to carry out research work	69(38.1%)	15(8.3%)	97(53.6%)
My department facilitates staff to do research in terms of reduced teaching load	11(6.1%)	10(5.5%)	160(88.4%)
My department receives research grants from the researches done by the staff	15(8.3%)	6(3.3%)	160(88.4%)
I regularly publish articles in peer reviewed journals	55(30.3%)	13(7.1%)	113(62.4%)
I always publish articles in local journals	65(35.9%)	6 (3.3%)	110(60.7%)
I am usually given an opportunity to present papers in international conferences.	24 (13.3%)	14(7.7%)	143(79.0%)
I always present research papers in locally organized conferences.	108(59.7%)	12(6.6%)	61(33.7%)
My published work is usually cited by other researchers.	41(22.1%)	32(17.7%)	108(59.7%)
I always assist students to complete their research projects in time	123(67.9%)	17(9.4%)	41(22.7%)
My department usually organizes research dissemination workshops	57(31.5%)	11(6.1%)	113(62.4%)

Source; Primary data

Results in Table 4 indicate that private universities have a policy on staff engagement in research. However, majority of the lecturers (62.4%) found the policy guidelines irrelevant. Results suggest that majority of the lecturers (74%) consider the budget for research inadequate to engage them fully in research activities including presentation of papers at international conferences. The inadequate research budget could be the explanation for the low staff participation in research work (38.1%) and few research dissemination workshops (31.5%). Only 6.1% of the lecturers indicated that departments facilitated them to conduct research by

reducing teaching load. However, results in Table 4 indicate that the majority (91.1%) believed that collaborating with colleagues to do research made it easy. Despite this easier avenue of doing research, results show that only 30.3 % regularly published in internationally reviewed journals and 35.9% published in local journals. This suggests that probably collaborations were not strong or well utilized. The majority of the respondents (67.9%) indicated that they were involved in supervising students’ research.

Despite the low output in research, interviews with the directors of research indicated that universities had come up with various strategies to support lecturers to carry out research; create research groups and clusters where members are encouraged to publish as a group; free trainings to lecturers in the use of different data analysis techniques like VGA splitter to enable them handle different groups at ago, SPSS, STATA and others. In an interview with the director Research, Development and Documentation (RDD) at NCHE revealed that most of the private universities exaggerated their involvement in research to advertise and to satisfy NCHE which expected all universities to deposit copies of their research works and engagements with them.

A visit to some of the university libraries did not show strong support in the research area since publications from staff were scanty and the web depository of the research works unsatisfactory. Information from document reviews revealed lack of comprehensive policies on research clearly stating the goals and objectives of research in their universities, funding, strategic partnerships and collaborations, implementation and dissemination strategies. More worrying was the absence of guidelines on conduct of research and supervision of students’ research.

Verification of hypothesis

The study finally sought to establish the contribution of staff development on quality teaching and research in private universities. Correlation analyses were done to establish the relationship between staff development, quality teaching and research. The results are presented in Tables 5 and Table 6 respectively.

Table 5: Correlation analysis on staff development and quality of teaching

		Staff development	Quality teaching
Staff development	Pearson Correlation	1	.587**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	181	181
Quality teaching	Pearson Correlation	.587**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	181	181

The results in Table 5 indicate a significant positive relationship ($r=0.587$, $p=0.000<0.05$) between staff development and quality of teaching. The results suggest that improved staff development initiatives correspond to improved quality of teaching.

Similarly, a correlation analysis was done to establish if there was a relationship between staff development and quality of research. Results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Correlation analysis on staff development and quality of research

		Staff development	Quality of research
Staff development	Pearson Correlation	1	.459**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	181	181
Quality research	Pearson Correlation	.459**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	181	181

Results in Table 6 show that similarly, there is a relationship ($r = 0.459$, $P = 0.000 < 0.05$) between staff development and quality of research. This means that improvement of staff development practices is associated with quality research in private Universities in Uganda.

Discussion of Findings

The purpose of the study was to establish the relationship between staff development and quality teaching and research in private universities in Uganda. The focus was on staff induction, mentoring, coaching and training and how these relate to quality teaching and research. Results indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between staff development and quality teaching, and as well staff development and quality research. This is in agreement with the TQM theory that emphasizes continuous improvement of staff skills through training. These findings are in congruence with previous studies (Malunda, 2017a; McCarthy & Milner, 2013; Karemiri, 2013; Tibenderana 2013; Wheeler, 2011; Ivancenich, 2010; Worldwide Association of Business Coaches, 2007) that have identified staff development initiatives as crucial in enhancing the quality of employees' work. Staff development initiatives like induction programmes are very important for all new teachers to provide logistical, emotional, and teaching support, which in the end lead to strengthening of the teaching practice (Malunda, 2017b). However, results indicated weak implementation of staff development initiatives especially in terms of induction of new staff, mentoring and peer coaching; and yet these are crucial for a university to start off lecturers and orient them in the institution's mission, goals and culture. Contention, however, was observed in the literature over this issue. For instance, Worldwide Association of Business Coaches (2007) doubts as to whether coaching really boosts quality of performance. Wheeler (2011) and Ivancenich (2010) suggest that for these initiatives to yield results, institutions must commit resources to this activity as well as coming with policies and guidelines to this effect.

Conclusion

The study concluded that staff development initiatives in the sampled private universities are inadequate in imparting lecturers with the relevant knowledge, skills and positive attitudes which are required to have high quality education.

Recommendations

In the absence of funds to support programmes for staff development, private universities in Uganda should come together as a consortium to share experiences and exchange materials and ideas. In so doing, the academic staff will be able to learn best practices from one another while university managers will learn good management practices.

References

- Agaba, J. (2014). Only 37% Employers satisfied with Uganda's graduates. *The New Vision* May 22, 2014.
- Akareem, H.S. & Hossain, S.S. (2016). Determinants of education quality: what makes students' Perception different? *Open Review Educational research*. Vol 3 No.1 52-67. Accessed at <http://www.tandfonline.com/action/journalInformation?journalCode=rrer> On 4th April 2017
- Armstrong, M. (2009). *Human resource management practices* (11th Ed.) London: Kogan Page.
- Bagarukayo, E., Ssentamu, N. P., Mayisela, T. & Brown, C. (2016). Activity Theory as a lens to understand how Facebook develops Knowledge application skills. *International Journal of Education and Development using ICT*, 12(3).
- Baryamureba, V. (2016). Without Makerere University, Uganda National Research Agenda is Dead. *Daily Monitor*, 16 December 2016
- Biruk, S. H. (2014). Quality management of education in Ethiopian public Universities. Thesis Submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Education at the University of South Africa.
- Bloom, N. Genakos, C., Sadun, R. & Reenen, V. J. (2011). *Management Practices across Firms and Countries*. Accessed at <http://online library. Wiley .com> 4 November 2017
- Brookes, M. & Becket, N. (2007). Quality management in higher education: A review of International issues and practice. *International Journal of Quality Standards*, 1, 1-15, accessed 14 May 2016 from www.bsieducation.org/ijqs
- Campbell, C. & Rozsnyai, C. (2002). *Quality assurance and the development of Course programmes*. Bucharest: UNESCO
- Cheng, C.Y. & Tam, W.M (1997). Multi Models of Quality in Education. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 5(1), 22-31.
- Deming, W. E. (1986). *Out of Crisis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Greatbatch, T.D. & Holland, J. (2016). Teaching Quality in Higher Education: Literature Review and Qualitative Research. Prepared for the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills by HOST Policy Research.

- Hénard, F. & Roseveare, D. (2012). *Fostering Quality teaching in Higher education: policies and Practices*. An Institutional Management of Higher Education (IMHE) guide for Higher Institutions. OECD
- International Coach Federation (2012). *ICF global coaching study: Executive summary*. Retrieved from <http://www.coachfederation.org/coachingstudy> On 3rd February 2018
- Ivancevich, J. M. (2010). *Human Resource Management* (8th ed.). Boston: Irwin McGraw-Hill
- Jones, R.J., Woods, A.S. & Guillaume, Y.R.F. (2015). The effectiveness of workplace coaching: A meta-analysis of learning and Performance outcomes from coaching. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*. The British Psychological Society.
- Maguad, B.E. & Krone, R.M. (2012). *Managing for quality in Higher Education: A systems Perspective*. An instructional text for teaching the quality sciences. Bookboon.com Mamdani, M. (2007). *Scholars in the marketplace. The dilemmas of neo-liberal reform at Makerere University 1989-2005*. Cape Town, 8000, South Africa
- Mahmood, S. T. (2011). Factors Affecting the Quality of Research in Education: Student's Perceptions. *Journal of Education and Practice*. Vol 2, No 11&12. Accessed at www.iiste.org on 3 March 2017.
- Malunda, P.N. (2017a) Teacher Professional Development and Quality of Pedagogical Practices in Public Secondary Schools in Uganda. *The Ugandan Journal of Management and Public Policy Studies*, Volume 12, pp 82-96.
- Malunda, P.N. (2017b). Teacher Support Systems and Quality of Pedagogical Practices in Public Secondary Schools in Uganda. PhD Dissertation, Makerere University
- McCarthy, G. & Milner, J. (2013). Managerial coaching: challenges, opportunities and training. *Journal of Management Development*, 32 (7), 768-779.
- McCormack, J., Propper, C., & Smith, S. (2013). Herding cats? Management and University Performance. *The Economic Journal*. Volume 124, Issue 578, pp. F534–F564.
- National Council for Higher Education. (2014). Quality assurance frame work for Universities and the lincensing Process for Higher Education Institutions. NCHE. Kampala.
- National Council for Higher Education. (2016). The State of higher education and training in Uganda. A report on Higher education delivery and institutions. Kampala: NCHE.
- OECD Report. (2014). *Learning our lesson: Review of Quality Teaching in Higher Education*. Accessed at <http://www.oecd.org/edu/imhe/qualityteaching> on 17th March 2017
- OECD Report. (2007). *Education at a Glance 2007*. OECD indicators. Accessed at www.oecd.org/education/skills-beyond-school/39313286 on 21st June 2016.
- Ssentamu, P.N. (2014). Opportunities and Threats to Learning: Lessons from a Pedagogical Workshop for Faculty at a Higher Education Institution. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 2(1), 127-138. Doi:10.11114/jets.v2i1.248.
- Suhaemi M.E & Aedi, N. (2015). A Management Strategy for the Improvement of Private Universities Lecturers' Professional Competences. *International Education Studies*, Vol. 8, No. 12. Canadian Center of Science and Education.

- Tibenderana, P.K. (2013). *Modernization of University education in Uganda. Prescription for Progress*. Kampala: MakerereUniversity Printery.
- Tiberondwa, A. (2000). Staff development in Higher education: The case of Makerere University Uganda. Paper Presented at the training workshop on improved teaching skills in Higher Education at Nkumba University, Uganda, May 14.
- UNESCO. (2007). *Supervision: A key component of quality Monitoring Systems. Reforming School.Supervision for quality improvement*. IIEP
- UNESCO. (1996).Report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for 21st Century: The learning Treasure Within. Paris: UNESCO.
- Wheeler, L. (2011). How does the adoption of coaching behaviors by line managers contribute to the achievement of organizational goals? *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, Vol.9 (1)1-15.
- World Bank Report. (2000). *Higher Education in Developing Countries Peril and Promise*. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.Washington DC.
- Zepeda, S. J. (2010). *Instructional Supervision: Applying tools and Concepts* (3rd Ed.). New York: Eye Education. *Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act, (2001) (As Amended in, 2003 and as Amended in, 2006)* Enacted By the Parliament of the Republic Of Uganda as Act 7 New Vision Reporter. (2011).There was no Reason for the Strike at Makerere. *New Vision*, 28 April 2011.

Anti-corruption Institutional Multiplicity Façade in Uganda

Pius Gumisiriza,¹ Robert Mukobi²

Uganda Management Institute, piusgumisiriza@yahoo.com¹

Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development. mukrobb@gmail.com²

Abstract

This article uses a comparative analytical approach to examine critically how and why anti-corruption institutional multiplicity has failed to effectively curb corruption in Uganda. The government of Uganda deliberately created several anti-corruption agencies to fight corruption simultaneously in the country; an approach some scholars have argued can be effective as different agencies complement and support one another in the fight against corruption. However, contrary to expectations, having several anti-corruption agencies has failed to curb corruption in Uganda effectively and instead resulted in wasteful duplication of functions, uncoordinated way of doing things, blame games, lack of implementing powers, dispersion of limited financial resources, ineffective supervision, corruption within anti-corruption agencies, conflicts, and neglect of corruption cases. The main argument threaded in this article is that most anti-corruption agencies have failed to curb corruption in Uganda effectively because of having been deliberately created, structured, supervised, resourced, empowered in a poor way; and lack of political will from the top political leadership to fight corruption. The article recommends that government should consider scrapping or merging some of the anti-corruption agencies, especially those with duplicated roles; avail sufficient financial and human resources to the remaining anti-corruption agencies; and, empower them to enact their recommendations.

Keywords: Corruption, Anti-corruption Agencies, Institution Multiplicity, Façade, Political Will

Introduction

The government of Uganda deliberately created several anti-corruption agencies in its efforts to curb corruption. The lead national anti-corruption agency is the Inspectorate of Government which has power to investigate, inspect, and freeze bank accounts; search, arrest, and order for production of documents; enforce asset declaration; and prosecute public officials involved in corruption. The Directorate of Public Prosecution works with the Uganda Police Force to investigate and prosecute private and public officials engaged in corruption. The Anti-Corruption Court is responsible for presiding over corruption offenses, while the Financial Intelligence Authority is mandated to combat money laundering activities. The Directorate for Ethics and Integrity, Office of the President, coordinates policies toward effective anti-corruption efforts. The Office of the Auditor General audits financial management of central and local government institutions, while the Public Accounts Committee of the Parliament of the Republic of Uganda provides oversight functions over the management of public resources as a way to fight endemic corruption in the country (Carson, 2015).

Although the overall intention of the creation of several anti-corruption institutions was to curb corruption effectively, both petty and grand corruption remains endemic across all levels of government, with dire consequences for the entire Ugandan society (Transparency

International, 2017). By 2005, the World Bank estimated that Uganda was losing US\$ 300 million to corruption every year, a figure that could have more than doubled given the current trend. Nandala Mafabi, the former chairperson of the Public Accounts Committee of Parliament of the Republic of Uganda, has argued that this amount of money would be enough to fund and sustain Uganda's health care system. Other commentators such as Cissy Kagaba, the Executive Director of the Anti-Corruption Coalition Uganda have argued that this figure may have even increased or doubled since then as corruption has been increasing year after year as reported by credible sources in the country (Mugerwa, 2016).

Commentators have argued that the leadership of the government of Uganda established multiple agencies to ensure availability of alternatives to preserve their interests in they are threatened by any one of the agencies or institution established to fight corruption, and to keep effective control of what happens in government (Bukonya and Muhumuza, 2017). This strategy has been effective considering that the government of Uganda maintains a firm control over anti-corruption institutions. In August 2017, the government ordered for a review of all government agencies to identify and eliminate or merge those that were duplicating functions. This was followed by a Cabinet decision to close and merge 87 out of 146 agencies (Sserwaniko, 2018). However, none of the agencies within the anti-corruption sector has been earmarked for merging or scrapping. In fact, in June 2018, another anti-corruption unit was created within State House, in a move that seemed to further duplicate the anti-corruption function. Practitioners in the sector were skeptical, fearing that it may also be swallowed by corruption (Kazibwe, 2018).

The main argument made in this article is that creating new units or agencies to fight corruption without addressing the underlying cultural, structural, financial, legal and political factors causing it is not a solution but part of the problem. Failure to curb corruption stems from the way anti-corruption agencies are created, structured, resourced, positioned, and supervised that has resulted in wasteful duplication of functions, uncoordinated operations, blame games, and neglect of some cases of corruption. This article provides definitions and classifications of corruption, theoretical drivers of corruption, analyses of institutional frameworks and methodology, and analysis of the systemic failure to curb corruption in Uganda. The article ends with recommendations for consideration by responsible government agencies, practitioners and scholars in this area.

Definitions, Classifications and Theories of Corruption

Different scholars and institutions have defined corruption in different ways depending on different contexts. Many scholars have embraced a broader but shorter definition of corruption as the abuse of public office, power or resources for private gain (Rose-Ackerman 1978; Passas, 1999; Khan, 2004; Johnston, 2005). All these definitions are public-centred; yet sometimes corruption happens within and between private business and individuals in society, with or without the involvement of public officials. Therefore, in this article, the term corruption is more broadly defined as the abuse of public or private office or entrusted authority for personal or group gain; so as to capture abuse of entrusted power or authority by those holding public office and those who are not in public office but still engage in corruption (Asian Development Bank, 1998).

Corruption manifests itself in so many ways that are not mutually exclusive. For instance, it includes forgery, uttering false documents, embezzlement, bribery, misappropriation of public resources, conflict of interest, false claims, extortion, non-attendance, failure to undertake duties, withholding information, lack of transparency, nepotism, influence peddling, theft of public funds or assets, causing financial or property loss or false accounting in public affairs, among others (Anders, 2002). Some scholars have even classified corruption in other ways that are quite relevant to this discussion. For example: corruption is classified as petty or survival corruption when it involves little sum of money; grand or political when it involves political decision makers and normally involves the theft of vast amounts of public resources; it can be incidental corruption, when it just happens due to the individual behaviours of politicians and public office holders or institutional corruption when institutional cultures of corruption have sprung up around an entire institution. Corruption is called systemic corruption when corrupt practices become a way of life within the whole society. It can be systematic corruption where perpetrators are either organized into cartels or just act in systematic way as individual persons or groups to demand, extort or commit corrupt practices. Corruption is unsystematic and unpredictable and happens randomly when individuals seek and are given bribes. It may be syndicated if it involves networks of strategically placed officials who connive to embezzle public funds or abuse entrusted authority. It can be private if it holds some private benefit for the corrupt actor, his family or his close friends; or collective if it develops into larger networks, political parties, an entire administrative bureau and national governments (Amundsen, 1999).

Corruption may take the form of state capture when private interests significantly influence the decision-making processes of a state or regulatory capture when a regulatory agency charged with regulating a sector advances the special concerns of a particular interest group. Crony capitalism is also placed in this category and usually happens when favouritism is exercised in the distribution of legal permits, government grants, special tax breaks and other forms of state intervention (Hellman and Kaufmann, 2001; Heidenheimer & Johnston, 2009). Kick-back corruption happens where people are secretly rewarded for facilitating illicit transaction; extortion when a public official makes a demand for a bribe payment in relation to an official decision; systematic when perpetrators act in methodical ways as individual persons or groups to commit corrupt practices; collusive when public officials and private agents collaborate to share the benefits generated from corrupt practices and then move ahead to create a perception that all rules and procedures have been respected; and syndicated corruption that includes corrupt networks that may cut across all cases (Gong, 2002; Søreide, 2014). These classifications are not mutually exclusive, meaning that they can happen and do happen in the same society simultaneously and evolve within and among societies. Indeed in Uganda, corruption manifests itself in different ways at different levels of government and non-government institutions.

There are theories such as Principal-Agency and Rotten Apple that have argued that people's individual interests and characteristics may be the main drivers of corruption (Felps et al., 2006). These theories are grounded in the rational choice theory whose perspective is that individuals rationally participate in corruption when the benefits are greater than the costs (Cornish & Clarke, 1986; de Graaf, 2007; Pratt, 2008). The decision by individuals to engage in corruption may be influenced by their personality, career history, rank, education,

experience with corruption and self-control (Piquero & Tibbetts, 1996; Kane & White, 2009; Lambsdorff, 2002). Other theories such as the collective action theory, patron-client theory, social network theory and some scholars have explained the nature and causes of corruption from a collective point of view after theories that focus on individual attributes found a lot of difficulty explaining institutionalized and collective corruption. These theories and scholars mainly argue that political, social and economic factors influence people's participation in corruption (Amundsen, 1999; de Graaf, 2007; Marquette & Peiffer, 2015).

Anti-corruption Institutional frameworks

There are no ideal institutional frameworks that can be said to curb corruption in all countries universally. Some countries or territories opted for the establishment of a single institution or agency responsible for investigating, sanctioning and prosecuting corruption with success. Singapore's Corrupt Practices Investigation Bureau (CPIB) is an example in this regard. Many others embraced institutional multiplicity, an organization theory concept borrowed into the anti-corruption literature and practice to mean the existence of more than one institutional arrangement in the fight against corruption (Scott, 1994; Prado et al., 2016). Much as lessons of what has worked in anti-corruption institutional frameworks in one country can provide lessons for others in some cases (Langseth et al. 1997), in many instances, what has worked in one country may not be replicated in another country because corruption is embedded within the political systems, cultures, histories, development levels, ethnic realities of countries in which it happens and has to be tackled in those contexts (Torsello and Vernard, 2016; Camargo and Passas, 2017). Besides, each of the models has its own advantages and disadvantages, successes or failed examples. For instance, proponents of single agency or institution model have argued that it helps reduce problems related with inter-institutional coordination, avoids confusion of roles, competition for resources and leadership (UNDP, 2005: 9).

Proponents of the single anti-corruption institution model usually point at the success stories of the Corrupt Practices Investigation Bureau in Singapore, the Directorate on Corruption and Economic Crime in Botswana and the Independent Commission against Corruption in Hong Kong as examples where the model has worked well (Kuria, 2012). However, if one looks closely at these countries (Hong Kong is a territory of China but with a special administrative arrangement), they have other characteristics that distinguish them from others. For the case of Botswana, it has been relatively well governed over the last fifty years, with strong democratic institutions, was blessed with natural resources (diamonds) whose proceeds have been used to benefit the majority and, like Hong Kong and Singapore, it has a small population and is very successful economically. For the specific case of Singapore and Hong Kong, commentators have argued that these two are highly urbanized territories operating within relatively small islands and their single anti-corruption agencies derive their power and independence from specific laws passed in response to serious scandals that threatened the stability of their governments. The Independent Commission against Corruption in Hong Kong was formed in response to the 1974 Peter Godber affair, while the Corrupt Practices Investigation Bureau was only strengthened in response to the 1970s scandals involving police officers in the narcotics trade. These crises forced the governments to create anti-corruption agencies that were independent from the police since the police were themselves involved in the scandals (Kuria, 2012).

Other countries that embraced the single anti-corruption institution model were not lucky, as studies have revealed that in fact most corrupt countries have a single anti-corruption agency (Meagher, 2005; UNDP, 2005; Kuria, 2012; Gabriella, 2017). The failure stems from many complex factors including the fact that, in many cases, efforts to establish a centralized anti-corruption agency are usually donor rather than citizens driven which allows governments to establish a weak agency to satisfy the minimum donor requirements without closer examination of their own country circumstances. Most third world countries have infrastructural problems and ethnic diversities that easily stretch the resources of a centralized anti-corruption agency to unmanageable levels. The single agency is easily manipulated because there are no other checks and balances that can expose its corrupt schemes and all corruption efforts are easy to thwart if they are coordinated by a single body that may be reporting to the same officials it is supposed to investigate or if there is lack of political will to provide sufficient resources as well as independence to the agency (Kuria, 2012).

The challenges and weaknesses in the single anti-corruption agency approach led the proponents of anti-corruption institutional multiplicity to argue that the approach may help strengthen institutional competition, collaboration, complementarity and compensation. They argue that multiplicity provides opportunities to see several anti-corruption institutions in action at the same time and eases their assessment and complementarity as best practices identified in one institution may be replicated in another. It would also leave old institutions with entrenched interests intact while creating new and effective institutions that help diversify avenues through which authorities may detect, investigate, and punish corruption (Chêne, 2009; Zilber, 2011; Andrews, 2013). Examples of countries like Brazil where the approach has been adopted with success are used by supporters of this approach as a reference for other countries to learn from and follow (Carson and Prado, 2016).

Critics of anti-corruption institutional multiplicity have argued that it results in complex coexistence of contradictory rules of the game in the same territory, creating unsolvable conflicts among institutions and wasteful duplication of functions (Ivanova and Roy, 2007; Di John, 2008; Weijer, 2013). While Brazil is cited as an example where anti-corruption multiplicity has worked, the approach has failed spectacularly in Uganda and corruption remains endemic. However, no academic study has been undertaken to understand how and why the anti-corruption institutional multiplicity approach has failed to effectively curb corruption in Uganda. Thus, the overall objective of this research was to examine why anti-corruption agencies in Uganda have collectively failed to address the cancer of corruption.

Methodology

In order to examine how agencies were created, how they are structured, supervised, empowered and why they have failed to effectively curb corruption in Uganda, this study adopted a qualitative research design. The qualitative method was chosen on the basis that it would generate a detailed understanding, expression and opinion regarding the dynamics from the knowledge and experience of people who have knowledge or are involved or associated with anti-corruption agencies in Uganda. On sampling, a multiple case study approach was adopted and all anti-corruption agencies were considered mainly because they are not very many and

due to the fact that a multiple case study approach enhances external generalization of the study, establishes wider data analysis in one context and helps to raise the level of confidence in the robustness of the method (Baxter and Jack, 2008; Baškarada, 2014; Creswell, 2014; Khan, 2014). In-depth interviews were conducted between January and May 2018 with 18 key informants selected from anti-corruption agencies, academia, politicians, and civil society organizations based on their anti-corruption reduction experience and knowledge. Because of the sensitivity of the subject, respondents' names or identifying features were included in this document with their consent and for those that were uncomfortable, names remained confidential. Primary data was supplemented with content analysis, a method that involves detailed and systematic examination of contents of a particular body of materials for the purpose of identifying common patterns, themes, biases in order to come up with an accurately analysed qualitative article (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001).

Findings

Ineffective Monitoring and Supervision

Having several anti-corruption agencies in Uganda has created supervisory challenges among the agencies. Some government agencies that are supposed to monitor and supervise government ministries were created by and report to the same government ministries. This makes them unable to actually supervise the ministries that created and control them. For instance, the Accountability Sector Secretariat is mandated to promote accountability, coordinate adherence to fiduciary assurance, and supervise government ministries so as to combat corruption and improve service delivery. In actual sense, the Accountability Sector Secretariat that is currently housed in the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MoFPED) premises is the one supervised by the Ministry of Finance. It was the MoFPED that initiated the creation of the Accountability Sector Secretariat. The ministry decides how much money the secretariat gets in its wage and non-wage budget allocations and virtually controls who is recruited in the Secretariat. The ministry determines the activities of the secretariat, all the secretariat's reports are submitted to the Ministry of Finance and the secretariat operates in a project mode, meaning that its very survival is at the mercy of the ministry. In view of all this, it is practically very difficult for the staff members of the secretariat to pin officials of the Ministry of Finance to whom they actually report; and ever since its inception in 1998, the Secretariat has never implicated any official in corruption. Therefore, one can argue that the creation and maintenance of the Accountability Sector Secretariat was and still is wastage of public resources without much value for money.

The Public Procurement and Disposal of Asset Authority (PPDA) also began as one of the departments in the MoFPED. It was later granted vote status to function independently. However, MoFPED retained the PPDA policy formulation and the supervisory functions, while the PPDA just became a regulatory body. MoFPED still influences the PPDA because it determines who heads the Authority and one of its officials must be included on the PPDA's governing Board (Musisi, 2017). Additionally, PPDA is obliged to conduct procurement audits of Procurement and Disposal Entities (PDEs) and report to finance, yet MoFPED is also a PDE. This creates conflict of interest; compromises the independence of the agency and may

result into collusion and hiding of corruption cases other than exposing them. The Financial Intelligence Authority (FIA) that is mandated to prohibit and prevent money laundering in the country is another case in point. FIA began as a project in the MoFPED and later granted vote status to function independently. However, FIA's independence is not total because it remains dependent on MoFPED for capitalization. The decision on how much money FIA can get for their wage, non-wage and development expenditure is made by MoFPED. When FIA was created, some of its directors were drawn from the MoFPED, the Inspectorate of Government, Office of the President and Uganda Police. Considering that these departments and agencies were already performing poorly in their mandate to fight corruption, the appointment of these officials to FIA did not reflect renewed energy or approaches. Therefore, the Anti-Money Laundering Act 2013 could have been more effective if the law was made more stringent and provided for strengthening of the Inspectorate of Government and Uganda Police in terms of training and availability of tools and technology to track and deal with money laundering.

The Internal Auditor General is another example of failure of institutions to perform their duties based on how they are formed, structured, and positioned. The Public Finance Management Act 2015 provides that the Internal Auditor General shall oversee the internal audit function across government; develop internal audit policies, rules, standards, manuals, circulars, guidelines and internal audit strategy; supervise its implementation; review and consolidate audit reports from the votes and externally financed projects; and provide evidence to the relevant parliamentary oversight committees when requested to do so. The Internal Auditor General is supposed to ensure that all Ministries, Departments, Agencies, Local Governments (MDALGs) and accounting officers comply with the internal controls, procedures, rules, and regulation through internal audits. However, the Internal Auditor General reports to the Permanent Secretary of the MoFPED and Secretary to the Treasury. Implementation of recommendations by the Public accounts Committee (PAC) including punishment of errant public officials is delayed and many times not done by the Executive due to political mistrust, as government suspects that they are politically motivated. The constitution dictates that the PAC be chaired by members of the opposition in Parliament.

Lack of Implementing Powers

While there are many of them, the major anti-corruption agencies in Uganda have failed to reduce corruption because they do not have legal power to implement their findings and recommendations. Key in this category is the Office of the Auditor General (OAG) that has been credited for performing well on many fronts of its mandate but has no powers to implement its own recommendations. OAG reports to Parliament of the Republic of Uganda, itself accused by many commentators of taking long to debate reports, being gagged, being involved in corruption, and mainly serving to entrench the interests of the government in power. Parliamentary anti-corruption oversight committees have to make recommendations to the Executive for action. Over the years, Parliamentary oversight committees including;

Public Accounts Committee, Committee on Commissions, Statutory Authorities and State Enterprises, and the Local Governments Accounts Committee have investigated and exposed serious corruption scandals but many of their recommendations have been frustrated by the executive using its majority in Parliament who accuse the opposition MPs of turning these committees into avenues for fighting political wars to discredit or tarnish the name of the sitting government (Centre for Policy Analysis, 2014; Bukenya and Muhumuza, 2017).

Political will and Strong Institutions

There are countries where institutions may be embryonic, and in such circumstances strong political will has been helpful in uprooting corruption. For instance, in the East African region, the leadership in Rwanda is praised for exhibiting political will to fight corruption (Baffour, 2013). In scenarios where there is no strong political will or top political actors are themselves culprits in corruption scandals, there need to be strong and independent institutions to make them accountable. For example, in Brazil, President Dilma Rousseff was impeached in 2016 by parliament because it was able to exercise its mandate without gagging from the executive (Romero, 2016). In April 2018, former Brazilian President Luiz Inacio Lula da Silva was also given a 12-year prison sentence for money laundering and corruption. In South Korea, President Park Geun-hye was impeached from office in 2017 by an independent parliament because of her involvement in corruption. The South Korean constitutional court unanimously upheld this decision and she was sentenced to many years in prison (McCurry, 2017). In October 2018, Lee Myung-bak, another former South Korean president was also handed a 15-year jail sentence for corruption and ordered to pay a fine of 13 billion won (\$11.5m) by the Seoul Central District Court.

In the East African context, court in Kenya was able to nullify a presidential election won by the incumbent, President Uhuru Kenyatta in 2017. This unprecedented court decision was mainly due to the constitutional reforms embedded in the new Kenyan Constitution promulgated in 2010 that gave the judiciary power and protection from the executive (Letu, 2014). The President was compelled by constitutional order to accept the court decision.

In the case of Uganda, the current leadership has been in power for 32 years with effective control over government institutions and capacity to fight corruption where and when it serves government's interests. For instance, during the early 1990s, the political leaders in the government of Uganda were committed to fighting corruption, and success was registered as corrupt government officials were indicted, sacked from office and prosecuted in courts of law. However, increased political threats and competition that began with the 2001 elections relegated corruption to the bottom of government's priorities as the leadership in government attempted to placate political opponents and corrupt tendencies and perpetrators were more tolerated if they threatened the sitting government's political survival. Corruption gradually turned into a norm across political and non-political actors in government and non-government institutions and became one of the tools through which political power is maintained, reproduced and consolidated (Tangri and Mwenda, 2013). Thus on many occasions, some members of the executive have been mentioned in several high-profile corruption scandals, or interfered with the work of anti-corruption agencies in defense of government allies and members (Human Rights Watch, 2013; Badru and Muhumuza, 2017).

Research shows that corruption is so entrenched in the political culture of states that even when political leaders publicly endorse anti-corruption rhetoric, they have minimal incentives to change the corrupt system from which they benefit (Khan, 1998; VandeWalle, 2003; Acemoglu et al., 2004; Keefer, 2007; Afrimap, 2015). The events cited in Brazil, South Korea and Kenya may not happen in Uganda because constitutional reforms that limit the power of the executive while strengthening other branches of government with a purpose of establishing checks and balances and strengthening good governance are yet to be entrenched (Eyotaru and Namuloki, 2017). The Constitution of Uganda (1995) gives the President powers to appoint the Chief Justice (Article 142), Chairperson of the Electoral Commission (Article 60), Inspector General of Government (Article 213), Inspector General of Police, the Head of Public Service (Article 173), Governor Bank of Uganda, and the Secretary to the Treasury (Article 172a) (Uganda Constitution, 1995) and the executive has used these powers to create and control government agencies including appointment of officials. For example all the judges in Uganda, electoral commissioners, heads of anti-corruption agencies, police, army, and prisons are appointed by the President and are most likely to be loyal to the executive (The Independent, 2017).

Uncoordinated operations

Theoretically, scholars have argued that for anti-corruption agencies to succeed, they must work together (Klitgaard, 1998; Chêne, 2009). However the agencies in Uganda's anti-corruption institutional framework have no clear guidelines on when each of them is supposed to take on a case; and anti-corruption agencies have on many occasions ended up investigating the same cases, making it difficult for the public and other stakeholders to identify which agency is accountable for prosecution of suspects accused of corruption. This, in many cases, has resulted in blame games, conflicts among agencies, and neglect of some corruption cases. On several occasions, failure to prosecute major corruption cases has been blamed on uncoordinated operations by the judiciary, attorney general, Inspectorate of Government, Directorate of Public Prosecution, and Police (Atuhaire, 2015). In 2017, the Inspector General of Government told Members of Parliament on the Legal and Parliamentary Affairs Committee that the trial of former top officials at the Ministry of Public Service implicated in the loss of Shs165 billions meant for pensioners was likely to hit a dead end after the High Court stopped the Directorate of Public Prosecution from including the Cairo International Bank on the charge sheet. In addition, the IGG cited an inquiry she had launched into the disputed procurement of a contractor for the US\$ 2.2 billion Karuma Hydro Power Project where the High Court ruled that the Inspector General of Government had no powers to investigate the matter (Bukenya and Muhumuza, 2017).

Scholars and practitioners have suggested ways to improve coordination. Klitgaard (1998) recommended creation of participatory workshops, development of a national strategy against corruption and prosecution of high-level officials to overcome impunity. Creation of an interagency mechanism to coordinate the anti-corruption efforts was fronted as a potentially effective strategy to overcome coordination lapses (Klitgaard, 1998). However, there remains fear that implementing such recommendations in Uganda may be frustrated by networks of corrupt individuals. A look at major procurement scandals whose perpetrators have gone

unpunished suggests that they may be protected (UDN, 2013; Human Rights Watch, 2013; Tangri and Mwenda, 2013; Bukenya and Muhumuza, 2017), making a case for introduction of reforms to effectively address all forms of corruption at all levels of government and non-government entities.

Dispersion of Limited Finances

Anti-corruption institutional multiplicity in Uganda has resulted into dispersion of the limited finances across the numerous anti-corruption agencies with each getting a meager share. This seriously affects the execution of each agency's mandate in terms of ability to recruit, train, and equip sufficient numbers of staff with skills and tools necessary to fight corruption. Lack of capacity in terms of finances, human resource, and equipment has sternly constrained asset recovery, affected investigations and prosecutions, which has resulted into long delays, dismissals, or withdrawal of corruption cases in court which cost the government. For instance, in the office of the Directorate of Public Prosecutions, between 650 and 750 cases are dismissed every year due to inadequate staff, high staff turnover, and inadequate prosecutorial and investigative skills (Inspectorate Government, 2014; Carson, 2015).

In 2010, a review of ongoing cases in the Anti-Corruption Court indicated that 54.2% of cases took more than 12 months to be resolved; while in 2013, for the 85 cases that were ongoing, 34 had been before the courts for more than 24 months, and this number increases year after year (Human Rights Watch, 2013). These prolonged cases are caused by lack of enough staff. Low pay has been cited as the key reason for failure of the Directorate of Public Prosecutions to mobilize, train, and retain competent and highly skilled employees to fill several vacancies for state attorneys (MoPS, 2011). The situation is not any different in the Inspectorate of Government. Lack of sufficient finance, staff, expertise, and equipment has made it impossible for the Inspectorate of Government to verify and enforce the declaration of assets by leaders. As a result, for many years, only 50% of declared assets are sampled for verification annually, and the rest are kept without confirmation for any inaccuracy and inconsistency (Carson, 2015). Some of the political leaders and civil servants take advantage of this loophole to under or over-declare their assets. The declaration of assets and liability is gradually turning into a public service norm with minimal deterrent effect.

Corruption within Anti-Corruption Agencies

Several reports from reputable institutions such as the Transparency International, Afrobarometer, Inspector General of Government in Uganda, and Uganda Bureau of Statistics, indicate that the Judiciary and Uganda Police are the most corrupt institutions in Uganda, yet they are directly connected with the fight against corruption (Ndagire, 2013; Kato, 2016). Corruption within these key anti-corruption agencies has complicated the war on corruption. For instance, corruption within the Ugandan judiciary has affected the application of anti-corruption sanctions and conviction of corrupt officials (Republic of Uganda Judiciary, 2017; Wambi, 2017). Corruption within the judiciary is in various forms including bribes to lower-order court officials for producing or hiding information that is crucial to cases; bribes to prosecutors not to pursue or to unfairly assess evidence; de facto sale of favorable decisions; selective investigation and prosecution of corruption culprits (Adoch, 2011; Tangri and

Mwenda, 2013; Martini, 2013; UDN, 2013). In 2014 alone, the Police Standards Unit (PSU) arrested over 70 police officers for numerous felonies that among others involved extortion, bribery, and concealing exhibits (Inspectorate of Government, 2014).

In March 2017, the President of the Republic of Uganda told the country that the Uganda Police was infiltrated by criminals, singling out the Criminal Investigations and Intelligence Directorate (CIID), which he accused of extorting bribes to assist corrupt people to avoid prosecution by providing false information or tampering with evidence (Tumwine and Bagala, 2017). In October 2017, acting on the directives of President of the Republic of Uganda, the Chieftaincy of Military Intelligence arrested and court-martialled several senior police officers that for many years were involved in investigating high-profile criminal and corruption cases. Most of these officers were alleged to be involved in criminal activities including illegal repatriation of refugees back to their countries of origin where they faced danger. Additionally, the Police Standards Unit has recommended the sacking of over 80 police officers over misconduct, while a total of 105 officers, both junior and high ranking, are under probe by the Police Standards Unit over cases ranging from extortion to robbery, concealing evidence, fraud, and corruption (New Vision Reporters, 2017).

The DPP, and sometimes the IGG, depend on the CIID who carry out investigations, and in circumstances where one component fails to do its part, services in the other agencies cannot be delivered effectively. Police officers and militias such as Boda-Boda 2010 have been implicated in many crimes related to corruption. On 9 March 2018, a week after he had sacked the Inspector General of Police the President of the Republic of Uganda admitted that the Police had been infiltrated by criminals, referring to them as been weevils (URN, 2018). For many Ugandans, the president's revelation was no surprise because those that have dealt with the police very well know that the police are very corrupt (Kato, 2016).

Weak Anti-corruption Laws

For effective reduction of corruption to be achieved, corruption-ridden countries need to strengthen their laws relating with punishing corruption, property rights, contract enforcement and asset recovery. People should know that the cost of corruption is far higher than its rewards. For instance, in Singapore, during the 1960s, anti-corruption laws were amended to give wide powers to investigators, including arrest, search, and investigation of bank accounts of suspected persons, their partners, children, and agents. Judges were allowed to accept the evidence of an accomplice. Courts were also allowed to treat proof that an accused person was living beyond his or her means or had property his or her income could not explain, as corroborating evidence that they had accepted or obtained a bribe. Giving false or misleading information to the CPIB became an offense subject to imprisonment and a fine of up to S\$10,000. All these legal mechanisms made corruption a very risky and costly business in Singapore and contributed to its significant reduction (Lee, 2011). In Uganda, anti-corruption agencies have been let down by failure of government to apprehend suspected culprits in mega corruption scandals because the law is not wide enough to implicate them or their accomplices. In other circumstances, many have been prosecuted but the punishment handed down is far inferior to what the culprits gained through corruption. Thus, save for petty corruption, many

people in Uganda with an opportunity to engage in grand corruption are not afraid of the law (Republic of Uganda Judiciary, 2017).

While anti-corruption laws are very weak and their implementation is wanting, Uganda has very strong and prohibitive laws that limit freedom of expression, assembly, and communication, and to some extent limit anti-corruption efforts. For instance, in 2013, the government of Uganda passed into law the Public Order Management Act that provides the police discretionary powers to disperse gatherings in public places and break up political meetings of three or more people discussing political issues without prior police permission. Under this law, police has a right to deny permission to people wishing to assemble and to use firearms in self-defense or against those resisting arrest. Subsequently, the institution of police appears frequently in the news headlines for; spraying tear-gas at peaceful demonstrators, beating innocent citizens including journalists, dispersing opposition politicians and activists' rallies, carrying out preventive arrests and detentions and violating people's rights to assembly, expression, political participation, and speech (Amnesty International, 2014). In addition, the government of Uganda passed into law the Interception of Communications Act 2010 that permits the Minister of Security to tap all forms of communication in the country. The Act provides for the registration of SIM cards and interception and monitoring of certain communications through telecommunication, postal, or any related service. The stated objectives of the law were to thwart and prevent terrorism action and organized crime. The law violates the right to privacy and lacks adequate safeguards to ensure respect of rights to freedom of expression enshrined in the Constitution of Uganda. Besides, the law gives the government far-reaching discretionary powers in surveillance and interception of communication between individuals, groups, and organizations. The broad and undefined basis for interception of communication also allows for possible intrusion into communications of individuals and professionals, affects journalists, human rights defenders, anti-corruption agencies and politicians engaged in legitimate activities.

The Interception of Communications Act 2010 has had far-reaching impact on human rights and the war on corruption as it is used and abused for other purposes other than the stated one. For example, it has been used to curtail political and anti-corruption work. In addition, this law has made the work of many journalists and their sources very difficult due to the continuous disruption by state agencies. With such laws implemented, it is difficult for anti-corruption campaigners to hold demonstrations similar to those witnessed in Brazil or South Korea in 2016 and 2017, respectively. Even civil society organizations and NGOs that promote accountability in Uganda have not escaped the full wrath of the state as key agencies like Action Aid had their offices surrounded, sealed off, and closed without warning in 2017 and government considered it an operation against enemies of the state. All these factors limit the emergence of a strong civil society and an assertive population that values and demands accountability. They also limit the formation of legitimate social norms of conduct that facilitate transition to rule of law and growth of institutions that are independent of their leaders.

Selective Application of Anti-corruption Laws

For anti-corruption laws to be effective, anti-corruption agencies must be allowed to carry out their work without interference so that anybody implicated in corruption including members

of the executive, may be apprehended without fear or favor. It may help if members of the executive support anti-corruption agencies in rhetoric and action. The story of Singapore's fight against corruption vindicates the argument for non-selective application of anti-corruption laws. Singapore was able to eliminate endemic corruption during the 1970-80s because any government leader involved in corruption was punished without fear or favor. In 1975, Wee Toon Boon, a very close friend of then Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew, loyal non-communist trade union leader, and Minister in for Environment was charged, convicted, and sentenced to 4 years and 6 months in jail. In December 1979, Phey Yew Kok, then President of the National Trade Union Council and a Member of Parliament in the ruling People's Action Party was charged on four counts of criminal breach of trust although he later ran into exile at the peril of his sureties (Lee, 2011). Tan Kia Gan, then Minister for National Development was removed from office for allegedly accepting bribes in connection with the sale of aircraft to Malaysian Airways. Choy Hon Tim then director of the Electricity Department and Deputy Chief Executive of the Public Utilities Board was convicted and sentenced to 14-years in jail for his involvement in a \$13.85 million bribery scandal. Peter Lim Sin Pang, the former Chief of the Singapore Civil Defence Force, was convicted and jailed for 6 months for corruptly obtaining sexual gratification in relation to awarding information technology contracts. In December 1986, Mr. Teh Cheang Wan, then minister for National Development, took his life after failing to influence the Corruption Practices Investigation Bureau (CPIB) and the Prime Minister to exonerate him of his involvement in corruption (Lee, 2011). In other words, Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew Lee allowed the CPIB to investigate, prosecute, and punish anyone involved in corruption without fear or favor. His position sent a clear signal that officials and members of the public engaged in corruption at their own peril.

In the case of Uganda, punishing everyone involved in corruption without fear or favor has been the most lacking ingredient in the anticorruption struggle (Human Rights Watch, 2013). Anti-corruption laws seem to be applied selectively. Commentators have argued that selective application of anti-corruption laws, among others, stems from political interference and partisan appointment of personnel including judicial officers who in turn serve the interests of the appointing authorities (Bukenya and Muhumuza, 2017).

Conclusion

The findings of this research discussed above indicate that a multiplicity of factors have combined to constrain the effectiveness of anti-corruption agencies. Key among these is duplication of roles, lack of coordination, dispersion of limited financial and human resources, lack of implementing power, corruption within key anti-corruption agencies, weak laws and selective application of these laws, insufficient political will and political interference in the prosecution of corruption, among others. The conclusion derived from such complex challenges is that having several anti-corruption agencies is not an end in itself, and any efforts to have significant output in corruption reduction must address these underlying structural, legal and political challenges.

Recommendations

Government should consider scrapping or merging some of the anti-corruption agencies, especially those with duplicated roles, and the underperformers, especially those functioning as projects within the Ministry of Finance. The government should encourage the population to be more vocal because the war on corruption cannot be fought by anti-corruption agencies alone. The anti-corruption agencies, politicians and civil servants led by the Head of State should combine effort and work in collaboration to effectively fight corruption.

References

- Acemoglu, D. Robinson, J. and Verdier, T. (2004). Kleptocracy and Divide-and-Rule: A Model of Personal Rule. *Journal of the European Economic Association* 2, 2/3:162.
- Adoch, C. (2011). *The Annual State of Constitutionalism in East Africa 2011- Constitutionalism in Uganda*. Kampala: Fountain Publishers.
- Afrimap. (2015). Effectiveness of Anti-Corruption Agencies in East Africa; Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. Johannesburg: Open Society Foundations.
- Amnesty International, (2014). Rule by law, discriminatory legislation and legitimized abuses in Uganda.
- Amundsen, I. (1999). Political corruption: An introduction to the issues. WP: 7 Michelsen Institute Development Studies and Human Rights.
- Anders, G. (2002). Like chameleons. Civil servants and corruption in Malawi, *Bulletin de l'APADLa gouvernance au quotidien en Afrique*, 23-24.
- Andrews, M. (2013). *The limits of institutional reform in development: Changing rules for realistic solutions* (1st ed.). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Arinaitwe, S. (2017). Museveni orders review of government agencies to minimise wastage. *Daily Monitor*, Kampala, August 23. Retrieved from www.dailymonitor.co.ug
- Asian Development Bank. (1998). Anti-corruption and Integrity. Retrieved from <https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/.../anticorruption-integrity-policy-strategy.pdf>
- Badru, B. and Muhumuza, W. (2017). The politics of core public sector reform in Uganda: behind the façade, ESID Working Paper No. 85.
- Baffour, A. (2013). Rwanda: A Star in Fighting Corruption. *New African Magazine*, March 19.
- Baškarada, S. (2014). Qualitative Case Study Guidelines. Retrieved from <https://nsuworks.nova.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1008&context=tqr>.
- Baxter. P. and Jack. S. (2008). Qualitative Case Study Methodology: Study Design and Implementation for Novice Researchers. McMaster University.
- Camargo, C. B. and Passas, N. (2017). Hidden agendas, social norms and why we need to re-think anti-corruption. Basel Institute on Governance and University of Basel, Basel, Switzerland. Retrieved from www.oecd.org/cleangovbiz/Integrity-Forum-2017-Baez%20Camargo-Passas-hidden-agendas-social-norms.pdf

- Carson, L. D. (2015). Institutional specialization in the battle against corruption: Uganda's anti-corruption court. Johns Hopkins School of Advanced International Studies, Washington, DC.
- Carson, L. D. and Prado, M. M. (2016). Using institutional multiplicity to address corruption as a collective action problem: lessons from the Brazilian case. *Q Rev Econ Finance* 62: 56–65. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.qref.2016.07.009>
- Chêne, M. (2009). Coordination Mechanisms of Anti-Corruption Institutions, U4 Expert Answer, 3-4, <https://www.u4.no/publications/coordination-mechanisms-of-anti-corruption-institutions/pdf>.
- Cornish, D. B., & Clarke, R. V. (1986). *The reasoning criminal: Rational choice perspectives on offending*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed methods approach*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- De Graaf, G. (2007). Causes of Corruption: Towards a Contextual Theory of Corruption. *Public Administration Quarterly*, 31(1/2), 39-86.
- Di John, J. (2008). Conceptualizing the causes and consequences of failed states: a critical review of the literature crisis states. Development Studies Institute, London School of Economics. Working Paper 25
- Eyotaru, O. and Namuloki, J. (2017). Baryamureeba: Uganda can't review Constitution under Museveni. *The Observer*, Kampala, November 20.
- Felps, W. T. Mitchell, R. and Byington, E. (2006). How, When, and Why Bad Apples Spoil the Barrel: Negative Group Members and Dysfunctional Groups. *Research in Organizational Behavior* 27: 175-222.
- Gabriella, I. (2017). Institutional multiplicity and coordination in the fight against corruption: Comparative study between El Salvador and Guatemala. Masters Degree Thesis in Anti-Corruption Studies Programme, IACA.
- Gong, T. (2002). *Dangerous collusion: corruption as a collective venture in contemporary China*. Elsevier Science Ltd. Doi: 10.1016/S0967-067x (01) 00026-5.
- Hatchard, J. (2014). *Combating corruption: Legal approaches to supporting good governance and integrity in Africa*. Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar Publishing, Inc.
- Heidenheimer, A. J. & Johnston, M. (2009). *Political Corruption*. New Jersey: Transaction Publishers.
- Hellman, J. and Kaufmann, D. (2001). Confronting the Challenge of State Capture in Transition Economies. *Finance and Development*, 38(3).
- Human Rights Watch, (2013). Letting the big fish swim. Failures to prosecute high-level corruption in Uganda: United States of America.
- Inspectorate of Government, (2014). Fourth Data Tracking Mechanism. Tracking Corruption Trends in Uganda. EPRC, Kampala.
- Ivanova, M. and Roy, J. (2007). The architecture of global environmental governance: Pros and Cons of multiplicity. In L. Swart, & E. Perry (Eds.), *Global environmental governance: Perspectives on the current debate* (pp. 48–66). New York: Center for UN Reform Education.
- Johnston, M. (2005). *Syndromes of Corruption: Wealth, Power and Democracy*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

- Kane, R. J., & White, M. D. (2009). Bad cops. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 8(4), 737.
- Kato, J. (2016). Police most corrupt institution-UBOS. *Daily Monitor*, Kampala, June 22. Retrieved from www.dailymonitor.co.ug.
- Kazibwe, K (2018). IGG to Museveni: Your Anti-corruption unit will be swallowed by corruption. *Nile Post* Kampala June 7. Retrieved from <https://nilepost.co.ug/.../igg-to-museveni-your-anti-corruption-unit-will-be-swallowed>.
- Keefer, P. (2007). Clientelism, Credibility, and the Polity Choices of Young Democracies. *American Journal of Political Science* 51, 4: 804–821.
- Khan, M. (2004). Corruption, Governance and Economic Development cited [in Jomo, K.S. and Ben Fine (eds), *The New Development Economics*. New Delhi: Tulika Press and London: Zed Press
- Khan, M. (1998). Patron-Client Networks and the Economic Effects of Corruption in Asia. *European Journal of Development Research*, 10, 1: 15–39.
- Khan, N. (2014). Qualitative Research Method: Grounded Theory. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 9(11).
- Kuria, M. N. (2012). Why do anti-corruption agencies fail? <http://www.fcablog.com/blog/2012/11/13/why-do-anti-corruption-agencies-fail.html>
- Lambsdorff, J. (2002). How confidence facilitates illegal transactions: An empirical Approach. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, 829-853.
- Langseth, P., Stapenhurst, R., and Pope, J. (1997). *The Role of a National Integrity System in Fighting Corruption*, EDI working papers, Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Lee, K. Y. (2011). *From Third World to First: Singapore and the Asian Economic Boom*. Harper Collins, New York.
- Leedy, P. and Ormrod, J. (2001). *Practical Research: Planning and Design*. 7th Edition, Merrill Prentice Hall and SAGE Publications, Upper Saddle River, NJ and Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Letu, J. (2014). The Presidential Powers in the New Constitution. *Kenya Monitor* Nairobi, December 15.
- Marquette, H. and Peiffer, C. (2015). Corruption and Collective Action. Research Paper No. 32. Anti-Corruption Resource Centre U4.
- Martini, M. (2013). Uganda: Overview of corruption and anti-corruption. U4 Anti-Corruption Resource Centre U4.
- Matsiko, H. (2017). Museveni and the Army. *The Independent*, Kampala, November 27.
- McCurry, J. (2017). Park Geun-hye: South Korean court removes president over scandal. *The Guardian*, London March 10.
- Meagher, P. (2005). Anti-corruption Agencies: Rhetoric Versus Reality, *The Journal of Policy Reform* 8(1), 70. [Doi.org/10.1080/1384128042000328950](https://doi.org/10.1080/1384128042000328950).
- Monitor Reporters, (2013). Museveni tells MPs: Army can take over. *Daily Monitor*, Kampala January 18.
- MoPS. (2011). Policy paper on the transformation of the Uganda public service. Ministry of Public Service, Kampala.

- Mugerwa, Y. (2016). Probe reveals new ways of stealing money from government. *Daily Monitor*, Kampala, July 23. Retrieved from www.dailymonitor.co.ug.
- Musisi, Frederic. (2017). PPDA starts fresh search for director. *Daily Monitor*, Kampala, June 20 2017. Retrieved from www.dailymonitor.co.ug
- Mwenda A, and Tangri R, (2013). The Politics of Elite Corruption in Africa. Uganda in Comparative Africa Perspective.
- Passas, N. (1999). *A Structural Analysis of Corruption: The Role of Criminogenic Asymmetries*. Northeastern University, Boston, USA.
- Piquero, A. & Tibbetts, S. (1996). Specifying the direct and indirect effects of low self-control and situational factors in offenders' decision making: Toward a more complete model of rational offending. *Justice Quarterly*, 13(3), 481-510.
- Prado, M. M., Carson, L. D., and Correa, I. (2016). The Brazilian Clean Company Act: Using institutional multiplicity for effective punishment. Osgoode Legal Studies Research Paper Series 119. Osgoode Hall Law School.
- Pratt, T. C. (2008). Rational choice theory, crime control policy, and criminological relevance. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 7(1), 43–52.
- Republic of Uganda Judiciary, (2017). Judiciary blames land disputes on inadequate law, structures, September 17. Available: www.judiciary.go.ug/data/news/408/142/.
- Romero, S. (2016). Dilma Rousseff Is Ousted as Brazil's President in Impeachment Vote. *The New York Times*, New York, August 31.
- Rose-Ackerman, S. (1978). *Corruption: A Study in Political Economy*. Academic Press, New York.
- Scott, W. R. (1994). Institutions and organizations: Toward a theoretical synthesis. In W. R. Scott, & J.W. Meyer (Eds.), *Institutional environments and organizations: Structural complexity and individualism* (pp. 55–80). California: Sage Publications Inc.
- Søreide, T. (2014). *Drivers of corruption: a brief review*. World Bank Study, World Bank, Washington, DC
- Sserwaniko, J. V. (2018). Anxiety grips government employees as a list of 87 agencies to be scrapped leaks. *Mulengera Media*, Kampala, September 8. Retrieved from <https://mulengeranews.com/anxiety-grips-govt-employees-as-list-of-87-agencies-to-be>
- The Independent*. (2017). Do not intimidate us; we have the support of the army. *The Independent*, Kampala, September 15. Retrieved from www.independent.co.ug
- Torsello, D. & Venard, B. (2016). The Anthropology of Corruption. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 25 (1) 34-54.
- Transparency International. (2017). Corruption Perception Index, 2018.
- Treisman, D. (2007). What have we learnt about the causes of corruption from Ten Years of Cross National Empirical Research? *Annual Review of Political Science*.
- Tumwine, A. Bagala, A. (2017). Police infiltrated by criminals–Museveni. *Daily Monitor*, March 20. Retrieved from www.dailymonitor.co.ug.
- UDN, (2013). Dossier on Corruption in Uganda from 2002-2012.

- UNDP. (2005). *Institutional arrangements to combat corruption: a comparative study* (Bangkok), 5-6.
- URN. (2018). Police infiltrated by bean weevils – Museveni. *The Observer*, Kampala, March 9. Retrieved from www.observer.ug/news/headlines/57144-police-infiltrated-by-bean-weevils-museveni.html
- Van de Walle, N. (2003). Presidentialism and Clientelism in Africa's Emerging Party Systems. *Journal of Modern African Studies* 41, 2: 297–321.
- Vision Reporters, (2017). CMI presents Police commanders before Court Martial. *The New Vision*, Kampala, October 27.
- Wambi, M. (2017). Land probe: Courts accused of fueling land wrangles. *Uganda Radio Network*, May 23.
- Weijer, F. D. (2013). A context of multiple institutions: engaging in fragile settings. *The Broker Online*, <http://www.thebrokeronline.eu/Articles/Acontext-of-multiple-institutions>.
- Zilber, T. B. (2011). Institutional multiplicity in practice: a tale of two high-tech conferences in Israel. *Organization Science*, 22(6): 1539–1559.

Authenticity in Authentic Leadership of Higher Education Institutions in Uganda: a Case study of one Private University in Uganda

Jimmy Alemiga, Mwogeza Resty Kanya
Uganda Management Institute, Kampala, Uganda.

Abstract

This article explores the concept of authenticity in authentic leadership in higher education institutions (HEIs) using the case of one of the private universities in Uganda. Authenticity has become the gold standard for leadership in organizations to make impact. The cognitive dissonance theory used in this study describes authentic leadership as one that knows its own self through self-discovery. Qualitative data was collected from 30 participants through interviews. Document review and participant observation were conducted to supplement the interviews and content analysis was done to appreciate the qualitative data. The research questions addressed were; 1) Is authentic leadership about owning one's personal experiences? 2) Why has the concept of authenticity of leaders become popular in administration today?

The study found that authenticity of leadership has become a game changer in organizations today. The study concluded that authenticity of leaders has become a gold standard in management today because it necessitates owning one's personal experience (self-awareness) not only as an ethical behavior but also highly valued in administration. The implication of the study was that authentic leaders have best human resource practices aligned to both the short-term and long-term strategic goals of an organization.

Key words: Authenticity, Authentic Leadership, Higher Education Institutions, Private University

Introduction

Authenticity has become the gold standard for leadership in organizations for the accomplishment of goals and objectives today (Bill, 2016). The cognitive dissonance theory by Festinger (1957) was used to underpin this study. The theory contends that authentic leaderships know themselves (strength and weaknesses) through self-awareness measured by basic values, behaviors, beliefs, attitudes, morals, opinions and ethical behavior. Authentic leaderships exhibit best human practices and manage diversity of employees (Vogel & Wanke, 2014) with the heart to influence, propel, and inspire employees by building their enthusiasm (Donna & Chellie, 2013; Mesly, 2015; Brenda & Brooke, 2016). Authentic leaders listen to others, promote constructive discussion, do the right thing, respect the organizational culture, show heart, and make informed decisions (Northouse, 2016). Nonetheless, many higher educational institutions (HEIs) still have leaders who exhibit too much power and authority that causes fear amongst employees and subordinates. Studies by Tim (2013), Peter (2015) and Cheri Swales (2017) have consistently shown poor values, emotional intelligence, attitude, trust, credibility, and moral character as unauthentic in most leaders. Kouzes and Barry (2011) further emphasize that, "If people (employees or subordinates) do not believe in the messenger, they will not believe the message".

This study was an appreciative inquiry that unpacked the concept of authenticity in authentic leadership and endeavored to break it down from pure academic conceptualization to a more practical approach, using an example of one of the private universities in Uganda. One of the researchers taught in this university for more than five years and thus saw the transition of both ownership and leadership between 2014 and 2015. The leadership in this university was expected to be better than the old one. Unfortunately, the new leaders were more authoritative and had too much power which created a gap (poor communication, motivation, lack of trust, high attrition rate) between the leadership and employees or subordinates which could greatly impact on the university's ability to accomplish its goals and objectives (Vogel & Wanke, 2014; Kendall & Tony, 2017; Morgan, 2017). This study explores authenticity in authentic leadership of HEIs in Uganda using one private university as a case study. The key questions addressed were:

- 1) Is an authentic leadership about owning one's personal experiences?
- 2) Why has the concept of authenticity of leaders become popular in administration today?

The sections of this article include: introduction, theoretical approach, literature review, methodology, findings and discussion, conclusions and managerial implications.

Theoretical approach to authentic leadership

The study adopted the cognitive dissonance theory (CDT) advanced by social psychologist Leon Festinger (1957) to explain the concept of authenticity in authentic leaders. As an action opinion theory, the CDT suggests that actions can influence subsequent beliefs and attitudes of a person. The theory holds three central assumptions that: 1) human beings are sensitive to irregularities between their actions and beliefs which automatically triggers a person's humane sense when such an inconsistency is noticed; 2) the acknowledgement of this inconsistency will certainly cause dissonance, and thus will stimulate the person to resolve the dissonance although this differs from person to person; and 3) dissonance will be resolved in one of the three ways namely: change of beliefs; change actions; and change perception of action (Northouse, 2016).

The CDT was important in this study because it is counterintuitive in guiding leaders to be authentic in a logical, consistent, and coherent way. It also explains that leaders' actions can be explained largely by their beliefs or attitudes and not the cause of them. The CDT also has great intuitive charm that helps leaders in resolving the pervasive human tendency to rationalize that is important for accomplishment of organizational purpose. However, the theory's limitation is that it assumes that all people have the same ability and mental strength to change belief, action, and perception which is not true because people are naturally different (Bill, 2016).

Literature Review

Is authentic leadership about owning one's personal experiences?

According to Novicevic et al. (2007), leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. An earlier study by Novicevic et al. (2005), defined leadership as the quality of the behavior of individuals in guiding people or their activities in an organized effort. Thus authentic leadership is about owning one's personal experience based on process and behavior. Leaders are identified within a group of people because they act in a seemingly beneficial manner to the group.

Generally, authentic leadership concerns the inner feeling of an individual (being true to own self) and having self-regulation. According to Brenda and Brooke (2016) authentic leaders have values which is a wide preference concerned with suitable courses of action or outcome which mirror a person's sense of doing the right or wrong or what ought to be to promoted. Graham (2014) argues that authentic leaders control their emotions to avoid causing any insensitive experience by being passionate to avoid psychological pleasure or displeasure to others. Although emotions can be tangled with mood, attitude, temperament, personality, disposition, and motivation, authentic leaders have control over them. Vogel and Wanke (2014) strongly believed that attitude defined an authentic leader in leadership because this is an emotional and mental aspect to characterize a person, mainly acquired through experience and behavior. Therefore, attitude can force a person to have a negative or positive response towards a person, place, something, or event shaping their thought and action. Accordingly, attitude can be shaped from a person's past and present which moulds their character as supported by Leroy, Palanski and Simons (2012) and Morgan (2017).

Why has the concept of authenticity of leaders become popular in administration today?

Administration is the day-to-day management of operations in organizations to ensure efficiency of people, systems, information, controls, and other resources for the accomplishment of the goals and objectives (Surbhi, 2015). Thus changes in beliefs, change actions, and change perception of actions are being constantly identified by effective administration with authentic leadership in modern organizations (Kendall & Tony, 2017). Authentic leaders also have a high level of emotional intelligence which is important for building a culture of high employee commitment, satisfaction, motivation, honesty, and trustworthy. This results in high employee productivity, flexibility, creativity, innovation, open communication and feedback (Donna & Chellie, 2013).

Although it is quite hard to find a real genuine (authentic) leader in many private HEIs due to organizational politics, institutional/founder ideology and the pressure to deliver, among others, at minimum an authentic leader should have trust, credibility, and moral character (Kassin & Markus, 2017). Northouse (2016) argued that trusted leaders can be relied upon. Thus trust is a feeling that somebody or something can be relied upon or will turn out to be good (a feeling of being sure about something) despite having no proof (Mesly, 2015). Credibility is about believability, experience, intelligence, qualification, trustworthiness and expertise propelled by the level of charisma; while moral character is a disposition to express

behavior in consistent patterns of functions across a range of situations. It concerns leaders having proper manners or ways of behavior based on a body of ethical standards or values/principles derived from a code of conduct from a particular philosophy, religion or culture. Thus morality is to do with rightness or goodness of a person (Peter, 2015).

Methodology

The research approach was qualitative: data was collected using ethnography, specifically participant observation that combined many strategies including documentary analysis, interviews, direct participation and observation and reflexivity. The researchers engaged directly with the participants through interviews, observation and introspection for a period of three months which helped them to share as much intimate experience as possible in the lives, experiences, actions, practices and social gist of the observed people in their setting by seeing and feeling what it was like to be part of the group being studied (Fetterman, 2009; Gubrium and Holstein, 2009). The study sample included 30 people (the vice chancellor, the dean of the faculty of socio-economic sciences, heads of department and program coordinators for six taught programs) in the faculty of socio-economic sciences. These were accessed through criterion-based sampling technique which involved selection of participants that had pre-determined criterion of importance that helped to identify, understand and observe rich cases (Patton, 2001). Interview guides were used to obtain information that could not be observed, for example: feelings, experiences, opinions, and impressions that helped to construct symbol-meaningful relations) from the researchers' point of view on the study subject. Interview guides were used to triangulate with support documents and observation. The documents included written speeches and emails of the leaders in the university while observation focused on capturing photographs of staff meetings where the leaders actively participated (on two occasions) talking about work ethics, pay, discipline of academic staff and quality assurance, among others.

Findings of the study

Authentic leadership

Values

The researchers observed that the leadership at this private university had inadequate essential values required by any authentic leader. One staff, argued:

The leaderships of this university did not fully own to one's personal experiences and rarely acted in good faith which prevented them from discovering themselves (true self or self-awareness).

The researchers also observed:

The leaders are bossy, have poor judgment, interpersonal skills, practice micromanagement, limited communication and feedback, lack of openness, humility, taking less informed decisions, high levels of intimidation of employees, uncertain expectations and others subordinates among others.

However, interviews with the university leadership revealed that having an effective leader at the rudder of the institution was critical for its success. Quality leaders inspire people to be able to exploit their potential. Participants cited the issues below to constitute values of a great leader:

A good leader is empathetic, enthusiastic and they listen, care and understand their subordinates and colleagues. They try to even understand those they disagree with which builds trust, unity and open cooperation. This creates a platform that promotes greater creativity and innovation in the organization.

Many others also cited loyalty as a key value of a good leader, as one participant said:

Leaders today have no choice but to be loyal to their employees if they must survive the competition. It is key in making informed decisions and forging a meaningful relationship between the leadership and employees by keeping low temperament.

The issue of respect also was used to value a good leader. One participant argued:

Mutual respect that flows from the top to the bottom of an organizational structure is more favored than the one from the bottom to top. Leaders who believe and practice top-bottom respect were considered authentic.

Another participant valued a good leader by the level of compassion, as he stated:

A good leader is compassionate and not egoistic. They listen with sincerity, humility or humility, and they have vested interest in learning about their employees. The compassion they display inspires and motivates employees and promotes teamwork among others which reduces fear, distrust, and lead to confidence, openness, effective communication and work flexibility leading to a sense of purpose.

Other participants advanced the issues of honesty which was stressed by one:

The leaders in this institution may have their bad side, but generally, they are honest and transparent. They interact and communicate with colleagues, thus build strong grounds for trust, authenticity, integrity that are key in any business. In turn, the leaders showed vulnerability which shows executive maturity and inspire other from past experience.

The findings above mean that leaders in this university might at times not own to their personal experiences and rarely acted in good faith seen through their actions, but generally they were seen to have good leadership attributes which can help attain the institutional purpose.

According to Howell (2012) factors that demonstrate poor values of leaders in any institution include: poor ethical behavior; lack of ideology; lack of empathy; fear to embrace change, and over-compromising among others, that undermine negotiations between the leaders and employees to accomplish specific goals. However, showing one's true self (loyalty, respect, honesty, empathy and compassion) is important; but we must keep in mind that no one is perfect. What matters is for leaders to be able to identify their weak points (imperfections) and continuously learn or improve them.

Brenda and Brooke (2016) conclude that authentic leaders act in accordance with their own values, preferences, beliefs, attitudes and opinions, among others. But some actually fake their own values than to improve over time. A study by Donna and Chellie (2013) confirms that authentic leadership is about showing one's true self despite all human imperfections. This deters use of intimidation, punishment, threats of firing employees from work, and false accusations aimed at forcing employee obedience. It is thus important to avoid the division between "them (leaders) and us" (employees/subordinates). In a study concluded by Tim (2013), authentic leaders must know themselves by separating "what is right and what is wrong" for effective leadership.

Emotions

The researchers observed that the leaders in this private university many times acted emotionally towards employees and other subordinates even when it was uncalled for. This was manifested by, among others, sending threatening emails to workers. For example, an email was sent to the academic staff by the Vice Chancellor demanding for examination results with words like:

"Those who would have not handed in examination results by tomorrow should come for your letters of termination from the human resource immediately"

As a result of such an email, the academic staff were emotionally bothered and left wondering if they were valued in this institution. One respondent stated:

I feel very low, emotionally stressed, threatened, insecure and less valued by this institution given the harsh email from the Vice Chancellor (VC) about mere examination results. This has caused confusion to all the academic staff, and I do not think they trust the leadership any more. The leadership lacks emotional intelligence and sensitivity toward the workers.

However, the VC emphasized that the vision of the university was clearly communicated to all staff. He defended:

As a VC, you look at where your university is and where you want it to be in the future. If you want more student recruitments, good image and long term survival as stated in the strategic plan, you have to be a little tough to attain this. All staff must do their job on time to avoid student frustration. They have to find their results ready when they come from their holidays, and there is no compromise about this.

The researchers also observed that the VC's behavior was emotional due to lack of trust of the staff. They claimed that the university leadership acted emotionally instead of developing and empowering them. One argued:

Any good leader has to have an essential quality of developing and empowering their staff. Among them is by trusting them to encourage innovation and flexibility, and not to always undermine their efforts and threaten to fire them whatever the reason. The VC at times reasons with emotions and that killed his trust with employees who looked at him as unfair and as a person who does not value for his staff.

Other participants added that the VC was emotional which deterred his ability to reach the employees in a way that exceeds the intellectual and rationality of a leader to inspire others. One interviewee said:

The leaders in this university have limited emotional intelligence which leads them to be very irrational. They do not inspire us to bring out our best potential, and yet this should be a simple task.

The researchers observed that not all leaders are perfect since they are human and required continuous learning: This was proved by one key informant:

Some leaders in this institution have failed to learn how to inspire employees, but you cannot blame them. The truth is that not all people can be good leaders, and there is no substitute for natural talent. So I do not expect all our leaders in this institution to have emotional intelligence, we just have to get used to them.

The findings mean that emotional intelligence has become a key issue in measuring leadership traits. It is the critical group of non-cognitive skills, ability and proficiency which helps leaders to control and manage their emotions before they respond to events and pressures in their organizations. This can be through self-examination of such weakness thus losing credibility as not being honest, which may deter employees from exploiting their full capacity, cause employee stress and undermine collaboration. This implies that they have to continuously learn how to: control their temper, not to show emotions and manage conflicts maturely to accomplish the institutional goals and objectives.

Leaders who act with emotions towards employees are unauthentic; leaders who realize the magic of emotional intelligence will be able to stimulate employees to the accomplishment of the goals and objectives of the organization. Emotional intelligence can inspire, motivate and build teamwork and trust between employees and employers. Emotions are not bad as long as are expressed in good faith (Leroy, Palanski & Simons, 2012; Graham, 2014; Morgan, 2017).

According to Pastora (2014), emotional intelligence can produce different physiological, behavioral and cognitive changes. In a study by Carlson (2012), leaders' behavior towards employees and other subordinates is based on the internal and external events. However, a leader who can exercise emotional self-control can actually create a management style that suits the institution and use of emotions is one of them. Brenda and Brooke (2016) strongly support that studies on emotion have increased in many academic fields given its dual nature of either being used positively or negatively by leaders. Graham (2014) contends that emotion is part of human nature that, if used carelessly, can hurt other peoples' feelings, mood, attitude, temperament, personality, disposition, and motivation.

Attitudes

The researchers observed that leaders generally had a negative attitude towards employees in this private university. At times their communication was rude and some would gossip among others without seeking their consent, thus causing stress, bad work environment, fear and low work morale. One participant confirmed:

Our leaders at times are not compassionate, some treat us as if we do not have value to the institution and yet everyone is created with value and purpose. Work life is about learning from one another, even leaders can learn from us.

The researchers also observed that the institutional leaders at this university were not inclusive in their style of leadership. For example, one person advanced:

The leadership attitude is not inclusive since it is based more on rumors than hard knowledge and informed decisions. Our suggestions are not included in the final decision making process, and yet we are the ones they rely on to accomplish the institutional goals. Further, not every one of us is invited to contribute to decision making which lowers our motivation.

However, other respondents added that key attitudes of a leader were based on joyfulness, gratitude and self-belief. As explained:

Joyful leaders are positive and can actually bring happiness to the entire staff. This is because they have sincerely have the desire to see the good in others and look out for one good or best attribute in someone to keep them smiling. Such people in turn find happiness at work, and are proud to be part of the organization.

Other participants argued for gratitude as a good attribute of a leader. One voice stated:

Our leadership although not always, takes time to acknowledge the hard work of their staff. This has helped build a strong and trusted team. But again, at times they shout out orders and do not appreciate our contribution, making us lose trust and respect for them.

The researchers observed that good leadership at the university could be seen by leaders exhibiting self-belief. One participant confirmed:

Some leaders in this institution had self-belief because they knew themselves in terms of strength and weaknesses. This has particularly helped them to make decisions on when to lead and when to follow, thus they now know what they do best which boosts their confidence and improves their leadership skills.

This means that employees can easily tell that leaders have positive or negative attitudes probably through the way they communicate. They used attributes: compassion, inclusivity, joyfulness, gratitude and self-belief to weigh their leaders. Only leaders with self-awareness and knowing of ones' own self exploited these attributes to motivate employees.

A study by Vogel, Bohner and Wanke (2014) agreed that "leadership attitude" is a complex issue that required clear evaluation of people, events, or situations and things by scholars and practitioners. They concluded that attitude can strongly be inherent in some people and can actually mould their character positively or negatively based on their past or present social behavior. According to Elizabeth and Lynn (2014) a positive or negative attitude is highly dependent on leaders' self-esteem or mindset that helps them come up with a leadership style largely founded on ideas and feelings that can cause organizational ineffectiveness, and if not tactically managed, can destroy their private and professional lives. According to Vogel, Bohner and Wanke (2014), authentic leaders have positive attitudes which lead

to organizational development, clear setting of goals and objectives, problem management, performance feedback, building cognitive confidence and team building.

Why has the concept of authenticity of leaders become popular in administration today?

Trust

The researchers observed that the leadership in the private university was inadequately trusted which had negatively impacted on employees mentally. The leaders did not trust the employees, especially those who were under the old management. It lowered their motivation, performance, morale, satisfaction, level of innovation, creativity, flexibility and promoted informal communication amongst the employees, among others. One respondent confirmed:

The new leadership in this university does not trust us and we also do not trust them. They say one thing today and act contrary the next day. For example they have been terminating most of the old employees they found in this university and replacing them with new ones. They do not trust us because they think all the old staff are aligned to the philosophy of the first owners (old ownership and leadership) who had a conflict with them.

One interviewee counseled;

To build trust, the new leaders must measure as authentic. They have to be genuine, sincere transparent, and true to their word (s). Colleagues at work will easily sense unauthentic leaders and will not give their full support to the leaders if they do not trust them.

It was also observed that the majority of participants argued that a great leader has trust and can be trusted. One participant argued:

How can you be a great leader without trust from your followers? This is the mistake our leaders have made by thinking that others must trust them simply because they hold powerful positions or titles in the university. But trust can only be earned through demonstration of your ability, integrity, consistency, and commitment among others to deliver. It cannot be earned over night because of positions.

However, it was also observed that few employees had started gaining trust in their leaders despite all the odds. One added:

Some few leaders actually demonstrated clarity, compassion, good character, commitment, consistency and recognized hard workers had highly contributed to the tasks that help accomplish the university goals and objectives

Another one responded:

The new leadership is trying as much as possible to build a culture of trust and has become the foundation of leadership in this university. Employees now trust their leaders more than before, they have faith in them and they are inspiring to many of us. We can now manage change and have staff confidence.

The findings mean that trust in leadership has grown and can boost the potential of employees. However, this implies that trust cannot be earned overnight. The new leadership has now realized that it is important to build trust smoothly and strongly since there tends to be lack of trust between leaders and employees in cases of takeover, mergers, or transformations.

According to Mesly (2015), trust is a feeling of somebody or something being relied upon, or will turn out to be good; it is the feeling of being sure about something even with no evidence to prove it. In a similar study, Northouse (2016) agreed that authentic leaders are good at inspiring trust among employees and other subordinates especially during mergers, takeovers, transformational and transactional eras for accomplishment of their goals and objectives. Nonetheless, Bill (2016) argued that trust begins with all people in the institution and not only by leaders since no person is perfect.

Credibility

The researchers observed that the majority of employees and subordinates at this private university looked at their leaders as lacking credibility and trustworthiness. The leaders did not show any signs that they were gradually building their credibility (trustworthiness and intelligence) for believability and reliability for all persons in the organization. One respondent lamented:

A leader who is credible builds trust among subordinates because such leaders have professional skills and knowledge to inform, communicate and make informed decisions. They aim at a win-win position between them and the employees. They actually “walk the talk” by making their actions speak louder than words and deliver what they promise.

Another participant confirmed:

The new university leadership is more credible than the old one. They display credibility and have been able to build strong teams and establish a better communication channel with us the employees.

However, other participants confirmed that leaders lacked sufficient credibility although it had become a foundation of leadership:

I am not happy with the credibility of the leaders in this university because among others; most of them have failed to keep up with their field of expertise, withhold information, do not want to be told the object truth, try to get people to like them than respect them, and they do not want to accept personal responsibility based on their behavior.

Another participant praised the leaders:

Our leaders have reason, competence, take effective decisions, and have high level of accountability; of loyalty by being true, respecting the interest of others, supporting them and caring about them and; being able to effectively delegate subordinates. This among others inspires employees because they feel respected.

Leaders who want others to believe what they say have to first believe it themselves. This implies that leaders' credibility is centered on their words and actions. Credibility requires careful management and leaders must be concerned about it and assess it from time to time. If this is missing, then their leadership will suffer (inefficient and ineffective).

Credibility in leaders is a gradual process that takes time, effort and tolerance. However, it remains popular in administration today (Kassin & Markus, 2017). The findings match those reported by Peter (2015) whose research showed alarming figures that only 49% of employees trusted their senior management as opposed to only 28% who believed that chief executive officers are a credible source of information, and are thus authentic. Peter (2015) confirms that credibility is about believability, experience, intelligence, qualification, trustworthiness and expertise on the side of leadership. Cheri Swales (2017) confirmed that credibility is the foundation of leadership across organizations for accomplishing their goals and objectives. As earlier advanced by Kouzes and Barry (2011), "if people (employees or subordinates) do not believe in the messenger, they will not believe the message".

Moral Character

Observations showed that the majority of the employees and subordinates considered the issue of morals in their leaders to be an ethical standard although some leaders did not measure up to it. The Golden rule was: "One should treat others as one would like others to treat oneself".

One participant argued thus:

Our leaders have moral character because they have the assemblage of certain key qualities that differentiate one person from another which has helped create teamwork amongst employees.

Another participant added:

This university survives on having leaders that have a disposition to express behavior at least in coherent and consistent patterns that have helped in the function of a range of situations across the institution. They have shown us their sum of moral habits, thus gaining our trust.

Other respondents generally agreed that moral character can be seen in leaders who demonstrate a high level of honesty, loyalty, empathy, commitment, courage and resilience in their leadership. But it was observed that some employees disliked the moral character of their leaders in this university. One interviewee, a staff member said:

The kind of leaders that we have in this university can stress. I have no peace of mind, and I have sleepless nights. The leaders are not true to us, for example they have been restructuring and terminating employees continuously and yet they keep promising that we are safe and have job security.. Really? When day in, day out I have seen my colleagues leaving?

Another staff member added:

Our leaders cannot be trusted, they are people without moral character, so we do not enjoy a meaningful relationship that is open, honest, and there is no mutual respect. Their behavior cannot be trusted. They promise one thing and do totally the opposite.

Another supported:

I think our leaders have not yet built confidence that we trust them. They seem so worried about embarrassment due to their actions if publicly disclosed. They do not know how to manage damage control or fear of possible disgrace. They are thus being a bad role model and are not proud of themselves.

The findings mean that moral character of leaders depends on stability of their moral qualities. It implies having like or not having attributes like courage, empathy, honesty, loyalty and fortitude or good behavior, among others.

Secondary data revealed that moral character was a key measure for an authentic leader because it defined their levels of awareness, belief, values and ethical standards among others which shaped their leadership and management styles (Bill, 2015). The findings are related to Peter (2015) who advanced that moral character is to do with the degree of rightness or goodness of a person. Thus moral character is an evaluation of a person's stable moral qualities or the total collection of qualities that differentiate one individual from another. But to Kassin and Markus (2017), moral character is the ability of a person not only to have but to be able to express it through behavior in consistent patterns of functions across a range of situations (empathy, courage, determination, commitment, honesty and loyalty). Thus moral character is about ethical and professional behavior that earns individuals respect and dignity to lead others in harmony to help accomplish the organizational goals and objectives (Donna & Chellie, 2013), otherwise leaders would have displayed the worst form of moral character in their leadership.

Conclusion

The study concluded that authenticity in authentic leadership of this HEI has not yet been recognized as a gold standard. This created tension and mistrust between the leaders and the employees simply because the leaders ignored owing to their personal experiences (self-awareness). The popularity and value of authentic leaders to be able to influence, propel, and inspire employees' productivity, among others, highly depends on how employees perceive them. The display of leaders' values, emotions, attitudes, trust, credibility, and moral character determines the value in change of beliefs, change of action, and change perception of action for both the leaders and those they lead to accomplish goals and objectives.

Implications of the study

The practice and managerial implication of this study to this private university is that authentic leaders have best human resource management practices aligned to the strategic goals of an institution. All they require is to systematically communicate the purposes of the institution

and the different intuitions therein in an intelligent manner to avoid being perceived negatively by the employees and other subordinates. The key weapon for leaders is to realize they are human and can make mistakes, which they can correct through self-awareness. But more empirical research is still needed although many studies have concluded that authenticity in authentic leadership is a game changer in improving organizational performance.

References

- Bill, G. (2016). *What Does Authentic Leadership Really Mean?* At: http://www.huffingtonpost.com/bill-george/what-does-authentic-leade_b_8581814.html
- Bishop, W. H. (2010). Defining the Authenticity in Authentic Leadership. *The Journal of Values-Based Leadership*, Volume 6, Issue 1, Article 7.
- Brenda, E. B. & Brooke, V. (2016). *Five Tips to Become an Authentic Leader*. Kellogg School of Management, Northwestern University. At:
- Cheri, S. (2017). *Maintain Credibility as a Leader*. Monster Contributing Writer. At: <https://www.monster.com/career-advice/article/maintain-credibility-as-a-leader>
- Donna, L. & Chellie, S. (2013). *Authentic Leadership: Clashes, Convergences and Coalescences*. Edward Elgar Press.
- Festinger, L. (1957). *A theory of cognitive dissonance*, Evanston, IL: Row & Peterson.
- Fetterman, D. (2009). *Ethnography: Step by Step*, (Third edition), Thousand Oaks CA: Sage.
- Graham, M. C. (2014). *Facts of Life: Ten Issues of Contentment*. Outskirts Press.
- Gubrium, J. F. & Holstein, J.A. (2009). *Analyzing Narrative Reality*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Kassin, S., Fein, S., & Markus, H.R. (2017). *Social psychology* (10th edition). Belmont, CA: Cengage Learning.
- Kendall, R. L. & Tony C. D. (2017). *Change the Way You Change: 5 Roles of Leaders Who Accelerate Business Performance*. Greenleaf Book Group Press.
- Kouzes, J. M. & Barry, Z. P. (2011). *Credibility: How Leaders Gain and Lose It, Why People Demand It Hardcover*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Leroy, H. Palanski, M., & Simons, T. (2012). Authentic Leadership and Behavioral Integrity as Drivers of Follower Commitment and Performance. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 107(3),
- Mesly, O. (2015). *Creating Models in Psychological Research*. United States: Springer Psychology.
- Morgan, B. (2017). *The Difference Between Authenticity and Authentic Leadership*. Inc. <https://www.inc.com/morgan-browning/the-difference-between-authenticity-amp-authentic-leadership.html>
- Northouse, P. G. (2016). *Leadership Theory and Practice* (Seventh Edition). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications
- Patton, M. Q. (2001). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods* (2nd Edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Peter, E. (2015). The Leadership 7 Powerful Habits for Establishing Credibility as a Leader. At: <https://www.inc.com/author/peter-economy/640>

- Surbhi, S. (2015). *Difference between Management and Administration*. At:<http://keydifferences.com/difference-between-management-and-administration.html#ComparisonChart>
- Tim, F. (2013). Authentic Leadership. *Havard Business Review*. At: Harvard Business Publishing Corporate Learning. At:<http://www.harvardbusiness.org/blog/authentic-leadership-0>
- Vogel, T., Bohner, G. & Wanke, M. (2014). *Attitudes and attitude change*. Psychology Press.



Uganda Management Institute



Open call for Papers

The Ugandan Journal of Management and Public Policy Studies

Full paper

We are pleased to invite you to submit your manuscripts to the Ugandan Journal of Management and Public Policy Studies (UJMPPS). The Journal accepts manuscripts from subscribers throughout the year. It accepts original theoretical and empirical research articles, essays as well as reviewed articles and books related to management throughout the year. The article submitted should not have been submitted in any other journal.

UJMPPS is a multidisciplinary internationally peer-reviewed journal publishing a wide range of articles in the fields of public administration and management, governance, leadership and public policy. UJMPPS is dedicated to increasing the depth of the subject across the Management Discipline. Thus the journal covers all management related subjects and welcomes submission of manuscripts that meet the general criteria of significance to management discipline and scientific excellence. The journal welcomes;

Original articles in basic and applied research

Case studies

Critical reviews, surveys, opinions, commentaries and essays.

The journal has a distinguished editorial advisory board with extensive international scholarship and this ensures that the journal maintains high scientific standards and has a broad international coverage. A current list of the editorial advisory board and journal's editors can be found at www.umi.ac.ug.

We invite you to submit your manuscript(s) to: umijournal@gmail.com; and or journal@umi.ac.ug for publication. If for any reason submission through the above addresses is not possible send your submission to the Chief Editor - Lazarus Nabaho (PhD), lnabaho@umi.ac.ug and or to the Managing Editor-Rose B. Namara (PhD), rosenamara@gmail.com as an MS-Word file attachment. Once a manuscript has been received, it will undergo a rigorous peer-reviewing process before acceptance.

Normally a paper will normally be referred back to the author with reviewer's comments before a final issue is submitted. Once fully accepted, the paper will be published in the next issue. Any article submitted should meet the UJMPPS guidelines. The Editors reserve the right to reject any submitted article which does not conform to the guidelines.

Copyright Assignment: All articles should be accompanied by a covering letter in which the author(s) state(s) that the article has not been submitted or will not be submitted, or published or is not being considered for publication elsewhere in any form. Papers will not be passed to the publisher for production unless copyright has been assigned.

Manuscript submission Guidelines

Manuscript Specifications

Length and layout of the article

- a) Length and layout of the article: A manuscript should be within the range of about 3,500 to 6000 words excluding references.
- b) A manuscript should include a relevant and suitable summary (abstract) of 250-300 words.
- c) Six key words should be provided at the bottom of the abstract.
- d) Footnotes and endnotes are not accepted.
- e) Notes or book reviews should be shorter than this, i.e. 1500 to 3000 words.
- f) The title of a manuscript should be brief, attractive and accurate in describing what the study is about.
- g) Headings and sub-headings within the text should be short and clear. Only three levels of sub-headings per section will be acceptable.
- h) The manuscript should be submitted after careful proof reading and ready for press-edit. Readability, fluency of clarity of exposition and style are essential.
- i) Submissions with tables, figures, appendices, should contain a shorter text. These are often taken into consideration when determining the length of the manuscript. Notes and sources should be placed under each table /figure.
- j) Tables, figures (or similar items) should be numbered consistently.



Composition of the Manuscript

Introduction: under this section the author should state the context in which the study is conducted, what is already known about the phenomenon under study, the gap to be filled by the study and how the study fills the knowledge gap. This section should specify the rationale for the study and provide the reader with the flow of the paper detailing key sections of the paper and how they follow after each other.

Methodology: provide detailed description of the research process.

Findings: surprises and non-surprises either from secondary or primary data sources.

Discussion: engage existing literature to relate findings to current knowledge, indicate emerging debates, and explain the differences or similarities if any.

Conclusion: key message of the study in line with the purpose of the study and research questions.

Recommendations: indicate likely implications for policy and/or management practice. These should be informed by the discussion section of the paper.

Referencing style: American Psychological Association (APA), Sixth Edition

Writing Style:

- a) For the main text, use Times New Roman, 12 point, 1.5 line spacing.
- b) Use double quotation marks for all text quoted verbatim.
- c) Use single quotation marks within double quotation marks for content that was earlier quoted with double quotation marks. For example: Miele (1993, p. 276.) found that “the ‘placebo effect,’ which had been verified in previous studies, disappeared when [only the first group’s] behaviors were studied in this manner” ‘Placebo effect’ was earlier in double quotation marks.
- d) Indent quotations of 40 or more words, cite without quotation marks.
- e) Provide page number (s) for direct/verbatim quotations from other publications, however short. Do not provide page numbers for paraphrased quotations.
- f) When using an abbreviation or acronym for the first time, the full name should be provided (with the acronym or abbreviation in parentheses). The abbreviation or acronym is used thereafter instead of the full name. The acronym should not be used to begin a sentence.
- g) In the text, spell out numbers from one to nine. Use numerals for 10 and over (but when they appear in one phrase, use all numerals, e.g. ‘between 8 and 11 ...’). Numerals should not be used to begin a sentence.
- h) Spell out ‘per cent’ (not ‘percent’) in the text. The symbol % is acceptable in tables.
- i) Authors are required to submit their manuscripts online in Microsoft word to; umijournal@gmail.com accompanied by a declaration of originality of the study.

