COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT: THE CASE OF AMURU DISTRICT, UGANDA

OOLA DONATO OLAM

05/U/081/MP

DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT DEGREE OF GULU UNIVERSITY

DECLARATION

This is to declare that this dissertation is a product of my own work and has never been presented at any institution for academic or any other award before.

Oola Donato Olam
Researcher



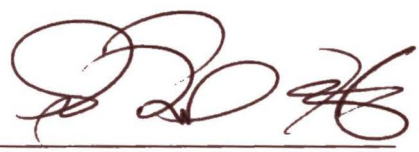
Signature

26-09-2013
Date

APPROVAL

This dissertation is a product of the work I have supervised and guided and is now approved for presentation at the Institute of Research and Post Graduate Studies for further examination.

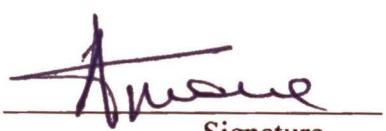
Paul Onyango-Delewa
Supervisor



Signature

27092013
Date

Dr. Amone Charles
Supervisor



Signature

08/10/2013
Date

DEDICATION

The start and final compilation of this research dissertation was not an easy task. A lot of time was spent in the data collection process. This time was devoted at the expense of attending to other issues or priorities; one of those priorities was attending to my family members. Since they missed those times, I therefore dedicate this piece of work to them.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The final compilation of this dissertation was not an easy task. However, because of the contributions of a number of personalities, it became a reality. I must therefore acknowledge their exclusive contributions this achievement. First, my supervisors; Mr. Paul Onyango-Delewa and Dr. Amone Charles, lecturers at the Faculties of Business and Development Studies (FBDS), and Education and Humanities, respectively, of Gulu University. I recognize your constructive guidance given to me during the momentous research process.

Second, I cannot forget the cooperation accorded to me by Amuru District Local Government leaders. I observe the notable contribution; of amongst others, the Chief Administrative Officer, the Chief Finance Officer, the District Planner and the District Community Development Officer, and the various Sub-County leaders. Sub-County chiefs, their Community Development Officers (CDOs), and parish chiefs of all the parishes are acknowledged. Thanks so much for your support and cooperation during the hefty data collection process.

Third, I recognize the contributions of my close friends Mr. Tingo Joseph, Mr. Okello George Gem and Mr. Otim Filbert Baijuki. It is because of frequent sharing of encouraging and useful information with you people that I was greatly inspired to complete this dissertation.

Typing this work could not have been an easy task. I therefore acknowledge the tireless effort of Madam Concy Lapai in putting the research work into a meaningful document form.

Last but in no way least, was the special contribution of Mr. Ocira Geoffrey whom we jointly carried out the proof- reading of the entire research write-up before producing the final copy.

May the good Lord bless you all.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AGFOA-Uganda Government Finance Officers Association

APRM-African Peer Review Mechanism

CAO – Chief Administrative Officer

CBPM-Community Based Participatory Management

CDO – Community Development Officer

CLTS – Community- Led Total Sanitations

DDP – District Development Plan

FY – Financial Year

GDP-Gross Domestic Product

HC-Health Centre

HDI – Human Development Index

HLG – Higher Local Government

HOD-Heads of Department

HSSP-Health Sector Strategic Plan

ISH-Improved Sanitation and Hygiene

KM - Kilometers

LC – Local Council

LG – Local Government

LGA-Local Government Autonomy

LGTA-Local Government Traditional Affairs

LLG – Lower Local Government

MDG''s-Millennium Development Goals

MoH- Ministry of Health

NEPAD-New Partnership for African Development

NGO – Non Governmental Organization

NSG- National Sanitation Guidelines

NSPs – Non-State Providers

NWSC - National Water and Sewerage Corporation

OP-Operational Plan

PAC – Public Accounts Committee

PDC – Parish Development Committee

PEAP-Poverty Eradication Action Plan

PETS-Public Expenditure Tracking Survey

SIP-Sanitation Investment Plan

STPC – Sub County Technical Planning Committee

TQM-Total Quality Management

UGFOA – Uganda Government Finance Officers Association

UNDP – United Nations Development Programme

VHT's-Village Health Teams

WASH-Water and Sanitation

WHO-World Health Organization

WSP – Water and Sanitation Program

WSP-Water Service Point

LIST OF FIGURES

1.1 - Conceptual Framework

4.1- Educational Status

4.2 - Marital Status

4.3 - Positions Occupied

4.4 - Participants Department

LIST OF TABLES

4.1 - Instrument Reliability-Test Findings

4.2 - Participants Gender

4.3 - Participants Age

4.4 - Educational Status

4.5 - Marital Status

4.6 - Position Occupied

4.7 - Period Served under Rank

4.8 - Participants Department

4.9 - Participants Gender

4.10 - Participants Age-Educational Status

4.11 - Participants Age-Position Occupied

4.12 - Educational Status-Position Occupied

4.13 - Variables-Descriptive Statistics

4.14 - Variable-ANOVA

4.15 - Pearson's Correlation Coefficient

4.16 - Model Coefficient

4.17 - Model Summary

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION ..... *ii*

APPROVAL ..... *iii*

DEDICATION ..... *iv*

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT ..... *v*

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS ..... *vi*

LIST OF FIGURES ..... *viii*

LIST OF TABLES ..... *ix*

ABSTRACT ..... *xiii*

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND *1*

1.1 - Introduction *1*

1.2 – Background to the Problem *2*

1.3 – Statement of the Problem *4*

1.4 – Purpose of the Study *5*

1.4.1 – Objectives of the Study *5*

1.5 – Research Questions *5*

1.6 – Conceptual Framework *6*

1.6.1 – Variable Operationalization *7*

1.7 - Scope of the Study *7*

1.8 - Significance of the Study *8*

1.9 - Limitations and Delimitations of the Study *9*

10.0 - Assumption of the study *9*

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW.....10

2.1 – Introduction *10*

2.2 – Service Delivery *10*

2.2.1 – Production and Productivity *12*

2.2.2 – Hygiene and Sanitation *15*

2.2.3 - Water Accessibility *18*

2.2.4 – Health Services *20*

2.2.5 – Literacy Rate *21*

2.3 – Community Participation *22*

2.3.1 Planning and Budgeting *27*

2.3.2 – Resource Mobilization *29*

2.3.3 – Monitoring and Evaluation *30*

2.4 – Local Government Autonomy *31*

2.5 – Employee Morale *33*

2.6 – Central Government Policy *34*

2.7 – Regulation *35*

2.8 – Security *36*

2.9 – Politics *37*

***CHAPTER* : METHODOLOGY** **38**

3.1 - Introduction *39*

3.2 – Research Design *39*

3.3 – Study Population *39*

3.4 – Sampling Procedures *40*

3.5– Sample Size *40*

3.6 – Data Collection: Methods and Instruments *41*

3.7 - Instruments Validity and Reliability *41*

3.8- Data Analysis *42*

3.9 - Ethical Considerations *42*

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION **43**

4.1 – Introduction *43*

4.2 – Instrument Consistence Concerns *43*

4.3 – Participant Biographical Characteristics *44*

4.4 – Variable Descriptive Statistics *53*

4.5 – Study Variable Inferential Statistics *56*

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS *61*

5.1 – Introduction *61*

5.2 – Conclusion *61*

5.3 – Recommendations *63*

REFERENCES *66*

APPENDIX I *72*

APPENDIX II: BUDGET *79*

ABSTRACT

This study examines community participation and service delivery in local government (LG) taking Amuru District operations as a case study. Amuru is one of the LGs located in the Acholi sub-region, northern Uganda East Africa. The research principle objective was to explore relationships between planning and budgeting, resource mobilization, and between monitoring and evaluation and service delivery. A relevant review of related literature was carried out in line with identified objectives and research questions. The data were generated from scholarly journals, government publications, and text books among other sources. Relevant comparisons were made to establish relationships and gaps as the main methods guide upon which questionnaire, interviews and documents review were developed to help in data collection. The study employed a sample of 82 participants picked from a population constituting different employee categories of the district. Various findings were obtained but the most salient ones included: that the district's ability to deliver services falls short of the expected central government requirements in light of the decentralization policy. The research also found a gap in the planning and budgeting process in view of service provision considerations. The study also found resource mobilization strategy quite weak thus rendering the provision of essential services somehow difficult. Basic services expected to be rendered to communities were found largely inadequate. Monitoring and the level of community participation are low leading to poor service delivery. Conclusion and recommendations were drawn based on the gaps identified during the study process. Recommendations are addressed to policy makers, the government and other stakeholders.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 - Introduction

Provision of quality and adequate service delivery in the public sector is the goal of most governments across the globe. Consequently, large amounts of resources are budgeted for and injected into relevant institutions on annual basis to realize the dream (Lubale & Wereta, 2006; Mwaniki & Mwangi, 2001). Previous empirical studies conducted in developing countries particularly in the Sub-Saharan African (SSA) region (e.g. Agaba, 2005; Boneyet, 2008; Oluyebe, 2004) suggest that despite the large resource amounts committed, the level of service delivery offered remains quite poor. Most studies attribute the problem to internal weaknesses in the basic resource management mechanisms themselves; that is to say, it is largely a governance issue. To this end, a number of countries in the SSA region have adopted decentralized system of governance as a possible solution in addressing the problem. Mwaniki and Mwangi (2001) and Thomson et al (2005) consider service delivery as the provision of relevant public goods and services to the community as a constitutional and agency framework requirement.

At local government (LG) level, literature (e.g. Latim & Ojara, 2010; Mayiga, 2002; Mwaniki & Mwangi, 2001) associates it with; amongst other factors, production and productivity, hygiene and sanitation, provision of water and health services and steps taken to increase literacy rates in the community. Studies conducted in many parts of Africa including Uganda (cf Draft National Policy Framework for Public Participation in Uganda, 2005) claim satisfactory services cannot be achieved unless relevant community participation is involved.

Specifically factors such as planning and budgeting, resource mobilization and monitoring and evaluation must be critically considered (Agaba, 2008). Prior research (e.g. Carothers, 2005; Ojangole, 2003) has also shown that entity autonomy working hand-in-hand with employee's morale within suitable government policy, regulation, security and politics are important. Much as the existing studies seem largely inconclusive on the right course of action public planners Sub-Saharan African LGs, empirical evidence indicates that the problem is still rampant. In Uganda; for instance, the problem remains unresolved in most parts of the country (Ojangole, 2003; Uganda Debt Network, 2011). This study examines service delivery issues in Amuru District; one of the LGs located in the recently war-ravaged northern parts of Uganda.

1.2 – Background to the Problem

The vision of the Ministry of Local Government (MoLG) in Uganda is to have democratic and accountable LGs (Local Government Act, 1997). Such a structure is capable of delivering efficient and sustainable services to the people thereby contributing to socio-economic transformation of the country (Local Government Act, 1997; MoLG, 2011). As a way of trying to achieve the vision, the above legislation was essentially to provide a framework of ensuring democratic participation in and control of decision-making by the people concerned as well as to establish a democratic, political and gender-sensitive administrative set-up in local government (MoLG, 2011). This is also a key strategy to re-orient government toward greater democracy and active local participation in national affairs.

The 2004 World Development Report on the country noted that essential to the well-being of all people are the effective delivery of basic services. These include health, education, water and sanitation, and road transportation.

The report further proposes the adoption of an accountability model approach to service delivery that involves three groups of stakeholders: (i) citizens, as clients, influence policymakers; (ii) policy-makers influence service providers; which in turn (iii) deliver services to the citizens who are also clients of the services. This suggestion was as a result of widespread evidence showing that services are failing poor people in a large number of countries with negative impacts on human development outcomes.

Service delivery failures result when any of the relationships between the clients and policymakers break down. For instance, service failures may occur when citizens are unable to influence public action through the long route of accountability, when there is non-payment of salaries to service providers or when there are difficulties in implementing services, such as poorly trained or absent teachers, part of the short route of accountability (Government of Uganda, 2010; Mukasa & Otimong, 2008).

One way in which improvements in service delivery have been implemented has been through various forms of community participation: direct service provision by communities, contracting by communities to service providers, new mechanisms for holding public and Non-State Providers (NSPs) accountable for services (Ojangole, 2003; Lubale & Wereta, 2006). The connections between various forms of community participation and effective systems of service delivery can be assessed in a variety of ways, including improvements in basic human development indicators, such as those set out in international development goals, notably the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Amuru district was carved out of the giant Gulu district in 2006 ideally to facilitate easy accessibility of the above-said services to the local people (Gulu District, 2006; New Vision, 2008). Much as the district authorities have over the years tried to battle challenges of production and productivity, hygiene and sanitation, water accessibility, health and education, such efforts have not yielded completely satisfactory results. Amuru District Development Plan (DDP) and other forms of literature also associate the issue to community participation and limited autonomy (Amuru DDP, 2006/2007-2008/2009; Ministry of Local Government, 2010). This implies that the problem is yet to be fixed.

1.3 - Statement of the Problem

In many instances the provision of services in Amuru district has been very slow, and has not met the expectations of the poor people, who perceive local government officials to be self-serving and neglectful of their needs (Uganda Radio Network, 2011). ACODE (2010) on the performance and quality of service delivery in the district showed evidence of poor road networks as well as poor health and education facilities. The district annual budget reports frequently acknowledge shortcomings in the manner services are rendered to the people (Amuru District Annual Budgets, 2008/2009, 2009/2010). Production capacity is quite low, and most of the areas in the district do not have access to safe drinking water (ACODE, 2010; Amuru District Annual Budget, 2010/2011). Incidentally, central government claims that annual grant remittances made to the district are quite substantial and it estimates that with local collections made and any other support; say, from the donor community, services are expected to be adequate (Ministry of Local Government policy statement, 2009/2010; Uganda Debt Network, 2006).

The difference in expectation may therefore be closely linked with the manner planning and budgetary activities are carried out, resources mobilized and ultimately monitored and evaluated (New Vision, 2009; Latim & Ojara, 2010).

The other line of empirical thought (e.g. Oyet, 2001; Mwenda, 2005) identifies the problem with lack of autonomy and demoralized employees. Others believe that central government policy is not flexible enough especially in areas of regulation, as well as the influence of local politics (Mayinga, 2002; Orono, 2006). Northern Uganda; by and large, is now quite safe and stable since the end of the 1987-2007 civil war between Joseph Kony's Lord Resistance Army rebels and government forces. Based on this, currently security may not constitute any significant issue of concern (Oyet, 2000; Lobo, 2008) and therefore the focus is to examine the problem in the context of internal workings of the district system.

1.4 – Purpose of the Study

This study examined the relationship between community participation and service delivery in Amuru District.

1.4.1 – Objectives of the Study

1. To explore the relationship between planning and budgeting and service delivery.
2. To analyze the relationship between resource mobilization and service delivery.
3. To investigate the relationship between monitoring and evaluation and service delivery.

1.5 – Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between planning and budgeting and service delivery?
2. What is the relationship between resource mobilization and service delivery?
3. What is the relationship between monitoring and evaluation and service delivery?

1.6 – Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework constitutes a set of broad ideas and principles taken from relevant fields of enquiry and used to structure a subsequent presentation (Reichel & Ramey, 1987). When clearly articulated, the framework has potential usefulness as a tool to scaffold research and ultimately to assist researchers make meaning of subsequent findings. Miles and Huberman (1994) identify the framework with a written or visual presentation employed in explaining; either graphically or in narrative form, the main study constructs under investigation and their inter-relationships. Figure 1.1 is a presentation of our conceptual framework.

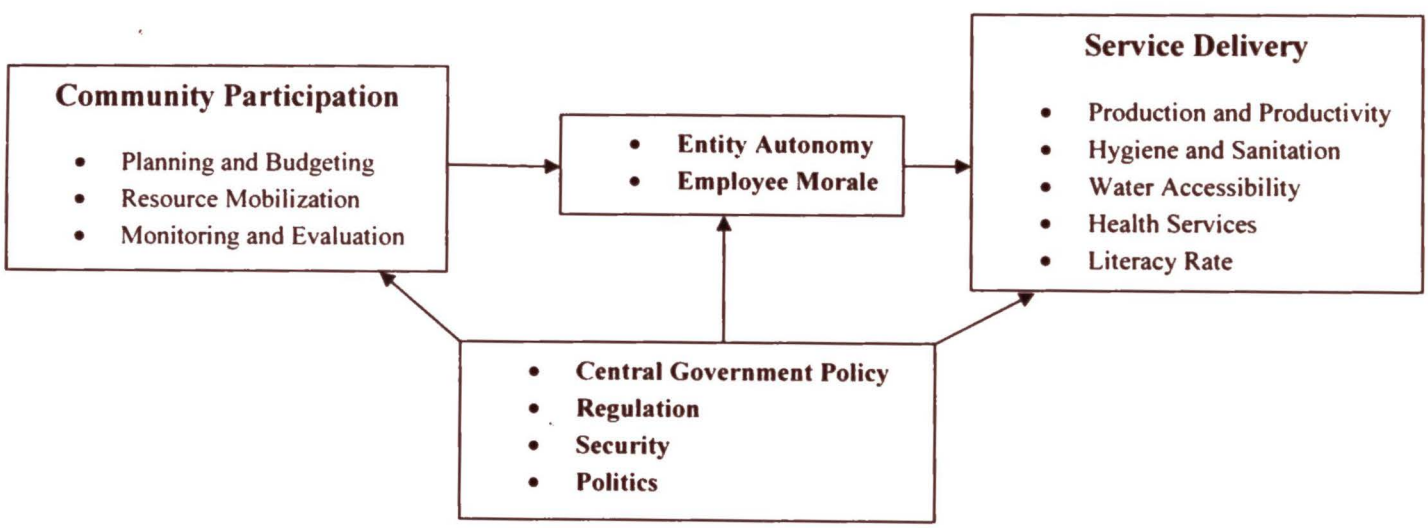


Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework

Source: Literature Review.

1.6.1 – Variable Operationalization

From Figure 1.1, community participation is the independent variable of the study. It is explained in terms of planning and budgeting, resource mobilization and monitoring and evaluation factors. Collectively, such factors are believed capable of explaining changes in the dependent variable service delivery (SD). The latter variable is the problem matter of the study. Public service delivery literature (e.g. Maya, 2004; Oluoch, 1998; World Bank, 2011) operationalizes the service delivery variable by production and productivity, hygiene and sanitation, water accessibility, health services, and literacy rate elements. Entity autonomy and employee morale are intervening variables of the study while central government policy, regulation, security and politics are considered moderators.

1.7 - Scope of the Study

The study was conducted in Amuru district, northern Uganda, East Africa. Its main focus was to establish the relationships between service delivery and between community participation. The investigation was particularly directed on the activities carried out within the district in the period 2006 - 2011 in respect of the two factors. Local government literature in Uganda (e.g. Amuru District, 2008, 2010; World Bank, 2010) associates the period with significant changes in service delivery in the LG in relation to community involvement ever since its creation from Gulu District in 2001 by the central government.

1.8 - Significance of the Study

The study was meant to bridge the public service delivery-community participation literature gap dominant in Uganda. This will empower district councils across the country's LGs to come up with appropriate and working ordinances and bye-laws relevant to enhance provision of quality service delivery through the active involvement of the community.

It was also perceived that such empirical work will be useful to district technical planning committees (DTPCs). They are expected to appreciate technical gaps and come up with well defined strategies that may overcome obstacles to the attainment of quality service delivery through increased community participation during the discharge of duties by technical officers.

Additionally, the investigation was meant to support development partners (the donor community) and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) working in partnership with LG authorities to identify for intervention areas. This allows them respond strategically in support to increased and meaningful participation of the community. The information will also help them strengthen coordination within themselves and the various sectors of the LG while responding to identified needs of the community.

Findings from this study was deemed useful to Government of Uganda (GoU) since they provide an opportunity in reviewing key aspects of the decentralization policy. They enable GoU strategically allocate resources both through the LGs and development partners.

Other LGs should benefit from the study findings especially when it comes to application of its recommendations as they try to tailor them to their own situations. Such a comparison can make them borrow leave and address some of their problems that are directly related.

Finally the study was meant to benefit the research community and the broad literature body through additional literature on community participation and its linkages with service delivery in local governments particularly those in Uganda. It enriches the knowledge body by suggesting areas of further research in this area of public life.

1.9 - Limitations of the Study

Carrying on this study was frequently interrupted by several challenges but data accessibility and protection stand out as the most critical. Some data are classified and it was quite difficult in accessing them. Tact, skill and rapport (e.g. Amin, 2006; Kothari, 2004) were useful in obtaining relevant information from the authorities.

1.10 - Assumption of the study

Within a management context, focusing on performance helps an organization set expectations and reinforce what almost everyone would agree is a solid approach to decision making (Agaba, 2002; Reichel & Ramey, 1987). Performance management is not a unique strategy, but simply an essential component of good management (Mayinga, 2002; Orono, 2006). On the other hand, the assumption of financial reporting assists in fulfilling government's duty to be publicly accountable. This enables users to assess accountability, evaluate the operating results of the government entity for the year and also assess the level of services that can be provided by the government entity and its ability to meet its obligations as they become due (Somarriba et al, 1999). This study was founded on such theoretical underpinnings as its key assumptions to relate what takes place in LG public service delivery and how community participation impacts it.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 – Introduction

Numerous studies have been conducted on service delivery in government and its sub-national entities globally and many in the developing world too. Africa most of whose countries are also embracing that concept largely driven by conditions of their economic and political financiers now sees the phenomenon as quite relevant. In Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA); the region, to which Uganda belongs, however, is not very much investigated on that area.

The sections that follow is a review of related literature on service delivery as it obtains in Uganda's local governments generally and in its northern district of Amuru in particular over the years. The review involves examining how service delivery may be related to community participation and how such a relationship is influenced by autonomy and employee perspectives. Other factors such as politics, regulation, security and the broad central government policy are also examined to achieve a comprehensive picture of what surrounds the problem.

2.2 – Service Delivery

Decentralization is increasingly on the agenda of donors and many governments. It is seen as a way of increasing the accountability of governments to their citizens and in improving transparency of government decisions. For service delivery decentralization is often considered particularly important as these services are inherently local in their delivery. In practice, both governments and donors have learned that there are significant obstacles to moving from centralized to decentralized systems, especially in the area of social services (Somarriba, 1999).

At the same time, the move to greater decentralization opens space for more community participation in policymaking at the local level, but this requires action by community organizations in relation to decentralized institutions (Somarriba et al, 1999). The state or society nexus shapes and determines how the division of responsibilities amongst levels of governments will best improve both community participation and service effectiveness (World Bank, 1999/2000). As changes are made in government structures and levels of responsibility, there are different mechanisms for channeling systemic reforms through to local social services. What are the determinants of the roles of public, private and not for profit service delivery mechanisms in a decentralized system? What evidence do we have about the linkages between decentralization and outcomes in the social sectors? (World Bank, 1999, 2000).

Since social services are delivered at the local level, the quality of service becomes a key aspect of any process of decentralization. The idea of bringing services closer to the clients is appealing, but in many cases, it has been found that local governments lack the basic skills for managing these programs. Decentralization processes need to include overall assessment of capacity available, as well as capacity constraints at local levels. This can provide better support for the basic training of local service personnel and managers, in addition to provision for ongoing skills maintenance, linked with mechanisms for assessing quality of delivery (Birungi et al, 1999).

An area that is often overlooked is the geographic coverage of the "local government" that is taking on additional responsibilities through decentralization. There are also significant differences in capacity, scope of coverage and personnel resources between large urban centers, small municipalities and dispersed rural communities. 'Decentralization' will have different structure and accountability mechanisms in different circumstances (Birungi et al, (1999).

In each context, there are inter-relationships between increased autonomy of service providers, greater community voice and engagement. The links, when well established, can improve information available about service sector activities that strengthen accountability through double oversight---central government and communities that are being served (Okidi et al, 2004; Varrian, 1999). In assessing the processes around decentralization, it is important to consider the balance between various benefits from the specifics of a country's approach to decentralization against the potential or even likely costs.

Further, increased dependence on local resources can lead to regional inequalities, with the potential for reduction in horizontal equity. Finally, decentralization processes can be driven by accountability movements or by decisions taken through internal state politics (as in the Rwanda example), which means that there are likely to be significantly different opportunities for community participation in more political decisions (Baines, 2007; Onyach, 2003)

2.2.1 – Production and Productivity

Considerable confusion surrounds the discussion of the basic concepts and procedures used in government productivity (Coelli, 2005; Groons, 2004). Public sector productivity literature has variously defined productivity as efficiency, effectiveness, cost reduction, reinvention, total quality management, management improvement, performance measurement, methods improvement, re-engineering, work measurement, and program evaluation (Coelli, 2005). Additionally, productivity has been defined as the ratio of output and input factors, which are transformed by a service or a system (Baines, 2007; Coelli, 2005; Varian 1999).

Everywhere in the world, public services are more and more created and consumed in dynamic systems of providers, consumers, suppliers and partners. In such network like structures the creation of value is influenced by external factors (Vargo & Lusch, 2006; Pinhanez, 2009).

Currently in Uganda, existing measurement approaches for process efficiency and performance are being used to determine the productivity of public services, yet do not cover their dynamic peculiarity precisely enough (Bonny, 2004). Beyond the scope of measuring public service productivity itself, issues concerning the government structures that need to be established in order to design, manage, and optimize service productivity are at a centre stage Bonny adds. Two terms, in particular, productivity and output raise definitional problems. In a broad and generic sense, they are used to describe very specific, technical situations. Productivity is used to describe a variety of activities, terms, and procedures. But it is also used in its narrow economic sense to describe the efficiency with which resources are used to produce outputs.

Much as both private and government organizations provide services to the community, the focus of this study is on State and local government provided services and the participation of the community in the provision of these services. Government productivity measures are assigned to one of the three categories based on the type of output measure. Output is used here in its generic or general sense. The three categories are: a) Measures focusing on operational issues; b) those that focus on the program outputs, that is gross or direct outputs; and c) those concerning the program consequences (Monica et al, 2003).

Operational measures are concerned with the internal workings or efficiency of the government work measurement, which deals with resource requirements under a given technology or set of conditions, is a common operational measure. Intermediate activities or throughputs, such as the number of reports produced, number of audits completed, or the number of samples tested, and utilization measures, such as equipment downtime. Each is important for day-to-day management of government (Baird et al, 2007).

Jeffrey (1990) attributes the second category of productivity measures as direct output and is the final government output divided by the resources used to produce the output. The direct output productivity measure is the one most commonly used to compute private sector productivity, and the one used in this study is for public sector measurement. Public sector examples of such measures are the "tons of solid waste collected per employee hour" for sanitation services and the "revenue gallons of water sold per employee hour" for water utilities. These measures are also known as technical efficiency measures. They do not address the issue of whether the service should be produced or relate them to some desired goal. Rather, they are simply concerned with production efficiency.

The third category, consequences, addresses the issue of a program's effect on society and whether it makes optimum use of resources to achieve its goals. This type of measure is alternatively known as outcome, impact, effectiveness, and economic efficiency. Examples of these types of measures are "deaths prevented per employee hour" for fire departments and "jobs created per employee hour" for economic development agencies. Measures such as these focus on consumers and consumption whereas operational and direct output productivity measures are concerned with production relationships (Rowan, 1995).

Although each of these general types of productivity measures is important, the most common type, at least nationally, is the direct output or technical efficiency measure. This type of measure is the one most often computed for the private sector .The measurement of government and private sector productivity is similar in many respects. Both types of organizations produce services, both compete in the marketplace to purchase resources, and both use varying combinations of resources to provide services.

As long as productivity measurements are restricted to direct outputs and the focus is on technical production issues, there should be great similarities in the measurement of the productivity of the two sectors (Nickson, 1995). Nickson adds that Government productivity measurement may be approached in one of two ways based on how one measures output. One approach focuses on welfare aspects and considers utility functions, indifference curves, and community satisfaction. The approach used here focuses on production possibilities and considers production frontiers and cost functions. This approach assumes that government production decisions can be modeled through a production function framework similar to that used in private sector productivity analysis. It requires the general identification of outputs and inputs but does not require detailed specification of a production function.

2.2.2 – Hygiene and Sanitation

Traditionally, providing safe, effective sanitation services to the poor has focused on the construction of latrines through government sponsored programs, with little input from the community and scant regard for what users really want and need. So once latrines are installed, they are often not used or maintained. The Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation is supporting a different approach that builds on the Community- Led Total Sanitation (CLTS) method. This approach starts by motivating the whole communities to stop the practice of open defecation and to install, and actually use, household sanitation. It also works to encourage public sector to offer a range of affordable sanitation products and services to the people who need them. And to reach very large scale, it engages actively with governments to develop a supportive policy environment and to build the capacity of local officials.

The project, which is being implemented by the Water and Sanitation Program (WSP) of the World Bank, initially focused on achieving 100 percent status for 4.5 million people across locations in three countries; Himachal Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh in India, East Java in Indonesia, and various provinces in Tanzania.(World Bank, Report, 2006).

The National Sanitation Guidelines (NSG) of 2007 is one of the support manuals for the use of district and urban Councils in planning, and promoting community managed sanitation and hygiene in Uganda. The guidelines have been prepared by the Ministry of Health for use by implementers, promoters and supporters of programmes on sanitation and hygiene within the country. The objective of the new guidelines is to provide a guide for local authorities and to promote a standardised approach for sanitation and hygiene promotion by the different institutions and projects involved in the sector. The guidelines stipulate how the population can be empowered to participate in the water establishment programmes in their respective areas.

Additionally, the Improved Sanitation and Hygiene (ISH) financing strategy developed in 2004 represents a ten-year national strategy for financing improved Sanitation and Hygiene aimed at achieving national targets. The strategy is defined within the framework of Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP), the Health Sector Strategic Plan (HSSP), Water and Sanitation Sector Investment Plan (SIP) and the Ministry of Education and Sports sector plan. The strategy has three major objectives; improved latrine coverage, improved hand washing practice, and improved safe water chain. Prepared following high level of research and sector understanding, the strategy document is critical for sector policy development, sanitation and hygiene programming and a key tool for district and sub county planning.

The Uganda Rural Water and Sanitation Operational Plan: 2002-2007 presents an investment plan for increasing sustainable and equitable coverage from the 54% (2002) towards the targets set by PEAP and SIP. It also presents the National Programme of support which aims at building the capacity of the sector and consolidating the institutional reforms so that the water and sanitation services can be implemented at an increasing pace. The Operation Plan (OP) also provides the basis for monitoring sector performance.

The Uganda water supply and sanitation sector has made spectacular progress in urban areas since the mid-1990s, with substantial increases in coverage as well as in operational and commercial performance. Sector reforms in the period 1998-2003 included the commercialization and modernization of the National Water and Sewerage Corporation (NWSC) operating in cities and larger towns, as well as decentralization and private sector participation in small towns. These reforms have attracted significant international attention. However, 40% of the population still had no access to an improved water source and 57% had no improved sanitation in 2004. Low access to urban sanitation and wastewater treatment, compared to the progress achieved on urban water supply, is an area of concern (Butera, 2009, Strategy paper on the promotion of sanitation hygiene in Primary Education, Uganda)

The water and sanitation sector has been recognized as a key area under the 2004 Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP), Uganda's main strategy paper to fight poverty. A comprehensive expenditure framework has been introduced to coordinate financial support by external donors, the national government, and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) .The PEAP estimates that from 2001 to 2015, about US$1.4 billion, or US$92 million per year, are needed to increase water supply coverage up to 95% (Butera 2009).

2.2.3 - Water Accessibility

Access to an improved water source in Uganda increased from 43% in 1990 to 72% in 2010, according to estimates by the Joint Monitoring Program for Water Supply and Sanitation of the United Nations, 2011 Report. In the same period, access to improved sanitation increased slightly from 27% to 34%. However, the 2011 Water and Environment Sector Performance Report of the Uganda Ministry of Water and Environment shows completely different access figures. According to the report, in 2011 access to safe water was 66% while access to improved sanitation was 70% in rural areas and 81% in urban areas 87% of the population lived in rural areas in 2010. Apparently the government's definition of access to safe water is stricter than the Joint Monitoring Programme definition of an improved water source, and the government's definition of improved sanitation is less strict than the Joint Monitoring Programme definition. The differences in definitions complicate the monitoring of targets for access.

In Uganda, the most common technology options for rural water supply are protected springs, boreholes, protected wells, and gravity flow schemes. Those who do not have access to an improved source of water supply have to rely on unsafe sources such as rivers, lakes, and unprotected wells. One consequence of poor access and/or quality is that water-borne diseases are a main cause of infant mortality Access to functioning water sources varies considerably among districts, from 12% to 95% The national government aims to reach universal water supply and sanitation coverage in urban areas and 77% water supply and 95% sanitation coverage by 2015 (Byekwaso, 2010).

The global water crisis is a crisis of water governance. Mismanagement of water is often characterised by lack of adequate water institutions, conflicting and competing interests amongst water users and weak decision making structures, a fragmented management approach that deals with sectors in silos, lack of mechanisms for public participation, and poor implementation of water policies, laws and regulations.

In a situation where the requirements for water are greater than the available water, there are no transparent strategies for water allocation to achieve equity and sustainable water development (Chaudhuri et al, 2002). More effective water governance needs to start with good policy and legislative frameworks that protect water resources against over exploitation and ensure that there is water for social and economic development, as well as water for the future. Institutions for water management must facilitate participation by all water users in a climate of trust, where there is joint responsibility for protecting and controlling water resources in an open and transparent manner (Kasigwa, 2003).

Governance for sustainable Water and Sanitation (WASH) services includes all the relationships, mechanisms, processes, and institutions through which stakeholders can mediate their interests, exercise their rights and obligations and make decisions for the delivery and provision of services. Good governance means improving the way that these processes function by paying attention to a number of specific areas for improvement including structures for participatory strategic planning where all stakeholders come together to make informed decisions about service provision options (Kasigwa, 2003).

2.2.4 – Health Services

Over the last few decades, health has attained worldwide recognition as a crucial component of human development and poverty eradication. This recognition springs, in part, from the realization that one third of the world population lacks access to essential medicines. This critically contributes to further poverty, mortality, morbidity and indebtedness (WHO, 2004).

According to a survey conducted in the late 2002 by Monica et al , of 252 primary health facilities and 30 local governments in the states of Kogi and Lagos in Nigeria found out that despite Nigeria being one of the few countries in the developing world to systematically decentralize the delivery of basic health and education services to locally elected governments, its health policy has also been guided by the Bamako Initiative to encourage and sustain community participation in primary health care services.

The survey data provide systematic evidence on how these institutions of decentralization are functioning at the level of local governments and community based organizations to deliver primary health service. The evidence shows that locally elected governments indeed do assume responsibility for Services provided in primary health care facilities. However, the service delivery environments between the two states are strikingly different. In largely urban Lagos, public delivery by local governments is influenced by the availability of private facilities and proximity to referral centers in the state. In largely rural Kogi, primary health services are predominantly provided in public facilities, but with extensive community participation in the maintenance of service delivery. The survey identified an issue which is highly relevant for decentralization policies the non-payment of health staff salaries in Kogi which is suggestive of problems with local accountability when local governments are heavily dependent on fiscal transfers from higher tiers of government.

Uganda currently has a complex decentralized health system. It consists of the district health infrastructure consisting of Village Health Teams/Health Centre I (VHTs or HC Is), HCs II, III and IV plus general district hospitals. Beyond the district, the health system has Regional Referral Hospitals and National Referral Hospitals. Such a complex system calls for proper coordination, support supervision and inspection. Health facility in-charges reported that while Ministry of Health (MoH) was doing a commendable job in policy formulation, and provision of nationally coordinated services such as epidemic control, more serious support supervision and inspection were needed.

2.2.5 – Literacy Rate

The World Bank Policy Research, Working Paper of January 2006, asserts that, macro-economic goals such as high Gross Domestic Product (GDP), increased exports and reduction in balance of payment deficits alone cannot ensure sustainable growth and poverty reduction. Socio-economic development of a Country depends upon many factors. This thinking is embedded in the Human Development Index (HDI) which incorporates variables addressing socio economic development of people. In 2000, emphasis of human development was strengthened, when United Nations put forward MDGs aiming at eradicating poverty and hunger through increasing literacy among men and women, promoting gender equality, empowerment of women and improving health and other environment related aspects of life.

Pakistan is a signatory to MDGs, the budgetary allocations made to social sectors such as health and education are mere 0.54% and 2.1% of GDP respectively (King et al 1991). In case of literacy Pakistan is spending even less than smaller economies like Bangladesh and Vietnam, thus, lagging behind these countries in terms of literacy rate of 57%.

In health sector, Pakistan has the highest infant mortality rate 65.1 (per 1000 births) among South and East Asian countries such as India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Nepal, China, Indonesia and Malaysia. The situation does not seem very bleak if focus of comparison is shifted from Asia to African region.

According to United Nations, five countries with highest infant mortality rates are; Afghanistan, Chad, Congo, Guinea Bissau, Angola, Nigeria, except for the first nation in this list rest of economies belongs to African continent. Moreover the literacy rate for males and females is 69% and 46%respectively5. Low level of literacy amongst women in particular creates major problems of poor health care, gender bias and eventually low contribution in economic activities. Female education is very important as it increases the value of women's time in economic activities through higher labor productivity and wages (Macinko et al, 2006).

2.3 – Community Participation

Sida's Division for Democratic Governance defines participation as the process through which people take part in, and influence, public decisions that affect their lives. This includes direct and indirect ways to exercise influence, as individuals, as members of networks and associations, and through various political institutions, e.g. elected assemblies, government administrations and ministries (Schady, 2007). Community participation as a concept focuses on the idea that involving stakeholders in decision-making about their communities and broader social issues has important social, economic and political benefits.

In the 1980s and 1990s, for a variety of reasons, public sector donors, policymakers, as well as both Northern and Southern NGOs, emphasized the value and potential benefits of participatory approaches.

Their interest in participation emerged from a range of concerns: failures in state-led development. The risk with an approach to economic development or service delivery that focuses too much on 'community participation' is that it may idealize the internal coherence and solidarity in communities, and miss the essential tasks of supporting effective, accountable and transparent public institutions (Das, 2007).

The African Region for Human Development Working Paper 2008 series 44 asserts that community participation processes include an identification of stakeholders, establishing systems that allow for engagement with stakeholders by public officials, and development of a wide range of participatory mechanisms. Stakeholders are individuals who belong to various identified 'communities' and whose lives are affected by specific policies and programs, and/or those who have basic rights as citizens to express their views on public issues and actions. The proponents of participatory approaches highlight the value of engagement with stakeholders in terms of greater local ownership of public actions or development projects, as well as the potential

Public participation is receiving increasing attention in South Africa, especially at local government level. Notably, public participation is on the agenda globally and in Africa, as well as in South Africa. This is because public participation can help to (i) enhance development and service delivery, (ii) make governance more effective, and (iii) deepen democracy. In South Africa, the basis for public participation in local government is outlined in key legislation like the Municipal Systems Act of 2000, and key policies like the Draft National Framework for Public Participation of 2005 and Draft Community Participation Framework of 2007. These frame public participation mostly as consultation rather than formal empowerment. Further, there is a significant policy development lag, with no final national or provincial policy some seven years after the enabling legislation.

They investigated the implementation of public policy in this context, exploring both views 'from above' of officials and councilors, and 'from below' of members of civil society and the community. Respondents were drawn from the district municipalities of the Thekwini, Ilembe, Mgungundlovu and Sisonke, and also some of the local municipalities within them. Their main finding was that while all parties seem committed to the idea of public participation, they lack the necessary resources to make it work. Hence, the impact of public participation on local governance 'ends at the imbizo'.

Politically, the renewed emphasis on public participation is evident in the large number of izimbizo (public gatherings) conducted by the President and provincial government over the last few years to consult around various government initiatives. Following their adoption by Cabinet in 2000, izimbizo have proved to be very popular forums for interaction between government officials and members of the community. Nowhere has the emphasis on public participation been more keenly felt than in local municipalities. Mostly this is because it is the sphere of government where the greatest constitutional and statutory obligations to public participation exist. Perhaps it is also because it is the sphere of government perceived as 'closest to the people'. In addition though, the emphasis on public participation reflects a concern at the lack of performance of many local municipalities, with roughly 50% of all local government falling under Project Consolidate, a government capacity-building programme. This poor performance is reflected in the widespread public dissatisfaction with many local municipalities. Hence, in the year preceding the March 2006 local government elections, the Minister of Safety and Security, Charles Nqakula, reported to parliament that there had been 5085 protests against local government country-wide against issues like poor service delivery (Daily News 14/10/05).

In this context, public participation has come to be seen as one way of making municipalities more accountable and responsive, and so more effective. Over the last couple of years, the national Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG), the KZN Department of Local Government and Traditional Affairs (LGTA) and local municipalities have implemented a process to develop guidelines and programmes to ensure that public participation obligations are adequately

Public participation is an idea whose time has come. Throughout the world, and especially in Africa, public participation is seen as a means to (i) enhance development and service delivery, (ii) improve governance and (iii) deepen democracy. While there are many definitions, a useful starting point is the World Bank which states: 'Participation is a process in which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives and the decisions and the resources which affect them'. Notably this definition directly links public participation to development; probably the most common context in which public participation is invoked. For the last ten years the World Bank and related international development organizations have moved away from the more elitist 'external expert stance' in development planning, and towards a 'participatory stance'. This means that instead of just having the project sponsors and designers imposing development projects on the local contexts, the Bank engages with various stakeholders, especially local groups, in developing and implementing projects.

Worth noting here also would be the critique of the World Bank model of public participation, where many have argued that it offers no threat to 'technocratic authoritarianism'. Pithouse argues that 'this model has certainly not worked well for many of the organizations and people who took it up in good faith. Defenders of the status quo will point to small shifts consequent to lobbying or advocacy in various forms but there have been no fundamental shifts in

policy due to engagement in official public participation processes.' Notably, the significance of public participation in the dominant development model has become consolidated over the last ten years, as experience has proven it works better than the 'external expert stance' approach. Hence, whether one is talking about budgeting in Porto Alegre, Brazil or the Kerala state of India, or health delivery in rural Bangladesh or urban Britain, public participation is seen as a central component necessary to meet the end of human development. Notably though, public participation is also justified in respect of two other purposes,

These other purposes are (i) strengthening states and (ii) deepening democracy. Development is the connection between public participation and strengthening states in that it has become generally received, that success in development, more especially success in achieving the Millennium Goals, is linked to effective governance. This is clearly the case for development aid that takes the form of budget support to a government to finance, for example, a poverty reduction strategy. However, budget support has proved less successful in countries with weak institutions or whose government shows little inclination to use funds accountably. While debates around this are ongoing, many donors see public participation and participatory methodologies as improving governance by making it better informed and more responsive to local needs.

Hence, the World Bank sees public participation as integral to the successful decentralization of political power to local government level, especially in the developing world. In the context of Africa, public participation is seen in a similar 'capacity building' role in the developmental model captured in the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD). Now the flagship policy of the African Union, NEPAD affirms 'broad-based participation in development by all stakeholders'.

In addition though, in the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM), asserts that, Constitutional Democracy' is being realized is: 'what is being done to create an enabling environment for meaningful popular participation in all forms and levels of government Further, the self-assessment process of every member country through the APRM is required to have 'the active participation of all stakeholders' so as to 'facilitate the evaluation of countries on the basis of the realities expressed by all stakeholders' Hence, in NEPAD's normative model, public participation is specifically seen as a part of good governance, and also part of the way to assess the state of governance in a country. Last but not least, we come to arguments that link public participation to deepening democracy in both new and established democracies.

2.3.1 Planning and Budgeting

Good public participation practices can help governments be more accountable and responsive, and can also improve the public's perception of governmental performance and the value the public receives from the government. The National Advisory Council on State and Local Budgeting Recommended Budget Practices includes recommendations for stakeholder input throughout the planning and budgeting process. Traditionally, public participation meant voting, running for office, being involved in political campaigns, attending public hearings, and keeping informed on important issues of the day by reading government reports or the local newspaper.

The Ugandan Government Finance Officers Association (UGFOA) in their 2010 bulletin recommends that governments incorporate public participation efforts in planning, budgeting, and performance management results processes. The UGFOA also recommends that to ensure effective and well implemented public participation processes, governments include the following considerations in designing their efforts: purposes for involving the public; assurances that they are getting the public's perspective rather than only that of a small number of highly vocal special

interest groups; approaches to eliciting public participation and the points in the planning-budgeting performance management cycle those approaches are likely to be most effective; information that the process will be incorporated into decision making; communication to the public regarding how the information collected will be and was used; and Buy-in from top government officials.

Articulating the purpose for conducting a public participation process is critical because the purpose becomes the foundation for deciding who to involve, how to select them, what activities they will be involved in, what information will be collected, and how the government will use the information. Consequently, determining the purpose should be the first step in designing a participation effort. Governments should not initiate public participation processes without establishing a tangible purpose or objectives, nor is it sufficient to create a public participation process simply because it is a best practice or because other governments have done so.

Purposes may include one or more of the following, and, in addition, individual governments may identify other purposes for involving the public; to improve performance by better understanding what the public wants and expects from its government; to adjust services and service levels more closely to citizens' preferences; to establish performance measures those incorporate the public's perspective; to differentiate among the expectations of a jurisdiction's various demographic groups in policy and service design; to understand public priorities in planning, budgeting, and managing services; to establish long term strategies to provide for a fiscally sustainable future for the jurisdiction; to ensure that capital investment decisions, such as the location of infrastructure elements, are informed by public input; and to provide information to the public about a government's services and results (Akin et al, 2005).

2.3.2 – Resource Mobilization

Resource Mobilization is a process which identifies the resources essential for the development, implementation and continuation of works for achieving the organization's mission. In real terms, Resource Mobilization means expansion of relations with the Resource Providers, the skills, knowledge and capacity for proper use of resources. Resource Mobilization does not only mean use of money but it extensiveness denotes the process that achieves the mission of the Organization through the mobilization of knowledge in human, use of skills, equipment, services etc. It also means seeking new sources of resource mobilization and right and maximum use of the available resources.

Studying the various structure and areas of Resource Mobilization, it is to seeking out resources that are essential and can be used to achieve one's mission and it maximum use (Asiimwe, 1989). Every organization can develop a code of conduct on Resource Mobilization, which should specify what are the resource providers that one would like to expand relations with, and what types of resources should be mobilized. Such a code of conduct looks essential in the context of Nepali NGOs because NGOs are rarely found carrying out analysis of the type of resource providers and their expectations. For example, a company developing arms can provide financial sources to a human rights organization. Such trends are found in plenty.

Furthermore, such a code of conduct should also include the Government's policy and regulations and the commitment to abide by them. Importance of resource mobilization is to diversify and expand resources; resource mobilization helps to formulate an independent budget and to break the tradition of running the specific programs of any donor agencies only, to spend in the program of the Organization's liking, to decrease dependency on others. The realization of economic and social rights is inexorably (though not solely) tight to the availability of resources.

n this regard, local governments are as effective in implementing programs as their planning process is facilitated by technical and financial capacity. Local community participation is an important objective for many health promotion interventions, but it hinges on the incentives for local organizations to participate. Both aspects might be explored with information obtained from economic evaluations, with data from a cost-effectiveness analysis of an elderly safety promotion programme implemented in Sweden. Previously, resource mobilization has been used as a process indicator for successful community participation. We propose that resource mobilization can be measured as the proportion of total intervention costs paid by collaborators.

2.3.3 – Monitoring and Evaluation

Social accountability involves the engagement of citizens to express demand of public services, and increase accountability from public officials and agencies (Kalyega, 2009). A key element is a focus on mechanisms that improve access to and quality of services by empowering people as citizens. Citizen participation in public policy-making can include a growing and rich set of instruments: Participatory budgeting; Public Expenditure Tracking Surveys (PETS); Citizen monitoring of public service delivery; Citizen advisory boards; Citizens charters; Integrity pacts; Monitoring of procurement; Balanced Scorecards;. Parent Teacher Associations, citizen management and oversight of schools, and communities holding schools or clinics accountable

An example of specific mechanisms comes from experiences with Community Based Participatory Management (CBPM) which is a particular approach that seeks to address the lack of access by poor community to services, whether due to inefficiency, lack of responsiveness by public officials, or corruption due to lack of voice and accountability.

CBPM has similarities to basic scorecards in that it makes use of various forms of participatory monitoring and evaluation approaches to support means for communities to create their own information, as well as to analyze and act upon the information gathered. The use of these tools, and similar resources, provide opportunities for greater engagement by communities with public agencies on issues of accountability and services. At the same time, both the mechanisms and the context, provide opportunities and limits to community participation processes (Gribbs, 2002).

2.4 – Local Government Autonomy

Local government autonomy is a degree of freedom that local authorities have in making political, economic and administrative decisions within their areas of jurisdiction. It is argued that if a local government does not have sufficient and real powers, it cannot respond adequately to the needs of the people it is meant to serve. Autonomy for a local government is therefore imperative. There is no consensus as to what constitutes autonomy in local government, but it is generally accepted, that local governments must possess enough power to enable them to perform their activities freely without interference from the central government.

There are multiple definitions of Local Government Autonomy (LGA) .The simplest, from Wolman and Goldsmith, (1990), defines local autonomy in terms of politics and essentially defines this concept as the government's ability to have an independent impact on the welfare of the residents of the local jurisdiction. Some years later, Boyne (1996) expanded this definition by explicitly including within local government powers the ability to innovate, experiment, and develop policies that can vary by jurisdiction. Boyne argued that local governments should have enough autonomy to compete with each other in terms of service quality and quantity.

Also in 1996, Kirlin further expanded the concept by changing government to governance, and defining governance capacity as the ability to make and carry through collective choices for a geographically defined group of people. Kirlin also argued that governance capacity includes more than any single government, but rather it is shaped by public laws, the interaction with other governments, and the availability of civic infrastructure.

It is important to understand the differences between Local Government Authority and governance capacity as used above. Governance capacity deals with the ability of governments to make and carry through collective choices (Pilloopy, 2003). This capacity is shaped by the other extant institutions in the geographic area, institutions such as constitutional rules (both state and federal), other governments at the same level, tiered governments, the courts, and the civic infrastructure, defined broadly to include such elements as the media, civic associations, and neighborhood associations. There is no summary quantitative efficiency or normative index available to measure governance. It is perfectly possible for a high level of governance capacity to lead to inefficient choices or choices that lead to a regressive distribution of output.

Aggregate local autonomy v. individual jurisdiction local autonomy (Boyne, 1993), while accepting the Wolman and Goldsmith definition, extends the local autonomy concept by implicitly differentiating between local autonomy in the aggregate (that is all local governments are empowered to make certain types of decisions) from local autonomy at the individual jurisdiction's level (there are differences in the abilities of jurisdictions to make some types of decisions). For example, in the context of the United States (Boyne applies his analysis to Wales), all incorporated jurisdictions have the power to ensure that some public protection is provided: however, not all jurisdictions have the same land use codes. Boyne argues that both types of autonomy need to be explicitly considered in any analysis.

Local government autonomy is important because it is a necessary condition for three crucial roles that local government plays: a value-maximizer; an institution that potentially allows citizens to reveal their preferences for public expenditures; and, as a competitor with other jurisdictions so that efficiency conditions are satisfied.

Local government autonomy is important because it allows local jurisdictions to undertake activities that move to maximize the value (typically land value) of that community. Kirlin, (1996), following a broad stream of economics literature argues that a function of local government is to make decisions in a variety of arenas that add value to place for each jurisdiction. In order to be able to make these decisions, the jurisdictions must have the political and fiscal autonomy necessary to allow them to differentiate themselves from other jurisdictions through the use of their maximizing activities.

2.5 – Employee Morale

Morale – "the state of the spirits of an individual or group as shown in the willingness to perform assigned tasks" (Morris 1981). Morale can also be described as a state of mind, mood, or mental condition (Bennett 1998). It is foolish to ignore, excuse, or otherwise minimize its impact on productivity. The cost of low productivity is incredible for a state like New York with a large government workforce. Recent studies have shown that the correlation between the length of time people intend to stay with their current employers and "soft " factors – like recognition given for work well done or pride in the employer – is more statistically significant that the longevity/monetary award correlation (Business Research Lab, Hauppauge, NY, 2002).

Generally, increased employee morale means a happier, more productive, and higher performing employee. There is a difference between what people do and how they do it. The difference between either not meeting, or just meeting, productivity goals or exceeding goals- for productivity may be attributed to high morale.

2.6 – Central Government Policy

The ways in which national policies reflect a pro-poor or clientalist (serving the needs of those politically connected) shapes service delivery systems and the room for community participation initiatives. The roles of the state are highly complex and the result of historic contestation and it is highly stylized to designate a state's policies as 'pro-poor' beyond a general level. One of the major challenges facing donors in the past few years has been the issue of how to support services in 'fragile states' countries where governments lack the will, the capacity, or both, related to basic services (Okidi et al, 2008).

The fragile states questions become pertinent as well for federal systems, where individual states within large nation-states such as India or Nigeria, may have dramatically different contexts for community participation. Decentralization processes and the political enabling environment also create or limit the space for community participation, as do the very laws on accountability and access to information. The nature of different manifestations of civil society comes from the historic processes of state/society relations, and assessing community participation approaches requires determining both the political policy framework as well as the factors that strengthen or weaken different civic movements (Kauzya, (2007).

A key element is in terms of the national political framework can be found in the various mechanisms that can improve or limit access to and quality of services by empowering people as citizens (Ndegwa, 2002) These can include a variety of forms of citizen participation in public policy-making through a growing set of instruments: Participatory budgeting; Public Expenditure Tracking Surveys (PETS); Citizen monitoring of public service delivery; Citizen advisory boards; Citizens charters; Integrity pacts; Monitoring procurement; Balanced Scorecards; oversight of schools, and communities holding schools or clinics accountable a wide range of experiences are now documented in terms of approach, impact and limits (Ndegwa, 2002).

2.7 – Regulation

In order to ensure good performance, transparency and accountability, local water services should be provided by means of a clear contract, which meets local regulations and against which performance is monitored. The purpose of regulation is to protect consumers and to ensure that services comply with minimum national standards and with local government's policies and by-laws, so that water, sanitation and hygiene services are efficient, effective, affordable and sustainable (Reinikka, 2004).

In regulating the service provider, key performance indicators need to be set against which to measure performance. These include drinking water quality, quality of wastewater discharged, and how often the service is interrupted. A good monitoring and reporting system is needed to monitor standards against the contract and the regulations .There also needs to be a dynamic relationship between local government and the community to ensure that the community is satisfied with the services they are receiving. Mainstreaming gender issues into these relationships will ensure that the voices of women and men are heard (Steffensen et al, 2004).

2.8 – Security

African governments inherited a common model of public service provision from colonial times. That model was rooted in how British and French governments were themselves providing public services during the 1950s. For the following half-century African governments struggled to make this model work. In many of them, and most particularly in those with the social stresses associated with being post-conflict, that model has proved to be inappropriate. It is high time to try delivery systems which are better suited to the local context (Marek, 2003).

African governments tended to assume that this was the appropriate way for a developed society to deliver public services, so that it was the system to which they should aspire. In fact, in many respects this organizational approach was not an encompassing model for a developed society, but was rooted in its highly unusual time, namely the aftermath of the Second World War (Kiiza, 2007).

One legacy of the war was a belief in planning. In wartime Britain national planning had been successful and it was now applied to the problem of service delivery. Delivering social services through centralized planning requires information: the war had taught the civil service how to gather and marshal it for military objectives and initially this worked well for service provision. Another legacy of the war was a strong sense of nationhood and public-spiritedness. This spirit resolved the problem of motivating public sector workers: they had internalized the norms of serving the society and so did not need either close monitoring or large financial incentives. The combination of information-guided central planning and a motivated workforce was highly cost-effective (Kiiza, 2007).

In ideal conditions the European model of the 1950s is by far the most cost-effective system. Both post-war Britain and modern Scandinavia met these conditions. Scandinavia combines a self-motivated public sector workforce with a comprehensive system of centralized social information. But these advantages are underpinned by an unusually homogenous population with a strong sense of national identity and a belief in social equity. In Britain, neither aspect of the system proved to be sustainable. Gradually, the helpful norms of public sector workers eroded (Lindelow et al, 2003).

2.9 – Politics

Governments all over the world are concerned with efficiency in public service provision. The sources of inefficiencies are many, but the working of the political system is obviously important. The organization and financing of the specific services are politically determined, and restructuring and reorganization that may improve efficiency are often controversial politically. The purpose of this paper is to analyze public sector efficiency, and in particular to characterize political systems that are successful in terms of efficient provision of public services (Blotter, 2008).

Inefficiency in public service provision is usually understood as a principal-agent problem originally formulated by Niskanen (1971, 1975) and Migué and Bélanger (1974). The context is that production is delegated to a service-producing agency (bureau) that is better informed about costs than politicians (sponsor), and there is a conflict of interest because the agency has preferences for budgetary slack. Budgetary slack can be interpreted as encompassing a variety of non-productive activities, including low effort, over-employment and extra salary. Thus, budgetary slack is conceptually equal to inefficiency. Later theoretical contributions have focused on how budgetary slack is affected by the institutional setup and the use of incentive schemes.

The literature on incentive schemes, summarized by Dixit (2002) in a public sector context, emphasizes that budgetary slack can be further reduced with a financing scheme that rewards the bureau for high production. However, because of specific features of the public sector, such as measurement problems, multi-tasking, and multiple principals, the general recommendation is that incentives should be low-powered rather than high-powered.

Although hard budget constraints and incentive schemes can improve efficiency, they may be difficult to implement in a political context. To make a hard budget constraint credible it may be necessary to accept periods with low production, and strong public sector unions tend to resist the introduction of incentive schemes.

In this research we focus on the roles of political and budgetary institutions, fiscal capacity, and democratic participation, and we now turn to the discussion of how these factors are expected to affect public sector efficiency. Starting with political factors, a natural point of departure is the weak government hypothesis. The hypothesis was first introduced and tested by Roubini and Sachs (1989a, 1989b), and basically says that a strong government has an advantage in keeping debt and deficits low.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 - Introduction

Methodology defines the roadmap of research in both natural and social sciences (Field, 2000; Kothari, 2004). When employed properly, the methodological approach is capable of enabling researchers to attain their long time puzzling objectives, answer related questions and test various hypotheses. Kothari has observed that most research investigations meet obstacles because other sections of the study are given attention but the methodology area is not well handled. The section that follows is a presentation of the main methodological aspects the study adopted.

3.2 – Research Design

The study adopted a case study research design based on cross-sectional considerations. This was because it was required that it be carried out within a specific period of time. In the approach it was possible to collect both qualitative and quantitative types of data were analyzed to reach relevant conclusions. Kothari (2004) and Olga (2007) consider such approaches ideally for social science investigations.

3.3 – Study Population

The study targeted 150 individuals in position of responsibilities such as heads of departments and sectors, sub-county chiefs, CDOs, councilors, LC III chairpersons, extension workers, and members of the parish development committees. These groups were considered relevant in that they are the main decision and policy-makers of the district on issues of service delivery (Amuru District, 2007, 2008).

3.4 – Sampling Procedures

A list of 150 individuals in the above mentioned categories was generated and used as a sampling frame (Field, 2000; Kothari, 2004). Upon determining the sample size, a combination of random sampling and purposive sampling was employed in deriving the sample size. For instance, heads of department (HoDs) and sectors were purposively selected to be face-to-face interviewed given their strategic influence in decision making during planning and implementation. The rest of the other participants were selected through random sampling means.

3.5– Sample Size

The formula (Field, 2000) was used for determining the study sample size. According to this formular:

$$n = \frac{X^2 * N * P * (1-P)}{(ME^2 * (N-1)) + (X^2 * P * (1-P))}$$

Where:

n = sample size

X^2 = Chi – square for the specified confidence level at 1 degree of freedom

N = Population Size

P = population proportion (.50 in this table)

ME = desired Margin of Error (expressed as a proportion)

Therefore, at 95% level of confidence and with the following values attached to the variables in the formula: X^2 – 1.96 ~ normal distribution table, N = 150, P = 0.65 ~ probability of success, and ME = 5%. Substituting in the above formula, sample size n = 82.

3.6 – Data Collection: Methods and Instruments

A questionnaire (Likert 5; strongly disagree to strongly agree) together with an interview guide developed along the lines of the questionnaire were the main data collection instruments (Field, 2000; Kothari, 2004). Based on the copy of introductory letter endorsed by the district chief administrative officer (CAO), the instruments were distributed by the research as per list of selected respondents per location. Interviews were also conducted accordingly for relevant officials to provide qualitative data.

3.7 - Instruments Validity and Reliability

The instruments that were used in this study were designed by the researcher and vetted by the supervisor(s). The support of experienced researcher to read through the instruments and ensure content validity (Field, 2000; Kothari, 2004) was sort for. Internal consistency was measured using the conventional means of Cronbach alpha (α) coefficients. A commonly-accepted rule of thumb is that an (α) of (0.6 - 0.7) indicates acceptable reliability, and 0.8 or higher indicates good reliability. High reliabilities (0.95 or higher) are not necessarily desirable, as this indicates that the items may be entirely redundant (Cronbach, 1951; Field, 2000; Kothari, 2004). Triangulation approach was used in testing validity (Field, 2000; Kothari, 2004). The researcher used multiple methods for collecting and analyzing data. The multiple kinds of data sources and multiple respondents were already built into the design of the study where both primary and secondary data were collected to complement one another. Other techniques used were those suggested by Miles and Huberman, (1994) which involve looking explicitly and intentionally for outliers, contrasting cases, negative or opposite findings or extreme cases that do not fit with the findings. Consider rival explanations within single cases when doing cross-case comparisons.

What information opposes or is inconsistent with the conclusion, what else is plausible, Is it possible there is an intervening variable? Testing conclusions with "if-then" statements ("if I see x, then I should also see y"). These are additional analyses that the researcher pursued.

3.8 - Data Analysis

Data analysis was carried out using SPSS 19.0 statistical software. Data analysis focused on assessing the study objectives and how they could be achieved as well as answering the research questions. Consequently by employing the package, a number of descriptive and inferential statistics were generated as final results. Key tests were Pearson's correlation coefficient, ANOVA, and regression analyses to establish variable relationships. Item consistency in terms of validity and reliability of the instruments employed were also conducted. Cronbach alpha (0.700 cut-off point) was conducted on all items including biographical data (Field, 2000).

3.9 - Ethical Considerations

The informed consent of all participants was sought before they participated in the research. A statement stating the aims of the study and the proposed use of the information collected was presented and explained to the respondents before the interviews. None of the participants was subjected to stigmatization as a result of statements made during both the individual interviews and focus group discussions. All participants were given the right to decline their participation in answering the questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions. The results of the questionnaires and the names of interviewees were kept anonymous. Data collected in the focus group discussions were recorded anonymously; however, the participants were assured of confidentiality for whatever was discussed during the focus group.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 – Introduction

The study came up with a number of findings which are presented, analyzed and interpreted in the various ensuing sections of this chapter. This is preceded, firstly, by an outline of instrument consistence tests results related to the reliability Cronbach alpha coefficient (α) in respect to respondents biographical characteristics, service delivery, community participation, and other variable items.

4.2 – Instrument Consistence Concerns

Section A: Instrument Consistence Tests

Table 4.1: Instrument Reliability Test Findings

Item	Number of Items	α
Biographical Characteristics	7	0.757
Service Delivery	14	0.662
Community Participation	12	0.745
Other Variables	12	0.703

Kothari (2004) and other methodologist recommend (α) = (0.700) as optimum for conventional items that constitute a study instrument in social research. According to the findings of this study; Table 4.1, other variables items, those investigating service delivery and community participation generally meet that suggestion. This implies that the instrument employed in the investigation was moderately reliable and could be used to collect the required data for the study.

It is only items related to participant biographical characteristics whose alpha was below the prescribed standard but this is attributed to the small number of items involved and related statistical errors.

4.3 – Participant Biographical Characteristics

Data were collected from both male and female participants. Findings reveal that 71% of them were males while the rest were females (Table 4.2). And as shown in Table 4.3, the majority of the respondents; 74%, happened to fall within the age bracket of (21-30) years.

Table 4.2: Participants Gender

		Frequency	Percent	**Valid Percent**	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	57	70.4	**71.3**	71.3
	Female	23	28.4	**28.8**	100.0
	Total	80	98.8	**100.0**	
Missing	System	1	1.2		
Total		81	100.0		

Table 4.3: Participants Age

		Frequency	Percent	**Valid Percent**	Cumulative Percent
Valid	[20-30] yrs	18	22.2	**73.8**	73.8
	[31-40] yrs	10	12.3	**12.5**	86.3
	[41-50] yrs	10	12.3	**12.5**	98.7
	[51 & above] yrs	1	1.2	**1.3**	
	Total	80	98.8	**100.0**	
Missing	System	1	1.2		
Total		81	100.0		

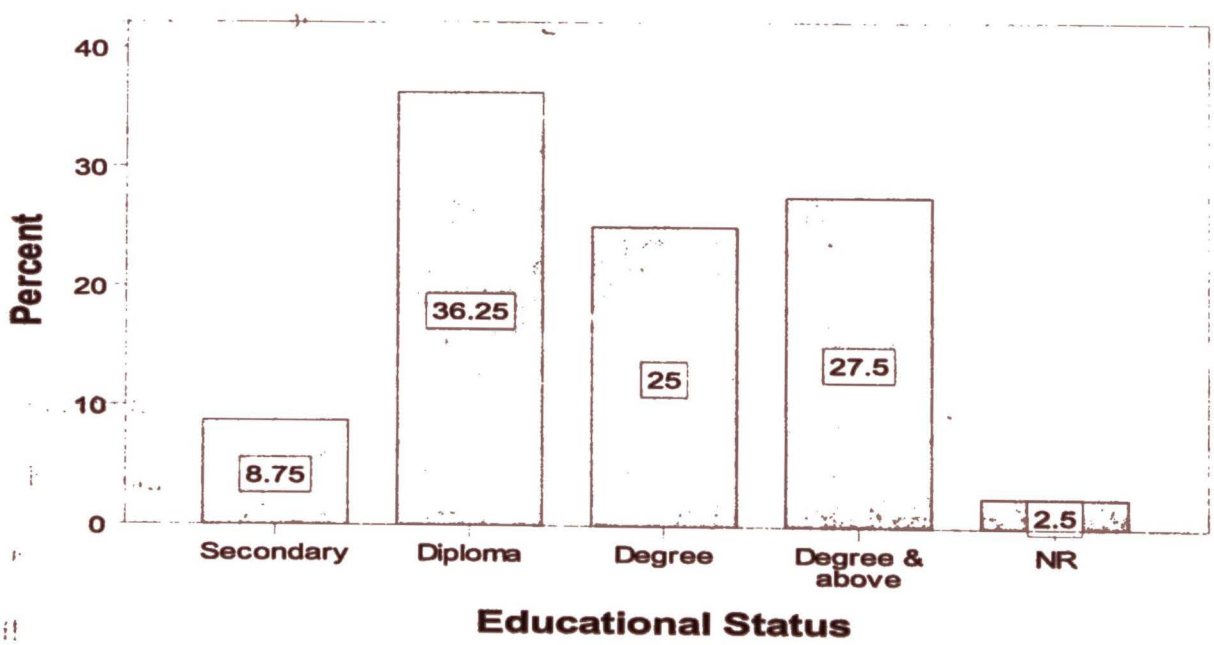
The age groups (31-40) and (41-50) were collectively the second largest groups in terms of age.

Table 4.4: Educational Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Secondary	7	8.6	**8.8**	8.8
	Diploma	29	35.8	**36.3**	45.0
	Degree	20	24.7	**25.0**	70.0
	Degree & above	22	27.2	**27.5**	97.5
	NR	2	2.5	**2.5**	100.0
	Total	80	98.8	**100.0**	
Missing	System	1	1.2		
Total		81	100.0		

The study findings also revealed that based on the respondents who participated in this research; most of administrative employees in Amuru district (36%) are diploma holders. Only 25% and 28% of them hold bachelors degree and postgraduate qualifications respectively. These results can be found in Table 4.4 and Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: Educational Status

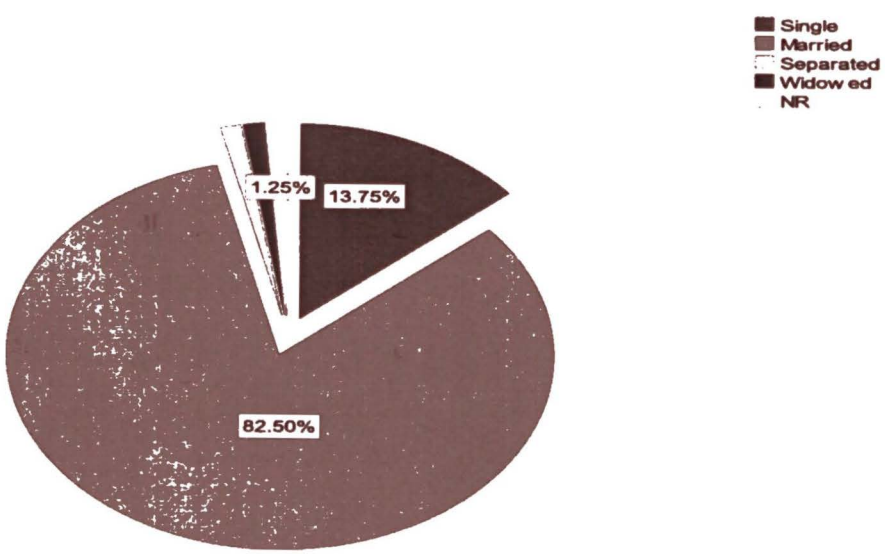


As shown in Table 4.5 and again in Figure 4.2, it was discovered in the investigation that majority participants (83%) who took part in the study were married. 14% of them were single.

Table 4.5: Marital Status

		Frequency	Percent	**Valid Percent**	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	11	13.6	**13.8**	13.8
	Married	66	81.5	**82.5**	96.3
	Separated	1	1.2	**1.3**	97.5
	Widowed	1	1.2	**1.3**	98.8
	NR	1	1.2	**1.3**	100.0
	Total	80	98.8	**100.0**	
Missing	System	1	1.2		
Total		81	100.0		

Figure 4.2: Marital Status



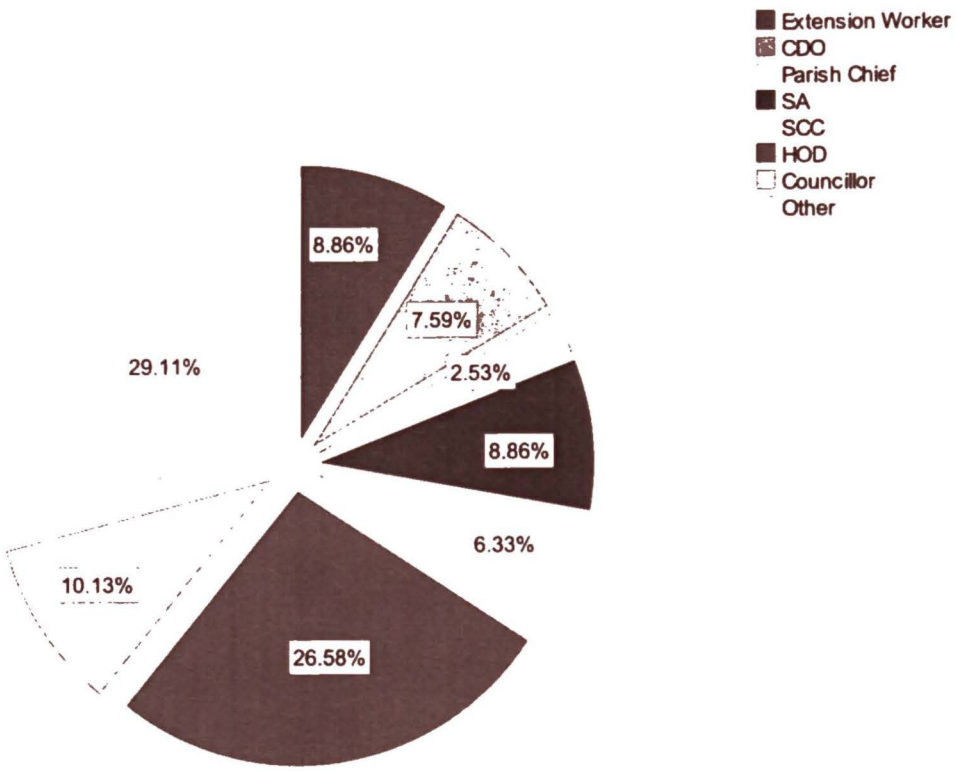
Other important participants information was that related to the positions they hold within the district. It was found that heads of department constituted (27%) but the majority were those in the miscellaneous category or others (29%). Councilors made up 10% of the employees.

Workers such as extension workers, CDOs, parish chiefs, SAs and SCCs occupy percentage rates in the range of (3-9) %. These results are displayed in Table 4.5 and Figure 4.3.

Table 4.6: Position Occupied

		Frequency	Percent	**Valid Percent**	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Extension Worker	7	8.6	**8.9**	8.9
	CDO	6	7.4	**7.6**	16.5
	Parish Chief	2	2.5	**2.5**	19.0
	SA	7	8.6	**8.9**	27.8
	SCC	5	6.2	**6.3**	34.2
	HOD	21	25.9	**26.6**	60.8
	Councilor	8	9.9	**10.1**	70.9
	Other	23	28.4	**29.1**	100.0
	Total	79	97.5	**100.0**	
Missing	NR	1	1.2		
	System	1	1.2		
	Total	2	2.5		
Total		81	100.0		

Figure 4.3: Position Occupied



It was also discovered that 40% of these employees; in fact the majority, had served in their respective positions for the period (2-5) years. Those were followed with (6-10) year experience people at 38 % and 13% being the longest served at 11 years and above. The data set is presented as Table 4.6.

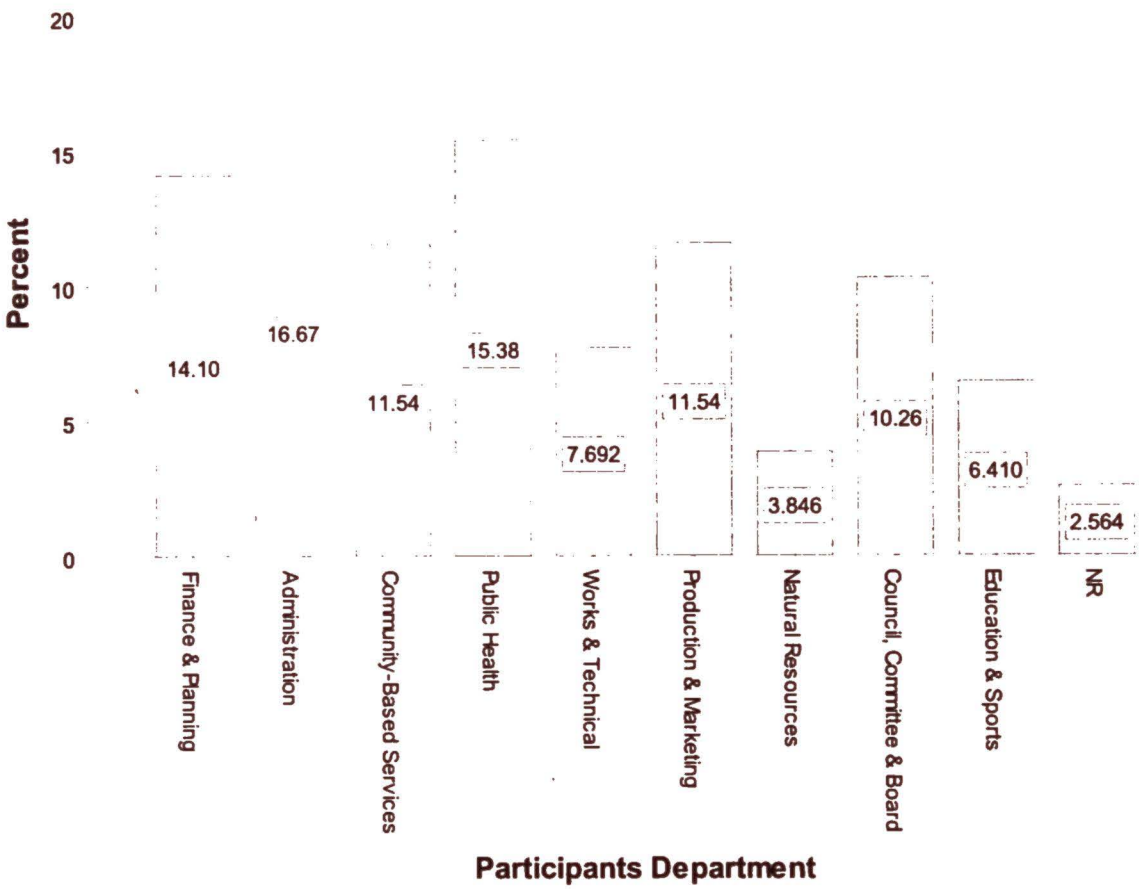
Table 4.7: Period Served in Rank

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	[Less than 1 yr]	5	6.2	**6.3**	6.3
	[1-5] yrs	32	39.5	**40.0**	46.3
	[6-10] yrs	30	37.0	**37.5**	83.8
	[11 & beyond] yrs	10	12.3	**12.5**	96.3
	NR	1	1.2	**1.3**	97.5
	6	1	1.2	**1.3**	98.8
	8	1	1.2	**1.3**	100.0
	Total	80	98.8	**100.0**	
Missing	System	1	1.2		
Total		81	100.0		

Table 4.8: Participants Department

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Finance & Planning	11	13.6	**14.1**	14.1
	Administration	13	16.0	**16.7**	30.8
	Community-Based Services	9	11.1	**11.5**	42.3
	Public Health	12	14.8	**15.4**	57.7
	Works & Technical	6	7.4	**7.7**	65.4
	Production & Marketing	9	11.1	**11.5**	76.9
	Natural Resources	3	3.7	**3.8**	80.8
	Council, Committee & Board	8	9.9	**10.3**	91.0
	Education & Sports	5	6.2	**6.4**	97.4
	NR	2	2.5	**2.6**	100.0
	Total	78	96.3	**100.0**	
Missing	Internal Audit	2	2.5		
	System	1	1.2		
	Total	3	3.7		
Total		81	100.0		

Figure 4.4: Participants Department



In terms of department, employees are sort of even distributed among Council and Committee Board 11%, Production and Marketing 12%, Finance and Planning 14%, Public Health 15%, and Administration 16%. Table 4.7 and Figure 4.4 contain the above findings.

Few and selected biographical characteristics were cross-tabulated to establish possible linkages. Table 4.8, for instance, indicates that when gender was cross-tabulated with age, 43 male employees were in the age bracket (20-30). That age bracket contains 16 of the district female workers who took part in this research.

Table 4.9: Participants Gender * Participants Age Cross-Tabulation

		Participants Age				
		[20-30] yrs	[31-40] yrs	[41-50] yrs	[51 & above] yrs	Total
Participants Gender	Male	43	6	7	1	57
	Female	16	4	3	0	23
Total		18	10	10	1	80

Table 4.10: Participants Age * Educational Status Cross-Tabulation

		Educational Status					
		Secondary	Diploma	Degree	Degree & above	NR	Total
Participants Age	[20-30] yrs	3	25	14	16	1	59
	[31-40] yrs	0	3	4	3	0	10
	[41-50] yrs	4	1	2	3	0	10
	[51 & above] yrs	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total		7	29	20	22	2	80

The participant age-educational status cross-tabulation (Table 4.9) reveals that the majority group (20-30) years carry 25 of the 29 diploma holders which education level is the highest in the district. Also amongst the 20 degree holders, 14 of them belong to that age group. The same applies to the 22 employees in the district who holders a degree and above.

Table 4.10. age was cross-tabulated with position held in the district. It can be observed that at the majority position; Head of Department, with 21 participants, more than half (11) fall within the (20-30) years of age. Likewise the category named others which contains 23 participants belonged to the same age group and this also applied to the extension workers and SA with 7 participants respectively). These participants who also happened to be in that same age group were 5 and 7 respectively.

Table 4.11: Participants Age * Position occupied Cross-Tabulation

		Position Occupied								
		Extension Worker	CDO	Parish Chief	SA	SCC	HOD	Councilor	Other	Total
Participants Age	[20-30] yrs	5	6	1	7	3	11	5	21	59
	[31-40] yrs	0	0	0	0	2	5	1	2	10
	[41-50] yrs	2	0	1	0	0	5	2	0	10
Total		7	6	2	7	5	21	8	23	79

was important for the study to find out how educated employees who occupy different positions ere. Therefore education was cross-tabulated against position and the results are displayed in able 4.11. The largest position category named other or miscellaneous contained 23 participants. hese contained 14 diploma holders, 6 first degree graduates and 2 degree and above ualifications.

The heads of department; totaling 21 in number, happen to be dominated by people with first degree and above qualification (11 of them), followed 8 first degree holders while 2 hold diploma certificates.

The ranks extension workers and SAs were represented by 7 employees each. In terms of educational standards, all the extension workers were diploma holders except one person with secondary education certificate. The SA position had three people with diplomas and another three with a first university degree. Only one participant in this position holds a degree and above.

Table 4.12: Educational Status * Position occupied Cross-Tabulation

		Position occupied								
		Extension Worker	CDO	Parish Chief	SA	SCC	HOD	Councilor	Other	Total
Educational Status	Secondary	1	0	2	0	0	0	4	0	7
	Diploma	6	0	0	3	1	2	3	14	29
	Degree	0	1	0	3	1	8	1	6	20
	Degree & above	0	5	0	1	3	11	0	2	22
	NR	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total		7	6	2	7	5	21	8	23	79

4.4 – Variable Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.12 is a display of the study variable descriptive statistics produced in relation to participant ranks. According to Kothari (2004) and Amin (2006), the identity rank or position held is considered a crucial factor in response input in organizational social research. Consequently, in this particular study variable descriptive statistics were produced to especially capture the mean and standard deviation.

From the table, heads of department (HoD) showed the largest mean value (3.19); SD (0.406) when responding to service delivery concerns of the study instrument.

On the issue of community participation, the SA category exhibited the highest level of concern with a score of (3.57); SD (0.535).

Table 4.13: Variable Descriptive Statistics

						95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Service Delivery	Extension Worker	7	3.11	.488	.184	2.66	3.56	3	4
	CDO	6	3.11	.401	.164	2.69	3.53	3	4
	Parish Chief	2	2.82	.859	.607	-4.89	10.54	2	3
	SA	7	3.03	.536	.203	2.54	3.53	2	4
	SCC	5	2.76	.489	.219	2.15	3.36	2	3
	HOD	**21**	**3.19**	**.406**	.088	3.01	3.38	2	4
	Councilor	8	3.18	.464	.164	2.79	3.57	2	4
	Other	23	3.09	.388	.081	2.92	3.25	2	4
	Total	79	3.09	.435	.049	3.00	3.19	2	4
Community Participation	Extension Worker	7	3.43	.535	.202	2.93	3.92	3	4
	CDO	6	3.33	.516	.211	2.79	3.88	3	4
	Parish Chief	2	3.00	.000	.000	3.00	3.00	3	3
	SA	7	**3.57**	**.535**	.202	3.08	4.07	3	4
	SCC	5	2.60	.548	.245	1.92	3.28	2	3
	HOD	21	3.38	.498	.109	3.15	3.61	3	4
	Councilor	8	3.38	.518	.183	2.94	3.81	3	4
	Other	23	3.30	.470	.098	3.10	3.51	3	4
	Total	79	3.32	.520	.059	3.20	3.43	2	4
Regulation	Extension Worker	7	4.29	1.976	.747	2.46	6.11	0	6
	CDO	6	2.50	1.517	.619	.91	4.09	0	4
	Parish Chief	**2**	**4.50**	**.707**	.500	-1.85	10.85	4	5

	SA	7	3.86	1.069	.404	.2.87	4.85	2	5
	SCC	5	3.80	1.095	.490	2.44	5.16	2	5
	HOD	21	3.57	1.502	.328	2.89	4.26	0	6
	Councilor	8	2.63	2.200	.778	.79	4.46	0	5
	Other	23	3.17	1.696	.354	2.44	3.91	0	5
	Total	79	3.41	1.645	.185	3.04	3.77	0	6
Politics	**Extension Worker**	7	**4.14**	**1.215**	.459	3.02	5.27	2	5
	CDO	6	3.17	.983	.401	2.13	4.20	2	4
	Parish Chief	2	5.50	.707	.500	-.85	11.85	5	6
	SA	7	2.71	2.059	.778	.81	4.62	0	5
	SCC	5	3.60	1.517	.678	1.72	5.48	1	5
	HOD	21	3.62	1.596	.348	2.89	4.35	0	6
	Councilor	8	2.75	2.053	.726	1.03	4.47	0	6
	Other	23	3.70	1.295	.270	3.14	4.26	0	6
	Total	79	3.53	1.551	.175	3.18	3.88	0	6
Autonomy	Extension Worker	7	4.00	.816	.309	3.24	4.76	3	5
	CDO	6	4.67	.816	.333	3.81	5.52	4	6
	Parish Chief	2	5.00	.000	.000	5.00	5.00	5	5
	SA	7	3.71	1.799	.680	2.05	5.38	0	5
	SCC	5	4.00	1.225	.548	2.48	5.52	2	5
	HOD	21	3.71	1.765	.385	2.91	4.52	0	6
	Councilor	**8**	**4.75**	**.463**	.164	4.36	5.14	4	5
	Other	23	3.96	1.186	.247	3.44	4.47	0	6
	Total	79	4.04	1.334	.150	3.74	4.34	0	6

Parish chiefs provided opinions with the highest level; a mean score of (4.50); SD (0.707) as far as the problem of regulation is concerned in Amuru disctrict. The variable politics was reacted to more vigorously by extension workers (Mean 4.14; SD 1.215). Autonomy concerns were reacted to most by participants in the councilor category at the (Mean 4.75; SD 0.463) scores. The above statistics and their corresponding providers are highlighted in the table for easy reference.

4.5 – Study Variable Inferential Statistics

Part I: ANOVA Tests

Table 4.14: Variable ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Service Delivery	Between Groups	1.001	7	.143	.738	.641
	Within Groups	13.761	71	.194		
	Total	14.762	78			
Community Participation	Between Groups	3.430	7	.490	**1.970**	**.071**
	Within Groups	17.659	71	.249		
	Total	21.089	78			
Regulation	Between Groups	21.630	7	3.090	1.158	.338
	Within Groups	189.408	71	2.668		
	Total	211.038	78			
Politics	Between Groups	21.530	7	3.076	1.314	.256
	Within Groups	166.141	71	2.340		
	Total	187.671	78			
Autonomy	Between Groups	11.382	7	1.626	.905	.507
	Within Groups	127.504	71	1.796		
	Total	138.886	78			

One way analysis of variation (ANOVA) represented by item F-output and level of significance test was conducted as the first inferential statistics investigation. It was found that the variable community participation items (Table 4.13) depicted the largest ANOVA outcome (F=1.970; sig., 0.071).

Part II: Variable Relationships (Pearson's Correlation and Regression Analysis)

Table 4.15: Pearson's Correlation Coefficients

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
vice ery	Pearson Correlation	1							
mmunity pation	Pearson Correlation	.505**	1						
onomy	Pearson Correlation	.040	.004	1					
vernment y	Pearson Correlation	.167	.173	-.056	1				
ulation	Pearson Correlation	.259*	.244*	.104	.074	1			
ities	Pearson Correlation	.225*	.044	.158	.285*	.261*	1		
ployee le	Pearson Correlation	.193	.299**	.030	.011	.208	.148	1	
vernment y	Pearson Correlation	.167	.173	-.056	1.000**	.074	.25*	.011	1

orrelation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
rrelation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Inter-variable relationships were tested by Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) while predictive powers of independent variables on the dependent variable were tested through regression analysis (Adjusted R-squared) values. From the correlation output presented as Table 4.14, it can be observed that community participation was positively associated with service delivery to the extent of ($r=0.550$; sig. $p<0.01$). This is fairly a moderate relationship. Regulation was related to service delivery and to community participation by scores ($r=0.259$; $p<0.05$) and ($r=0.244$; $p<0.05$) respectively, indicating quite low albeit positive associations between those variables.

Other positive but also quite weak relationships are between politics and: service delivery, central government policy and regulation. At 95% level of significance, politics was associated with these three constructs to the extent of ($r=0.225$; 0.285; 0.261) respectively.

The variable employee morale was discovered to have another positive relationship in the study with community participation. This was ($r=0.299$; $p<0.05$) while central government policy related to employee morale with ($r=0.285$; $p<0.05$). Since all the variables depicted positive relationships, it implies that as one variable changed in a certain direction, its counterpart also changed in the similar direction.

Part III: Model Prediction (Regression Analysis)

To achieve the various study objectives and answer corresponding research questions, it was necessary to carry out variable regression analysis tests. Findings (Table 4.15) show that predictor variables; employee morale, autonomy, and community participation predict service delivery to a very degree (Adj.R-Squared 0.245; $p<0.01$) of only 25%. These results are in conformity with the low correlation results obtained previously.

Furthermore, the only variable with somehow reasonable associated beta output (Table 4.16) was community participation. Though significant (β=0.471; sig., 0.000; $p<0.01$), its score still remains unsatisfactorily low relative to conventional cut-off point of (β=0.500) (Kothari, 2004).

Table 4.17: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.523[a]	.273	.245	.470

a. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Morale, Autonomy, Community Participation
b. Dependent Variable: Service Delivery

Table 4.16: Model Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	1.467	.345		4.257	.000	.781	2.153
	Community Participation	.426	.092	.471	4.652	.000	.244	.609
	Autonomy	.006	.040	.014	.140	.889	-.074	.085
	Staffing and Service Delivery	.055	.042	.135	1.316	.192	-.028	.139

Finally, the dependent variable service delivery in Amuru district was also regressed on independent variables: community monitoring, resource mobilization, and planning and budgeting. Extremely low regression results (Adj. R-squared 0.141; $p<0.01$) were generated implying that those factors were able to predict changes in service delivery to the extent of only 14%. The rest was as a result of other factors likely not to have been investigated by this study. These results are displayed in Table 4.17. Again as shown in Table 4.18, the variable resource mobilization showed the only significant outlook in the model coefficient structure. With a beta ($\beta = 0.278$; sig. 0.013), the predictive capacity is also still considered very weak.

In summary, independent variables for the study exhibit quite weak relationships with service delivery and cannot sufficiently predict changes that take place in that variable.

Table 4.17: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estima
1	.416[a]	.173	.141	.501

a. Predictors: (Constant), Community Monitoring Roles, Resource Mobilization, Planning and Budgeting

b. Dependent Variable: Service Delivery

Table 4.18: Model Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	2.134	.263		8.123	.000	1.611	2.657
	Planning and Budgeting	.038	.051	.084	.743	.460	-.064	.140
	Resource Mobilization	.146	.057	.278	2.557	.013	.032	.259
	Community Monitoring Roles	.101	.044	.247	2.282	.025	.013	.189

a. Dependent Variable: Service Delivery

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 – Introduction

The study derived a number of findings based on which target objectives and research questions may be assessed for achievement and answering. Various conclusions and a set of recommendations can be made to highlight the output of the investigation. These focus; firstly, on the broad picture of participants biographical characteristics, and subsequently on the relations between the variables of the study.

5.2 – Conclusion

From the opinions of eighty two participants who took part in this research and the review of related literature, it can be concluded that Amuru district employs both male and female categories of people but the males (71%) more or less triple females in number. Most of the employees (74%) fall within the age bracket of 20 and 30 years and are largely diploma holders in terms of educational qualification. Despite their tender age structure, most of them (83%) are married and handle family responsibilities. The majority constitutes heads of department (HoD) (27%); positions, they have held for at least five years prior to the conducting of this research.

Service delivery in Amuru district is largely poor. The level of local community involvement in district activities is also quite low but the two are closely associated. This implies that for the district to achieve the required levels of service delivery in terms of production and productivity, hygiene and sanitation, water accessibility, and provision of proper health and educational services, the community must be involved.

The community must participate in key activities like planning and budgeting, mobilizing local resources, and closely monitoring and evaluating what is being implemented on the ground.

Amuru district employees are not motivated and their attitude towards work is quite low. The employees need to be motivated and their morale boosted in order to work hand-in-hand with the local communities. The study found strong linkages between employee morale and community participation but such linkages may not be realized when the technical people who do the work; namely, the employees are down-spirited.

The district is closely patronized by central government. This is so in areas of funding and regulation implying that in terms of practical autonomy, there is little discretion for the district authorities. Lack of adequate autonomy has constrained service delivery efforts much as on the other hand it has politically boosted local communities.

Central government policies on LG operations and on those of Amuru in particular in terms of financing and regulation closely interface with the local politics on the ground. This interface has directly or indirectly influenced service delivery. Directly the local community has misunderstood their mandate and largely thinks they are the "bosses" of the district technocrats.

The district currently faces no security threat capable of significantly undermining service delivery. In fact since the end of the insurgency, Amuru has consolidated its efforts on development and raising the welfare of its citizens. It is anticipated that much will be achieved if the problem of service delivery can be addressed.

5.3 – Recommendations

From the above set of conclusions, the study proposes a number of recommendations that can be useful at both policy making levels and resource based bodies:

There should be frequent community mass meetings; community mass meetings ensure decentralization of information to the lowest level of the community. It is in these meetings were communities are briefed on important developmental projects and other issues related to the Sub County as a whole. These meetings are, however, more characteristic with the people in the informal areas and these are the people considered to be the poor people of the society. Also strengthening of Rate Payer Associations these are association of people who represent the interests of the people at the Local Government level. The participation of the rate payer associations is however not as much as it should be throughout the country. People in the formal townships are generally not interested in Local government issues, as long as the service they view as important is provided they do not involve themselves in anything else.

As it is well known that finance is the backbone of any organization, local governments should through improving co-ordination amongst central institutions; facilitating policy debate and legal improvements as well as enhancing the capacities to raise local revenues by encouraging them to implement best practices. To facilitate the implementation of these revenue enhancement objectives, the Local Government Finance Committee should be established with the main tasks of coordinating and supporting the development of conducive decisions and policies regarding local revenue and to enhance the capacities of local governments to effectively and efficiently generate and manage sustainable local revenues.

When it comes to motivating employees, there should not only be financial incentive, but also communicating with them. As the Chief Administrative Officer institute a "Monday Morning Cup of Coffee" program with employees. Each week or monthly .choose one staff member with whom you can take 30 minutes to an hour just talking. Often, the conversation should not be work related. When an employee knows he/she is truly valued and that their boss has a genuine interest in them, they become much more likely to perform well. Also take part in team building activities .This method may seem cliché, but it actually works. Staff members who develop close personal relationships with their co-workers are much more likely to stay with a company. Even if your team building activity is nothing more than after-work bowling, your employees are sure to enjoy it.

The government should be serious about community capacity building and engagement and representation if the role of community awareness in service delivery is to be realized .Also it should encouraged and championed supported for local authorities. This can be difficult and time consuming and will require commitment and support from all local partners. Such support may vary from direct financial support (grants or contracts) to providing resources such as training, providing free meeting spaces or the provision of advice and operational support.

There should be a well build institution where the rule of law is promoted .Peace and security is a priority if service provision is to be achieved .In the agenda of the Government, there should be indicators that it is committed in its institution-building efforts to be guided by the principles of good governance, the respect of human rights and a service approach that are believed to be key ingredients of promoting peace and democracy. The Police and Prisons should constitute a robust backbone for the rule of law and a predictable environment conducive to demobilization, reconstruction and development hence effective service delivery.

To rapidly increase the capacity of the Police and Prisons to deliver professional services, government of Uganda should embark on Organizational measures such as leadership conferences to prepare them for directorate structure reforms, discuss the relationship between the Ministry and states, and assess government priorities. Training measures, with other training programmes supported by outside countries and other agencies should be emphasized, financial measures such as the transformation of voluntary services into regular professional institutions with a proper budget and regularly paid salaries to be adduced also.

5.4 – Areas of Further Research

In line with the research study and based on the gaps identified, it is suggested the following areas could addressed in future research investigations: Leadership role and service delivery in a decentralized system of local government in Uganda. Literature has mentioned a number of times emphasizing the contribution of the leadership factor. This means that much as it has received little focus in this particular study, there is likelihood that it could be one of the factors underlying variations in LG service delivery mechanism. Studies have also shown how technical support affects service delivery in a decentralized system. Technical support could be provided from internal setting of the LG but what the literature seems to suggest is the type emanating from the environment. This research could not address technical support contributions to the attainment of required service delivery standards in Uganda's local governments particularly that of Amuru. Future research could also pay some attention on this factor.

REFERENCES

Adeyemo, D.O. (1996). Federalism and the Logic of Local Government Autonomy in Nigeria Nigerian Journal of Local Government Studies, 16. December 1996 O.A.U. Ile life. Lagos, Nigeria.

Africa Region Human Development Working paper 2008 series Decentralized delivery of Primary Health Services in Nigeria Survey Evidence from the states of Lagos and Kogi.

Agaba, P. (2008). Budget Process and Finance Investment in Uganda Towards increased Financing for the implementation of United Nations convention to combat Desertification.

Akin, J. P. Hutchinson, and K. Strump, (2005), Decentralization and government provision of public goods: The public health sector in Uganda. Journal of Development Studies 41 (8): 1417–1443.

Asiimwe, J. 1989. The resistance councils and committees (RCs) in Uganda: An appraisal of a policy of democratic decentralization: Problems and prospects. M.A. thesis, Makerere Institute of Social Research (MISR), Kampala, Uganda.

Audit Commission (1999), Planning to Succeed: Service and Financial Planning in Local Government in the United Kingdom. Audit Commission Birmingham: PSMRC, Aston Business School of London Local Government Board, United Kingdom.

Baines, T., Lightfoot, H., Evans, S., Neely, A.; Greenbush, R., Peppard, J., Roy, R. et al. (2007), State-of-the-art in product-service systems. Journal of Engineering Manufacture. 221 (1543-1552).

Baird, S., Friedman J. & Schady, N. (2007).Aggregate Income Shocks and Infant Mortality in the Developing World. Journal Publication of the London College of Commerce, UK.

Banana, A. N. Vogt, J. Bahati, and W. Gombya-Ssembajjwe. (2007). Decentralized governance and ecological health: Why local institutions fail to moderate deforestation in Mpigi district of Uganda. Scientific Research and Essay 2 (10): 434–445.

Biacchi, G. (2001). Participation, Activism and Politics: the Porto Alegre Experiment and Deliberative Democratic Theory. Politics and Society, Vol. 29, No. 1, pp. 43-72.

Birungi, Harriet and Kwagala, Betty and Muwanga, Nansozi and Onweng, Tobias and Jarl.

Bovaird, Tony, Davis, Paul and Green, Julie (1996) More for Less: Managing Within Limited Resources. London Government Management Board, United Kingdom.

Butera, (2009) 'Strategy paper for the promotion of sanitation and hygiene in Primary Education in Uganda. Kampala, Uganda.

Byekwaso, (2010). Water engineering and sanitation coverage in Kampala City, Uganda. A paper presentation at the Bi-Annual Conference on Urban water engineering, Hotel Africana, Kampala.

Carothers, T. 2005. 'What really lies behind challenges of deepening democracy and establishing the rule of law?, paper at New Challenges in State Building, Centre for the Future State Conference, London, 21 June, United Kingdom.

Chaudhuri, S. and P. Heller (2002). 'the Plasticity of Participation: Evidence from a Participatory Governance Experiment in Africa.

Cochrane .S. (1988).The effects of education, health, and social security on fertility in developing countries. World Bank. New York, US.

Coelli, T., Rao, D. S., O'Donnell, C.& Battese, G. (2005). An Introduction to Efficiency and Productivity Analysis. Longman. London. UK.

Das Gupta (1987).Selective discrimination against female children in rural Punjab. Population and Development Review. 13. 77-100. New Delhi India.

Davey. K.J. 1991.Local Autonomy and Independent Revenue. Journal of Public Administration. 49:45.

Directorate of Water Development. Version 1 September 2002 56 Pages. Strategy Paper for the Promotion of Sanitation and Hygiene in Primary Education Sub-sector. Kampala. Uganda.

Doellgast V. (2006) Negotiating Flexibility. the politics of call centre Restricting in the USA and Germany.

Draft National Policy Framework for Public Participation. 2005. Public Participation and Empowerment .Chief Directorate Department of Provincial and Local Government UK. London.

Fajonyomi S. Banji 1997. Governing the Grassroots An Analysis of Decision Making in Nigerian Local Government. Ibadan: Olu-Akin Publishers Lagos. Nigeria.

Fang M. (1997) a study of work motivation: The influence of Organizational Variables and individual Characteristics on work motivation and outcomes. Vim Publishers. Nairobi. Kenya.

Fiszbein. A. (1997). the Emergence of Local Capacity: Lessons from Colombia. World Development. Vol. 25. No. 7. pp.1029-43.Bogota. Colombia.

Flegg (1982). Inequality of income. illiteracy and medical care as determinants of infant mortality in underdeveloped Countries. Population Studies. 36. 441-458.London UK.

Gronroos, C. & Ojasalo, K. (2004). Service productivity – Towards a conceptualization of the transformation of inputs into economic results in services. Journal of Business Research, 57 (414-423).M.E.

Improved Sanitation and Hygiene (ISH) financing strategy development Report 2004, Kampala, Uganda.

Jeffrey R. Henning Privatization in the United States. Theory and Practice", Political Science Quarterly 104, no 4(1989-1990) 649-670.New York, US

Joint Monitoring Programme for water supply and sanitation of United Nations, 2011 Report.

Kiiza, J., Mubazi, J. & Ninsiima, A., (2006). Development Ideology, Research and Policymaking in Uganda, a Research Report Written for Global Development Network &Economics Education

King. E.M. & Hill M.A.(1991). Women's Education in Developing Countries: Barriers. Benefits and Policy. Johns Hopkins University Press.

Kiiza, J., (2007). Developmental Nationalism and Economic Performance in Africa: A Comparative Analysis of Mauritius, Botswana and Uganda. In Chang, HJ. (ed), Institutional Change and Economic Development. London/Tokyo: United Nations Lambert. J. et al (1990).Women and Nutrition — Nutrition policy discussion paper No. 6 United Nation.

Levy D. (2003), Life meaning from Paradigmatic perspective, its impacts on job satisfaction and introduction to self realization theory. University Press and Anthem Press, pp. 281-300.

Lindelöw. M. Reinikka. R. & Svensson. J.. (2003) "Health Care on the Frontlines: Survey Evidence on Public and Private Providers in Uganda". Africa Region Human Development Working Paper Series. Washington D.C.: The World Bank.

Macinko. J.. Guanais. F. &Desouza. F. (2006). Evaluation of the impact of family health Programme on Infant mortality in Brazil (1990-2002).

Marek. A. (2003). "The Missing Link: Public Policy for the Private Sector in Central and East European Higher Education". Society for Research into Higher Education

Ministry of Water and Environment (Uganda) (September 2006). Water and Sanitation Sector Performance Report 2006. Retrieved 2008-05-13.. p. 23

Monica Das Gupta. Varun Gauri and Situti Kamani Sept 24 2003 Development Research Group the World Bank.

Mwanda. R. and Lerner. A. (2000). Bureaucracy or Organizational Redundancy and privatization of Public services. Public Administration Review 55 no 2(1995-2000).

Nickson. R. A. (1995). Local Government in Latin America. Boulder. CO: Lynne Rienner."Local government autonomy".

Nyirinkindi.L. (2007) Human Rights and Peace Centre. 2007 HURIPEC. Working Paper No 13 July 2007.Kampala. Uganda.

Okidi.J.A. S Sewangana L.Baleka and F Muhumuza (2004). Operationalising Pro-poor Growth, A case Study of Uganda http//www/gov/pubs/oppguganda.pdf

Onyach-Olaa,Martin (2003) "The Challenges of implementing Decentralisation' Recent experiences in Uganda" Publication Administration and Development Vol 3 PP105-113

Sharpe. Varian. H. (1999): Intermediate Microeconomics. Norton. Wessel. W. (2006): Economics. Barron's Educational Series.

The National Sanitation Guidelines (2007). Uganda chapter.

Somarriba. Mercês and Novais da Mata Machado. Edite and Concalves Menicucc Telma Maria (1999). Universalising health care access through popular participation in Brazil.

Governance School of Minas Gerais. Belo Horizonte. Brazil. UNDP.

The Rural Water and Sanitation Operation Plan. 2002-2007.

World Bank Policy Research. Working Paper of January 2006. New York. US.

World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 2008 pg 43-46. New York. US.

World Bank (1999) The World Development Report 1999/2000. World Bank. Washington. DC Research Consortium.

APPENDIX I

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN UGANDA: THE CASE OF AMURU DISTRICT

AMURU DISTRICT EMPLOYEES/ELECTED LEADERS QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Sir/Madam,

With the support of Gulu University, am carrying out a research investigation on the above indicated topic. The idea is to establish the relationship between Community participation and service delivery in Local Governments in Uganda. This is important for the District Planning Policy as well as for public interest.

As a person of exclusive competence and experience in this field, you have been identified to contribute ideas to the study by way of responding to the questions contained in this instrument. All information furnished will be kept very confidential.

Oola Donato Olam,

Phone: +256 0772-309-608.

RESPONSE GUIDE

Tick the box containing your appropriate answer.

Section A: Demographic Information (Bio data)

Qn.1 What is your sex?

Male ☐ 1 Female ☐ 2

Qn.2 What is your age bracket?

(20 – 30) yrs ☐ 1 (31 – 40) yrs ☐ 2 (41 – 50) yrs ☐ 3 (51 and above) ☐ 4

Qn.3 What is your highest educational standard?

Primary ☐ 1 Secondary ☐ 2 Diploma ☐ 3 Degree ☐ 4 Degree and above ☐ 5

Qn.4 What is your marital status?

Single ☐ 1 Married ☐ 2 Separated ☐ 3 Widowed ☐ 4

Qn.5 What is your rank/position?

Extension worker ☐ 1 C.D.O ☐ 2 Parish Chief ☐ 3 S/A ☐ 4 SCC ☐ 5 HOD ☐ 6 Councillor ☐

Qn.6 For how long have you served in this position?

(Less than 1 yr) ☐ 1 (1 – 5) yrs ☐ 2 (6 – 10) yrs ☐ 3 (11yrs and beyond) ☐ 4

Qn.7 What is the name of your department?

Finance, Planning & Adm. ☐ 1

Community Based Services ☐ 2

Public Health Services ☐ 3

Works & Technical Services ☐ 4

Production & Marketing ☐ 5

Natural Resource Mgt ☐ 6

Council, Committees and Board ☐ 8

SECTION B: Service Delivery

Key: Strongly Disagree (SDA), Disagree (DA), Undecided /I don't know (UIK), Agree (A) and Strongly Agree (SA).

S/No	Item	SDA	DA	UIK	A	SA
1.	The life expectancy in Amuru District has greatly improved in the last three years.					
2.	Household income for the people of Amuru has increased to at least twenty million per annum in the last three years.					
3.	In the last three years the population of Amuru District has always been able to produce enough food for themselves and as such all households enjoy at least three meals per day on average.					
4.	Planned activities in the Development plans in many cases have been achieved as per target and time frame.					
5.	Because of limited agricultural equipments and tools farmers have always found it very difficult to produce enough food for themselves.					

6.	There is a great increase in the literacy rate in the District of Amuru as many parents send their children to schools.					
7.	There has been great improvement in equal opportunities in the education sector as manifested in increased gross enrolment.					
8.	Infant mortality has reduced to a great extent as access to medical services has improved over the last three years in the District.					
9.	There is high rate of HIV/AIDS infection in the District.					
10.	Looking after large number of dependants with limited resources is one major factor affecting savings as the household level.					
11.	In Amuru District all kilometres of community access roads and feeder roads are motorable through out the year					
12.	Safe water coverage has increased to over 50% in the District of Amuru in the last three years.					
13.	Household sanitation coverage has increased to over 50% in the District in the last three years.					
14.	Immunization coverage has decreased to a great extent as the population in Amuru District have left the camps for their original homes.					

SECTION C: Community Participation

S/No	Item	SDA	DA	UIK	A	SA
1.	The Concept of community participation in Amuru district in regard to planning & budgeting, resource mobilization, monitoring and evaluation has been well embraced by the community in Amuru District.					
2.	The District is continuously experiencing an improved participation of both women and men in leadership roles and as a result there is proper needs identification during planning meetings.					
3.	The role of the community in mobilizing available local resources for their own development is effective.					
4.	During planning and budgeting the community are known for giving full attendance in village and parish planning meetings.					
5.	Ownership and control of properties is still largely in the hands of men.					
6.	The community, in spite of their involvement in planning meetings don't seem to get involved during implementation of planned activities.					
7.	The community understands their roles in monitoring and evaluation and have always been involved.					
8.	The practice of incentives/allowances is hindering voluntary participation on the part of the community.					
9.	During needs assessment at the village planning meetings, there is always equal contribution from all participants in discussion.					
10	The Parish Development Committees have always been adequately facilitated to carryout planning at the village and parish planning meeting.					

11	There is however, low involvement of the Parish Development Committees and elected leaders during implementation of planned activities.					
12	Commissioning of completed projects is normally the final stage of completion of projects where all stakeholders should be involved. However, the community have always been involved in a very limited extend during this stage.					

Section D: Others

S/No	Item	SDA	DA	UIK	A	SA
1.	Community participation in the District has not been very effective because of weak laws/regulation governing community participation.					
2.	Poor follow up of the procurement plans: abuse of procurement procedures, principles and responsibilities has contributed to poor service delivery in Amuru District.					
3.	If the District of Amuru is to realize full participation of the community in the development planning, the Authority has to ensure security and safety of the people.					
4.	Shortage of suitable office accommodations and related facilities in both the District and Sub Counties has affected service delivery in the District.					
5.	The multiparty dispensation affects contribution of the community to their own developments.					
6.	Role conflict between the elected and appointed leaders in both the District and the Sub Counties					

	contributes greatly to poor service delivery					
7.	Amuru District service delivery could easily improve if staffing is increased.					
8.	The planning unit in the District has for the last three years been inadequately funded and this has affected follow up of planning at the lower local councils as there is low follow up.					
9.	The roles of the elected leaders in the District and Sub-counties in community mobilization has to be taken more seriously if the District is to realized increased community participation.					
10.	Feedback is seen as an effective tool in enhancing community participation in the district. This however has not been taken at a high level in Amuru District.					
11.	Planning an activity year in-year out without achievement has resulted into a fatigue to the community and this has affected planning.					
12.	Land dispute has to a large extent affected service delivery in the District and this has to be seriously addressed if the District is to realize improvement in service delivery.					

APPENDIX II: BUDGET (Uganda Shillings)

S/No	Items	Unit Cost	Amount
1	Typing	Lump sum	200.000
2	Printing	Lump sum	200.000
3	Photocopying	Lump sum	300.000
4	Data search-Libraries	Lump sum	200.000
5	Communication	Lump sum	250.000
6	Transportation	Lump sum	250.000
	TOTAL		**1, 400, 000**