COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP AND POVERTY REDUCTION IN UGANDA:
THE PEAP IN MUKONO DISTRICT (2004 – 2008)

BY

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation is my original work and has not been presented to any other university or institution of learning for the award of any academic qualification or for publication.

NAMUTEBI LYDIA

DATE

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APPROVAL

This is to certify that this dissertation is approved for submission by the supervisor

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DR. WAGABA WILLIAM
DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to all those who have been with me when I needed them.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Blessed be the name of the Lord God Almighty for walking with me through this tough academic journey.

This work would not have been possible without the guidance of my supervisor, Dr. Wagaba William. I am grateful for his uncompromising professionalism and dedication towards my work.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS       Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CBOs       Community Based Organisation
DC         District Council
GOU        Government of Uganda
IGG        Inspector General of Government
IMF        International Monetary Fund
MFPED      Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development
HIV        Human Immune-Deficiency Virus
NAADS      National Agricultural Advisory Services
NGOs       Non-Governmental Organisations
OVC        Orphans and other vulnerable children
PMA        Plan for Modernisation of agriculture
PEAP       Poverty Eradication Action Plan
RDC        Resident District Commissioner
SGBV       Sexual and Gender Based Violence
UBOS       Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UN         United Nations
UNAIDS     United Nations Programme on AIDS
UNDP       United Nations Development Programme
PLE        Universal Primary Education
UPAP       Uganda Participatory Assessment Plan
USE        Universal Secondary Education
ABSTRACT

Community leadership is central for communities in their search for solutions and resources to solve current and future problems. It is argued that the degree of poverty or prosperity in a community is logically attributed to the ineffectiveness or otherwise of community leadership. The relationship between good leadership and people’s welfare was therefore examined, using the PEAP as a case study.

In 1997, the Government of Uganda developed the PEAP, as a national planning framework for development. Consecutively, when the international community introduced the MDGs in 2000, they were to be understood in the context of the PEAP. One would imagine that Uganda was then in a better position to reduce poverty after all the striking principles established by the PEAP since 1997, and the MDGs since 2000. However, available information indicates that 9.9 million Ugandans still leave in absolute poverty that is, on less than a dollar a day.

In Mukono District particularly, where the majority are the rural poor, poverty was on the increase since 2004. Since community leaders are formally charged with spearheading the reduction of poverty in their respective areas of influence, the general objective of the study was to establish the extent to which community leaders had contributed towards poverty reduction in Mukono District from 2004 to 2008, using a case study design, with in two sub-counties of Goma and Nakisunga. But first, it was necessary to identify the indicators and levels of poverty in the two sub-counties, as well as the role of community leaders in the PEAP.

The findings established that although there are similar indicators of poverty in both sub-counties, there was a slight difference in the causes and levels in each sub-county, with Nakisunga being worse than Goma. The increasing levels of poverty were due to lack of good leadership policies to effect government programmes at sub-county level, as well as the tendency by leaders to maintain the political seat than engage in the poverty reduction campaign. The suggestion was that such problems can be overcome with more training on poverty reduction, the role of leaders as well as their followers.
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In rural settings that are largely communal, community leadership plays a key role in all community endeavors, including poverty reduction, and has been particularly true in poor countries such as Uganda. This study examined the extent to which community leaders have contributed towards poverty reduction in Uganda under the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP). The study examined two sub-counties of Mukono District, Goma and Nakisunga, from 2004 to 2008. This chapter presents the background, statement of the problem, general and specific objectives, research questions, the scope as well as the justification of the study.

1.1 Background

Community leadership is important as communities search for solutions and resources to solve current and future problems. In their attempts to comprehend and explain the nature of leadership, scholars have advanced numerous theories of leadership. There are as many definitions of leadership as there are leadership styles and followers. Most of these definitions are, however, restricted to organisations. The study therefore, emphasizes the need to improve community leadership as an answer to community development.

Essentially, leadership is the art of motivating a group of people to act towards achieving a common goal. The leader is the inspiration and director of action. He or she is the person in the group that possesses the combination of personality and skills that makes others want to
follow his or her direction (Bass, 1985). Similarly, Allio (2004) defines leadership as, “the process of influencing a group of followers, adding value, and helping the organisation or community adapt to change”. Allio maintains that it is a quality exhibited by those who lead.

Each organisation exhibits different leadership styles, according to the nature or structure of the organisation. Organisational leadership is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others in an organisation to contribute towards the effectiveness and success of the organisation. Although PEAP was premised on organisational leadership, the study examined its success at sub-county level thus relating community leadership to poverty reduction.

Leadership is a broad concept and can be best understood in terms of its theories. Generally, a theory is an analytic structure designed to explain a set of observations, but in scholarly use, it is reserved for ideas which meet baseline requirements about the kinds of observations made, the methods of classification used, and the consistency of the theory in its application among members of that class (Wikipedia, 2006). The study examines the leadership in poverty reduction.

1.1.1 Theories of Leadership

Leadership theories can be subsumed into six broad categories: the Great-man theories, the Trait theories, the Contingency theories, the Crisis or the Great-event theories, the Management or Transactional theories, and the Transformational theories.
The Great-man theories assume that the capacity for leadership is natural - that great leaders are born and not made (Bennis, 1998). These theories portray great leaders as heroic, mythic and destined to rise to leadership when needed. The term ‘Great-man’ was used because in the past, leadership was primarily a male quality, especially in terms of military leadership. However, research has revealed that experience and training can also result into great leadership, thus negating Bennis’ belief that great leaders are born and not made. Moreover, the emergence of such great female leaders as Margaret Thatcher (Britain), Benisia Bhutto (Pakistan), Sirleaf Johnson (Liberia) and Gloria Arroyo (Philippines), has demonstrated that leadership is not exclusively a male domain.

Crisis or Great-event theories are akin to Great-man theories, and assume that a crisis or an important event may cause a person to rise to the occasion, thereby bringing out extraordinary leadership qualities in an ordinary person. When such leaders emerge during a crisis, and use newly manifest extra-ordinary skills to overcome the crisis, they may become and remain leaders thereafter. For example, Allio (2004) argues that if it was not for the apartheid regime in South Africa, Nelson Mandela, once the President of the African National Congress (ANC) party and of South Africa, probably would not have become the great leader that we know. Crisis theories are however, indistinct in explaining the concept of great leadership. Moreover, whether there is a crisis or not, quality leadership exists, and therefore should be explored at all levels of human relations. Besides, how do we explain leaders who emerge even without a crisis?
Also akin to Great-man theories are Trait theories which assume that people inherit certain qualities and traits that make them better suited for leadership. Trait theories often identify particular qualities, such as physical stature, or behavioral characteristics, such as audibility, shared by leaders (Warren and Armstrong, 1987). Some of these traits are inborn, and others can be acquired. But, if particular traits are key features of leadership, how do we explain people who possess those qualities but are not leaders? This is more of a nineteenth century concept, when for example only blondes would inherit the kingship. This theory cannot help us to understand today’s leadership crises, because, just having certain personality traits does not necessarily make a person a great leader.

For their part, Fiedler’s Contingency theories of leadership focus on a particular environment that might determine which particular style of leadership is best suited for a particular situation (Martin et al, 1993). Fiedler’s 40-year study of leadership proposes that no leadership style is best in all situations. The solution to any leadership or management crisis depends on a number of variables, including the leadership style, qualities of the followers, and aspects of the situation. Thus, the emergence of a leader depends on three factors: leader-member relations, the task structure, and position-power.

In other words, contingent theories take into account all the classic leadership styles, such as participation, laissez-faire, autocratic, and many more. It is up to the leader to choose which style is appropriate. The participation style involves the leader including one or more employees in the decision-making process (determining what to do and how to do it). Still, the leader maintains the final decision-making authority. The laissez faire style, consists in
leader allowing the employees to make the decision. However, the leader is still responsible for the decisions that are made. And finally, the autocratic style is characterized by the leader telling his or her employees what he or she wants done and how he or she wants it done, without getting any advice from his or her followers (U.S. Army Handbook, 1973). In general, contingent theories apply more suitably to structured organizations, where people have mastered their responsibilities and requirements.

Some authors, such as Heresy, Blanchard and Johnson (1987), have appraised Fielder’s contingency theory, but instead preferred to call it “situational theory”. The situational leader uses different leadership styles, depending on the situation and the type of persons being led. That is, telling (such a leader is high on task and low on relationship behaviors); selling (such a leader is high on both task and relationship behavior); participating (such a leader is high both on relationship and task behaviors) and delegating (such a leader is both low on relationship and on task behaviors). In this approach, there is evidence to suggest that cultural factors influence the way people carry out, and respond to, different leadership styles. For example, some cultures are more individualistic than communal, or value family relationships as opposed to bureaucratic models, or have very different expectations about how people address, and talk with, each other. All this influences the choice or orientation of leadership styles and approach.

In contrast, Management theories, also known as transactional theories, focus on the role of supervision, organisation, and group performance. Management is the process of setting and
achieving goals of the organisation through functions of management such as planning, 
organising, directing or leading and controlling. Managers must know how to lead as well as manage (Kotter, 1990). Management theories are sometimes called transactional theories because they base leadership motivation on a system of reward and punishment, that is when employees are successful, they are rewarded; and when they fail; they are reprimanded or punished (Blake and Mouton, 1978). Like contingency theories, Management theories apply to highly structured organisations with formally trained employees.

Finally, transformational theories state that people can study to become leaders after learning and acquiring leadership skills (Burns, 1997). The transformational theory is the most widely accepted of the theories of leadership. It is also considered to be the last stage in the process of leadership development. This school of thought states that effective leaders can contribute to effective performance through intellectual stimulation, motivation and individualized consideration. In the process, the theory tends to exploit participatory leadership styles whereby the leader determines what to do, based on the followers’ status, attitude and opinion.

While the transformational leader seeks openly to transform the organisation, the followers are also definitely transformed, possibly to be more like this remarkable leader. In some respects, then, the followers are the product of the transformation. However, leadership requires skill. Not every one can learn all the skills of leadership as well as any one else. Fortunately, most people can learn some of them and thus develop their own potential.
Unlike transaction theories, transformation theories are relevant to this study for as Burns (1978) argued, “it was possible to distinguish between transactional and transforming leaders. The former approach their followers with an eye for trading one thing for another, while the latter are visionary leaders who seek to appeal to their followers’ better nature and move them toward higher and more universal needs and purposes by transforming them”. In other words, the transformational leader is seen as an agent of positive change. However, Bass (1985) was apprehensive that Burns (1978) set transactional and transforming leaders as polar opposites. Instead, Bass suggests that we should be looking at the way in which transactional styles can be drawn upon and transformed. The resulting transformational leadership is said to become more necessary as the demands made by leaders on their followers become more sophisticated in an increasingly complex world.

For his part, Maurik (2001:75) argues that “such demands center on the high levels of uncertainty experienced by leaders, their staff and, indeed, the whole organisation today”. He goes on to identify three broad categories in this orientation. These categories are only concerned with transformational leaders; that is, leaders who are inspirational, motivational and intellectually stimulating. Transformational theories are relevant to this study because the researcher believes that community leaders can only perform well if they are transformers, who inspire, motivate and intellectually stimulate their followers. This is because reducing poverty largely depends on transforming the attitudes and work methods of the poor.

Ultimately, therefore, there is no specific or best way to lead; leadership is dependent on various factors such as the strengths and the weaknesses of the leader and the followers,
plus the prevailing circumstances. Leaders can improve their skills if they get training and work on their weak areas, and if they can adapt their leadership approaches to prevailing circumstances. Consequently, it is important for the leader to be familiar with all the leadership styles and to know which one is best for a given situation. But most importantly, the leader should know his or her organisational culture, nature of work, and his or her relationship with the followers. All of this can be attained through effective communication. In other words, leaders should be good learners and communicators who know the right thing to say at the right time, and in the right place.

1.1.2 Community and Community Leadership

Although the survival of organised communities is dependent on the nature of leadership, community leadership cannot exist without the survival of the community. Basically, concepts of community vary depending on the context in which the term is used. In standard political jargon, a community is a body of states or nations, unified or bound by common interests. For example, the East African Community (EAC) that comprises of Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania, Rwanda and Burundi, and the international community which comprises of countries that are members of the UN. All of these are unified or bound by common interests. But for most anthropologists, a community is a group of persons who normally reside together in face-to-face association.

Additionally, present day sociologists conceive a community in three categories in three different ways. First, there are those who define a community as a body of people living
internally interdependently, and collectively self-sufficiently. Secondly, some sociologists conceive a community as an organized political or social body in a particular area. And finally, the third and most liberal sociological concept of community views a community as a body having a common race, language, religion, profession or some other attribute (Mitchell, 1970). Thus, depending on the context in which the term community is used, the above definitions are relevant. But for purposes of this study, the researcher defined a community is defined as,

A group of people, who reside in an administrative district, sub-county or parish, and are governed by interdependent variables such as leadership, culture, religion and resources, and are in pursuit of common or related goals.

Community leadership is different from all the other types of leadership such as organisational leadership, despite the fact that it is also about relationships between leaders and followers. It is about the ability of the leaders to revamp a given situation in a given community. Bass (1985) asserts that strong community leaders understand group dynamics, work well within a group, help others step forward, and share responsibility rather than take control. Community leadership is, therefore, meant to be a catalyst for creating stronger linkages and problem-solving capabilities in the society.

1.1.3 Community Leadership in Uganda

Unfortunately, in Uganda, community leadership has not been clearly defined. And where it is defined, it is usually related to the role played by individuals in a particular project. For example, in the PEAP Report (2004/5), community leadership was defined by the roles
played by different categories of members or stakeholders charged with the progress of the project. Stakeholders included members of the local government in the rural and urban areas. As a result, the researcher, preferred to define community leadership, as, “a quality exhibited by all influential and knowledgeable members of the community, in pursuit of common goals”.

The knowledgeable members include the elderly, the educated, and ordinary people who have knowledge of the past, tradition, medicine or some other aspect of community life. Influential members include all individuals who can inspire others to achieve community goals or the goals of influential members.

However, these categories do not exclude the three categories of community leaders presented in Jendia’s *Journal of African Leadership and Conflict Management* (2005). The three categories include: political leaders, traditional leaders and religious leaders. Besides, the categories in the journal, the fourth includes the rich in the community.

Political leaders are people who use their political positions or power to influence or achieve political goals. These may be appointed by the central government or elected by members of the community. The appointed ones include Resident District Commissioners (RDCs) whose role is to guide district service officials and members of the Local Councils (LCs). The elected ones are Members of Parliament (MPs) and the LCs. Political leaders therefore represent many leadership theories or models, based on whether one is
appointed or elected, because of their ability to solve a complex problem in society, and thus echoing the crisis theories. Alternatively, one may become a leader after getting all the necessary training for the position and thus, reflecting transformational theories. For example, MPs must meet certain formal education.

Since all communities are founded on culture, traditional leaders are cultural representatives, also charged with safeguarding tradition. This group includes kings, chiefs, herbalists or traditional healers and clan heads among others. Traditional leaders provide information on cultural norms and perform rituals and other cultural duties. This group exhibits trait theories of leadership in the sense that becoming a leader is not open to everyone, including those in possession of leadership qualities. In this category, leadership is a legacy in the community. Precisely, although some traditional leaders undergo apprenticeship, traditionalists believe that, good leaders are born and not made; traditional leadership thus partly exhibits the Great-man theories.

Religion and leadership are inseparable, and as noted in the Biblical (Romans 13:1), “Every one who rules was given the power by God.” Religious leadership is believed to be a calling from God. Thus, religious leaders are perceived as messengers of God. Through prayer and other religious rituals, they are perceived to perform miracles of healing and deliverance. Religious leaders exhibit either a Transformational or a Crisis theory; that is, they may be appointed when they perform unusual duties or miracles, or anointed after undergoing religious training. Since religious leaders are faith based, they are sometimes impractical
when they particularly fail to draw real life experiences for their followers. They have therefore been criticised for leading a mythic style thus mysterious leadership.

Research states that rich or wealthy are people who own both money and material assets which can be valued in monetary terms. These assets include land, large farms and buildings. The rich exhibit either Great-man or Crisis theories of leadership. They evolve Great-man theories, in the sense that, traditionally, land belongs to men and not women; therefore, only men would become leaders in that case. They also exhibit Crisis theories because the rich would not have been regarded as community leaders had it not been for their wealth which automatically grants them a better position and opportunity to influence particular decisions on behalf of the community.

However, for purposes of this study, community leaders were drawn from all stake holders or groups in the PEAP, from the local to the national levels, Ministry of Finance personnel, and functionaries of the local government and administrative units in Mukono District, plus the rich and the poor members of the community. The study focused exclusively on the contribution of community leadership towards poverty reduction under the PEAP, and excluded other services currently delivered by the Local Councils.

1.1.4 Poverty and Poverty Reduction

Although social welfare is a combination of many things, good leadership can be measured in terms of people’s wellbeing. For instance, the degree of poverty or prosperity in a
community is logically attributed to the ineffectiveness or otherwise of community leadership. Poverty can be best understood in terms of access to basic needs, but it can also be manifested as absolute (or extreme), moderate, and relative poverty. Basic needs are things that an individual must have in order to survive, and these include clean air and water, adequate and balanced food, physical and emotional security, physical and mental rest, appropriate clothing and shelter (Sachs, 2005:20-21). When people cannot access basic needs, they are said to be extremely or absolutely poor. Extreme poverty, therefore, means that households cannot meet basic needs for survival.

Sachs (2005) notes that unlike moderate and relative poverty, extreme poverty occurs only in developing countries. In such cases, the poor are generally hungry, and unable to access health care; they lack safe drinking water and sanitation, and cannot afford education for some or all their children, and often lack even rudimentary shelter. Moderate poverty refers to conditions of life in which basic needs are met, but barely; and relative poverty is generally understood as a state where household income levels are below a given proportion of average national income.

Although the PEAP aspires to eradicate poverty, it would be inaccurate to characterise anti-poverty action in Uganda as “eradication”. This is because poverty eradication is the process of eliminating poverty completely from an entire community; but that is almost impossible. Instead, the terms, poverty reduction or poverty alleviation, which represent the process of lowering or making poverty less severe, would be more appropriate.
Almost all African countries exhibit different but high levels of poverty. As a matter of fact, research, has indicated that, among other countries, chronic poverty also exists in Uganda. Chronic poverty, as defined by the poor, is a situation “where one survives marginally and with problems that follow, living hand-to-mouth and in perpetual need, due to lack of basic necessities of life and the means of production”. Other aspects of chronic poverty include lack of social support, negative feelings of despondency, frustration and powerlessness because “one has no source of life” (Kimberly, 2003).

1.1.5 Poverty Eradication in Uganda

Uganda is still one of the poorest countries, with per capita income levels of $260, high population growth rates of 3.4%, the third highest in the world, and persistently high child and infant mortality rates, all of which are a major hindrance to poverty reduction (World Bank, 2006). In Uganda, poverty also remains the greatest challenge to leadership and community development. In 1983, efforts were made to explore the gravity of poverty and how the current national leadership was going to take the initiative to address the poverty threat. The discussion over the years has been centered on leadership and the welfare of the people of Uganda.

Subsequently, development workers in Uganda adopted an operational perception of poverty not only as lack of income but also the inability to meet basic and social needs, the feeling of powerlessness to break out of the cycle of poverty, and insecurity of person and property. Unequal sharing of resources within the household reflected not only cultural
factors but also unequal access to education and physical assets, such as land, in which women were disadvantaged.

Since 1986, when the incumbent President of Uganda - Yower Museveni came to power in Uganda, efforts have been made to establish how best community leaders can participate in poverty reduction. The first fundamental step taken by the national leadership was to empower its people to adopt the political, economic and social reforms necessary for poverty reduction. This was later enshrined in the 1995 Constitution (the Republic of Uganda, 1995:1), which clearly states that power belongs to the people. Through popular democracy, the local communities elected their leaders and it was expected of such leaders to act as vehicles of community development.

In the early 1990s, the Government of Uganda (GOU) initiated the Plan for Modernization of Agriculture (PMA); and community leaders were empowered administratively to popularize the PMA. In this plan, new crop varieties, like vanilla and other high yielding crops, were introduced to community leaders. On top of that, crop seeds were distributed to farmers purposely to reduce the deepening levels of poverty. The Entandikwa Credit Scheme (ECS) also came on board; community leaders, in liaison with the central government, identified special organised groups and individuals and gave them loans in order to enhance their welfare and get rid of poverty. Unfortunately, the ECS collapsed, largely due to lack of training, monitoring, motivation and evaluation among others, on the part of community leaders and the loan recipients. Ultimately, poverty persisted and deepened in some areas.
In 1997, the Government of Uganda developed yet another project, the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP), as a national planning framework for development. The plan materialized out of numerous consultations among the central and local governments, donors, and civil society. This plan is revised every three years to identify emerging challenges and guide community leaders towards poverty reduction. The Government’s overriding aim, as stipulated in the PEAP, was to reduce the total number of people living in absolute poverty from 44% in 1997 to less than 10% of the population by 2017. The first review was done after the indication that in 1992, poverty rates in Uganda stood at 56% but declined to 44% in 1997, 34% in 1992/2000, but then rose to 38% in 2002/3 before falling again to 31% in 2005/2006 (MFPED, 2007/8).

The PEAP’s comprehensive national poverty reduction strategy was premised on five principles, also known as pillars of the PEAP, namely: a) Economic management; b) Enhancing production, competitiveness and incomes; c) Security, conflict resolution and disaster management; d) Good governance and poverty reduction; c) Human development. The study examined leadership contribution in achieving these pillars.

In 2000, the United Nations declared the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), for all member states, under the United Nations Development Program (UNDP). These goals were crucial, especially for the world’s poor. There are eight MDGs, namely, to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE); promote gender equality and empower women; reduce child mortality; improve maternal health; combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases; ensure environmental sustainability; and to develop a global
partnership for development. The UN’s primary objective was to cut poverty in half across the globe by the year 2015 (Wagner, 2000).

Fortunately for Uganda, the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP), had earlier on in 1997 started on the battle to reduce poverty. However, at the time, PEAP was just at the beginning of the battle. Moreover, when Uganda adopted the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the PEAP was used as the foundation for achieving the goals. According to the 2007 Progress Report, Uganda has made substantial progress towards achieving the MDGs, although more needs to be done if all the MDGs are to be attained.

For example, the National Agricultural Advisory Services (NAADS), established in 2000, is one of the core programmes under the Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture (PMA). NAADS’ vision was to improve the privately owned farms and to realise the agricultural sector objectives of modernisation and commercialisation of agriculture, as well as to increase farmers’ access to information and technology through effective, efficient, sustainable and decentralized extension, with increasing private sector involvement in line with Government policy.

Implementation of the NAADS started in July 2001 in six (6) trial districts of Arua in northern Uganda, Mukono in the central region, Soroti and Tororo in eastern Uganda, Kibaale in western Uganda and Kabale in the south-west. In 2002, NAADS was introduced to ten other districts of Kabarole, Wakiso, Mbarara, Bushenyi, Busia, Kapchorwa, Lira, Luwero, Kitgum and Iganga; and in 2003, it was introduced to five additional districts of Hoima, Rakai,
Kamuli, Mbale and Nakapiripit (NAADS, 2006).

Mukono is reported to be among the trail blazing districts, in which the implementation was going on well despite the many social, political and economic challenges. The rural farmers still face the challenge of low quality and quantity production. However, achieving the goals of the PEAP is crucial for the MDGs, and in Uganda, the MDGs are best understood in the context of the PEAP (UNDPs Human Development Report, 2003).

The PEAP’s progress report (2004) further indicates that, in 1997, 44 % of the population’s consumption was less than what is required to meet the basic needs of life. Low rates of economic growth were manifestations and indicators of poverty, and partly, civil disorder had contributed to persistent poverty in Uganda. Incomes were also highly unequally distributed, which reduced the impact of economic growth on poverty reduction. At household level, poverty was also related to rural residence (especially to those living in the north and east), land shortage, low levels of education, single parent headed households and limited access to markets.

Through the PEAP, as a framework for poverty reduction, Uganda has registered substantial progress in meeting her objectives. In spite of this progress, though, poverty remains a major challenge to the citizens of Uganda and according to the World Bank Report (2006), Uganda remains one of the poorest countries in the world. According to the report, poor countries face the challenge of devising concrete and comprehensive plans, with corresponding well-focused, solid, and targeted investments in people to ensure their
health, education, skills and jobs. For instance, 31% (over 9.9 million) of Ugandans remain under the yoke of absolute poverty, a fact that is attributed to the proliferation of local government districts, electoral constituencies and political posts such as RDCs and presidential advisers, contrary to the well-laid down guidelines, which is a drain on the national exchequer.

Although some progress in reducing poverty has been registered in a few areas of Uganda, namely, Wakiso, Mbarara and Kampala districts, income levels are still low in Uganda. In addition, large sections of Uganda’s population cannot afford the basic necessities of life, such as food and shelter. According to Uganda’s Progress Report on MDGs (2007/8), the country still faces several challenges to meeting the targets of key economic and social indicators. The average economic growth rate of about 5.6 percent over the past five years is below the 7% target, required to reduce absolute poverty to below 10% of the population by 2017.

Other indicators of poverty are reflected in social circles, including insecurity, the low quality of medical, educational and public services, the limited availability of productive employment, macroeconomic instability and the malfunctioning of markets, scarcity of health information, and the limited technical information available to society. The researcher believes that, with better working techniques, community leadership would help meet some of the targets.
1.1.6 Poverty Reduction in Mukono District

In accordance with the pillars adopted by PEAP in 1997, local governments embraced the PEAP philosophy. It was mandatory for every district to establish a framework to achieve the PEAP goals. Thus, Mukono District Council established a strategy for using its leadership structure to reduce, and if possible to eradicate, poverty in the district.

Located on the shores of Lake Victoria, Mukono District borders the district of Jinja to the East, Kayunga to the North, Luwero and Wakiso to the west and Kalangala to the west and Tanzania to the south. The district has about 50 ethnic groups but the dominant group is Baganda, and the main language spoken is Luganda. According to the OVC Report (2008), Mukono District is among the poorest districts in Uganda, with 18.2% Poverty gap as the percentage below poverty line. The report indicated that most households in the district could not access basic needs and services such as food, clothing, beddings, shelter, basic health care and education. However, all together, Mukono District is one of the most naturally endowed districts in Uganda. It has natural resources such as Mabira (an equatorial rain forest with over 100 tree species), and is located on the shores of Lake Victoria in the fertile Lake Victoria crescent. Besides, Mukono is one of the major industrial districts in the country with major industries located in the following areas:

a) Lugazi Town Council: The Sugar Corporation of Uganda Limited - SCOUL, Kasaku Tea Factory and Cable Corporation which produces spare parts for industries and Railway locomotives among others.
b) Njeru Town Council: Nile Breweries, Nalubaale power generation station (Owen Falls Dam), Mulbox, and Gulu Foam among others.

c) Mukono Town Council’s industrial area: Lwanyonyi Industrial Park with Kyetume abattoir and Railway station. There are other smaller industries engaged in different activities such as the Zimwe and Stirling International stone mining sites.

In addition, the district has a major tourism potential and a growing hotel business. In this category of relatively prosperous districts are, Kampala, Mbarara, Wakiso and Jinja districts (refer to map on page 164).

Mukono District is estimated to have a population of about 962,435, with an average household of 4 persons (UBOS, 2007). Although the Local Government, through its Community-Based Services Department (CBSD), has played a role in poverty reduction, Mukono District is among the poorest districts in Uganda with 18.2% below the Poverty line. A large number of the rural people still live in absolute poverty, that is on less that a dollar a day and there is inadequate access to basic needs and services such as food, clothing, beddings, shelter, basic health care and education (OVC, 2008).

The district has a high population that is predominantly rural and poor, and this has negative implications for the limited facilities. Similarly, morbidity, hunger, school dropouts, and mortality rates, are high. The rural poor cannot afford to produce enough for their subsistence or a decent income. Moreover, their produce is usually of poor quality and unable to compete favorably on the market. Children and women still walk long distances in
search of water and other basic needs. In addition, rural poverty has fuelled an increasing crime rate over the years in the district. Based on this observation, the researcher examined two sub-counties in Mukono District, Goma and Nakisunga for the period 2004-2008.

Goma and Nakisunga are two of Mukono’s 24 sub-counties. These two sub counties were selected for the study because, despite the presence of apparently similar community leadership, they exhibit different levels of poverty. Goma has a population of 46,029 while Nakisunga had a population of 48,795 people. Goma is reported to have developed faster than other sub-counties in terms of its infrastructure (the Daily Monitor, 25th Sept. 2008). Goma’s main economic activity is agriculture, but since 2004, part of Goma Sub-county, has been turned into an industrial park. In contrast, Nakisunga is reported to be developing at a slower rate in terms of its infrastructure, and it is reported to among the sub-counties with high mortality and morbidity levels. The main economic activity in Nakisunga is agriculture and employment in formal jobs, although fishing is done on a small scale. Nakisunga’s poor infrastructure; poor housing, muddy roads, and insufficient education and medical facilities, compares unfavourably with that of Goma.

In conclusion, although district reports claim economic, social and political growth, the reality is not rosy. Economically, industries are growing at the expense of the rural poor, who previously depended on the abundance of land. Politically, the numerous central and local government leaders appear to be more of development tourists than community leaders. According to the 2006/2007 Police Report, Mukono District was among those with the highest crime rates in Uganda.
1.2 Statement of the Problem

Although Uganda has registered substantial progress in poverty reduction through the PEAP, 31% of Ugandans remain under the yoke of poverty. In Mukono District, many rural people live in absolute poverty. Mukono’s high predominantly rural poor population has limited medical and education facilities. Thus, morbidity, hunger, school dropouts, and mortality rates, are high (OVC Report, 2006). Moreover, their produce is usually of poor quality and therefore unable to compete favorably on the market.

Since community leaders are formally charged with spearheading the reduction of poverty in their respective areas of jurisdiction, it is entirely logical to attribute the persistence of poverty in Mukono District to the possible, if not probable, incompetence of the local community leaders. In other words, is the persistence of poverty in Mukono District due to incompetence of the local community leaders? This question constitutes the problem that the study sought to solve.

1.3 General Objective

The general objective of the study was to establish the extent to which community leaders have contributed towards poverty reduction in Mukono District, using a cross-sectional survey of two sub-counties of the district, Goma and Nakisunga Sub-counties.

1.3.1 Specific Objectives

- To establish the difference in the levels, and indicators of poverty between Goma and Nakisunga Sub-county from 2004 to 2008.
- To identify and assess the role of community leaders in the implementation of PEAP in
the sub-counties of Goma and Nakisunga from 2004 to 2008.

- To generate strategies for more effective community leadership in poverty reduction in Mukono District.

1.4 Research Questions

- What are the levels and indicators of poverty in Nakisunga and Goma Sub-counties of Mukono District from 2004 to 2008, and how do they compare?
- What roles did community leaders play in implementing the PEAP in the two sub-counties from 2004 to 2008, and how did they perform?
- How can the performance of community leaders in poverty reduction in Mukono District be improved?

1.5 Scope

The study focused on establishing the role of community leaders in reducing poverty in Mukono District, through the PEAP between 2004 and 2008. Community leaders were limited to leaders of all stakeholder groups of the PEAP, from household to district levels. These were, namely, District Council staff, Local Councils and Councilors, CBOs and NGOs, experts and development organisations. The study also involved ordinary household members, both well-to-do and poor, because they were supposed to be the beneficiaries of, and active participants in, the poverty reduction activities of the community leaders, and thus possess relevant and valuable information.

However, the study was limited to only two rural sub-counties of Mukono District: Goma

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and Nakisunga. The two rural sub-counties were chosen because the biggest percentage of Uganda’s poor, live in the rural areas. In addition, the two sub counties, exhibit significantly different levels of poverty, and were expected to yield comprehensive data on both the failure and success of the poverty reduction efforts of the community leadership, and thus, permit a balanced assessment of the role of the community leaders in the poverty reduction campaign.

The study covered a period of 4 years, from 2004 to 2008, during which Mukono District reported rising levels of poverty, partly due to the increased population numbers, high mortality and crime rates (District Report, 2007).

1.6 Justification of the Study

The researcher believes that this study is of essence and great importance to people not only in the study area but also other areas in Uganda. This study is also expected to benefit these people in the following ways:

First of all, the study has helped the researcher to widen her knowledge in the field of community leadership and poverty reduction. It has identified the challenges faced by community leaders in trying to reduce poverty, the need for better community leadership, and the magnitude of poverty in the study area which in turn has led to efforts to find workable solutions to solve the problems in the area.

- For the CBOs and NGOs in the area of study whose mission is to facilitate community development in the two sub-counties, the results are directly in the interest of these
organisations because they not only help community development but also help to improve people's incomes in households. Hence they are likely to benefit from this study.

- The policy makers at the sub-county, district or even national levels in their efforts to implement the PEAP activities or even identifying target audience for such programs. This can help them take important and informed decisions while seeking effective implementation.

- The study is also likely to act as a point of reference and to contribute to the body of knowledge in many areas especially the field of community leadership and development.

- The study has also helped to expose the information gap between policy makers at the national level, and implementers at the local level, and thus help the government, NGOs and CBOs involved in poverty reduction to close this gap.

- The study also expected to expose the barriers hindering community leaders in their poverty reduction efforts, thereby providing information to central and local governments as well as NGOs and CBOs for better planning and implementation of anti-poverty action.
CHAPTER TWO

LEADERSHIP AND POVERTY

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Understanding community leadership is necessary as communities grapple with the complex challenges of community development. Community leadership is not a recent phenomenon, but a concept that has evolved since the beginning of human relations. This chapter presents a review of literature on the nature and scope of leadership, leadership styles in organisations, community leadership, poverty perceptions and challenges, and the PEAP and the MDGs in Uganda, with focus on Mukono District.

2.1 Nature and Scope of Leadership

Leadership is a broad concept that exhibits various dimensions, categories and styles. Drucker (1996) defines a leader as someone who has followers. But for any one to have followers requires influence. Essentially, Maxwell (2004) defines leadership as influence - nothing much more, nothing less. Daft (1991), on the other hand, adds that, “leadership is dynamic and involves the use of power to influence others”. Power also determines whether a leader is able to command respect from followers. Without doubt therefore, leadership is, ability to influence people towards attainment of organizational or community goals.

However, the nature of leadership encompasses the universal qualities of great and bad, historical and contemporary leaders. There are great historical and contemporary figures, such as Dr. Martin Luther King Jr (USA), Mahatma Gandhi (India), Nelson Mandela (South
Africa), and Desmond Tutu (South Africa), and bad historical leaders such as Uganda’s Idd Amin, Iraq’s Saddam Hussein, and those ranked by Wallechinsky (2005), who include Omar al-Bashir, (Sudan since 1989), Muammar al-Qaddafi (Libya since 1969), Pervez Musharraf (Pakistan, since 1999), and Robert Mugabe, (Zimbabwe since 1980).

Whereas, it is hard to draw a conclusion on the world’s worst leaders, some leaders combine both good and bad qualities. It is, therefore, taxing to rate their leadership performance when they are still alive and in power. The study therefore examined the strengths and weaknesses of community leaders in the two sub-counties.

Leadership is not limited to organisational structures; it also occurs in the communities in the form of community leadership. Community leadership is different from organisational leadership because organisations usually have managers, but not all managers can be leaders (Kotter, 1990). In fact, some managers are referred to as “bosses”. Although it is argued that leaders can be managers, not all leaders are managers. This is because some community leaders are, for example, knowledgeable only in matters of their respective communities, but are incapable of comprehending or handling complex management or organisational issues.

Research has established that community leadership exists in three categories: traditional, religious and political leadership. These three categories exercise different styles of leadership, similar to those in organisations. According to early scholars, traditional leadership is believed to be the oldest among the three categories, followed by religious and, finally, political leadership.
But previously, it was hard to distinguish between the three categories of leadership. Occasionally, the same individual possessed the characteristics of the three leadership categories. For example, it is rational to conclude that Jesus of Nazareth and Muhammed of Medina, were religious leaders because both were supposedly ordained by God.

However, believers referred to Jesus as the king of kings, and Mohammad engaged in Jihad (holy war) which makes him both a traditional and political or military leader. But since there is no logical evidence to clarify the position of such past leaders, it is also logical to conclude that distinctive political leadership is a category that emerged from both traditional and religious leadership.

Additionally, leaders come in all shapes, sizes, and types, or as White (2007) put it,

_Some are the reptiles, the cold-blooded, tough-as-nails, decision makers with their eyes on the numbers and a focus on control. Others are the mammals, the warm-blooded, compassionate creatures that connect with those around them and build success through mutual trust and open communication._

Good leaders, of course, combine the best attributes of both. And the truly great leader is the one who excels and moves beyond usual tests of success to achieve real change in his or her organization, or community. White adds that one cannot become a great leader just by simply deciding that leadership is one’s goal.

White’s view is partly rational in the sense that leadership is not only about making a decision to become one but also the ability to become a great leader. This involves transformation – the leadership development process, which obviously does not exclude situational leadership. Concurrently, situational leadership calls for different leadership styles. In that case, a
A combination of reptile, cold-blooded and warm-blooded leadership may breed dispiriting leadership styles which will automatically hinder organisational development. Besides, combining both warm-blooded and cold-blooded leadership traits seems a hard task for leadership. Each trait is designed for a different temperature. Perhaps only one trait can be exhibited at a time, depending on the situation.

2.1.2 Classic Leadership Styles in Organisations
Fieldler (1987) established that no leadership style is best in all situations. Success depends on a number of variables, including the leadership style, qualities of the followers, and aspects of the situation. Fielder therefore recommends that leaders should be familiar with all the different styles of leadership, their weaknesses and strengths. Fieldler’s theory emerged from an examination of leadership styles prior to the 1950s, and he also recognised the three classic leadership styles: laissez-faire, autocratic, and participatory leadership, as identified by early scholars. The styles were and are still exhibited by different organisations before and since the 1950s. Figure 2.1 below is an illustration of the common leadership styles in organisational leadership.
Laissez-faire leadership or free reign is where the leader exercises minimal control. Because the employees are highly experienced, they need little supervision to obtain the expected outcome. On the other hand, this style is also associated with leaders who do not lead at all, and those who fail to supervise their team members, resulting into lack of control and higher costs, bad service or failure to meet deadlines (Lefton, 2004). The style is largely a “hands off” approach that tends to minimize the amount of direction and face-to-face interaction. The style is likely to succeed if the organisation has highly trained and motivated individuals, but bound to fail where organisational personnel lack these attributes.

Apparently, laissez-faire leadership is a stage, or a product, of either organisational development perfection or failure (Burns, 1978). In the first case, when the structure of an organization has attained a certain degree of competence and self-discipline, leadership can afford to reduce its directive and supervisory roles to a bare minimum without undermining
the performance of the organisation. In the second case, when leadership fails to play its directive and supervisory roles in an organisation whose structures are weak and whose functions are unreliable, laissez-faire leadership undermines organisational performance and leads to organisational failure. Therefore, laissez-faire leadership is both an ideal to be pursued (in the first case) and a weakness to be avoided (in the second case).

Blake and Mouton (1964) argue that, in a situation where the leader assumes or has been given power to make decisions based solely on his or her personal judgment so that he or she exercises total authority, the style is called autocratic leadership. This style demands close supervision. However, creative employees and team players often criticise this style because it does not enhance processes or decision-making which often result in job dissatisfaction. In autocratic leadership, two sub-types of leaders have been identified: the task-oriented leader and bureaucratic leader.

(i) Task-oriented leaders focus on the job and concentrate on specific tasks assigned to each employee to accomplish set goals. Such leaders show little or no interest in the needs of employees and they exercise close supervision and control to achieve results.

(ii) Bureaucratic leaders are excessively structured and they enforce established procedures pedantically, allowing no room for exploiting innovative solutions to problems. Bureaucratic leaders tend to devote excessive time and other resources adhering to procedure rather than to achieving set goals. Bureaucratic leaders are typically associated with government ministries and institutions as well as banks.
Autocratic leadership has its advocates, but it is falling out of favour in many organizations. Some scholars have argued that the style is popular with today’s Chief Executive Officers (CEOs,) who have much in common with those of Medieval Europe. Although it has been argued that today’s CEO should ideally be a bureaucratic leader, this kind of leadership is rapidly waning, as organisations shift emphasis from efficiency to effectiveness in pursuit of improved overall performance.

Obviously, autocratic leadership is undemocratic and non-participatory, and is also practicable only in colonial or purely exploitative situations where workers’ rights and privileges are not respected. Even where the quality of the workers would tend to justify autocratic leadership, it should be tolerated only as a temporary measure alongside efforts to train and empower workers, so that eventually democratic and participatory leadership prevails.

It is unrealistic that a leader can achieve set organisational goals by simply ordering or demanding that workers be creative, perform as a team, solve complex problems, improve quality and provide outstanding customer service. It is on this basis that participatory leadership presents a happy medium between autocratic and laissez- faire leadership styles. Participatory leadership involves the leader including one or more employees in the decision-making process (determining what to do and how to do it) (U.S. Army Handbook, 1973). However, the leader maintains the final decision-making authority. Using this style is not a sign of weakness; rather it is a sign of strength that employees will respect. This is normally used when a leader has part of the information, and the employees have other parts.
Considering that the leader is not expected to know everything, it becomes necessary to employ knowledgeable and skillful employees. Using this style is of mutual benefit: it allows employees to become part of the team and allows the leader to make better decisions (U.S. Army Handbook, 1973). Participatory leadership is relevant for organisations that must innovate to prosper. It is also ideal for community development as well as poverty reduction.

2.1.3 The Managerial Grid Model

Management theorists have endeavored to determine the best leadership styles to solve complex organisational problems, and they have come up with the “managerial grid”. Their research was based on improving quality and service delivery, and solving management problems. Among their publications, was the Blake and Mouton’s Managerial Grid (1964).

The Managerial Grid Model is a behavioral leadership model which identifies five different leadership styles based on the concern for people and the concern for production. The different leadership styles are: the impoverished style (1,1), country club style (1,9), produce or perish style (9,1), middle-of-the-road style (5, 5) and team style (9, 9). Figure 2.2 below is an illustration of the above five leadership styles.
As shown in figure 2.2 above, the model is presented as a grid with concern for production as the X-axis and concern for people as the Y-axis. Each axis ranges from 1 (Low) to 9 (High). The five resulting leadership styles are as follows:

In the impoverished style (1,1), managers have low concern for both people and production. Managers use this style to avoid getting into trouble. Their main concern is not to be held responsible for any mistakes, which results in minimal innovative decisions. This
has a number of features: first, the manager does only enough to preserve his or her job seniority. Secondly, he or she gives little and enjoys little. And finally, he or she protects himself or herself by trying not to draw attention to himself or herself. This also implies that he or she tries to stay in the same position for a long time.

The country club style (1,9) has a high concern for people and a low concern for production. Managers using this style pay much attention to the security and comfort of the employees, in the hope that this will increase performance. The resulting atmosphere is usually friendly, but not necessarily productive.

The produce or perish style (9,1) manager on the other hand, has a high concern for production, and a low concern for people. Managers using this style find employee needs unimportant; they provide their employees with money and expect performance back. Such managers also pressure their employees through rules and punishment to achieve the company goals.

The middle-of-the-road style (5, 5) managers try to strike a balance between company goals and workers' needs. By giving equal concern to both people and production, managers who use this style hope to achieve satisfactory performance.

The team style (9, 9) has high concern for both people and production. Managers, who use this style, encourage teamwork and commitment among employees. This method relies heavily on making employees feel that they are a constructive part of the company.
The managerial grid draws a striking difference between management styles, and in turn establishes four types of managers: the country club style, impoverished style, perish or produce style, middle of the road style, and the team style. However, it is not clear if some of these task-oriented styles will automatically lead to effective performance. For example, contrary to the country club manager, the task-oriented manager who motivates his or her followers with both rewards and punishment is likely to cause a lot of pressure and stress in the work environment, and soon followers’ mistakes will be inevitable. Besides, there is no organisation whatsoever that does not care whether people achieve goals or not, as in the case of the country club manager.

Therefore, on the basis that “great leaders are made and not born”, (Bass, 1985) advised that leaders should take time off and meditate on how they can become better leaders (transformational theories). That is, identifying weaknesses and how to overcome them, so as to be in a better position to help followers achieve goals. Bennis (1998) adds that leadership is a function of knowing yourself, having a vision that is well communicated, building trust among colleagues, and taking effective action to realize your own leadership potential. This has been elaborated in the leadership framework in figure 2.3 below.
As figure 2.3 above illustrates, the leadership framework consists of three subsets: the Universal set equivalent to BE, KNOW and DO. U, the intersection set, is the point at which all the three qualities meet. It therefore, reflects leadership at its best. The leadership framework lays the foundation on which effective leadership is built. An effective leader should therefore, “be one who knows what to do”.

Figure 2.3: The Leadership Framework (Adapted From Bass, 1985)
The leadership framework was perhaps advanced as a contribution to the leadership development process. However, the framework does not specify the basic approach for effective leadership despite its elaboration on leadership qualities. Still, by setting the goal, one would have to commit to climb the leadership ladder, or what White (2000) describes as the “Leadership Pyramid”. That is, a leader has to undergo leadership transformation in order to achieve milestones in professional and personal development. White maintains that one will start by building the basics, or foundation requirements: a desire to be in charge, and the corresponding ability, strength, and character that all leaders, especially the great ones, must possess. Above all, one needs to balance disciplined, analytical reptilian leadership characteristics with those of the nurturing, engaged mammal.

White’s leadership pyramid may seem logical for quality leadership, but it is too narrow to address the broad nature and scope of leadership. For example, an individual may decide to lead without necessarily transcending the leadership pyramid and this is particularly true for political leadership. Such political leaders are often autocratic and have also been referred to as “rulers”. And since leadership is all about the led, rulers are mere figureheads or selfish individuals who come to power without majority consent. Most of Africa’s political leadership is exemplary of rulers. For example, Uganda’s Milton Obote and Idd Amin, DRC’s Mobutu Sesseko and Zimbabwe’s Robert Mugabe, have been criticised for being dictators of self-imposed rule.
2.1.3 The Development of the Leadership Theory

Until the Second World War (1939–45), leadership was a secluded subject, closely linked to social positions. The disaster of the World War and its effect on humanity called for a special group of people to heal the physical and psychological wounds that nations were nursing. These developments gave birth to the Great-man’s leadership theory. Leadership was also understood as a military and western concept. At the time, leadership was construed to be more of a male domain than a female one (Hopper 2000).

However, the development of female leaders on the leadership block has proved that leadership is not an exclusively male domain. Outstanding leaders, like Margaret Thatcher (Britain), Benisia Bhutto (Pakistan) Gloria Arroyo (Philippines) and Sirleaf Ellen Johnson (Liberia), have emerged on the leadership block.

In the 1960s, the concept of “situational leadership” emerged on the block. This school of thought argued that leaders emerged depending on various factors, such as crisis, organisational culture and the nature of followers. For that reason, the prevailing social challenges gave birth to the crisis theories of leadership.

Proponents of this approach further observed that it was knowledge and suitability of the situation which defined the most effective leader. This approach is also closely related to trait theorists who believe that individuals inherit or possess certain qualities that make them better suited for leadership positions. Crisis theorists accounted for, or explained, the leaders such as, India’s Mahatma Gandhi, and South Africa’s Nelson Mandela and Desmond
Tutu. However, trait or crisis theories cannot effectively define all leadership categories because they fail to account for individuals who are leaders despite lacking certain traits, or leadership without crisis.

On the other hand, Situational theories partly explain the development of community leadership. In the past, leadership in a given community was a result of how an individual handled a given situation. Later, situational theories gave birth to management or transactional theories, partly as a result of industrialisation which created a need to manage organisational change and reform. Emphasis was on the different classes of leadership styles such as autocratic, laissez-faire and participatory styles. It was up to the leaders to choose which style is best according to the situation, organisational culture, and the nature of employees.

Previously, leadership theory was also based on analysing personal characteristics such as the behaviour of leaders – the trait theory (Warren and Armstrong, 1987) and different situations – Fiedler’s (1987) contingency theory. Leadership did not consider some "untypical" qualities of leaders at the time and yet, the "new" qualities required a new theory, or a new concept. Transformation thus became a basic concept in question – transformational theories.

2.1.5 Significance of Transformational Theories in Poverty Reduction

Transformational theories have been used by the World Bank in various studies of development. Among these was the research paper on “Transformational Leadership and
Economic Development” conducted by Couto (1998). This paper was commissioned by the Public Sector Governance Program (Poverty Reduction and Economic Management Unit) of the World Bank. The paper draws on a number of authors who have examined transformational theories including Bass, Sachs, and Heifetz.

In the paper, Couto gave an account of the Heifetz approach into the ‘why’ and ‘how’ transformational leadership operates. Heifetz defines leadership as the activity of adaptive work of a group which attempts to reduce the gap between its values and its practice. “..... Implicitly, the gap between values and practice is a problem the ‘why?’ of the narrative”. The transforming task of leadership is to raise practice to the level of values, such as expansive social bonds.

Heifetz offers three scenarios of this task using the relationship of physician and patient to explain the difference of adaptive and technical work. The symptoms and signs of illness that a patient presents may provide the physician a clear definition of the problem for which an appropriate treatment may be described. For this study, the physician is the community leader, the patient is the rural poor in the area of study, and the technical work is what needs to be done. As a physician, community leaders need to diagnose their patients and thus establish the symptoms and signs of illness that need technical work.

This analysis helps us to understand the alternatives of leadership which transform as different innovative narratives of the adaptive power of change. Transformational community leaders are innovative because they seem to have nothing to do with the
ordinary leadership traits and styles. They are innovative also because they propose that
the problem of leadership is more than getting something done, and that the process of
leadership entails more than telling people how to do it.

On the hand, transformational theories have been criticized on three major grounds. First,
there is too little to show for past development efforts, and major problems of
development remain or get worse. For example, when Uganda adopted the MDGs,
particularly the Universal System of Education (USE), its prime goal was to transform the
community into creative individuals who could engage in formal jobs and thus reduce the
high illiteracy levels and poverty levels, among others. However, nine years after the
MDGs, research has established that the majority of Ugandans are still illiterate and poor
including some of those who have acquired universal education.

Secondly, the failure of development efforts is primarily but wrongly attributed to the
political deficits of the developing nations — poor governance, excessive government
spending, state restrictions on markets, and state ownership of too many of the means of
production (Sachs 2005:81). For example, poverty levels in Uganda are attributed to
national leadership’s failure to institute reforms to overcome the challenges. For instance,
31% (over 9.9 million) of Ugandans remain under the yoke of absolute poverty, a fact that is
attributed to the proliferation of local government districts, electoral constituencies and
political posts such as RDCs and presidential advisers, contrary to the well-laid down
guidelines, which is a drain on the national budget.
Finally, in the name of transformation,” some ‘hard-knocks’ development policies — belt tightening, liberalization, and privatization, - have missed their mark by setting market priorities — private ownership of the means of production, and less regulation — that notoriously undersupply public goods (Sachs 2005:81).

Subsequently, Couto (1998) adds that dictatorial national development policies have caused large-scale human suffering, and, “rising tides do not raise all boats nor do trickle down policies reach down to the level where they are needed”. In Uganda for example, privatization is mostly in favour of foreign business-men who have no idea about the situation in rural areas of Uganda, thus causing misery to the rural farmers who had hope for selling their own produce as raw material to these firms.

Sachs also places most responsibility for the poor state of development on the nations with the resources rather than the nations with needs. He argues that the scale of past development funds have been woefully small and with increased levels of giving, the severe poverty of the world’s population could be eliminated. The narrative of the adaptive work of development seems pretty clear as problems and solutions.

Sachs even speaks of making development into technical work akin to clinical economics (Sachs 2005:75-81), with the knowledge and skills to save lives and cure national illnesses. Precisely, Sachs overall framework is the MDGs of the UN and their full-funding. To conclude in Sachs words,

*It is not that the problem is unclear but that the ordinary diagnosis of the problem of*
development is wrong, and its innovative diagnosis and its corresponding answer are correct and clear. The problem is poverty and the solution is investment in human resources to treat and prevent AIDS, TB, malaria, and other debilitating conditions of the poor.

In conclusion, policies should be established according to a country’s level of development: the poor countries, those on the development ladder and those who are not yet on the development ladder. According to the World Bank report (1998), these are “policies that would feed sparrows by giving more hay to horses. The sparrows need their own attention separate and apart from the horses.”

2.1.6 Community Leadership

Everyone has a different definition of what a good leader is. But most agree that position alone does not define a good leader, and that good leadership depends on a person's ability to work with people and motivate them to achieve an outcome (Bloom, 1985). Bloom adds that a true leader has the ability to inspire and gain respect while setting and achieving goals or as Nossal, a great Australian community leader, scientist, thinker and former Australian of the Year, put it:

*Community leadership is the courage, creativity and capacity to inspire participation, development and sustainability for strong communities...*

Community leadership is meant to be a catalyst for creating positive and strong human relations, and problem-solving capabilities in the society. Moreover, like organisations, communities vary in organisational and operational structures and activities, from the very simple to the highly complex. Therefore, the effectiveness of organisational or community
leadership is a function of interaction between the characteristics or styles of leadership and the nature of the organisation or community in question. A community leader is someone who uses their power to help others and to make positive change in the community (Bass, 1985).

Bass’ definition of community leadership is relevant in the search for the leadership contribution to poverty reduction. Furthermore, it states clearly that community leadership includes those who make positive change, regardless of their formal or conventional designation. However, positive change is relative; to those who agree to such a change, it may be positive, and the reverse is true.

Perhaps, community leadership should focus the energy of the group on something that a majority wants to change in the community. However, depending on the situation, community leadership should always acknowledge positive change as a common concept. This change should establish favorable human relations among followers, and between leaders and followers.

Bloom (1985) adds that most researchers today have concluded that inherited characteristics – (trait theories) are not crucial to becoming leaders. Instead, they have focused on leadership as ability, as process and as product. Leadership is ability, because a leader must have the intellectual awareness to perform in ways that attract others. But, ability does not exclude inherited characteristics. It is a process, because being a leader calls for developing positive interpersonal relationships with others. It is a product, because the processes initiated by the leader and developed among group members result into
achieving the group's goals.

Leadership is therefore, not taking a group where the leader wants to go, but in seeing that every member of the group has a sense of accomplishment and feels his or her objectives have been met. Great leaders are almost always great simplifiers, who cut through argument, debate, and doubt to offer a solution everybody can understand and use to solve a problem. Leaders also understand that people can only be led where they want to go. The leader follows, though a step ahead (Bloom 1985).

Development of community leadership is a never-ending process, beginning with the identification of potential leaders, drawing them into areas of involvement, and providing training for both leaders and followers. The objective of leadership training is to identify each person's style of interaction with others in a group, and to "make up for" a person, giving them strength in their individually weak areas. Leadership training need not be necessarily formal to be effective; however, it is often enhanced by some form of an organised program.

2.1.7 Community Leadership in Uganda

In Uganda, community leadership is understood as a role played by all the knowledgeable and influential members of society such as religious leaders, teachers, some traditional leaders and politicians among others. Apart from the appointed and democratically elected, the influential members include elders or opinion leaders, traditional leaders, religious leaders and ordinary individuals who may have special skills in community matters. In this regard, the Local Government Act empowers appointed and democratically elected leaders
to act as engines of development in Uganda’s local communities. The Act further defined community leadership as,

*The pursuit of the community’s well being through the facilitation of strategic interventions that would not otherwise have happened and which are informed by, and accountable to, the public* ((LGMA, 2006).

This definition draws a close link between community leadership and poverty reduction and is therefore vital to establishing a working relationship for community development. However, this definition is not specific about the role of community leadership in terms of authority, responsibility and accountability.

In addition, most of the policies established by the Government of Uganda are put in the hands of local government councils. In that case, community leadership may be further understood as a local government network that was authorized to steer community development. Similarly, the PEAP (1997), at its establishment, did not clearly define community leadership. Moreover, it is now obvious that the project was primarily a local government task, which envisaged the contribution of stakeholders, such as NGOs, CBOs, district councils, community development officers, and household members. With in the frame of this study, community leadership shall be defined as,

> a quality exhibited by particular individuals and organisations,
> to accomplish goals of community development.

Community leadership is thus a quality because a community leader must demonstrate ability to influence, spiritually motivate, and intellectually stimulate followers to achieve individual and community goals.
Irrespective of the definition of community leadership, the community leaders’ role in community development should ensure the promotion human rights. Mulumba (2006) asserts that human rights include: non-discrimination and equality, enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health, the right to information, the right to equal legal capacity, the right to property and intellectual property rights, among others. Above all, these rights should enhance the role of women in socio-economic development so as to reduce the Sexual and Gender Violence (SGBV) mainly borne by women. This is because women have always been discriminated against when it comes to development. In addition, the East African Community Treaty (2007) provides for the empowerment of women.

2.2 Perceptions of the Challenges and Causes of Poverty

Alleviation of rural poverty in the last decade has not been successful in almost all regions of the world. Sachs (2005) asserts that the hardest challenge in ending poverty is getting the first foothold on the development ladder. Households and countries at the very bottom of the world’s income distribution and in extreme poverty tend to be stuck trying to figure out how to begin. But countries already on the development ladder are making progress even though it maybe uneven and sometimes painfully slower.

Sachs maintains that, “our generation challenge is to help the poor to escape the misery of extreme poverty so that they can begin their own ascent up the ladder of economic development. The end of poverty in this sense is not only the end of extreme suffering, but also the beginning of economic growth, and the hope and security that accompany economic development”.
Precisely, Sachs’ recommendation of getting people or communities on the development ladder is primarily the work of community leaders. He adds that countries like China, which are already on the development ladder, have well established policies in terms of local government. The roles of community leadership are clearly stated, and there is transparency and accountability at all levels of human relations in such countries. Although these countries have their poverty stories to tell, their situation is not as bad as it is in Africa generally and in Uganda particularly.

According to Chambers (1986:2-23), rural poverty can also be attributed to the failure of rural projects. The rural projects to reduce poverty are often conceived and implemented by “outsiders”. Outsiders are people concerned with rural development, but who are themselves neither rural nor poor. Many of these outsiders are attracted to, and trapped in, urban cores which generate and communicate their own sort of knowledge while rural peripheries are isolated and neglected. The direct rural experience of most urban-based outsiders is limited to brief and hurried visits from urban centres, or what Chambers calls “rural development tourism”. The outsiders exhibit six biases against contact with, and learning from, the poor people. These are spatial, project, person, dry season, diplomatic, and professional biases.

Chambers explains that spatial bias is when the rural condition is mediated by vehicles starting and ending in urban centers. Visits follow networks of roads and not deep in the village centers. Outsiders tend to concentrate in urban centers and therefore do not
correctly perceive or experience rural problems.

When it comes to project bias, the nicely groomed show-piece project or model village is presented to the outsiders. Only well briefed members who know what to say come to meet the outsider. In addition, model projects or villages which are not excessively distant from the headquarters are chosen. Such projects provide a quick and simple reflex to solve the problem of what to do with visitors or senior staff on inspection; as such they direct away attention from the poorer people.

Regarding the person bias, Chambers observes that some rural people who are less poor and more powerful are the most influential informants. These tend to represent the entire community interests through their expressed thoughts to the tourists, thus creating bias in favour of those who are better off, men against women, users of services and adopters who are active, present and living. Conversely, the poor do not speak with those of higher status; they may even decline to sit down. Weak, powerless and isolated, they are often reluctant to push themselves forward. In Paul Devitt’s words,

The poor are often inconspicuous, inarticulate and unorganised. Their voices may not be heard at public meetings in communities where it is customary for only the big men to put their views. It is rare to find a body or institution that adequately represents the poor in a certain community or area. Outsiders and government officials invariably find it more profitable and congenial to converse with the uncommunicative poor (Chambers, 1986).

The outsider is also influenced by seasonal biases; that is, the wet season is a bad time for rural researchers because the roads are usually slippery, muddy and inaccessible. As a
result, rural researchers and the diplomats or professionals who usually fund the rural projects visit such projects mainly in the dry season. Consequently, the rural poor are less seen or not seen at all, and hence, the nature of their poverty is misunderstood.

What we need to appreciate, however, is that community leadership comes from all sorts of social, economic and political backgrounds. True community leadership emerges within the community and not outside the prescribed geographical locality or what Chambers has termed as ‘outsiders’. It will, therefore, be instructive to discover whether or not some of the “community leaders” in Mukono District are actually outsiders, and whether or not the six biases outlined by Chambers manifest themselves in the poverty reduction campaign in the district.

2.2.1 The Modernisation Paradigm

The causes of poverty in the modernisation paradigm are said to be endogenous, that is, emanating from within the poor. According to Mulwa (2004), this paradigm tends to lay the blame for poverty on the victims of poverty themselves. Poverty is perceived to come from a number of factors that border on carelessness or ignorance among the poor who do not understand a thing about development. The poor are perceived as characterised by overpopulation, laziness, and dependency, leading to low adoption of modern technology, which in turn leads to under-utilisation of natural resources. The poor are further said to lead a primitive way of life, and to be inadequately educated, illiterate, and incapable of adequately utilising the resources available to them because they lack the necessary drive, knowledge and skills.
And yet many poor people, including those of Mukono District, are neither lazy nor are they primitive or excessively numerous. In fact, some of these rural poor are active, have had secondary education, and others have undergone professional or vocational training; but they are still poor and cannot meet some or all their basic needs. It is therefore difficult to explain their situation based on Mulwa’s account of the perception of the poor and the causes of poverty according to the modernisation paradigm.

Chambers (1986:111-112) adds that poverty is a determinant of all bad situations. Poverty contributes to physical weakness through lack of food, small bodies, and malnutrition, leading to low immune response to infections, and inability to reach or pay for health services, buy a radio or a bicycle, afford to travel to look for work or to live near the village centre or a main road. Furthermore, poverty leads to vulnerability through the lack of assets to pay large expenses or to meet contingencies; and to powerlessness because lack of wealth goes with low status: the poor have no choice. Figure 2.4 below is an illustration of Chambers’ deprivation trap.
2.2.2 The Social Welfare Development Paradigm

In the context of the social welfare development paradigm, Mulwa (2004) asserts that casual factors of poverty are believed to be supernatural or beyond people’s control, so that the poor deserve to be assisted. The casual factors include a harsh socio-economic environment and climatic conditions, adverse weather, natural disasters, depleted soils, bad luck, fate, the will of God, and other related factors perceived to be beyond human control.

However, Mukono District is located on the shores of Lake Victoria in the fertile lake crescent region of Uganda. Compared to most other parts of the country, the region is more
fertile and the weather is more favourable to agriculture. It would, therefore, be unfair to claim that the rural poor in this area are poor because of harsh climatic conditions. It is even harder to explain poverty in this region on the basis of fate, bad luck or the will of God.

2.2.3 The Causes of Poverty in Uganda

Ugandans define poverty beyond lack of income and material assets to include the absence of social aspects, which creates a feeling of isolation and exclusion, powerlessness, deprivation and hopelessness to influence the conditions that affect people’s lives. The poor in Uganda include the unemployed in both rural and urban areas, low-wage earners and rural dwellers with limited access to productive resources such as land, livestock and capital (UPPA Report, 2004).

The UPPA Report (2004) further states that, different communities prioritised the following causes of poverty as: poor health and disease, excessive consumption of alcohol (particularly by men), lack of education and skills, lack of access to financial assistance and credit, ignorance, and lack of information, especially in relation to market information. Other causes include: idleness and laziness, lack of cooperation both within the household and the community, and large families.

While analysing the above causes of poverty, it was noted that they are interrelated. For instance, lack of education and skills feed into several of the other problems, like ignorance and lack of information, which can also lead to large families. The study also revealed that
men and women experience poverty unequally and that people become poor through varying routes. In other words, poverty arises out of is a gradual and heterogeneous process.

Elsewhere, Kasenene (2006) summarised the UAPP causes of poverty as common to all regions of the country, contextual or specific, and varying by locality and gender. Above all, poor health and disease continue to be the most important causes of poverty. However, although HIV/AIDS continues to be a major cause of poor health, the proportion of communities reporting poor health and disease had reduced from 67% in 2004 to 50% by 2006 (UAPP, 2006).

Other causes of poverty are land shortage, lack of markets, credit facilities, education, and vocational training, plus lack of jobs or unemployment. Additional causes are, high and unfair taxes and market dues, death of family members, particularly breadwinners, and low productivity. Of course there are regional variations in the levels of poverty, with the Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in Northern Uganda bearing the heaviest burden of poverty.

Although the MFED, 2007/8 Report states that only 31% of Ugandans live in absolute poverty, Mulumba states that it is 38% of the people in Uganda who live below the poverty line (on less than a dollar a day). The majority of these are women. While women provide 80 percent of labour in agriculture, and over 90 percent in food production and processing, they own only 7% of the land (Mulumba, 2006).

Despite the fact that women are poorer than men, there are specific groups of women who
are particularly likely to be poor, and there are some dimensions of poverty in which women are generally at a disadvantage. For example, households headed by widows are consistently poorer than others, and households headed by married women (probably mostly married to polygamous or absent husbands) are poorer than other households (UAPP, 2006). These groups include categories of women who also form the majority of the poor in Uganda, households headed by men or women in shanty parts of towns, men and women operating in the informal sector, unaccompanied youth, orphans and communities caught up in conflict affected situations. These poor groups are also prone to Sexual and Gender Based Violence (MOH, 2007).

2.3.1 The PEAP and the MDGs in Uganda

In Uganda, the MDGs are best understood in the context of the PEAP, the country’s overall planning framework which sets targets for eradicating poverty and improving the welfare of all Ugandans through its principles. There are eight MDGs namely, to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; achieve universal primary education; promote gender equality and empower women; reduce child mortality; improve maternal health; combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases; ensure environmental sustainability; and develop a global partnership for development (Uganda’s Progress Report, 2007/8).

The PEAP’s comprehensive national poverty reduction strategy was premised on five principles, also known as pillars of the PEAP, (see page 16). The primary objective of the PEAP (1997) was to reduce the population of Ugandans living in absolute poverty in 1997 to
less than 10% by 2017. This objective was in line with the MDGs’ objective of reducing by half the population of people living in absolute poverty by 2015.

2.3.2 The reality of the PEAP and MDGs in Uganda.

Various reports have been made about the progress of the MDGs and the PEAP, from different sources. Where as most of the reports are impressive and promising, we cannot ignore the controversy of the real world in which we live.

According to Uganda’s Progress Report on MDGs (2007/8), Uganda has made substantial progress towards achieving the MDGs, although more needs to be done if all the goals are to be attained. “With continued good policies, Uganda appears likely to achieve targets for Goals 1, 3, 6, 7 and 8, which respectively are to: eradicate extreme poverty; promote gender equality and empower women; combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; ensure environmental sustainability; and develop a global partnership for development. Uganda may also be able to achieve Goal 2 – achieve UPE if other factors are constant”.

Uganda’s Progress Report (2007/8) is encouraging but it only presents generalised information as may be provided by top government officials. These “outsiders” seem to have no idea about the situation at sub-county level, and appear to be driven by political interests or other unknown agenda. In this report, information has been graded according to regions; the northern, eastern, central, southern and western regions, thus obscuring the reality at lower levels such as the household, parish and sub-county where unmitigated poverty often prevails. It is therefore difficult to deduce the percentages of the rural poor based on a
general report. But since the MDGs are also interpreted in PEAP’s activities, it is better to review the goals of the PEAP according to the PEAP MOFPED Report 2007/8.

On pillar one, economic management, although reports claim that the Ugandan economy has continued to register impressive growth rates by the standards of many developing countries, the reality is different. For instance, the economy’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is estimated to have grown by 5.3% in 2005/06 which is lower than 6.6 per cent in 2004/05. The corresponding increases in per capita GDP are 3.2% and 1.2 per cent. In 2006/07 the GDP growth rate was 6.5% (MOFPED, 2007/8). These developments are largely attributed to wide-ranging economic reforms that had been carried out in the country over the previous decade. Success from policy reforms and significant amounts of donor support led to a substantial reduction, with headcount poverty declining from 56% in 1992, to 31% in 2006.

The Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) stated that GDP from 1997 to 2002 had been estimated to have grown in real terms by 8.3% per annum over the previous five years, contrary to the figure that had actually been 6% (Mwenda, 2008). As Mwenda argues, “.... these are impressive figures of performance even by global standards, close to China’s 9%”. However, even with these adjustments, growth in agriculture has remained poor: it grew by 0.1% in 2006/07 and then by 0.7% in 2007/08; its average growth since 2002 is 0.9%. As a result, its contribution to GDP stood at 15.6% although it accounts for over 70% of the Ugandan population.

As Mwenda observes, the Government of Uganda gives figures of economic growth at an
annual average of 8.3%. In addition, the opposition political leadership dismisses these impressive figures by pointing to collapsed infrastructure, inadequate health service delivery system, political intolerance, widespread electricity black-outs, decay in the education output, and widespread corruption (Mwenda 2008: 7). Moreover, the structure of the economy has continued to evolve with a bias towards the service and manufacturing sectors as predicted by economic theory for economies progressing along the development path. But as stated before, this data has been challenged because it is not reflected on the ground, especially among the rural and urban poor. These figures, if believable, can only and certainly appeal to the middle class which actually constitutes a small minority in Uganda. In addition, Gini co-efficiencies cannot and do not empirically bring out an accurate picture of poverty trends in Uganda.

The second pillar of the PEAP was established enhancing agriculture, transport infrastructure, energy, mining and the environment among others. In establishing this pillar, national leadership sought to modernise agriculture, preserve natural resource bases particularly soil and forests, improve infrastructure, including roads, electricity and railways; and reduce costs; and private sector participation was the key to improving marketing and efficiency so as to raise the incomes of the poor (MFPED, 2007/8).

Agricultural research was primarily done through PMA’s research and extension programs such as NAADS. NAADS has been successful in some parts of the country. However, the project has been resented by some rural farmers, given the past experiences of the failure of cooperative societies, such as Wamala and Kayaga Growers. In addition, the collapse of power
projects such as valley dams, more so the Bujagali project (Kasenene, 2005), and the fuel crisis over the years has been a set-back for Uganda’s energy and the development network.

Finally, environmental management is still a challenge. For example, in 2007, the government attempted to sell part of Mabira Forest to the Mehta group of companies (the New Vision, 2007). This privately owned firm wanted to clear the forest and grow sugarcane instead, on claims that the forest land was virgin and was, therefore, the best choice for sugarcane production. This attempt did not only breed extreme violence within the country but also portrayed national leadership as incompetent and myopic.

Pillar 3, Security, conflict resolution and disaster management, was established to manage all sorts of conflicts, including rebel insurgency and cattle rustling. Since Uganda suffers from various forms of natural disaster in addition to the large number of internally displaced people, the GOU pledged to use security forces to ensure peace in the country. At the same time, the GOU also promised to cooperate with CBOs, faith-based groups and traditional leaders (MFPED, 2007/8) in pursuit of peace and security.

This did not exclude the creation of diplomatic ties with other countries. National leadership sought to overcome the challenge of insecurity through ensuring security and defense, involving conflict resolution, disaster preparedness, and post conflict and disaster planning; ending rebel insurgency, by peaceful means if possible, and dealing with natural displacement and abduction, which are major sources of distress in contemporary Uganda (MFPED, 2007/8)
However, Pillar 3 has not addressed Sexual and Gender-Based Violence (SGBV) which hinders people’s capacity to realize their rights. And yet, the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) Resolution 1325 is quite clear in its provision for gender mainstreaming in conflict and post-conflict settings. Neither the PEAP nor the National Policy for the Internally Displaced Persons address Gender-Based Violence (GBV) in armed conflict. Thus, several manifestations of violence go scot-free. These include, among others, abduction of children and forced recruitment in the rebel outfits, rape, and defilement, which aggravate STDS/STIS, unwanted pregnancies and violence in the 20-year old war in northern Uganda. This has left women devastated with HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted infections (Mulumba 2006:29-30)

That is why there is need for a specific legal and policy framework for vulnerable groups including children, (in particular orphans and the unaccompanied), former abductees and child mothers caught up in the war. The extreme deprivations in northern Uganda have led to ill and undesired social practices, such as selling sex for income or food. Mulumba (2006) advises that, what is required is for the war to end is the implementation of a successful and sensitive resettlement program for the displaced persons, taking their specific needs into consideration.

Pillar 4, emphasizes Good governance which can partly be understood as representative and participatory governance through elected individuals who truly represent the average voting person and not corporate or lobbyist desires; and this is precisely the meaning of genuine democracy. Good governance involves making public expenditure transparent and efficient.
Good governance is increasingly recognised as a prerequisite to economic growth and development. If good governance involves making public expenditure transparent and efficient, bad governance was demonstrated when the MOH boss, Jim Muhwezi, failed to account for donor funds which were meant for people with HIV/AIDS, TB and malaria (*Daily Monitor, 26th June 2006*) donated by the Bill gates foundation.

Further consultations with the poor have shown that insecurity is among their most pressing concerns. Work by the Human Rights Commission (HRC), the Law and Order Sector, the Working Group and the Governance Action Plan project, over time, has identified the main priority areas in this sector. All these have concluded that conflict resolution and effective support to conflict-affected areas are essential. Armed conflict has been a decisive factor in the impoverishment of the North and the East. In 1999, the IDP population of Uganda was estimated at 622,000, and in addition insecurity affects many people who are not actually displaced. So, the successful resolution of conflicts is a necessary part of poverty-eradication (Mulumba, 2006).

Pillar 5, emphasises health and a well educated population, that is, human development. The focus sectors are education, health, water and sanitation. The government established universal primary and secondary education focusing on those who could not otherwise afford it. In this regard, improving health was believed to be the joint achievement of the several service sectors (MFPED, 2007/8); for example, increasing people’s ability to plan the size of their families and free primary education for four children in each family. Human development also involves community empowerment including adult literacy.
Human development outcomes in Uganda have been transformed by the introduction of USE, which has lead to a massive increase in enrolment. UPE is a central element of the PEAP. Challenges of USE include, the implementation of low-cost classroom construction and the management of the gap between teachers and classrooms as well as the use of double shifts where appropriate, among others. In secondary education, a strategy is in draft, targeting gifted children from poor backgrounds as a poverty issue.

However, universal education has not been as effective as had been predicted by government officials. What the officials did not foresee perhaps is that increase in quantity of enrolment would definitely mean increase in staff, classroom, furniture, money and so much more. Inadequate facilities have frustrated the program, and its impact on beneficiaries has not been so impressive. Quality is critical and thus very crucial for achieving the human development index as stipulated in Pillar 4 of the PEAP.

The human development approach was also established to foster health care, education, and water and sanitation. According to the MFPED Report (2007/8), health care is being coordinated by the new health strategic plan. At the heart of this is the minimum health package on reproductive health. Service delivery is being improved by a number of mechanisms, including better remuneration and training, better infrastructure, and better accountability to consumers through village health committees. The Report maintains that pro-poor implementation of cost-recovery will require the successful identification of targeting mechanisms, perhaps geographically based. AIDS and population growth raise cross-cutting issues. However, this rosy report on health care is only evident in print. In the
rural areas, health facilities have been inadequate over the years, and morbidity, school dropout, and mortality rates, are high.

In conclusion, although national leadership under the MFPED claims positive progress of the MDGs and the PEAP, the situation at sub-county level is alarming. In Mukono District for example, 18.2% of the households cannot access basic needs, including water and decent accommodation (OVC, 2006). The persistent poverty levels have also contributed to a high degree of school dropouts, idleness and crime rates.

2.3.3 The PEAP and poverty in Mukono District

This section discusses the population, infrastructure and the economic activities in Mukono District, as well as in the sub-counties of Goma and Nakisunga.

In Mukono District, 80% of the agricultural activity is at a subsistence level. Commercial agriculture is carried out on large scale plantations such as SCOUR sugarcane estates, Kasaku Tea Estate among others. Private small scale farmers are slowly catching up on practising agriculture for commercial purposes. Subsistence agriculture is characterised by the low acreage due to biting effects on the increasing population (causing fragmentation of available land) and urbanization forces. There is slow productivity from the land due to soil fertility loss, soil erosion, over cultivation and the poor rudimentary farming methods (District Report, 2007).

Previously, high value crops such as vanilla and flowers had boosted farmer’s incomes
replacing the declining benefits from coffee farming; but vanilla was frustrated by drastic fall in value and price. Although the farmers rely mainly on family labour, particularly on women and children who paradoxically up the biggest percentage of Mukono’s poor (OVC, 2006).

Fortunately, Mukono District has established educational and medical facilities. Table 1.1 below is a summary of categories and types of school in Mukono District.

**Table 2.1 Category and Type of School in Mukono District (OVC, 2006)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ownership</th>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Government</strong></td>
<td>330</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Private</strong></td>
<td>220</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Community Based</strong></td>
<td>84</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>634</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Precisely, Mukono District has a total of 723 schools, of which 634 are primary schools while 89 are secondary schools. At the same time, there are more government schools than privately owned or community-based schools. Further more, Mukono District has established medical facilities, which are government-owned, privately owned or community-based. Table 1.2 below, is a summary of Mukono’s medical or health facilities.

**Table 2.2: Medical Facilities in Mukono District. (OVC, 2006).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ownership</th>
<th>Medical Facility</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hospital</td>
<td>Dispensary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Government</strong></td>
<td>02</td>
<td>09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Private</strong></td>
<td>03</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>05</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.2 indicates that Mukono District has a total number of 119 medical facilities, 31 of which are more government, and 98 private or community-based. This implies that there are more private health facilities than government owned. However, one would wonder how such a limited number of education and medical facilities can effectively cater for a population of 962,435 people as indicated by UBOS, 2007. For purposes of this study, the researcher limited her investigations to activities in the sub-counties of Goma and Nakisunga.

(a) Goma Sub-County

In Mukono District, Goma Sub–County boarders with Kiira Town council (Wakiso District) to the south west, Kyampisi Sub-county to the North, Nama Sub–County to the east Mukono Town Council to the south east, and Lake Victoria in the south. With an area of 162 Sq Kms and a total population of 46,029 people, it has 5 Parishes: Bukerere, Nyenje, Seeta, Misindye and Nantabuuliririwa and 36 villages (Goma Sub-County Report, 2006/7).

The once big forest of Namanve has also been degazzetted and turned into an industrial park. Already factories have been established, including the Red Pepper Publications, Coca-Cola and Rwenzori water bottling companies; and many others are in the pipeline. The District Report (2007) also indicates that Goma has improved its infrastructure since 2004.

(b) Nakisunga Sub-County

Nakisunga Sub-County is located in the South Constituency of Mukono District. It is located 8 km from Mukono Town, along Katosi Road. The Sub-County headquarters are situated
some 150 metres from Nakisunga Trading Centre. The Sub-County is divided into 7 Parishes: Katente, Wankoba, Seeta-Nazigo, Namuyenje, Kyetume, Namaiba and Kyambogo. It covers an area of 52,800 sq. km with a total population of 48,795 people having an estimated annual growth rate of 2.7% (Nakisunga Sub-county Report, 2007).

The two sub-counties were used for comparison because despite their similar community leadership, they exhibit different poverty levels. For instance, Nakisunga is one of the poorest sub-counties in the district while Goma is one of the well-to-do sub-counties.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

This section explains how leadership theories can help address leadership challenges in the poverty reduction campaign. The theoretical framework constitutes a guideline in which the role of community leaders in poverty reduction can be perceived and examined. The discussion is based on the role of transformational theories in each challenge so as to open up explanatory frame works.

2.4.1 Transformational Theories of Leadership

Transformational leaders are charismatic and influential thus they provide idealised influence. They behave in ways that result into their being role models for followers. Such leaders are admired, respected and trusted by followers as having extra-ordinary capabilities, persistence and determination. The leaders are also willing to take risks, and they are consistent rather than subjective. They can be counted on to do the right thing.
because they demonstrate high standards of ethical and moral conduct.

Secondly, transformational leaders motivate their followers, and thus are a source of Inspirational Motivation (IM). They motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and counsel to their followers at work. They arouse team spirit, and display enthusiasm and optimism. Such leaders clearly communicate with followers about personal and organisational goals. Thus, charismatic leadership and inspirational motivation usually combine to produce charismatic inspirational leadership.

Thirdly, transformational leaders stimulate their followers’ efforts to be innovative and creative, thus providing Intellectual Stimulation by questioning assumptions reframing problems and approaching old situations in new ways thus creativity is encouraged. By doing so, new ideas and creative solutions are solicited from followers who are included in the process of addressing problems and finding solutions.

Simultaneously, such transformational leaders share in the building of visions and ideas in a democratic and collective enterprise. They could also encourage follower participation in the change processes involved.

Finally, transformational leaders pay special attention to each individual follower’s needs for achievement and growth by acting as trainers or mentors, in what is called Individualised Consideration. In doing so, followers and colleagues are developed to successively higher levels of potential. Individualised consideration is thus practiced when
new learning opportunities are created along with a supportive climate. Individual differences, in terms of needs and desires, can also be recognised.

Furthermore, interaction with followers is personalised in such a way that the leader remembers previous conversations, is aware of individual concerns, and sees the individual as a whole person rather than just an as employee. This leader listens effectively and delegates tasks as a means of developing followers’ skills. Delegated tasks are monitored to see if the followers need additional direction or support, and to assess and evaluate progress; ideally followers do not feel they are being checked.

In conclusion, transformational theories were used to examine the effectiveness of community leadership in the selected sub-counties. The theories were reflected in the leadership role played in: motivation, sensitization, training, monitoring and evaluation of the PEAP.
CHAPTER THREE
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION
This chapter presents the methodology which was used in the study, including the research design, area of study, target population, sample size, sampling procedure, data collection and data analysis methods and instruments as well as the limitations of the study.

3.1 Theoretical Framework
Bass’ transformational (1985) theories provide us with narratives about the adaptive work of leading and transforming. But since the aim of this study was to relate fundamental issues of community leadership and transformation to development or poverty reduction, and whether we can apply this knowledge usefully to models of development, it is better to examine the components of transformational theories.

Transformational leaders motivate their followers to do more than they really expect they can do, increasing the sense of importance and value of the tasks, stimulating them to surpass their own interests and to direct themselves to the interests of the team, organisation or larger community, and raising the level of change. Precisely, the transformational leader moves the follower beyond self-interests and is charismatic and inspirational, intellectually stimulating, and individually considerate; Figure 3.1 below illustrates the components of transformational theories.
In conclusion, although transactional theories compete against transformational theories, the researcher preferred to use transformational theories as a framework because by their nature, transactional theories are likely to work better in an organisational setting where employees and employers are well versed with management practices. Alternatively, since transformational theories are about relationship – human relations, they are suitable for communities which are not as organised or structured as contemporary organisations.

### 3.2 Research Design

The research adopted an evaluative case study, using both qualitative and quantitative methods. This design was intended to collect data on the state of poverty and the contribution of community leaders to poverty reduction at a given point in time.

Two separate but significantly different sub-counties, Nakisunga and Goma, within Mukono District, were the cases surveyed in order to be able to make comparisons regarding the contribution of community leaders to poverty reduction under the PEAP from 2004 to 2008.
The multiple evaluative case study research design was adopted because it was deemed the most appropriate for enabling us to make generalizations about the heterogeneous characteristics and the worrying performance levels of community leaders in the poverty eradication campaign. The resultant generalizations would in turn permit us to answer the research questions that underpin this research.

The data collected and analysed qualitatively included opinions and observations, while the data collected and analysed quantitatively, using Excel, included respondents’ profiles and background, respondents’ perception of poverty and the nature, role and performance of community leaders.

3.3 Study Area

The study was carried out in the sub-counties of Goma and Nakisunga, in Mukono District. The district was selected partly because it is predominantly rural in spite of its proximity to the capital city - Kampala, and partly because it is made up of both very poor and relatively developed sub-counties. This combination of attributes renders the district an ideal case study of the performance of community leadership in poverty reduction in Uganda, a country that is predominantly rural, and in which poverty is unevenly distributed. For instance, Nakisunga is one of the poorest sub-counties in the district while Goma is one of the relatively well-to do sub-counties.

Another reason why Mukono District was selected is that it is the home-district of the researcher, affording the researcher significant advantages in terms of ease of access and
oral communication as well as familiarity with the local population and its community leaders and culture.

### 3.4 Target Population

As of December 2007, the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) estimated the population in the district to be at 962,435, with an average household of 4 persons. As part of this population, Goma and Nakisunga sub-counties have populations of 46,029 and 48,795 respectively.

The study population comprised of all stakeholders of the PEAP in the two sub-Counties, that is, representatives of CBO and NGO staff, District Councilors, poverty experts and development organisations’ staff, Households members, and Local Councilors in Goma and Nakisunga; both poor and well-to-do. The opinions of CBO, NGO and District Council respondents refer to the sub-counties collectively without distinguishing between them. Therefore, those opinions cannot be used as basis for determining which sub-county performed better than the other. These were chosen because they were believed to have information relevant to the study, given that they were involved in the implementation of the PEAP over the period under study.

All the same, it was difficult to draw a line for household members because in reality members of the district council, CBO and NGO staff and LCs are also household members. Therefore, the households selected excluded those of the other members of other categories of respondents. Apart from experts and members of development organisations,
who may not necessarily be residents in the area of study, the projected sample size was thus 188.

### 3.5 Sample Size

A total number of 188 respondents were targeted but the actual sample was made up of 141 respondents. Table 3.2 below shows the distribution of the projected and actual sample sizes by category of respondents.

#### Table 3.2: Projected and Actual Sample Size Of Respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent category</th>
<th>Projected sample Size</th>
<th>Actual sample Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CBOs&amp;NGO staff</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC Members</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experts and Dev’t Orgs</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household members:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i)Goma</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii)Nakisunga</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Councilors:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i)Goma</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii)Nakisunga</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td><strong>188</strong></td>
<td><strong>141</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.6 Sampling Procedure

A combination of probability and non-probability sampling techniques was applied. The researcher employed the purposive sampling procedure for respondents who had no other representatives other than themselves, and those who, by virtue of their positions, possess information relevant to the study. For example, there is just one Resident District Commissioner (RDC) at district level, one Population Officer, a District Planner, and one Community Development Officer at sub-county level; all these were purposely selected.
Experts and members from UNDP and the MFPED, were also purposively selected; however, only those working specifically on PEAP or poverty-related projects were selected. However, the rest of the respondents, such as Local Councilors and household members, were randomly selected using simple random sampling stratified random sampling and cluster sampling. Stratified random sampling was used to ensure gender equity in the sample.

3.7 Data collection methods

Primary and secondary data was collected. The researcher used structured and unstructured questionnaires, a checklist, unstructured interviews, and focus group discussions, to collect primary data. Secondary data was collected using documentary review at resource centers (MFPED Library, UNDP Data Bank and Makerere University Library and Mukono District Headquarters). The centers have a number of sources, such as journals, books, newspapers, magazines, and organisational reports. Other secondary data was collected from the internet.

3.8 Research instruments

The researcher used questionnaires, an interview guide, an observation guide, and relevant documents in data collection.

3.8.1 Questionnaires

Both open and close-ended questionnaires were used. Questionnaires were designed for five different respondent categories: CBO and NGO staff, DC members, experts and development Organisations, household members, and LCs in Goma and Nakisunga.
Questionnaires were chosen because they could generate comprehensive information in a relatively short period of time, and encourage frank responses on account of their confidential nature. Data collected by use of questionnaires was that of respondent opinions and views.

3.8.2 Interview guide

An interview guide instead of an interview schedule was used to enable respondents give a wide range of opinions. The interview guide was pre-tested and later administered to a convenient sample for respondents chosen from a cross-section of people representing experts and development organisations, and members of the district council. This face-to-face interaction enabled the researcher to have an intensive investigation and inquiry into the subject of community leadership and poverty reduction. In-depth interviews were self-administered by the researcher and were also highly structured to address predetermined research questions. Information got was noted in notebooks by the research team.

3.8.3 Group Discussions

Group discussions were arranged with different respondents at convenient times and these helped to verify information given by leaders and followers. Group discussions were arranged with household members, LCs and CBOs/NGOs. The research team took also advantage of sub-county meetings with members especially involved in PEAP activities such as NAADS.
3.8.4 Observation Checklist

The researcher used an observation checklist in non-participant observation to cross-check on poverty indicators such as the present status of infrastructure and social facilities, individual status, and activities of community leadership in the PEAP initiatives. This guided the researcher while in the field to reconcile documentary and respondent information with the reality on the ground. Field notes were then collected and analyse. The checklist was to examine the nature of homesteads (permanent and temporary structure), and number of people in a household, children (in school), valuable possessions (car, bicycles, and motorcycles), health and hygiene levels, and respondent attitudes towards the poverty reduction activities under PEAP from 2004 to 2008.

3.9 Data Analysis

Quantitative data was presented in frequency tables which were constructed for responses relevant to each objective and corresponding question. The frequencies were expressed in absolute numbers (No.) and percentages (%), as well as the gradation for various responses. These served as a basis for judgment.

Qualitative data was based on descriptive interpretational analysis. This data is presented by themes and sub-themes according to the objectives and corresponding research questions. After that, the data was analysed, and conclusions and recommendations were made.
3.10 Limitations

There were both intrinsic and extrinsic limitations. Intrinsic limitations were those to do with the research design and methodology. For example, the case study, qualitative and quantitative techniques. Extrinsic limitations related to problems in the research environment. There were problems with the case study design: the PEAP as the case study is an overall country framework thus broad in scope. However, the researcher limited the study to only two sub-counties in Mukono District in a period of four years.

It was difficult to decide what the actual study population would be. Logically, all respondents in the two sub-counties were household members. Moreover there was a distinction between CBOs and NGOs staff, District Council staff and LCs. Besides that, the study was meant to include 188 respondents, but only 141 responded. However, those who responded were still representative of the target sample.

Some questionnaires were not returned and part of those returned were not fully or logically answered or representing unwanted answers.

The two sub-counties are far apart and the roads in both are bad. It was therefore, time consuming and costly to cover all of them. This resulted into extending the study time from the originally set period of time. It was also difficult trying to locate and interact with some key informants because they were not often at their offices when the study team arrived there. This forced the researcher to substitute them with other appropriate respondents.

Documentation is still poor at sub-county and district levels. For example, there were no
clear maps or elaborate records at the parishes. Most of the available documents were outdated and could not be used. It was also difficult to particularly compare present household incomes with the past because there were no records at District level that address initial household incomes for both sub-counties. Instead, the researcher had to estimate poverty statistics using general information given by the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2007) and other related sources.

PEAP activities are not perceived as community development projects. Most people actually perceive them as political undertakings. As a result, most of the household members did not know of any other PEAP initiatives apart from UPE and NAADS. This ignorance of respondents did not encourage further research on other activities. It was also difficult to compare views from different NGOs and CBOs because they only had general information on Mukono District.

Finally, most of the respondents at the district headquarters were very defensive in their responses in fear of losing their jobs. The researcher had to explain and assure them of the confidentiality of information, and anonymity. All the same, some of them ended up providing answers which did not correspond with the designed questions.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

This study considers that the terms used do not violate the liberty of all stakeholders in the case study. To ensure this, the following steps were followed.

- The study sticks to the logic and evidence of the nature of forms leadership and poverty.
Scholars and experts in the field of study have been dually recognized through the citation and references to avoid plagiarism.

- The design and undertaking of the study also ensures that integrity, quality and originality of the study are maintained at all levels.

- The researcher ensured that respondents in the interviews were informed fully about the purpose, methods, and intended possible uses of the study. The respondents were also assured of confidentiality, safety, and anonymity, and informed that the purpose of the research was strictly academic, and that they were free to participate in the study or not to.

- However, the final responsibility for ensuring that the research is ethical is can only be claimed by the Department of Religious Studies - Makerere University.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents, analyses, and interprets the data collected from a total of 141 respondents. Out of the 188 projected sample size, only 141 responded: 10 CBO and NGO staff, 18 DC staff, 10 poverty experts and government organization staff, 60 household members and 43 Local Councilors.

Research Information was collected using structured and unstructured questionnaires, an observation checklist, unstructured interviews, focus group discussions, and documentary review.

The four questionnaires to CBO and NGO staff, DC staff, household members and Local Councilors were divided into four sections: A, B, C and D: Section A was to establish respondent background information, Section B was to examine the economic or poverty status of the two sub-counties, Section C focused on the role and performance of community leaders in the PEAP activities, and Section D was to establish strategies for better community leadership.

Research data is presented in frequency tables, which were constructed for responses relevant to each objective and corresponding question. The frequencies are expressed in absolute numbers (No.) and percentages (%), and they serve as a basis for judgment.
4.1 Respondents’ Background Information

It was necessary to get background information of the various respondent categories so as to judge their credibility and relevance to the study. This information enabled the researcher to relate certain types of information or opinions to certain respondent characteristics, such as gender and levels of education. This in turn allowed the researcher to interpret the data more deeply or profoundly. This section presents the distribution of respondents in terms of gender, highest academic qualification, marital status, age and leadership experience and training.

4.1.1 Respondent Profile by Gender

Gender has sometimes been mistakenly taken to refer to only women. Gender, however, is not only about women; it is broadly defined as the socially ascribed characteristics of men and women in society (MOH, 2007). To ensure gender balance in the study, respondents were selected by stratified random sampling as projected in the sample size. Table 4.1 below presents the distribution of respondents by gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.1: Respondent Categories by Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CBOs &amp; NGOs (10)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Household members (60)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goma (32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Local councilors (43)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goma (25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As Table 4.1 indicates:
(i) Among the CBOs and NGO staff, there were more males (70%) than females (30%) in this category.
(ii) Among the District Council staff were more males (55.5%) than females (44.4%).
(iii) There were more males (80%) in government organizations and experts than females (20%).

In all the above categories, more males are employed than females.
(iv) In the category of household members, there were more females than males, with females outnumbering males by 12% or 20% in the two sub-counties taken together.
(v) Among LCs, males exceeded females by 13 or 30% in all. Thus Goma has more male LCs than female LCs.

In all respondent categories, there were more men than women. Overall, men represented 55% of the respondents while women accounted for 45%.

4.1.2 Respondent Categories by Highest Academic Qualification

It was necessary to examine respondent categories by their highest academic qualifications as this would help to throw more light on their responses, and in some cases explain their poverty status. Table 4.2 presents respondent categories by their highest academic qualifications: Primary Leaving Examination (PLE), O-level and A level Certificate, Diploma, Degree, Postgraduate Diploma (PG Dip.), Postgraduate Degree (PG Deg.) and “None” for respondents who either did not have any or did not disclose their qualification.
Table 4.2: Respondent Category by Highest Academic Qualification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CBOs &amp; NGOs(10)</th>
<th>DC staff(18)</th>
<th>Experts &amp; Govt.orgs(10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PG Diploma</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PG Degree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household members(60)</th>
<th>Goma(32)</th>
<th>Nakisunga(28)</th>
<th>Better Qualified</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLE</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cert.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PG Degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local councilors(43)</th>
<th>Goma (25)</th>
<th>Nakisunga (18)</th>
<th>Better Qualified</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLE</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cert.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>38.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 indicates that:

(i) Although 2 (20%) of CBO and NGO staff had Certificates, 2 (20%) had a Diploma, and 2 (20%) had Postgraduate Diplomas, the majority (40%) had degrees.

(ii) Among the District Council staff, 2 (11.1%) had Postgraduate Diplomas, 4 (22.2%) had Diploma, 4 (22.2%) had a Post Graduate Degree, and 8 (44.4%) had a Degree.

The least category of respondents had Post Graduate Degrees and the majority had degrees.

(iii) In the category of government organisations and experts, (20%) had Postgraduate Diplomas, 4 (40%) had Degree, and 4 (40%) Postgraduate Degrees.

Thus, the least category had Post Graduate Diplomas although those with degrees and post graduate degrees were equally distributed at 40%.

(iv) In the category of household members, 7 (21.8%) of Goma had PLE certificates compared to 6 (21.4%) of Nakisunga. Goma was more favourable by only 0.4%.
5(15.6%) of Goma had other certificates compared to 4(14.3%) of Nakisunga. Goma was again more favourable by 1.3%.

7(21.9%) of Goma had a Diploma compared to 5(17.8%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was more favourable by 5.9%.

5(15.6%) of Goma had no qualification compared to 8(28.6%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was thus more favourable by 13%.

Respondents in Goma in general were more educated than those in Nakisunga.

(v) In the category of LCs, 6(24%) of Goma had PLE certificates compared to 5(27.8%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was therefore higher by 3.8%.

9(36%) of Goma had a certificate compared to 7(38.9%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was again higher by 2.9%.

3(12%) of Goma had a Diploma compared to 3(16.7%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was once again higher by 4.9%.

3(12%) of Goma had a Degree compared to 1(5.5) of Goma. Goma was higher by 4.9%.

In the two sub-counties, Nakisunga’s Local Councilors were more qualified than those of Goma who were less in each qualification.

In conclusion, in the two sub-counties, the distribution of academic qualifications is different. Although Goma’s household members had more qualifications than those of Nakisunga, Nakisunga’s LCs were more qualified than those of Goma.

4.1.3 Respondent Categories by Marital Status

Poverty status is influenced by various factors such as age, level of education, leadership experience and marital status. Table 4.3 presents respondent categories by marital status: single, engaged, married, separated/divorced, widowed and ‘no response’ for those who did not disclose their status.
Table 4.3 indicates that:

(i) Of the respondents in the CBO and NGO staff category, the majority 4(40%) were engaged while the rest were equally distributed between “single” 3(30%) and 3(30%) “married”.

(ii) Among District Council staff respondents, the majority 8(44.4%) were married, 4(22.2%) were single, (16.6%) were engaged, (11.1%) were widowed, and only 1(5.5%) was separated.

(iii) Among Government organisations and experts, 2 (20%) were engaged, 6 (60%) were married, and 2(20%) were widowed.

In this category, the majority were married and the least were either engaged or widowed.

(iv) In the category of household members, 4(12.3%) of Goma were single compared to 5(17.9%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was higher by 5.6%.

2(6.3%) of Goma were engaged compared to 2(7.1%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was slightly
higher by 0.8%.
7(21.9%) of Goma were married compared to 8(28.6%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was once again higher by 6.7%.
6(18.8%) of Goma were separated compared to 4 (14.3%) of Nakisunga. Goma was higher by 4.5%.
12 (37.5%) of Goma were widowed compared to 7(25%) of Nakisunga. Goma was higher by 12.5%.
In Goma sub-county, the majority of respondents were widowed, and the least comprised of the engaged and single. In Nakisunga sub-county, the majority of respondents were married and the least category was engaged.
(v) Among LCs, 5 (20%) of Goma were single compared to 3 (16.7%) of Nakisunga. Goma was higher by 3.3%.
3 (12%) of Goma were engaged and there were no such respondents in Nakisunga.
7 (28%) of Goma were married compared to 5 (27.8%) of Nakisunga. The difference was only 0.2%.
5 (20) of Goma were separated compared to 5 (27.8%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was higher by 7.8%.
5 (20%) of Goma were widowed compared to 5(27.8%) of Nakisunga . Nakisunga was higher by 7.8%.
In Goma sub-county, the majority of LCs were either married and the least were engaged. There were also similar percentages for those who were single, separated and widowed. Most of Nakisunga’s LCs were either married, separated or widowed and the least were single.

In the two sub-counties, the majority of respondents were married and widowed, and the least were single. However, there were no drastic differences in the marital status of respondents in the two sub-counties except for the “widowed” and “separated” categories. It is also noteworthy that most of the married respondents did not have any marriage certificates or other documentary evidence of their marital status.

4.1.3 Respondent Categories by Age- Group
Obviously, community leadership is highly influenced by age. A youthful community is likely to have more vibrant leadership than one dominated by infants and the old. It was thus
necessary to examine the community setting with respect to age groups. Table 4.4 presents respondent categories by age groups.

**Table 4.4 Respondent Category by Age Group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-55</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56-65</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66-75</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Household members (60)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goma</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nakisunga</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Local councilors (43)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goma</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nakisunga</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 4.4 indicates:

(i) In the category of CBO and NGO staff, the majority 5(50%) were aged 46 to 55, 3(30%) were aged 26 to 35, and the least 2(20%) were aged 36 to 45,

(ii) The majority 6(33.35) of District Council staff were aged 36 to 45, 5(27.7%) were aged 46 to 55, 4(22.2%) were aged 26 to 35, and the least 2(11.1%) of them were aged 56 to 65.

(iii) Of experts and government organizations, the majority 5(50%) were aged 46 to 55 while the rest were equally distributed between 56 to 65, and 66 to 75. However, the least 1(10%) were aged 36 to 45.

(iv) In the category of household members, 4(12.5%) of Goma were aged 17 to 25 compared 3(10.7%) of Nakisunga. Thus Goma was higher by 1.8%.

10(31.2%) of Goma were aged 26 to 35 compared to 2(7.1%) of Nakisunga. Goma was
higher by 24.1%.

2(6.2%) of Goma were aged 36 to 45 compared to 3(10.7) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was thus higher by 4.5%.

6(18.7%) of Goma were aged 46 to 55 compared to 7(25%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was thus higher by 6.3%.

7(21.8%) of Goma were aged 56 to 65 compared to 6(21.4%) of Nakisunga. Goma was higher by 0.4%.

2(6.2%) of Goma were aged 66 to 75 compared to 4(14.2%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was higher by 8%.

In the two sub-counties, the majority of household members were aged 46 to 55 and 56 to 65. However, more respondents in Goma were aged 26 to 35.

(v) In the category of Local councilors, 3(12%) of Goma were aged 17 to 25 compared to 2(11.1%) of Nakisunga. Goma was thus higher by 0.9%.

2(8%) of Goma were aged 26 to 35 compared to 2(11.1%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was higher by 3.1%.

3(13%) of Goma were aged 36 to 45 compared to 4(22.2%) of Goma. Nakisunga was higher by 9.2%.

7(28%) of Goma were aged 46 to 55 compared to 5(27.7%) of Nakisunga. Goma was therefore higher by 0.3%.

6(24%) of Goma were aged 56 to 65 compared to 4(22.2%) of Nakisunga. Goma was higher by 1.3%.

4(16%) of Goma were aged 66 to 75 compared to only 1(5.5%). Goma was higher by 10.5%.

In Nakisunga the majority of LCs were aged 46 to 55. Although some were aged 36 to 45, and 56 to 65 were (22.2%) at the same percentage. This indicates that community leadership at sub-county level is dominated by those aged 46 to 55 and 26 to 35. Although it is likely that individuals aged 17 to 25 will take up leadership positions, it may not be possible for those aged 66 to 75. The least category comprised of those aged 66 to 75 at 1.4%, and the majority of respondents were aged 46 to 55 at 26.2%.

4.1.5 **Respondent Leadership Training**

Training ensures that leaders and followers have the right skills crucial to the growth and
success of their organization or community. Research further shows that training can increase productivity and quality of work, and improves motivation. The local councilors were asked to state whether they had been trained for the leadership positions they hold, and the kind of training they had received. Table 4.5 presents their responses.

**Table 4.5: Leadership Training Experience**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Goma (25)</th>
<th>Nakisunga (18)</th>
<th>Better Trained</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>No.</strong></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>(%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>55.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5 indicates that 52% and 55.5% of the local councilors in Goma and Nakisunga sub-county respectively had received leadership training while 48% and 44.4% respectively had not received leadership training. However, some of those who claimed that they had received leadership training could not or did not state the nature of training they had received.

Interviews with LCs and household members respondents further established that the training focused on water and sanitation, security, and gender empowerment. Training was usually in form of workshops, meetings and seminars. However, interactions with various respondents confirmed that at village level, meetings are common. Such meetings usually last for a minimum of three hours. The mode of delivery was by mouth or speeches by LCs particularly.
Further investigations with trainers particularly at the District headquarters examined content, mode of delivery and duration. Although the content and mode of delivery was not clarified, the reports indicated that many workshops are attended by the DC staff only. However, such staffs do not pass on this information to individuals at parish or sub-county level. It was confirmed that workshops are usually organised by NGOs who seek permission to conduct training within the sub-counties. But since such NGOs are “outsiders” they cannot address their problems effectively.

4.2 Economic/Poverty Status of Goma and Nakisunga Sub-Counties

The first objective of the study was to establish the levels of poverty in the sub-counties of Nakisunga and Goma, of Mukono District from 2004 to 2008. Research questions, as reflected in Section B of the questionnaire, were designed to investigate and compare the respective levels of poverty in the two sub-counties.

Questions mainly focused on economic activities in the two sub-counties, the number of people in each household, whether or not household members and community leaders had participated in the PEAP activities, as well as their mode of participation, the impact of the PEAP activities on household income, and the development opportunities and challenges in the two sub-counties.

4.2.1 The Main Economic Activities in Goma and Nakisunga Sub-Counties

The level of prosperity or poverty in any community is a product of economic activities in that community. Economic activities are undertakings in which people engage to earn a
living. The researcher asked respondents to identify the economic activities in their sub-counties so as judge their sources and levels of income. This section presents the respondents’ views on economic activities.

Respondents stated that agriculture was the main economic activity in the two sub-counties. Interviewees stated that the agricultural activities are crop-growing and livestock-keeping. Cash and food crops include coffee, bananas (matooke), cassava, and beans. These crops are the main source of income, the leading one being matooke which is also a staple food in the two sub-countries. The second leading crop is coffee, and previously vanilla was in the third category. Interviews and observation indicated that vegetables are grown but on a small scale. Respondents from Goma indicated crops like yams, potatoes and bananas. Although respondents from Nakisunga stated similar crops the highest were on coffee, cassava, and bananas.

To determine the levels of income from agricultural activities, respondents were asked to rate the performance of each in the two sub-countries. For example, Coffee (1 sack (100kgs), medium bunches of bananas (28kgs each), cassava (sack full 100kgs) (These figures are derived from appendix III on page 154). Therefore, gradation is represented as follows: Good (at least 4 sacks of each) Average (1 sack of each) Poor (less than a sack). Table 4.6 presents the crop growing rating according to the various respondents.
Table 4.6 Crop Production in Goma and Nakisunga Sub-Counties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CBO &amp; NGO staff(10)</th>
<th>District Council staff(18)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Household members (60)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Goma(32)</th>
<th>Nakisunga(28)</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Local councilors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Goma (25)</th>
<th>Nakisunga (18)</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6 indicates that:

1. 4(40%) of CBOs and NGOs staff rated crop production as good, 5(50%) as average and 1/10(10%) as “poor”.
2. 8(44.4%) of DC staff rated crop production as good, 8(44.4%) as average, and 2/18 (11.1%) as poor.
3. In the category of household members, 4(12.5%) of Goma rated their crop production as “Good” compared to 4(14.3%) in Nakisunga. 8(25%) household members in Goma rated their crop production as average compared to 10(35%) Nakisunga. Therefore Nakisunga’s respondents generally rated their crop production as better performing than Goma respondents rated theirs.
4. Among LCs, 5(20%) of LCs in Goma rated crop production as “good” compared to 6(33.3%) in Nakisunga.
5. Nakisunga LCs rated crop production in their sub-county more favourably than did those of Goma. 20 (62.5%) of household members in Goma rated their performance (crop production) as “poor” compared to 14 (50%) in Nakisunga. So Nakisunga household members rated their crop production more favourably.
(vi) 8 (32%) of LCs in Goma rated their crop production as poor compared to 2 (11.1%) in Nakisungaa. Once again Nakisunga LCs had a better opinion of their crop production.

Those who believe that crop growing was at a good level attributed it to the availability of fertile soils, rain, labour, motivation from agricultural projects such as NAADs, National Agricultural Research Organisation (NARO), which facilitates farmers. Respondents who thought that production was average stated almost the same reasons as those who said it was good except that they added that it was because agriculture is also a traditional method of survival in these areas.

Respondents who thought that crop production was poor attributed it to the following reasons. The reasons are arranged in the order of their significance: poor land, policies (land fragmentation and an unfavourable land tenure system especially for women), lack of motivation, unstable markets (coffee and vanilla), deteriorating soil fertility, poor farming methods, and soil erosion among other factors.

Group discussions and interviews established that during the period 2004 to 2008, it was not possible to grow enough food for home consumption and a surplus to sell to the nearby markets. This was mainly due to shortage of credit for service providers to acquire needed logistics and equipment. Consequently, service providers lacked working capital and they were also poorly equipped in terms of transport, drugs and protective gear; limited land for agriculture and increase in population partly resulting from internal immigration. Low agricultural produce also caused a reduction in household income. Goma’s annual report
indicated a fall in production although it did not specify the percentage fall in income. On the other hand, Nakisunga similarly did not indicate the percentage fall.

Additionally, farmers complained that the established industries do not use any of the locally grown crops as raw material and could not therefore contribute much to boosting household engagement in cash crop growing. The established industries include the Red Pepper Publications which uses paper; Coca-Cola beverages which uses artificial sweeteners and Rwenzori which uses underground reserves or rain water. Besides, as already indicated in Table 4.2, most of the respondents in the two sub-counties do not have the necessary qualifications to be employed in these industries, except perhaps as casual labourers.

Livestock-keeping is another source of income in the two sub-counties. This includes piggery, cattle, bee - keeping and poultry among others. Among these, the majority of farmers kept cattle, poultry, and piggery on a small scale. Although there were large scale farmers in both sub-counties, most of the owners are outsiders who employ local residents to work on these farms. There are no ranches particularly among the NAADS farmers. Cattle are generally bound as zero grazing is a common practice especially in Nakisunga.

Respondents were asked to rate the performance of livestock-keeping in the two sub-counties so as to determine their levels of income from this activity. Table 4.7 presents the respondents’ rating of livestock keeping in the two sub-counties.
Table 4.7: Livestock Keeping in Goma and Nakisunga Sub-Counties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CBO &amp; NGO staff(10)</th>
<th>District Council staff(18)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Household members (60)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Goma(32)</th>
<th>Nakisunga(28)</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Local councilors(43)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Goma (25)</th>
<th>Nakisunga (18)</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.7 indicates that:

(i) Of the respondents in CBOs and NGO staff category, the majority 4(40%) rated livestock keeping as good while the rest were equally distributed between “average” 3(30%) and “poor” 3(30%).

(ii) Among the District Council Staff respondents, the majority 8 (44.4%) rated livestock keeping equally as “good” and as “poor” while the rest 2(11.1%) rated it as average.

(iii) Among household members, 4(12.5%) of Goma rated livestock keeping as good” compared to 4(14.3) in Nakisunga.

8(25%) of Goma rated their crop production as average compared to 10(35%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was higher by 10.7%.

20(62.5%) rated livestock-keeping as poor compared to 14(50%) of Nakisunga. Goma was therefore more favourable by 12.5%.

Nakisunga’s household respondents generally rated their livestock production as better than those of Goma.

(iv) Among LCs, 5(20%) of Goma rated livestock keeping as good compared to 6(33.3%) in Nakisunga. Nakisunga was higher by 13.3%.
6(24%) of Goma rated livestock keeping as average compared to 4(22.2%) of Nakisunga. Goma was higher by 1.8%.

14(56%) of Goma rated livestock keeping as poor compared to 8(44.4%) in Nakisunga. Goma was higher once again.

Therefore Nakisunga respondents generally rated their livestock production as better than that of Goma. The reasons for such responses on livestock keeping were the same as those for crop production. Some respondents stated that livestock-keeping is average or good because of easy means of feeding animals (free range system), and traditional practices (it is prestigious to keep these animals).

Respondents who believed that livestock-keeping is poor stated the same reasons as those for crop growing except that they added that there are animal diseases, shortage of qualified veterinary services providers. In addition, farmers stated that they had limited capacity to pay for the services particularly by veterinary service providers. Cases of fake vets were commonly reported causing farmers to lose their animals and money.

From these findings, although the majority of household members and LCs rated livestock keeping as poor, the majority of CBOs and NGO staff, and District Council staff rated it as good. This difference among respondents was controversial because as the Mukono District Development Plan (2007/8) indicates, there was low productivity from the land due to soil fertility loss, soil erosion, over cultivation and the poor farming methods. It is therefore logical to conclude that there was low agricultural produce from 2004 to 2008. However, Nakisunga was more favorable than Goma.
Although other economic activities were cited, such as private business, workers in the transport business (taxi and boda-boda), crafts-making, sand and stone quarries, bricklaying and charcoal burning. Some individuals were also employed in the established industries. Interactions with LCs and household members indicated that some, but especially creative individuals, are employed in some of the growing industries. It was thus necessary to find out the gender distribution in such industries. Table 4.8 presents the gender distribution of respondents in the various industries.

**Table 4.8 Gender Distribution in Established Industries in Goma and Nakisunga**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Goma (32)</th>
<th>Nakisunga (28)</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.37</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Local Councilors (43)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Goma (25)</th>
<th>Nakisunga (18)</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8 indicates that:

(i) In the category of household members, 3(9.37%) females of Goma were employed compared to 3(10.7%) of Nakisunga. On this note, both sub-counties have almost the same number of females employed in the industries with a difference of 1.4%. In contrast, there are 8(25%) males in Goma compared to 6(21.4%) in Nakisunga. Goma was higher by a difference of 3.6% more males.

(ii) In the category of LCs, 4(16%) females of Goma were employed compared to 3(16.6) of Nakisunga. The difference between them was only 0.6%. On the other hand, Goma had 7(28%) more males compared to 4(22.2%) in Nakisunga. Goma was therefore higher by a difference of 5.8%.
Table 4.8 implies that Goma had more employed individuals than Nakisunga. However, there is gender inequality in the employment policies. Group discussions confirmed that gender disparities are also one of the major pressing problems for the rural poor. The employed comprise of more males than females. Such disparities in gender and employment have furthered Sexual and Gender Based Violence (SGBV).

Further discussions established that some respondents were not actually engaged in any economic activity despite the fact their claims. Most of them could not state what exactly they were doing to earn a living. Those who were specific said they were involved in casual jobs (kipakasi) or income-generating activities that are seasonal.

An observation checklist was used to determine the economic status in the two sub-counties in terms of economic activities in which people are involved as well as their sources of income; permanent and temporary structures, number of people in the household, children (in school), valuable possessions (car, bicycles and motorcycles), health and hygiene levels and attitude toward poverty reduction.

(i) Nature of Household Structure

The nature of a household was judged in terms of temporary (grass and wattle or any other), and permanent (brick walled, iron-roofed, tiled, large, small, medium). Since the number of households was different for each sub-county, 20 houses were randomly observed in each sub-county.

In Goma, 15 of these were permanent (iron-sheet roofed). Out of the 15, 4 were fenced
with a perimeter wall and large therefore ranked as “good”. 8 were medium in size and are ranked as average; however 5 of these were not plastered and had very old iron sheets with a possibility of leakage. The other 3 were temporary (wattle, mad and bricks) therefore ranked as “poor”.

In Nakisunga, out of the 20 houses sampled, 18 of these were permanent. 2 were fenced with ordinary shrubs and 1 had a perimeter wall. 5 were fairly new but very small with poor ventilation. The 10 were very old and unfinished (no plaster and old iron sheets).

It was observed that, in the two sub-counties, despite the availability of natural resources such as sand and stone quarries in the parishes of Nakisunga, and bricklaying in most parts of Goma, there are still housing challenges. Moreover, most of Nakisunga’s accommodation was in bad shape (shacks) compared to Goma’s considerably improved housing structures. In other words, there are better housing conditions in Goma than in Nakisunga Sub-county.

(ii) Hygiene and Health

The relationship between hygiene and health levels is that good hygiene transforms into good health and the reverse is true. Household hygiene was examined in terms of nature and situation of the surrounding (clean, bushy, or dirty), toilet (permanent and temporary, water-closet or flush toilet), was examined by nature of toilet.

Of the 20 households observed in Goma, 3 were clean with a clear surrounding and clean flush toilets; 4 of these were clean with pit latrines; 8 of these fairly clean although their
toilets were generally in bad condition and the rest (3) were dirty and messy with bushy surrounding. On the other hand, 20 households were equally examined in Nakisunga. 5 of these were clean and with clean toilets although the surrounding was not hygienic, and generally bushy. 6 were fairly clean with a dirty surrounding too. The rest (9) were either dirty, disorganised and with a bushy surrounding.

Generally, in both sub-counties, there are two important issues to note. First, most households have bad toilets. That is, toilets are either shack, dirty or temporal. Secondly, access to water is limited to only individuals who live around sub-county offices. All in all, although these challenges manifest in both sub-counties. However, Nakisunga’s situation was worse compared to Goma.

(i) Number of People per Household

The 2007 UBOS report indicates that in Mukono District, there are at least 4 people per a household. However, by the time of the study, out of the 20 households observed in each sub-county, every household in Goma had at least 10 people whereas Nakisunga had about 6 people. It is therefore logical to conclude that the average number of people in the two sub-counties is 7 people per a household.

Despite the availability of UPE facilities, the researcher observed that some parents and guardians do not actually send their children to school. In the 20 households observed, at least in 8 of Goma and in 11 of Nakisunga, children were seen doing household chores.
during the time they were expected to be school. Parents who were asked why these children were not at school, stated that children did not have the necessary scholastic materials. Secondly, the children are also a source of labour on the farms and finally, their teachers were at times absent because they had to look for their own means of living other than doing the low wage teaching job.

(v) Valuable domestic Items

In each sub-county 20 households were equally observed in terms of valuable items. Although it was difficult to observe the valuable domestic items particularly items confined to houses, the researcher also occasionally engaged individuals on some topics to confirm whether they owned such items. For example, apart from observing TV aerials, the researcher engaged respondents in conversation to do with TV shows to prove whether they owned any. Additionally, the researcher tried to solicit for respondents contacts to prove whether they owned mobile phones and many related items.

Although 12 individuals had TV aerials on their roof tops in Nakisunga, 8 did not have access to electricity. About 2 had access to power and the rest of the respondents were routed onto batteries. On the other hand 14 people had TVs and access to electricity in Goma. 4 were routed onto generators and solar systems. However, it was hard to establish whether these respondents had other valuable electrical items. Other cited items were bicycles, big radios, and energy batteries. In terms of valuable assets, individuals in Goma own more valuable assets such as cars and machines and machines for agriculture than those in Nakisunga, whose majority still use rudimentary tools for agriculture.
(vii) Awareness and Attitude towards PEAP particularly agriculture

It was necessary to observe the farmers’ attitude towards PEAP in the sub-counties so as to establish the level of awareness about the on-going policy reforms and implementation processes within the Sub-County. This observation was complimented by questions to confirm such attitudes. To further articulate the variable “farmers’ attitude towards agriculture and agricultural extension”, the researcher investigated issues of agricultural management under NAADS. Respondents to this question were 20.

Of the 20 respondents in Goma and Nakisunga 14 and 8 respectively, were aware of PEAP and its implementation modalities. Out of the 20 respondents in Goma and Nakisunga, 12 and 8 respectively, were aware of NAADS implementation and in other programmes complimenting agricultural sector development within the sub-county. Out of the 20 in Goma and Nakisunga, 2 and 7 respectively, denied awareness of the NAADS and other related project implementation procedures. The above responses reflect on the low level of sensitization or training, and participation in planning for implementing government policies.

In conclusion, research data indicates that although there were almost similar conditions in both sub-counties in terms of housing and sanitation, valuable items, attitudes towards the PEAP, Goma was doing better than Nakisunga except in the number of household members, where Nakisunga had less people per household.
4.2.2 Changes in Household Income from 2004 to 2008

In Mukono District, the rising poverty levels since 2004 can be addressed from both the quantitative (measuring income poverty) and qualitative (people's perceptions of poverty) points of view. While these different approaches provided different pictures, various sources of literature revealed that in the two sub-counties, and with a few exceptions, the challenges and causes of poverty are similar.

According to the OVC Report (2006), the average annual household income for the rural in Mukono district is 500shs. Respondents were asked to state their daily income and then to also state the change in household income so as to establish its levels and trends over time. The majority of household members’ income was between less than 500shs in Nakisunga and between 500 to 1000shs in Goma. The average for both subcounties was thus 750 shs. in Goma, and less than 500 for Nakisunga. Table 4.9 presents the respondents’ views of the changes in household income levels, in the two sub-counties from 2004 to 2008.

Table 4.9: Changes in Household Incomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CBO &amp; NGO staff (10)</th>
<th>District Council staff (18)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risen</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stagnated</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fallen</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household members (60)</th>
<th>Goma (32)</th>
<th>Nakisunga (28)</th>
<th>Margin of Difference (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risen</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stagnated</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fallen</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>53.1</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local councilors</th>
<th>Goma (25)</th>
<th>Nakisunga (18)</th>
<th>Margin of Difference (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risen</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stagnated</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fallen</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.9 indicates that:

(i) In the category of CBOs and NGOs staff, the majority 7(70%) indicated raising incomes, 2(20%) indicated stagnation and the least 1(10%) indicated a rise.

(ii) The majority (55.5%) indicated a fall in incomes, 6(33.3%) indicated a stagnation, and the least category 2(11.1%) indicated a raise.

(iii) Among household members, 8(25%) of Goma indicated a rise in incomes compared to 7(21.8%) of Nakisunga. Goma’s rating was higher by 7.1%. 7(21.8%) of Goma indicated a stagnation compared to 4(14.2%) of Nakisunga. Goma’s rating was once again higher by 7.5%.

Finally, 17(53.1%) of Goma indicated a fall in incomes compared to 10(55.5%) fall in incomes in Nakisunga. Nakisunga was more favourable by 14.7%.

Generally, the majority of household members indicated that household income had fallen from 2004 to 2008.

(iv) LCs, 8(20%) of Goma indicated a rise in incomes compared to 3(16.6% of Nakisunga. Goma was more favourable by 3.7%.

6(24%) of Goma indicated a stagnation in incomes compared to 5(27.7%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was higher by 3.7%.

The majority 11(44%) of Goma indicated a fall in incomes compared to Nakisunga’s majority 10(55.5%). Nakisunga was favourable by 11.5%.

Generally, the majority of LCs indicated a fall in incomes from 2004 to 2008.

Respondents who indicated rising incomes attributed this to increased opportunities from growing industries and establishment of NGOs and CBOs (e.g. NARO, Send a Cow, Reach One-Touch One and NAADS among others), availability of loans from financial institutions, increase in awareness programs and degazzeting of wetlands for agriculture.

Those who believe that incomes had stagnated said it was due to lack of motivation among
farmers to engage in more income generating activities, poor or lack of sensitisation, and ignorance among other factors. Those who indicated a fall in household incomes attributed it to low productivity due to poor farming methods, low quality produce, low markets for agricultural produce, poor or lack of transport for goods, alcoholism, domestic violence, lack of agricultural incentives, draught, crop pests, etc.

Although most respondents stated activities in which they are engaged, the researcher observed that some respondents were not engaged in any economic activity. Such respondents could not tell where their farms are based and did not work for any CBOs or established industries. Furthermore some household members did not actually send their children to school; instead they engage them in household chores. The researcher observed that although school registers have large numbers, most of the pupils/students were absent by the time the researcher visited these schools.

In conclusion, although the majority of respondents indicated a fall in incomes, it was difficult to tell the initial percentage fall because the 3 year Mukono District Development Plan (2006/8) does not adequately integrate or reflect the initial annual income per a household. It is therefore logical to state that although the majority of respondents indicated a drastic fall in incomes, incomes in Goma were higher than those in Nakisunga. However, it is also likely that incomes fell by a small percentage compared to the respondents’ verbal exaggeration.
4.2.2 Opportunities and Challenges in Goma and Nakisunga Sub-Counties

It was necessary to examine the opportunities and challenges in the two sub-counties so as to utililise or enhance such opportunities and suggest relevant solutions to challenges faced by community leaders. Obviously, various respondent categories have different opportunities and challenges because of their different status. Respondents were therefore asked to state their opportunities and challenges so as to assess and understand the increasing levels of poverty in their areas.

(a) Opportunities in Goma and Nakisunga Sub-Counties

In the context of community development, opportunities are chances or resources that can be utilised to make positive change. In both sub-counties, respondents were asked to state the bio-physical, infrastructural and socio-cultural opportunities in their respective areas.

Respondents in Goma Sub-county listed opportunities as the following:

(i) Bio-physical opportunities e.g surrounding areas to the former Namanve forest, offers firewood rain, and fertile soil for cultivation, wetlands for cultivation of food such as yams.

(ii) Infrastructural opportunities associated with the growing industrial park, which offers job opportunities to the locals.

(iii) Socio-cultural opportunities such as common language used – Luganda and an acceptable degree of religious tolerance.

Respondents in Nakisunga Sub-county listed the following opportunities:
(i) Biophysical e.g. sand quarries in Katosi and Senyi parishes, stone quarries in Namuyenje and Namubiru parishes, fishing (done on a small scale) in Katosi and Senyi parishes, and fertile soils are evident in areas near water bodies such as Katosi and Namakwa parishes.

(ii) Infrastructural e.g. roads, schools, industrial installations.

(iii) Socio-cultural e.g. religious tolerance, common language.

(b) Challenges in Goma and Nakisunga Sub-County

A challenge is a test of ones abilities or resources in a demanding but stimulating activity (The American Heritage Dictionary of English, 2004). In respect to this study, “challenge” was used to mean a test of community leadership abilities or resources in a demanding environment like the one in the two sub-counties.

Naturally opportunities can as well present themselves as challenges if not planned and well utilised. Questionnaires for CBO and NGO staff and interviews with the Lcs and household members of in the two sub-counties, indicated bio-physical, infrastructural and socio-cultural challenges. These are presented in table 4.10 below.
### Table 4.10 Challenges in Goma and Nakisunga Sub-county

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Goma sub-county</th>
<th>Nakinunga sub-county</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Biophysical</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Abuse of wetlands</td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td>- Abuse of natural reserves</td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Deforestation in Namanve forest</td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td>- Prolonged dry spells</td>
<td><strong>9</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Industrial wastes</td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td>- Air and water pollution</td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Non-decomposing –matter</td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
<td>- eg. exhaust fumes, dust</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Air and water pollution</td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td>- Mosquitoes</td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Soil erosion</td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
<td>- Soil erosion</td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Mosquitoes</td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td>- Jiggers</td>
<td><strong>4</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jiggers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>2</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Infrastructure</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Limited medical facilities and services.</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Limited medical facilities and services.</td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Limited and poor educational facilities and teaching personnel</td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td>- Limited schools and teaching personnel</td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Poor working conditions Low involvement with CBOs</td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td>- Limited teaching personnel</td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low involvement with CBOs</td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td>- Poor working conditions</td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient funding</td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td>- Poor transport</td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited &amp; poor transport means</td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td>- Poor land policies</td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of income generating projects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>4</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Socio-cultural</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Early marriages</td>
<td><strong>4</strong></td>
<td>- Land fragmentation</td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Land fragmentation</td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
<td>- Poor sanitation</td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- HIV/AIDS, malaria</td>
<td><strong>9</strong></td>
<td>- Early marriages</td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Poor land policies</td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td>- HIV/AIDS, malaria</td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pessimism to low paying jobs</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Pessimism to low paying jobs</td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Increased morbidity</td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td>- Increased morbidity</td>
<td><strong>4</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Religious wrangles</td>
<td><strong>4</strong></td>
<td>- Religious wrangles</td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Practices of witchcraft and human sacrifice</td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td>- Practices of witchcraft</td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Poor sanitation</td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.10 indicates that, in Goma Sub-county, the most significant challenges cited by respondents are, abuse of wetlands in the parishes of Seeta, deforestation of Namanve forest, disease like HIV/AIDS and malaria. Other pressing issues in the order of significance include, poor transport industrial wastes, air and water pollution, poor educational facilities.
and limited teaching personnel, poor sanitation and mosquitoes, lack of skills and insufficient funding for community-based projects.

On the other hand, Nakisunga’s most pressing challenges are air and water pollution due to dust and exhaust fumes, HIV/AIDS and malaria. Other pressing challenges in order of significance include prolonged dry spells, abuse of natural reserves (over exploitation of stone and sand quarries), insufficient funding for development activities, poor land policies, land fragmentation, practices of witchcraft and human sacrifice and increased morbidity.

In conclusion, although the two sub-counties face the same challenges the degree at which they occur differs for each sub-county. This is partly because of their difference in location, natural resources and population size, and notably leadership capacity to revamp the situation in each. However, in both sub-counties, indicators of poverty impassable roads, limited access to electricity, medical care and poor sanitation.

4.3 Role of Community Leaders in the PEAP

The second objective of the study was to identify and assess the different roles of community leaders in the implementation of PEAP in the sub-counties of Goma and Nakisunga from 2004 to 2008, so as to establish whether the increasing cases of poverty are attributed to community leadership.

Section C of the questionnaire was focused on the definition of community leaders, their
role and mode of participation in the PEAP. This section presents the definition of a community leader, categories of community leaders, and the role played community leaders, the performance of community leaders in each role as well as the strengths and weaknesses.

4.3.1 Definition of a Community Leader

Ideally, the definition adopted by the researcher for the study stated that community leadership is a quality exhibited by all influential and knowledgeable members of the community, in pursuit of common goals. This definition has three provisions. First, a community leader must have skill or knowledge. Secondly, there has to be a role to be played or something to be done and finally there must be something in return or to a common goal to achieve. The definitions were therefore rated as good, average and poor, so as to establish the respondents’ understanding of community leadership. This section presents the various definitions as given by various respondents.

Essentially, “good” stands for a definition that includes quality or expertise of an individual, role to be played and a goal to be achieved in a community. Average, stands for one that exhibits some features from the “good” definition. “Poor” stands for all definitions that were not comprehensive in relation to the study. Out of the 141 respondents 80 defined a community leader, 35 gave a poor definition and 26 could not or did not define a community leader. Table 4.11 presents the ratings of the different definitions of a community leader given by respondents.
Table 4.11: Rating of Respondents’ Definition of a Community Leader

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CBOs &amp; NGOs(10)</th>
<th>DC staff(18)</th>
<th>Experts &amp;Govt.orgs(10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Household members (60)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Goma(32)</th>
<th>Nakisunga(28)</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Local councilors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Goma (25)</th>
<th>Nakisunga (18)</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.11 indicates that

(i) The majority 4(40%) of CBOs and NGO Staff definition was equally rated as average and good, and the rest 2(20%) was rated as poor.

(ii) The majority 8(44.4%) of DC staff was rated as an average definition and the least 4(22.2%) as poor.

(iii) The majority 6(60%) of experts good government organisations definition was rated as good and the rest 4(40%) as average.

(iv) Household Members: 5(15.6%) of Goma definition was rated as good compared to 5 (17.8%) of Nakisunga. Therefore, Nakisunga’s definition was more favourable by 2.2%.

9(28.1%) of Goma definition compared was rated as average compared to 7(25%) of Nakisunga. Goma was more favourable by 3.1%.

8(25%) of Goma’s definition rated as poor compared to 5(17.8%) of Nakisunga. Goma was once again favourable by 7.2%.

Unfortunately, 10(31.2%) of Goma did not or could do not define a community leader compared to 11(39.2%) of Nakisunga. Thus, Nakisunga had more respondents (8%) who
did not or could not define a community leader.

There were no drastic differences in the quality of definitions given by household members in both sub-counties, except among the “poor” and those with “no response”.

(vi) LCs, 6(24%) of Goma’s definition was rated as good compared to 4(22.2%) of Nakisunga. Goma was higher by 1.8%.

6(24%) of Goma’s definition was rated as average compared to 6(33.3%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was therefore higher by 9.3%.

11(44%) of Goma’s definition was rated as poor compared to 5(27.7%) of Goma. Goma was thus higher by 16.3%.

2(8%) of Goma’s LCs could not define a community leader compared to 3(16.6%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was thus higher by 8.6%.

Even though the ratings for the “good” definition were equally the same among LCs, Nakisunga had the majority of those with an average definition, and those who could not define a community leader.

In conclusion, the category of household members, Goma’s majority poorly defined a community while Nakisunga’s majority could not or did not define one. Among Local Councilors, Goma’s majority poorly defined a community leader while Nakisunga’s majority did not respond to this question.

Even though the majority (80 out of 141) of the respondents definition was rated as good and average, the definitions are limited to only those that were comprehensive and relevant to the study. That is, only definitions in relation to the adopted definition of a community leader as discussed above. The definitions are presented with a frequency of 1 to 10 in table 4.12 below.
Table 4.12: Definitions of a Community Leader by Different Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition: A community leader is an individual who ....</th>
<th>Freq</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>...understands people’s needs, solves people’s problems, listens and speaks on behalf of others.</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... has capacity to steer community development</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...is knowledgeable about community affairs.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... is courageous and can take risks to make ends meet.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... is charged with the role of enhancing social change</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... has knowledge and skills to utilise resources and make positive change</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>....volunteers to help others to achieve personnel and community goals</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...who excels in discipline, character, and responsibility above every one else.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...volunteer to perform crucial roles for community development</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...an agent for positive social change</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.... Knowledgeable, respectable and influential in the community</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... works together with others to accomplish community goals.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...brings people together towards a common understanding</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...solves problems, guides and counsels others, brings people together.</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 4.12 indicates, there was a difference of 9 between common and rare definitions of a community leader as follows:

(i) The definition with a frequency of 1 sated that a community leader is an individual who has capacity to steer community development. This definition was average because it has two qualities of “skill” and “goal”.

(ii) The definition with a frequency of 2 stated that a community leader is an individual who excels in discipline, character, and responsibility above every one else. This definition was average because it has two qualities of “skill and role”.

(iii) The definition with a frequency of 3 stated that a community leader is an individual who volunteers to perform crucial roles for community development. This definition is average because it has only two qualities of “role and goal”.

115
(iv) The definition with a frequency of 4 stated that a community leader is an individual who works together with others to accomplish community goals. This definition was good because it has the three qualities of “skill”, “role” and “goal”.

(v) The definition with a frequency of 5 stated that a community leader is an individual who volunteers to help others to achieve personnel and community goals. This definition was good because it has the three qualities of “skill”, “role” and “goal”.

(vi) There were three definitions with a frequency of 6. The first stated that, “a community leader is knowledgeable about community affairs”. The second stated that, “a community leader is courageous and can take risks to make ends meet”. Finally, a community leader was defined as an individual who has knowledge and skills to utilise resources and make positive change. The first two definitions were average with only two qualities, and the last one was good because it the three qualities of “skill”, “role” and “goal”.

(vii) The definition with a frequency of 7 stated that a community leader is an individual charged with the role of enhancing social change. This definition was good because it has the three qualities of “skill”, “role” and “goal”.

(viii) The definition with a frequency of 8 stated that a community leader is an individual who brings people together towards a common understanding. This definition was average because it has only two qualities of “role” and “goal”.

(ix) There were two definitions with a frequency of 10. The first one stated that a community leader understands people’s needs, solves people’s problems, listens and speaks on behalf of others. The second one stated that a community leader is an agent for positive social change”. The first definition is good because it has the three qualities of skill, role and goal. The average because it has only two qualities of role and goal.
From these findings, a community leader shall be understood as an individual who has knowledge and skills to work with others, to utilise resources, to accomplish community goals, and make positive social change. In addition, as respondents stated, a community leader understands people’s needs, solves people’s problems, listens and speaks on behalf of others. But to understand and be able solve people’s problems requires close contact with people or followers.

4.3.2 Categories of Community Leaders

Uganda, community leadership is understood as a role played by all the knowledgeable and influential members of the society. But according to the PEAP, community leadership was defined by the roles played by each individual in a given project. Respondents were therefore asked to give examples of community leaders and their role in the PEAP so as to examine the role of each in a given activity. Out of the 141 respondents, only 103 answered this question. The various categories and types identified range from village to the national level. They are presented in the conventional categories of traditional, political, religious and others in table 4.13 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>King</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Bishop</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>President</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Police</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>CEOs</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queen</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Reverend</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ministers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Managers</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan head</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Pastor</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>MPs</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>RDC</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>LCs</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Herbalist</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Multi-partists</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family- head</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As table 4.13 indicates:

Although clan heads and herbalists were identified, in the category of traditional leaders, the most recognised leader was the king, particularly the king of Buganda. Clan heads were central in resolving family conflicts such as Sexual and Gender domestic violence, and aiding LCs in settling disputes particularly those to do with land. However, respondents could not readily establish the king’s role in the implementation of the PEAP. Confirmation questions stated that the king through Buganda institutions such as “Nkoba za Mbogo” had empowered the youth. Other Buganda institutions included “Masaza Cup”, a football federation for Buganda clans.

In the category of religious leaders, the most recognised were pastors. Others were the bishop, reverends and parish priests. Respondents stated that these community leaders had helped followers to grow spiritually by counseling them particularly in marital matters, youth fellowships on HIV/AIDS and other STDs, abstinence and faithfulness, and women empowerment among others. Pastors were also recognised for their community outreach through the various Faith Based Organizations (FBOs).

Among political leaders, MPs, RDCs, political – party leaders and LCs, were identified. In most of the discussions, respondents stated that although MPs and RDCs are recognised, they were also the most corrupt and were only after maintaining their positions in power. Political party leaders had helped mobilize the masses to engage in community development projects. However, respondents also added that these same political party
leaders had also contributed to chaos when they opposed some initiatives that were proposed by the government in power. On the other hand, LCs particularly LCIs were the most recognised at village and parish level, for their services on security, and efforts to improve on sanitation.

Among social workers, teachers, medical personnel, veterinary doctors and the police, were indicated. Respondents recognised teachers particularly those in the Universal Education Programme, medical personnel such as nurses and doctors were appraised in local hospitals, the police was recognised for maintaining security and order.

Among representatives of organisations, were managers and CEOs. These community leaders were mostly of Faith Based Orgs (FBOs). Managers and CEOs were also LCs of most villages and parishes. These community leaders had helped in mobilizing and sensitizing masses in the ongoing community development initiatives.

Although it is obvious that some of the identified types were not necessarily associated with their role in the PEAP, those with a frequency of 5 and above were the most cited community leaders and conceivably the most recognized in the two sub-counties. These types were recognised by the role they in universal education, medical care, agriculture (NAADS), security, sanitation, among others. It is therefore logical to state that in Mukono District, a community leader is any individual who has a role to play in the welfare of the entire community.
4.3.3 Role Played by Community Leaders in the PEAP

By nature of their components, transformational theories were deemed to be the most appropriate for this study. According to Bass (1985), the transformational leader moves the follower beyond self-interests, is charismatic and inspirational, intellectually stimulating, and individually considerate. In relation to the study, the role of community leaders in the implementation of PEAP was assessed by their mode of participation. This section presents ratings for the leaders’ mode of participation in sensitising, motivating, supervising, monitoring, and evaluating the PEAP activities as already presented in 4.3.1.

(a) Rating of Community Leadership Role in Sensitisation

Sensitisation is the process of aware of specific events or situations (especially emotional events or situations). Sensitization may also involve training of leaders and followers to be aware and prepared for particular situations. The study sought to establish whether or not community leaders had participated in sensitising their people about the PEAP activities, and how well they performed the role of sensitisation. Respondents were asked to rate the performance of community leaders in the sensitisation process by indicating whether the performance was Very Good (teaching, guiding and demonstrating the essence of PEAP), Average (just telling followers about the PEAP) or Poor (inadequate teaching with less or no guidance). Table 4.14 presents the leadership sensitization gradation by respondent categories.
Table 4.14: Rating of Community Leadership Role in Sensitisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CBO &amp; NGO staff (10)</th>
<th>District Council staff (18)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Household Members (60)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Goma (32)</th>
<th>Nakisunga (28)</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Local Councillors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Goma (25)</th>
<th>Nakisunga (18)</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significantly, there was no Very Good score for sensitization. Instead ratings were as follows: (i) Of the respondents in CBO and NGO staff category, the majority 4(40%) rated sensitisation as average, while the rest were equally distributed between good 3(30%), and poor 3(30%).

(ii) Among District Council staff respondents, the majority 8(44.4%) rated sensitisation as poor, 6(33.3%) as good, and 4(22.2%) as average.

(iii) In the category of household members, 7(21.8%) of Goma rated sensitisation as good compared to 6(21.4%) of Nakisunga. Goma was therefore slightly favourable by 0.4%. 15(46.8%) of Goma rated sensitisation as average compared to 8(28.5%) of Nakisunga. Goma’s rating was more favourable by a big difference of 18.8%. 10(31.2%) of Goma rated sensitisation as poor compared to 14(50%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was higher by 18.8%.

Although there were almost similar ratings for sensitisation as good, there were drastic differences in the two sub-counties among those who rated it average and poor.

(iv) Among LCs, 8(32%) of Goma rated themselves as good compared to 6(33.3%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was favourable by only 1.3%. 10(40%) of Goma rated themselves as average compared to 8(44.4%) of Nakisunga. Once again Nakisunga was favourable by 4.4%.
Finally, 7(28%) of Goma rated themselves as poor compared to 4(22.2%) of Nakisunga. Therefore, Goma was more favourable by 5.8%.

LCs in Nakisunga generally rated their sensitisation more favourably than those in Goma.

In category of CBOs and NGOs, sensitisation was rated as good because of the available training opportunities in the sub-county, availability of farmer incentives and availability of information on health, education and gender empowerment. District Council staff respondents equally stated the same reasons except they added that there were standing orders in the sub-county to regulate and guide applications of advisory services for all leaders in various projects. Although good reasons were given for sensitisation, there were no reference materials about the nature of training or sensitisation programs.

The reasons given by those who rated sensitization as average were similar to those who rated it as good. Except they added that although seminars had helped in sensitizing the masses, there was too much work to do for trainers moreover, the time allocated for each training session was less to exhaust the contents. In addition, household members recognised posters and notices that had been pinned on the walls of medical blocks as also good sources of information.

Finally, all respondents who rated sensitisation as poor, particularly District Council staff stated that there was poor facilitation and poor pay for trainers and necessary personnel all of which compromised the mode delivery. Some CBOs and NGO staff charged with sensitisation were faced with poor supervisory support from concerned authority, absence of sensitisation guidelines and inadequate facilities to perform effectively. Besides, the poor transport in both sub-counties usually discouraged trainers to go deep into villages.
(b) Rating of Community Leadership Role in Motivation

Motivation is a desire to achieve a goal, combined with the energy to work towards that goal. Sometimes distinction is made between positive and negative motivation (McGregor, 1961). Positive motivation is a response which includes enjoyment and optimism about the tasks that you are involved in. Negative motivation involves undertaking tasks because there will be undesirable outcomes, for example, failing an examination if coursework is not completed. Good motivation involves creating desire among followers to achieve a goal combined with the energy to work towards that goal, and the benefits of achieving that goal. Average motivation may as well create the desire to achieve a goal but may not necessarily involve much enthusiasm and the reverse is true. Finally, poor motivation means less or lack of desire to achieve a goal. Respondents were asked to state their views on the performance of community leaders in motivating people to participate in PEAP activities. Table 4.15 presents the respondents’ gradation of motivation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.15: Rating of Community Leadership Role in Motivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CBO &amp; NGO staff (10)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>District Council staff (18)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Household members (60)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Goma (32)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Local councilors</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Goma (25)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.15 indicates that:

(i) The majority 5(50%)% of CBOs and NGO staff believe that monitoring is poor, while 30% believe it is average and 20% believe it is good.

(ii) Although a minority (22.2%) of the District Council staff thinks motivation is good, the majority 44.4% think it is poor and 33.3% think it is average.

(iii) Among household members, 5(15.6%) of Goma rated motivation as good compared to 6(21.4%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga’s rating was more favourable by 5.8%.

13(40.6%) of Goma rated motivation as average compared to 8(28.5%) of Nakisuga. Goma’s rating was higher by 12.1%.

14(43.7%) of Goma rated motivation as poor compared to 14(50%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was higher by 6.3%.

There were drastic differences in the ratings of motivation in both sub-counties. However, Goma’s rating was more favourable than that of Nakisunga.

(v) Among LCs, 3(12%) of Goma rated motivation as good compared to 2(11.1%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was slightly lower by 0.9%.

15(60%) of Goma rated motivation as average compared to 15(83.3%). Nakisunga was more favourable by 23.3%.

7(28%) of Goma rated motivation as poor compared to 7(38.8%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was higher once again by 10.8%.

In this category, Nakisunga’s LCs rated their motivation more unfavorably. Respondents particularly District Council staff respondents who rated the leaders’ motivation performance as good, explained that their leaders were passionate about community development. Such leaders clearly explained the benefits to the followers in arranged meetings and seminars. Followers such as NAADS farmers were also aware of the benefits were encouraged, and as such, they fully got involved.

Respondents who rated leadership motivation as poor, particularly CBOs and NGOs, indicated lack of facilitation, lack of a fully fledged secretariat for co-ordination among
service providers. District Council respondents cited similar reasons but they emphasised the absence of proper co-ordination mechanism as a drain on motivation. Other reasons for lack of enthusiasm were constant interference in the local government issues by central government, leaving no space for local government to perform effectively. In addition, failure to involve all categories of community leaders in some of these activities was discouraging. Household members referred to segregation among political parties and religious institutions. LCs, particularly those at village level stated that they are not paid for their services yet the nature of their work is tedious.

(c) Rating of Community Leadership Role in Supervision

Supervision is a crucial role in project management. Good supervision requires watching over the work or tasks given. Average supervision is not regular although the supervisor still keeps track of how things are being done. Finally, poor supervision is when the supervisor does not necessarily keep track of projects and only does so once in a while. Respondents were asked to rate the performance of community leaders in the sanitization process by indicating whether the performance was very good, good, Average or Poor. Table 4.16 presents the respondent gradation of the leadership in supervision.
Table 4.16: Rating of Community Leadership role in Supervision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CBO &amp; NGO staff(10)</th>
<th>District Council staff(18)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household members (60)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Goma(32)</td>
<td>Nakisunga(28)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local councilors</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Goma (25)</td>
<td>Nakisunga (18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3.3.3 presents supervision gradation according to respondents as:

(i) Although the majority (40%) of CBOs and NGO staff rated supervision as poor and average, the minority (20%) rated it as good.

(ii) Among the District Council staff, 2(20%) rated supervision as good, and the rest were equally distributed between average 4(40%) and as poor 4(40%).

(iii) In the category of household members, 12(37.5%) of Goma rated supervision as good compared to 6(21.4%) of Nakisunga. Goma was higher by 16.1%. 10(31.2%) of Goma rated supervision as average compared to 11(39.2%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was thus higher by 8%.

(iv) Among LCs, no respondents for Goma on good supervision, instead only respondent from Nakisunga rated supervision as good.

10(31.2%) of Goma rated supervision as average compared to 5(27.7%). Goma was higher by 12.3%. 15(60%) of Goma rated supervision as poor compared to 12(66.6%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was higher by 6.6%.
Respondents, particularly the District Council staff who rated leadership supervision as good, recognised the improvement of agriculture referring to NAADS farmers, increase in the number of economic women groups. CBOs and NGO staff who thought supervision was good recognised government support. Household members quoted good services provided by teachers and medical personnel. The police was also recognised for provision of security and helping in settling issues of domestic violence – SGBV. However, there were no visible indicators to prove this positive report on supervision.

The reasons for average supervision were not so different from the “good” ones except that respondents added less or lack of community participation and involvement in the development projects. LCs also quoted awkward researchers and supervisors who sometimes bumped into their homes without appointments.

Finally, respondents particularly the District Council staff, who thought that leadership supervision was poor, stated almost same reasons as those for sensitization and motivation. However, they added that there was limited financial capacity at the District to facilitate constant supervision to reasonable levels and also to establish and maintain other related arrangements.

In addition, the inconsistent government policies and late submission of work plans blocked good supervision. CBOs and NGOs attributed poor supervision to inadequate skills by supervisors or service providers, lack of basic information on the PEAP and MDGs. LCs
added that community leadership had not been clearly defined in terms of responsibilities and accountability, presenting challenges in supervision.

(d) Rating of Community Leadership Role in Monitoring and Evaluation (M and E)

Monitoring involves giving feedback about the progress of any project to the beneficiaries of the project such as donors and implementers. On the other hand, evaluation is the process of assessing all the activities or progress of the project, which have been implemented over a period to determine the effectiveness of the project. Good M and E deals with successes and problems of the project identified during analysis with recommendations on how these can be improved. Poor M and E is the opposite.

Respondents were asked to rate the community leadership role in M and E so as to judge the leadership competence in management of the PEAP projects. Table 4.17 presents the respondents’ gradation of the community leadership role in project evaluation.

Table 4.17: Rating Of Community Leadership Role in Monitoring and Evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CBO &amp; NGO staff(10)</th>
<th>District Council staff(18)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household members (60)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goma(32)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>46.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nakisunga(28)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Margin of Difference</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Goma (25)</th>
<th>Nakisunga (18)</th>
<th>Margin of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As Table 4.17 indicates:

(i) The minority (20%) of CBOs and NGOs staff rated evaluation as good and the majorities (40%) were equally distributed between average and poor.

(ii) Among the District Council staff ratings, evaluation was equally distributed between good 6 (33.3), average 6 (33.3) and poor 6 (33.3).

(iii) Among household members, 7(21.8%) of Goma rated evaluation as good compared to 5(17.8%) of Nakisunga. Goma was more favourable by 4%. 15(46.8%) of Goma rated evaluation as average compared to 12(42.8%) of Nakisunga. Goma was once again higher by 4%. 10(31.2%) of Goma rated evaluation as poor compared to 11(39.2%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was higher by 8%.

(iv) Among LCs, 7(28%) of Goma rated evaluation as good compared to 5(27.7%) of Nakisunga. Goma was higher with a small difference of only 0.3%. 8(32%) of Goma rated evaluation as average compared to 8(44.4%) of Nakisunga. Nakisunga was higher by 12%. 10(40%) of Goma rated evaluation as poor compared to 5(27.7%) of Nakisunag. Goma was more favourable with a difference of 12%.

Respondents who think that leadership M and E evaluation is good stated that it was because their leaders gave them constant reports on their progress. However, the researcher did not see the constant reports on the progress as stated by the “good” category. Those who think it is average stated that although there was an evaluation process, lack of records prevented leaders from making good evaluation. Notably, some leaders seemed just lazy to document the records. Finally, those who think it is poor did not even comment on the mode of evaluation. Some of them did not even seem to understand the essence of evaluation in any project.

However, coordinators of various CBOs and NGOs indicated that there was inconsistency in
monitoring and evaluating the PEAP activities. Although some respondents rated evaluation as good, parties involved could not provide up-to-date information, there were no records and most of the documents were outdated. All these indicators explain why possibly most of the PEAP projects are in bad shape.

In conclusion, although good ratings were given in each role, there were no reference materials to prove most of this information. For example, there was no information on the nature of training or sensitisation programs. The only available information was usually general relating to the entire central region or the entire Mukono District. There were no reports on staff appraisal. Most of the NAADS farmers the researcher interacted with, were not adequately aware of the required standards in delivering agricultural advisory services. In reality there is sloppiness in enforcing standard laws mainly due to inadequate supervision by the District officials or other officials in charge in charge.

4.3.2 **Strengths and Weaknesses of Community Leaders**

Good leadership can be measured in terms of people’s wellbeing because the degree of poverty or prosperity in a community is logically attributed to the effectiveness or otherwise of community leadership. The researcher investigated the strengths and weaknesses of community leaders to enable her draw effective conclusions and recommendations for better community leadership. Table 4.18 presents the strengths and weaknesses of community leaders as revealed by the research data.
Table 4.18: Strengths and Weaknesses of Community Leaders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Ability to communicate in local language</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>- Corruption,</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ability to solve domestic problems</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>- Lack of consideration for others</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Desire to lead others</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>- Lack of leadership skills</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Influence at community level</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>- Lack of motivation</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Desire for better community leadership</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>- Laziness</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Individualised consideration</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>- Ignorance about community leadership</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Willingness to cooperate with followers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>- Personal insecurity</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Poor communication skills</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Inferiority complex</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Lack of sense of humour</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 4.18 indicates, just like anybody else, community leaders have both strengths and weaknesses. At household level, respondents indicated that community leaders particularly, LCIs and the police had helped community leaders to manage or solve conflict accordingly. This has been partly possible because of their ability to communicate in the local language - Luganda. Other strengths include, influence at village level, willingness to better community leadership, and to lead others. Most LCs and some of their followers confidently confirmed their willingness to ascend to higher leadership status given chance.

On the other hand, the greatest weaknesses for community leaders were corruption, lack of consideration for others and lack of leadership skills. These weaknesses are attributed to poverty. For instance, some or the majority of community leaders are poor themselves, they have not received any leadership training. In fact, some community leaders are ignorant about their role as far development projects are concerned. Observation confirmed that some community leaders are not confident and that they are also victims of inferiority complex. These weaknesses confirm the saying that good leadership can be measured in terms of peoples’ wellbeing.

Although humour as indicated by respondents is not as very significant factor of leadership, it greatly improves motivation because it cheers up dull situations in community meetings and other related issues.
CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0. INTRODUCTION

The general objective of this study was to establish the extent to which community leaders have contributed towards poverty reduction in Goma and Nakisungga sub-county. This chapter presents the discussion, conclusion and recommendations of the study based on the findings from the different respondents: CBOS, NGOs, LCs, DC staff, experts and government organizations, and household members.

5.1 Discussion

This section presents a detailed discussion of objectives of the study based on the literature review and findings. The discussion is divided into themes of objectives:

- The difference in the levels and indicators of poverty between Goma Sub-county and Nakisungga Sub-county from 2004 to 2008.
- The role of community leaders in the implementation of the PEAP in the sub counties of Goma and Nakisunga from 2004 to 2008.
- Recommendations on strategies for more effective community leadership in poverty reduction in Mukono district.

5.1.1 The Levels and Indicators of Poverty in Goma and Nakisungga Sub-county

This first objective of the study was to establish the indicators and levels of poverty in the two sub-counties from 2004 to 2008. As presented in Chapter Four, the levels of poverty were examined in terms of the main economic activities, changes in household income from
2004 to 2008 and opportunities and challenges in the two sub-counties. From research data, the challenges, causes and effects are presented in table 5.1, in relation to the pillars of the PEAP namely:

a) Economic management.
b) Enhancing production, competitiveness and incomes.
c) Security, conflict resolution and disaster management.
d) Good governance and poverty reduction.
c) Human development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PEAP INITIATIVE</th>
<th>CHALLENGE</th>
<th>CAUSE</th>
<th>EFFECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(I) Economic Management</td>
<td>Lack of sustainable income generating projects at household level</td>
<td>Poverty</td>
<td>Alcoholism, Sexual gender based violence, Drug abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poor farming methods</td>
<td>Poor land policies, Land fragmentation, Low community involvement in advisory services and farmer institution</td>
<td>Food insecurity, Subsistence farming, Poor productivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(II) Enhancing Production, Competitiveness</td>
<td>Insufficient funding, Devastating community leadership effort to perform</td>
<td>Delays from the centre/district</td>
<td>Poor road network, Poor transportation of produce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(III) Security, Conflict Resolution and Disaster Management</td>
<td>Environmental degradation</td>
<td>Deforestation, Stone quarrying and bricklaying, Industrial wastes and non decomposing matter, Air pollution, Abuse of wetlands</td>
<td>Soil erosion, Prolonged dry spells, Obnoxious smells, Drying up of wetlands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(IV) Good Governance &amp; Poverty Reduction</td>
<td>Under utilisation of local; resources/revenue and late release of funds from the centers/district</td>
<td>political procurement over unpaid market dues, uneven charging policy corruption</td>
<td>Non realization of local revenue, Untimely fulfillment of planned activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(V) Human Development</td>
<td>Limited classrooms and staff quarters (UPE &amp; USE)</td>
<td>Increased enrolment of pupils/students, Increased staff, Expansion of classroom infrastructure</td>
<td>Poor learning conditions, Poor living conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Limited office space at sub-county level</td>
<td>Poor working conditions</td>
<td>Poor working conditions e.g. no sitting space for staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HIV/AIDS scourge, Malaria and TB</td>
<td>Its epidemic and endemic</td>
<td>Increased morbidity and mortality rates poverty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In terms of agriculture, crop production and livestock keeping was examined. Nakisunga’s cash and food crops include coffee, bananas (matooke), cassava, and beans among others. Although similar crops are grown in both sub-counties, Goma’s major cash and food crops on the other hand, include potatoes, bananas and yams. Livestock kept includes piggery, cattle and poultry- keeping among others. Among these the majority of farmers kept cattle, goats, poultry, and piggery on a small scale similar in both sub-counties.

However, as table 5.1 indicates, there was poor or low crop production by the majority of individuals. Crops were of low quality and this was attributed to poor land, policies (land fragmentation and an unfavorable land tenure system especially for women), and lack of motivation, unstable markets (coffee and vanilla), deteriorating soil fertility, poor farming methods, and soil erosion among other factors. The reasons for a reduction in animal husbandry were not different for crop production except in the cases of fake vets who caused farmers to lose their animals and money.

In Goma particularly, there was limited land due to congestion, establishment of small scale industries in areas that were previously used for agriculture, prolonged dry spells, and soil erosion due to deforestation in Namanve, among others. On the other hand, Nakisunga’s production was mainly affected by the prolonged dry spells, insufficient funding for rural farmers, poor land policies and land fragmentation among others. Although the two sub-counties are engaged in the same activities, Goma’s production was low compared to that of Nakisunga.
Pillar one of the PEAP – Economic Management was aimed at increasing household income. But as presented in Table 4.20, in the two sub-counties, at household level, there is lack of sustainable income generating projects and thus no entrepreneurship. This is mainly because during 2004 to 2008 income levels fell thus deepening the levels of poverty. As a result, cases of alcoholism, idleness and SGBV were on the increase in parishes of Seeta and Nazigo in Goma and Nantabuliriwa in Nakisunga.

Although some respondents engage in formal jobs such as teaching and others in established industries, study findings noted a gender disparity in job distribution. As table 4.8 indicates, the employed comprised of more males than females. Obviously this transforms into uneven distribution of incomes between male and female. As a result it also contributes to high dependency of women on men and SGBV.

Other economic activities indicated were private business, workers in the transport business (taxi and boda-boda), crafts-making sand and stone quarries, local brewing of waragi, bricklaying and charcoal burning (particularly common in Goma sub-county).

Local-brewing may increase household income but the practice has also contributed to the increasing poverty levels in both sub-counties. For instance, local brew is cheap ranging from 100shs to 500shs; therefore affordable for almost every one in the area. Local brewing also encourages alcoholism in these sub-counties. The Uganda Participatory Assessment Plan (UPAP, 2004) Report, states that excessive consumption of alcohol is the major cause
of poverty in Uganda because it leads to poor health, laziness, disease, lack of education and skills, idleness, lack of access to financial assistance and credit, ignorance and lack of information particularly market information.

Bricklaying and charcoal burning may be source of income for those involved. However, the practices are costly and environmentally degrading. For instance, bricklaying is costly because it requires large labour force and yet the price of the bricks is not worth the process of making them (price range is from 100shs to 200shs per a brick). It is environmentally degrading because it involves digging up top soil and burning of bricks; which in turn pollute the atmosphere. Moreover, pillar 3 of the PEAP (security, conflict resolution and disaster management) was established to partly manage environmental degradation. All these environmental degrading practices, coupled with prolonged dry spells in the sub-counties (particularly Nakisungu) have negatively affected agricultural activities in the area.

The levels and indicators of poverty in the two sub-counties were also examined by observing changes in household income from 2004 to 2008. The majority of respondents thought that household income in the two sub-counties fell drastically. However, when this information was compared with documentation from the District and sub-county reports, the actual percentages were not given. Therefore it was not logical to conclude without knowing the initial percentage. Interviewees added that the falling incomes based on the reduction in agricultural production. However, the fall in incomes was not as great as verbal
interactions with respondents had established.

Opportunities and challenges were examined in terms of Bio-physical, infrastructural and socio-cultural factors. In Goma, infrastructural opportunities were associated with the growing industrial park, which offers job opportunities to the locals. Biophysical opportunities such as, surrounding areas to the former Namanve forest, which offers firewood rain, and fertile soil for cultivation, wetlands for cultivation of yams. Socio-cultural opportunities such as common language used – Luganda and an acceptable degree of religious tolerance.

On the other hand, Nakisunga’s opportunities were infrastructural e.g. roads, schools, industrial installations. Socio-cultural e.g. religious tolerance, common language. Biophysical e.g. sand quarries in Katosi and Senyi parishes, stone quarries in Namuyenje and Namubiru parishes, fishing (done on a small scale) in Katosi and Senyi parishes), and fertile soils are evident in areas near water bodies such as Katosi and Namakwa parishes.

In terms of infrastructure, Goma’s road network is composed of 48kms of feeder roads, 206kms of “bulungi bwa nsi” or access roads (Goma Sub-County Report 2008). In relation to this, the researcher noted that the 4 km tarmac road still limits the movement of individuals and transportation of agricultural produce. For example the road is dusty in the dry season and slippery in the wet season thus, impassable. At the time of the research, the only available means of transport were bodabodas (motor cycle taxis) which are unsafe and costly.
When it comes to Nakisunga, the main road from Mukono town council is tarmac and this would give a good impression to any passerby who does not go deep in the sub-county. However, the researcher observed that the tarmac road only runs up to Kyetume. And like in Goma, the road beyond Kyetume is dusty in the dry season and slippery and impassable in the wet season. On top of that, most of the privately owned vehicles are very old and in bad shape which makes it risky to travel to the sub-county.

The bad roads tend to limit socio-economic activities in the two sub-counties. First, the distance which would be a thirty minutes drive from Mukono town usually takes about an hour or more because of the aforementioned constraints. Secondly, it becomes expensive for the rural farmer to transport his/her produce to the nearest markets in terms of time and transport. Moreover, the rural farmers deal in perishables. Finally, the majority of the people can not easily move to Mukono town the nearest centre for medical services. Additionally, investors and researchers find it hard to establish community development projects in fear of the aforementioned challenges.

The second pillar of the PEAP (enhancing production and competitiveness), was established to foster agriculture, transport infrastructure, energy, mining and the environment among others. However, in the two sub counties, it is till hard for the poor to travel and access basic needs because the roads are bad, dusty and slippery. In both, transport is expensive and still hard for the rural farmer to effectively move his/her produce as Chambers put it, being unable to travel to other areas beyond your dwelling is an indicator of extreme
poverty. He adds that the poor move less or do not move at all. Therefore, they can not access information, medical services, and education among their basic.

In both sub-counties, despite the presence of education facilities, schools are unevenly distributed with some sub-counties having more than others. The researcher observed children walking long distances to school on the dusty or muddy road. Sometimes these children had no shelter from the scorching sun or heavy rains, which occasionally spoilt their books. An interview with some CBO staff revealed that the private schools are preferred to the government on the basis that private schools have performed better in the years of 2004 to date.

Supplementary interactions with community members established that there are no government primary schools in some parishes and that the few private schools are expensive that residents can not afford to pay for some or all the children. This evidence can therefore be associated with the increasing illiteracy levels in some parishes particularly those in Nakisunga and the increasing number of school dropouts.

The fifth pillar of the PEAP (Human Development) emphasises health and a well educated population. However, it is not easy for children who have completed primary to enroll for secondary education. Some teenage adolescents especially girls are discouraged from attending school because they do not have adequate sanitary facilities. Moreover, there is not sufficient for adolescents at sub-county level. Teenagers are always confused about the
right choices to make because the various ideas from the different age groups and ethnic set up differ from parish to parish. As a result, there are many cases of early marriages, SGBV, and child neglect among others.

Group discussions with local councilors and household members reported increased cases of child neglect higher which is higher in Goma than Nakisunga. Child neglect is a result of early marriages, unwanted pregnancies by young girls who were frustrated without counseling and care from their respective partners. In Goma, the widows (members of “Reach one, Touch one, Ministries” – ROTOM) have a big burden of looking after their children and themselves and yet given their poor health, cannot actively engage in agriculture which is their reliable if not their only means of survival. Discussions revealed that some of the widows do not deliberately abandon their children. In fact it was not their choice but they had to choose between work and domestic chores.

The study also revealed gender inequalities in community leadership most of the leadership positions are by males. Hence, women are still lagging behind the headship terrain. On top of that, there are discrimination policies in job allocation. Most of the jobs are dominated by male than females. When it comes to development projects at sub-county level, tenders are mainly awarded to men. Men also loan or shares in budget allocations and women are usually denied such opportunities. All this has contributed to the increased gender inequality issues.
Under the health sector, performance of the general health indicates poor progress especially in the mobilization, distribution and utilization of public health facilities. At sub-county level, there is competition between traditional herbalists and clinical medicine because traditionalists are accessible, easy to communicate with in the local language and more friendly than the rude medical personnel at government health centres.

Interviews indicated that the increasing levels of poverty contributed to youth vulnerability to HIV/AIDS. Group discussions also revealed that HIV/AIDS has contributed to increasing number of household headed by women or the old, widows and orphans in the two sub-counties. In Nakisunga, widowed women comprised mostly of victims of HIV/AIDS among others. The OVC report (2006) adds that there was inadequate care for people living with HIV/AIDS despite the numerous PEAP (2004) reports claiming improvement in the health care services.

Household members established that there has been tendency to concentrate on HIV/AIDS than other diseases in most of the health facilities. As a result, malaria has been on rampage. In addition, antenatal care is poor in the two sub counties, inadequate family planning services. Social workers such nurses and midwives stated that there insufficient care and education pregnant women. For that reason, increased morbidity and high mortality rates have persisted over the years.

As already presented in table 5.1, to equate these challenges, causes and effects to
Chambers deprivation trap (1983), poverty is an all round problem which affects the social and economic structure. For instance, powerlessness as caused by disease makes one vulnerable or prone to other diseases and as a result, may lead to the individual being isolated due to physical weakness and eventually this leads to extreme poverty.

Apart from the uneven distribution of resources, such as industries and natural economic reserves in the two sub-counties, there are gender and age disparities which yield to Gender Based Violence GBV or Sexual Gender Based Violence (SGBV). This is mainly because most of the industries in Namanve as well as the quarries in Nakisunga sub-county employ more males than females. Furthermore, respondents stated that there is also discrimination among age groups with employers preferring individuals aged 16 to 28 than those above.

In addition, even though poor land policies and settlement exist in sub-counties, in-depth interviews and discussions revealed that in Goma the situation was worse. For example, land fragmentation is worse in Nakisunga. However, in both as a socio-cultural practice, men have more rights on land than women. Research data indicated that married women do not legal marriage certificates which would have given them legal rights over land.

According to a New Vision Police Report (20 September, 2006), Mukono District was among those with the highest crime rates ranging from religious wrangles, human sacrifice(child sacrifice), domestic violence (SGBV), rape, drug trafficking, etc. the cause of these felonies were a result of the struggle for equal rights and opportunities for men and women. In both
sub-counties, human sacrifice has been common with the highest case in Goma than Nakisunga.

Goma’s growing industrial park has attracted immigrants from other areas to the sub-county. At the same time, immigrants have led to congestion and the struggle for the limited resources over time. This congestion has also resulted into encroachment on ungazetted areas such as wetlands in Kigunga and in parishes of Seeta (Goma Annual Report, 2007). On top of that, Goma’s big population has to deal with obnoxious smells, non decomposing wastes from the various factories and limited land for agriculture.

On the other hand, although Nakisunga is not as industrialized as Goma, it has worse challenges than those in Goma. For example, Nakisunga’s sand and stone quarries may be a good source of income for those involved; unfortunately, a big number of the residents still live in grass thatched houses. In fact, the researcher observed that Goma had more permanent structures than those in Nakisunga. This was partly because residents in Nakisunga could not afford to buy construction material due to their low income levels as presented in Chapter Four.

In conclusion, although Goma Sub-county is ranked high among the fast growing sub-counties in Mukono District, the margin of difference is not very big compared to Nakisunga. As already stated, the two sub-counties share common problems and challenges. However, the magnitude of these problems varies because the two have
geographical difference offers them different challenges and opportunities.

5.1.2 Role of Community Leaders in the PEAP in Goma and Nakisunga

The second objective of the study was to identify and assess the different roles of community leaders in the implementation of PEAP in Goma and Nakisunga sub-counties from 2004 to 2008, so as to establish whether the increasing cases of poverty are a result of community leaders. As presented in Chapter Four, respondents were asked to define a community leader, categories and types, their role and mode of participation in the PEAP.

There were two definitions with a frequency of 10. The first one stated that a community leader understands people’s needs, solves people’s problems, listens and speaks on behalf of others. The second one stated that a community leader is an agent for positive social change”. A community leader was therefore defined as an individual who has knowledge and skills to work with others, to utililise resources, to accomplish community goals, and make positive social change.

As respondents stated, a community leader understands people’s needs, solves people’s problems, listens and speaks on behalf of others. But to understand and be able solve people’s problems requires close contact with people or followers. This therefore implies that a community leader must also be a member and a resident of that particular community. This corresponds with the Bass’ definition of community leadership which states that, “leadership is the art of motivating a group of people to ct towards achieving a common goal.
However, all respondent definitions lacked the term influence. Moreover, according to Drucker (2006) the only definition for leadership is some one who has influence. But to gain influence, one must have followers. Based on Drucker’s definition, as long as one has the ability to influence others then that person is automatically a leader. But for purposes of the study findings, it is logical to state that in Mukono District, a community leader is one who brings people to a common understanding, and effects positive change within the community. In fact, the community leaders identified were not so different from the conventional categories as already presented in chapter one section 1.1.3.

Unfortunately, some respondents could not define a community leader other than pointing to the obvious LC1 chairman. Others, especially household members did not even know who their community leaders were. Fortunately, the majority at least identified some categories of community leaders. These were in the range of the conventional categories of community leaders in all social circles from village to the national levels. Although it is obvious that these types were not necessarily associated with their role in the PEAP, the most influential ones were the police, king of Buganda and LCs.

This identification was partly controversial because, although the people in the two sub-counties adore the king, he is not a resident in the two sub-counties. Secondly, according to the common definitions of bringing people together to effect positive change, the kings contribution in the PEAP in the two sub-counties is hard to trace.

Experts argued that it was easy for a leader to understand community issues as long as they
lived within a given community. In addition, such a community leader could make rational decisions based on priorities and interests of the community without much ado. But just living within that community is not enough, community leaders must actively participate in development projects right from the start to the end. Leadership participation helps to improve community projects, enhances accountability and lessons corruption. Notably, LCs at level I were still the most recorgised community leaders at sub-county level.

In reality, in the two sub-counties, community leaders are also associated with heads of organizations and community-based institutions. All the above categories revolve around individuals who have a role to play in, and on behalf of, the society. Community leaders were understood as all individuals who have a role to play in the community. On the other hand, this responsibility is not free of necessary expertise to accomplish a task. In terms of community development, a community leader is therefore some one who has necessary knowledge but this does not exclude training or leadership experience. As already stated in Chapter One section 1.1.1, transformational theories state that people can study to become leaders after learning and acquiring leadership skills (Burns 1997). But since we are all different, not every one can learn all the skills of leadership. Never the less, most people can learn some of them and thus develop their own potential.

Since the study employed transformational theories of leadership which state that, “a transformational leader moves the follower beyond self-interests; and is charismatic and inspirational, intellectually stimulating, and individually considerate; leadership
participation was therefore rated by the various respondents so as to establish their contribution in the PEAP. The mode of participation was in terms of sensitization or training, motivation, supervision, monitoring and evaluation which according to transformational theories result into performance beyond expectations.

Although respondents rated sensitisation positively, this was controversial because, most of the household members were ignorant about most activities and benefits of the PEAP. In reality most individuals in the two sub-counties do not know that their participation in the PEAP activities is not only a government initiative, but also an individual benefit. Most of household members thought of the PEAP or MDGs as a government initiative partly because the current president of Uganda – Museveni, used the MDGs as part of his campaign strategy in the 2002 political elections. Interviews with CBOs and LCs established that most people are not sensitized about PEAP’s development projects. In fact, some individuals were reluctant to engage in such activities.

In addition, research data established that sensitization or training is still poor at sub-county level. There were no records for content and mode of training to prove respondents verbal information. Moreover, as already discussed training or sensitisation is very central for the success of all other roles of leadership. For example, lack of sensitization leads to lack of motivation, poor supervision, and poor evaluation. For that reason training becomes critical for the success of the PEAP and any other development projects.
Transformational theories also state that inspirational motivation is crucial for excellent performance in organisations. Although there is some degree of motivation among LCs at sub-count level, this is only manifested in the higher ranks of LCIII and above. This is because at LCI or village level, the leaders are not paid for their services. Due to poor or no motivation, there is no vision about the PEAP and its benefits. As a result, corruption and bribery has also prevailed thus deepening the levels of poverty.

Since leadership is the capacity to translate vision into reality, transformational leaders offer intellectual stimulation which, according to the problem in the study area, would change negative attitudes and poor work methods. Transformation leaders stimulate their follower’s efforts to be innovative and creative thus, providing intellectual stimulation (IS). They do this by questioning assumptions, reframing problems and approaching old situations in new ways (Bass, 1985). By doing so, creativity is encouraged; new ideas and solution are solicited from followers, who are also included in the process of addressing problems and finding solutions.

Intellectual stimulation was thus translated into supervision. Respondents who thought that their community leaders were good at supervision stated that such leaders kept track of individual’s and development projects. Others stated that their leaders demonstrated how things should be done. Respondents also noted that their leaders should have done better if they had resources to efficiently carry out their work and those think leadership supervision is poor could not explain a thing leadership mode of supervision. On this note, lack of
creativity or intellectual capacity has partly deepened poverty the levels in Nakisunga parishes of Katente and Wankoba particularly. In other words, there is need for substantial plans and steer community development. However, community leaders are also faced with the challenge of leading lazy followers. Some people are just lazy and generally negative and ignorant about community development.

According to Chambers (1983) being negative and ignorant about ways of alleviating poverty is also a sign of poverty. As matter fact, most people are still ignorant about the PEAP activities. Worse still; they are ignorant about the MDGs. At the time of the study, it was noted that most people did not even know that achieving the MDGs or goals of the PEAP was for their own good. Goals were perceived as government or political objectives. For example, UPE was seen as political initiative for the Movement Party – NRM, given that president Museveni used the MGDs in his 2003 political campaigns.

It can be concluded that although poverty in Mukono District has partly been due to the incompetence of community leaders, politics plays a role in influencing the nature and performance of leadership in Uganda particularly at sub-county level. There is more to maintaining political seats than enabling followers to achieve community goals and objectives.

5.2 Conclusion

Poverty reduction in Mukono District can be understood in terms of indicators of poverty. From research data, poverty is a reflection of society-wide experience, including insecurity, the low quality of public services, and the limited availability of productive employment,
macroeconomic instability and the malfunctioning of markets, scarcity of health information, limited technical information available to society and primitive cultural practices.

In both sub-counties, accommodation was poor with Goma having more favourable conditions than Nakisungu. There was generally, poor access to transport; limited schools particularly government schools that were poorly facilitated and poor or limited access medical care, health information, and technical information available to society. These were similar for both sub-counties. There were indicators of unproductive employment. Although there were more employed individuals in Goma than in Nakisungu, the margin of difference was small. However, more males were employed than females.

There was also evidence of macroeconomic instability in the two sub-counties, with men having more access to loans than women. Thus, there are gender disparities in employment and access to economic opportunities. Poverty is also reflected in the, primitive social practices of witchcraft, human sacrifice, polygamy and early marriages. These have greatly impacted the increase of SGBV, HIV/AIDS and other STIs, high morbidity and mortality rates.

In other words, the poor are all those individuals in unfortunate living conditions, to include poor accommodation and sanitation, where mosquitoes, jiggers and other prey are common, and where diseases like malaria, typhoid and diarrhea are inevitable. The poor are also identified by their failure to access clean water, regular or no meals a day, unfulfilled
planned activity, poor agricultural methods, high levels of illiteracy, laziness and alcoholism. Additionally, communication is a big fuss, where absence of a mobile phone is an indicator of poverty.

Although Goma Sub-county is ranked high among the fast growing and well-to-do sub-counties in Mukono District, there is no statistical evidence to prove this claim. As already stated, the two sub-counties share common problems and challenges. Generally Goma’s accommodation and access to water, was more favourable than Nakisunga. However, Nakisunga’s crop production was more favourable than Goma’s.

In Mukono District community leadership is a reflection of influence, knowledge, skill and recognition form the community. From the different definitions given by different groups, community leaders are people who are not only knowledgeable in social affairs, but who are also influential decision-makers who are charged with particular responsibilities. Therefore, in Mukono District, a community leader is an individual who understands people’s needs, solves people’s problems, listens and speaks on behalf of others. It should be noted that the most recognized community in Mukono District were LCs at village level.

In conclusion, the belief that good leadership can be measured in terms of peoples’ being was proved as right. In Mukono District, part of the reason why the majorities are still poor is a result of bad leadership, particularly the desire to maintaining the political seat than enabling followers to achieve community goals and objectives. Community leadership is so
politicized in that leaders only concentrate on things that will keep them in power even when such things do not necessarily contribute to community development. In the process, good leadership is compromised to enable such leaders be elected again and again. As already stated there is too much political interference in community projects.

Secondly, at sub-county level, poverty is just imposed on people as may be interpreted by Multinational Cooperation’s (MNCs) such as the UN and World Bank; which institutions are in this case outsiders, therefore ignorance about the reality. International projects like MDGs do not necessarily fail because of community leaders, but because implementers and supposed beneficiaries have a different view of poverty and development. To the rural poor, development perhaps means being polygamous, having a mobile phone and being in position to buy alcohol for friends. To them such notions compete with basic needs (e.g. mosquito nets, hygiene and education).

In addition, empowering people with loans and other forms of donations has worsened the dependency burdens of the poor. As indicated by research, the poor become vulnerable instead of being independent and free. Obviously, donations are not value free. Donations are sugar coated with hidden agenda which is usually harsh for the rural poor.

Thirdly, the shoddy leadership role is also as a result of the non-defined nature of community leadership particularly LCs. At sub county level community leadership is characterized by lack of clear vision for community development and low or no payment for
services rendered. For instance, at the LCI level, the last national election was in 2002 and since then the terms of contract were not renewed moreover, the district allocates very little or no funds to local council interventions particularly, those at village level. Despite their substantial obligations for the community, LCs at village level have no administrative pay. As a result, such leaders often resort to accepting bribe and corruption becomes inevitable.

Lack of intervention by leaders has greatly contributed to the persistent levels of poverty. Leaders do not know their followers and the reverse is true. Moreover, Bass (1985) states that, transformation leaders pay special attention to each individual’s or follower’s needs, for achievement and growth, by acting as trainers or mentors. This is referred to as “individualized consideration (IC)”. They do so through interaction or participation (e.g motivation, supervision, sensitization, etc).

However, it is clear that there is certainly no interaction between leaders and followers; or perhaps that community leadership participation is poor at sub-county level. As already noted, household members could not assess the role of community leaders because they did not even know who their local leaders are. The most common interactions between leaders and followers at sub-county level, were village meetings which were in fact rare and only arranged to resolve domestic conflict of violence –SGBV. It is likely that parties who have no stake in such meetings would never know how deal with conflicts. Hence, it is not shocking that they could not easily identify their community leaders. This also implies that there is definitely poor communication between leaders and followers.
5.3 Recommendations

With regard to research findings, the following recommendations were made to improve the performance of community leaders towards poverty reduction in Mukono District. Although most of the suggestions were similar, only those related to previously stated challenges were considered for the study.

5.3.1 Respondent Recommendations

The recommendations are presented in the order of household members, LCs, District Administration, CBOs/NGOs and experts and development organizations.

(i) Recommendations by Household Members

Respondents at household level recommended that LCs should enact bylaws to effect national legislations related to poverty reduction at sub-county level as opposed to national policies which do not cater for differences in geographical settings. In turn, government should promote income generating activities for community leadership as well as households to boost income levels.

(ii) Recommendations by Local Councilors

The conclusion from discussions has been that LCs need to be able to deliver some services themselves in order to be able to provide community leadership. However, this would require the central government to remove direct responsibilities from councils and leave them lacking in core accountability as a result. The participants in this study were in agreement that local government needed to have direct responsibility for some services in order to be able to deliver community leadership more effectively.
LCs further recommended that adequate funding should be provided for poverty reduction projects/activities, as distinct from the general funding policies that are even difficult to account for at sub-county level. This should be done at parish or sub-county level because natural resources vary from place to place. The extra funding would also improve networking between the service providers and LCs, and other stakeholders.

At sub-county level, the PEAP is almost unheard of. It is basically understood in terms of UPE and NAADS. LCs were suggested that national leadership should build the capacity of PEAP coordination mechanisms at lower levels particularly, household level. Consecutively, the District Council should provide support supervision to sub-counties and CBOs. This could be done by increasing budgetary allocation for poverty reduction interventions at district and sub county levels.

(iii) Recommendations by CBOs/NGOs

Coordinators of CBOs/NGOs such as “NAADS” and “Send A Cow”, suggested that there is need to integrate CBOs interventions into the district/sub-county plans and budgets. This could also be cost saving in terms personnel and funding, and distribution of services. There is need to strengthen the Community Service Department particularly that of data management, with equipment and logistics to carry out monitoring, supervision, evaluation and other support activities.

Since women are the biggest part of the labour force in the rural sub-counties, they should be empowered through credit, education and be given land ownership privileges.
(iv) Recommendations by Experts and Development Organisations

It was suggested by the leadership scholars, in the group discussions, that leaders (LCs) and their followers should understand the foundation on which the community leadership role is founded. Perhaps it could be strengthened and placed more at the heart of local government’s role. At the same time, the community should be sensitised on the challenges of community leadership, their roles in solving them, and the essence of community development at parish or sub-county level.

It would therefore require service providers to have linkages with lower local governments in order to establish data collection systems on the leadership contribution to poverty reduction. Experts also encouraged that women should be equipped with skills and knowledge in business and tendering issues.

5.3. General Recommendations

Apart from those recommendations by the various categories of respondents, the following should be emphasised.

(a) There is need for a stronger legislative definition of community leadership than currently exists, or that local councils are subject to a duty of well-being, rather than simply a power. The government should strengthen the definition of community leadership to help LCs prioritise their activity locally and extend their role; provide clearer lines of accountability for partners and citizens; and provide a stronger indicator of central government’s intentions towards, and belief in, local government than to date. For example, religious leaders can no longer be confined to church in the degree once required or assumed. For religious leadership
to be relevant, it must get involved in a wide range of issues since the promotion of physical health can no longer be confirmed as formerly to physician and nurses.

An additional potential barrier identified during the study, is that in some cases, local agencies do not actually recognize their local authorities’ legitimacy to act as community leaders. Local partners, particularly in the NGOs and CBOs, may feel that councils do not adequately understand or respond to them. This result into breakdown in partnership working means, that is, local partners do not always recognise councils’ legitimacy to act as a community leader and to exercise influence over local agencies. Therefore, a committed effort needs to be put into partnership working and building good working relationships with all stakeholders of the PEAP.

(b) For community leadership or LCs to legitimise their claim to represent the whole local community, they must lead the way on individual engagement in order to genuinely understand diverse community needs. Individual engagement varies across different communities, with some making this a higher priority than others. To perform effective community leadership however, leaders should emphasise that achieving the goals is more of an individual benefit than a government mission.

(c) Lack of training presents many challenges to LCs and community development officers. This group needs to be prepared to move into new areas of activity and to take on new responsibilities. Politicians – in particular, council leaders and elected officials – need to provide high quality, visible and accountable leadership. All councilors will need a skill-set that
involves building effective local partnerships, understanding the local community and building suitable governance arrangements as well as participatory strategies. To achieve this, councilors and officers may need training and support, as well as strong messages from central government in order to build this capacity.

Training may also help community leadership in achieving the human development goal is prime for all the other objectives. Universal education was intended to enhance individual skills. However, inadequate facilities for sanitation in schools discourage girls especially adolescents from attending school. It is therefore mandatory to provide sex education to teenagers and if possible avail sanitary towels to girls who may shun school over such need.

(d) There is need to involve all dimensions of community leadership (religious, political and traditional leadership) in the poverty reduction campaign. This would give way to the emergence of talented and able leaders also needed in order to meet the goals of the PEAP i.e. aims in a strategic setting and in ensuring services meet new requirements.

If local authorities’ main role is to act as community leaders, then the role of monitoring and supervision must be understood and reflected in the development of projects. If monitoring is to continue to be relevant and helpful to local authorities, the district council may need to design a methodology that adequately evaluates community leadership and gives room for local variation and decision-making in accordance with priorities. This evaluation will perhaps help in evaluating whether councils are delivering local priorities in the short and long run.

(e) In addition, there should be more joint inspections across CBOs involved in local initiatives,
and a greater flexibility of community leadership to reflect partnership working at the local level. Research findings have already acknowledged that the community leadership role of local authorities should be assessed in inspections after implementation of poverty reduction projects.

 Regarding the size and structure of councils, there needs to be some consideration of how the size and structure of LCs fit with existing geographical setting. The question of organisation and the capacity for local authorities to act as community leaders is particularly dependent on available resources as wells the means to man them. Such policies should be designed between local government and central government.

 Obviously, it is not possible to enhance economic opportunities without addressing the poor infrastructure in the sub-counties of Goma and Nakisunga. During the study, certain questions were left unresolved in relation to the insufficient public services such as schools, health facilities and transport issues in the sub-counties. If community leadership is to lead community development, there needs to be some consideration of how their population size fit with existing public services. The question of whether Mukono District will achieve the goals of PEAP and MDGs by 2015 and 2017 consecutively is significant particularly on the human development index such as universal education and access to health services.

 Finally, disaster management should issue legal requirements for all community leaders to protect the environment. Environment is everything that surrounds man such as air soil, Animals, plants human beings and man made elements.
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APPENDIX B

RESPONDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Introductory Letter
Dear Respondent,

I am a student carrying out an academic study on “Community Leadership and Poverty Reduction in Uganda, the case of the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) in Mukono District”, in partial fulfillment for the award of a Master of Arts’ Degree, in Leadership and Human Relations Studies (M.A LHS) of Makerere University.

The study is strictly for academic purposes and I kindly request that you provide accurate information that will enable the researcher to obtain quality data. All information given will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thank you for your co-operation.
Namutebi Lydia
(Researcher).
Questionnaire for CBO and NGO Staff

Instructions: Fill in the blank spaces provided.
Tick the appropriate responses.

A) Background information
1. Name of organization .................................................................
2. Position/job title in the organization ...........................................
3. Sub-county of operation..................................................................
4. Duration of operation.............. years (from.......... to ........)
5. Gender
   i) Male  ii) Female
6. Highest academic qualification
   i) P.L.E  ii) Certificate (UCE & UACE)  iii) Diploma
   iv) Degree  v) Post Graduate Diploma  vii) Post Graduate Degree
   v) Others (specify).................................................................

B) Economic/poverty status of the sub-county
8. What are the main economic activities in the sub-county? a) What are the main economic opportunities in the sub-county:
   i. Biophysical (e.g. soil fertility, climate)
   ii. Infrastructural (e.g. roads, electricity)
   iii. Socio-cultural (e.g. ethnic unity, religious tolerance)
   b) What are the main development challenges in the sub-county?
   iv. Biophysical
   v. Infrastructural
   vi. Socio-cultural
9. Household incomes in the sub-county from 2004 to 2008 have:
   i. Risen  ii) Stagnated  iii) Fallen

10. Explain the causes of your answer in Qn 7 above.
11. if household incomes stagnated or fell, suggest solutions to:
   i. Household income stagnation:
   ii. Falling household incomes:

C) Roles and performance of community leaders in PEAP
13a) Who, according to you, is a community leader?
14. Which of the following roles did community leaders play in the PEAP in the sub-county?
   i) Sensitization  ii) Motivation  iii) Training
   iv) Supervision  v) Monitoring  vi) Evaluation
15. Rate the performance of community leaders in each of the above roles in the sub-county.
   i) Sensitization  Very good  Good  Average  Poor
   ii) Motivation: Very good  Good  Average  Poor
   iii) Training: Very good  Good  Average  Poor
   iv) Supervision: Very good  Good  Average  Poor
   v) Monitoring: Very good  Good  Average  Poor
   vi) Evaluation: Very good  Good  Average  Poor

16. List the Strengths and weaknesses of community leaders in the PEAP implementation in the sub-county.
   a) Strengths

17. What challenges did your organization face in dealing with community leaders in the sub-county?

D) Strategies for better community leadership

18. Suggest ways/means of exploiting the development opportunities in the sub-county.
   i. Biophysical (e.g. soil fertility, climate)
   ii. Infrastructural (e.g. roads, electricity)
      iii) Socio-cultural (e.g. ethnic unity, religious tolerance)

19. Suggest means/ways of overcoming the development challenges in the sub-county. (see sect. in B 9b above)?
   i. Biophysical (e.g. soil fertility, climate)
   iv. Infrastructural (e.g. roads, electricity)
   v. Socio-cultural (e.g. ethnic unity, religious tolerance)

20. Suggest ways and means of:
   a) Enhancing the strengths of community leaders in the sub-county:
   b) Minimising the weaknesses of community leaders in the sub-county:

19. Suggest ways/means of overcoming the challenges faced by your organisation in it’s dealing with community leaders in the sub-county (see Section C Qn. 15).

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<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Solution</th>
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**Questionnaire for Experts and Development Organizations**

**Instructions:** Fill in the blank spaces provided.
Tick the appropriate responses.

**A) Background information**
1. Name of organization .................................................................
2. Position/job title in the organization ...........................................
3. Sub-county of operation............................................................... 
4. Duration of operation in the sub-county.................years (from...... to ......)
5. Gender
   i) Male                                          ii) Female
6. Highest academic qualification
   i) P.L.E               ii) Certificate (UCE & UACE) iii) Diploma 
   iv) Degree               v) Post Graduate Diploma vii)Post Graduate Degree 
   v) Others (specify)...................................................................... 
7. Age group
   52-58         45-51            38-44     31-37  24-30          23-17

**B) Poverty in Uganda**
8. What is your definition of poverty? 9. What is your definition of absolute poverty?
10 In your opinion, what percentage of Ugandans lives in absolute poverty? 11a) List the causes of 
poverty in Uganda? i).................................................................................................
b) Suggest the possible solutions to each of the above causes in the same order.

**C) Role of community leaders in the PEAP**
12. What is your definition of a community leader? 13. List categories of community leaders in Uganda:
14 What roles would you expect a community leader to play in the implementation of the PEAP in a rural sub-county?
15a) Are you familiar with the performance of community leaders in the implementation of the PEAP in any sub-county in Uganda?
   Yes □ No □
   b) If yes,
   i) name the sub-county:..................................................................................
   ii) Name the strengths of the community leaders in the implementation of PEAP in the sub-county:

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iii) Name the weaknesses
16 Suggest ways/means of:
a) Enhancing the strengths of the community leaders listed above (Qn 12ii).
b) Overcoming the weaknesses of the community leaders listed above (Qn 12iii)

**Questionnaire for Household Members**

**Instructions:** Fill in the blank spaces provided.
Tick the appropriate responses.

**A) Background information**

1. Sub-county of operation……………………………………
2. Parish/village name ………………………………………
3. Sex   i) Male   ii) Female
6. Age group  52-58  45-51  38-44  31-37  24-30  23-17

**B) Economic/ Poverty status of the household**

7. State the number of people in your household ........................................
8. What are the development opportunities and challenges at household level?
   i) Opportunities
   vi. Biophysical (e.g. soil fertility, climate)
   vii. Infrastructural (e.g. roads, electricity)
   viii. Socio-cultural (e.g. ethnic unity, religious tolerance)
   ii) Challenges
   ix. Biophysical (e.g. soil fertility, climate)
   x. Infrastructural (e.g. roads, electricity)
   xi. Socio-cultural (e.g. ethnic unity, religious tolerance)
9. Which economic activities are members of household involved?
10. What is the size of your household land (owned, rented)?
11. State the average annual income and expenditure (2004-2008)
   i) Income........................................................................................................
   ii) Expenditure....................................................................................................
12. Have members of your household participated in the PEAP?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]

13. Which particular activity have members of your household participated in?
14. What is the impact of the PEAP activities on your household income (2004-2008)
15. Which challenges have you faced in engaging in the PEAP activities?

C) Role of community leaders in the PEAP
16. Who is a community leader? 17. What are the categories of community leaders according to
you?
18. What are the roles played by community leaders in the PEAP activities e.g.
   i) Sensitization [ ] ii) Motivation [ ] iii) Training [ ]
   iv) Supervision [ ] v) Monitoring [ ] vi) Evaluation [ ]

19. Rate the performance of community leaders in each of the above roles, in the sub-county.
   i) Sensitization: Very good [ ] Good [ ] Average [ ] Poor [ ]
   ii) Motivation: Very good [ ] Good [ ] Average [ ] Poor [ ]
   iii) Training: Very good [ ] Good [ ] Average [ ] Poor [ ]
   iv) Supervision: Very good [ ] Good [ ] Average [ ] Poor [ ]
   v) Monitoring: Very good [ ] Good [ ] Average [ ] Poor [ ]
   vi) Evaluation: Very good [ ] Good [ ] Average [ ] Poor [ ]

20. List the Strengths and weaknesses of community leaders in the PEAP implementation in the sub-
   county.
   b) Strengths
   c) Weaknesses

D) Strategies for better community leadership
19. Suggest means/ways of exploiting the development opportunities in the sub-county.
   xii. Biophysical (e.g. soil fertility, climate)
   xiii. Infrastructural (e.g. roads, electricity)
      iii) Socio-cultural (e.g. ethnic unity, religious tolerance)
   19. Suggest means/ways of overcoming the development challenges in the sub-county. (see sect. in
B 9b) above)?
   xiv. Biophysical (e.g. soil fertility, climate)
   xv. Infrastructural (e.g. roads, electricity)
   xvi. Socio-cultural (e.g. ethnic unity, religious tolerance)
   20. Suggest ways and means of:
      c) Enhancing the strengths of community leaders in the sub-county:
      d) Minimising the weaknesses of community leaders in the sub-county:
   8. Suggest ways/means of overcoming the challenges faced by your organisation in it’s dealing
with community leaders in the sub-county (see Section C Qn. 15).
Questionnaire for Local Councilors

Instructions: Fill in the blank spaces provided.
Tick the appropriate responses.

A) Background information

1. Sub-county of operation .................................................................
2. Parish/village name .................................................................
3. Leadership title/position ...........................................................

4. Sex
   i) Male □
   ii) Female □

5. Marital status
   i) Single □
   ii) Engaged □
   iii) Widowed □
   iv) Married □
   v) Divorced □

6. Age group
   52-58 □
   45-51 □
   38-44 □
   31-37 □
   24-30 □
   23-17 □

7. Have you received any leadership training?
   Yes □
   No □

   (a) If yes, state the type of training

B) Economic/ Poverty status of the community

8. What are the main economic activities in the sub-county?
9. a) What are the main economic opportunities in the sub-county?
   a) Biophysical (e.g. soil fertility, climate)
   b) Infrastructural (e.g. roads, electricity)
   c) Socio-cultural (e.g. ethnic unity, religious tolerance)
   b) What are the main development challenges in the sub-county?
   a) Biophysical
   b) Infrastructural
   c) Socio-cultural

10. State the reason(s) for the increase in poverty levels (2004-2008) in your sub-county?
11. What are the challenges faced by community leaders in the sub-county?
12. Discuss the possible solutions to the challenges in 11 above?
13. Have members of your community participated in the PEAP?
   Yes □
   No □

14. Which particular activity(ies) have members of your community participated in?
15. State the impact of the PEAP activities on the community (2004-2008)
16. Which challenges have you faced in the PEAP activities?
C) Role of community leaders in the PEAP

17a) Who, according to you, is a community leader?
b) What categories of community leaders are there in the sub-county?

12. Which of the following roles did community leaders play in the PEAP in the sub-county?
i) Sensitization ii) Motivation iii) Training
iv) Supervision v) Monitoring vi) Evaluation

13. Rate the performance of community leaders in each of the above roles, in the sub-county.
i) Sensitization: Very good Good Average Poor
ii) Motivation: Very good Good Average Poor
iii) Training: Very good Good Average Poor
iv) Supervision: Very good Good Average Poor
v) Monitoring: Very good Good Average Poor
vi) Evaluation: Very good Good Average Poor

14. List the Strengths and weaknesses of community leaders in the PEAP implementation in the sub-county.
d) Strengths
e) Weaknesses

D) Strategies for better community leadership

15. Suggest ways/means of exploiting the development opportunities in the sub-county.
d. Biophysical (e.g. soil fertility, climate)
e. Infrastructural (e.g. roads, electricity)
f. Socio-cultural (e.g. ethnic unity, religious tolerance)

17. Suggest means/ways of overcoming the development challenges in the sub-county. (see sect. in B above)?
g. Biophysical (e.g. soil fertility, climate)
h. Infrastructural (e.g. roads, electricity)
i. Socio-cultural (e.g. ethnic unity, religious tolerance)

18. Suggest ways and means of:
d) Enhancing the strengths of community leaders in the sub-county:
e) Minimising the weaknesses of community leaders in the sub-county:

19. Suggest ways/means of overcoming the challenges faced by your organisation in it’s dealing with community leaders in the sub-county (see Section C Qn. 15).

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<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Solution</th>
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**Questionnaire for members of Mukono District Council**

**Instructions:** *Fill in the blank spaces provided.
Tick the appropriate responses.*

**D) Background information**

1. Leadership title/position ................................................................. 

2. Sex  
   i) Male   [ ]  
   ii) Female [ ]

3. Marital status  
   i) Single [ ]  
   ii) Engaged [ ]  
   iii) Widowed [ ]
   iv) Married [ ]  
   v) Divorced [ ]

11. Age group  

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<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>52-58</td>
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<td>45-51</td>
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<td>23-17</td>
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12. Have you received any leadership training?  
   Yes [ ]  
   No [ ]

**3. Economic/ Poverty status of the community**

13. What are the main economic activities in Mukono District.?  
14. a) What are the main economic opportunities in Mukono District.?  
   a) Biophysical (e.g. soil fertility, climate)  
   a) Infrastructural (e.g. roads, electricity)  
   b) Socio-cultural (e.g. ethnic unity, religious tolerance)  
   b) What are the main development challenges in Mukono District.?  
   a) Biophysical  
   b) Infrastructural  
   c) Socio-cultural  
15. State the reason (s) for the increase in poverty levels (2004-2008) in Mukono District.  
16. Discuss the possible solutions to the challenges in 11 above?  
17. Have members of your community participated in the PEAP?  
   Yes [ ]  
   No [ ]

18. Which particular activity(ies) have members of your community participated in?  
19. State the impact of the PEAP activities on the district (2004-2008)  
16. Which challenges have you faced in the PEAP activities?

**4. Role of community leaders in the PEAP**  
17a) Who, according to you, is a community leader?  
17b) What categories of community leaders are there in Mukono District.?  
12. Which of the following roles did community leaders play in the PEAP in Mukono District?  
   i) Sensitization [ ]  
   ii) Motivation [ ]  
   iii) Training [ ]  
   iv) Supervision [ ]  
   v) Monitoring [ ]  
   vi) Evaluation [ ]
13. Rate the performance of community leaders in each of the above roles, in the sub-county.
   i) Sensitization: Very good Good Average Poor
   ii) Motivation: Very good Good Average Poor
   iii) Training: Very good Good Average Poor
   iv) Supervision: Very good Good Average Poor
   v) Monitoring: Very good Good Average Poor
   vi) Evaluation: Very good Good Average Poor

14. List the Strengths and weaknesses of community leaders in the PEAP implementation in Mukono District.
   f) Strengths
   g) Weaknesses

D) Strategies for better community leadership
16. Suggest ways/means of exploiting the development opportunities in Mukono District.
   a) Biophysical (e.g. soil fertility, climate)
   c) Infrastructural (e.g. roads, electricity)
   d) Socio-cultural (e.g. ethnic unity, religious tolerance)
17. Suggest means/ways of overcoming the development challenges in Mukono District. (see sect. in B above)?
   a) Biophysical (e.g. soil fertility, climate)
   b) Infrastructural (e.g. roads, electricity)
   c) Socio-cultural (e.g. ethnic unity, religious tolerance)
18. Suggest ways and means of:
   a) Enhancing the strengths of community leaders in Mukono District.
   b) Minimising the weaknesses of community leaders in Mukono District.
9. Suggest ways/means of overcoming the challenges faced by the District council in its dealing with community leaders in the sub-county (see Section C Qn. 15).

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<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Solution</th>
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